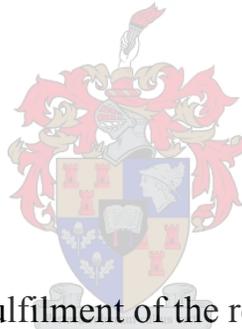


*Community building for economic empowerment in rural Mozambique:  
An exploratory study in the Maganja da Costa District*

by

**Eusébio M. Saíde**



Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of  
Masters of Philosophy (Sustainable Development Planning and  
Management) at the University of Stellenbosch

**Supervisor: Francois Theron**

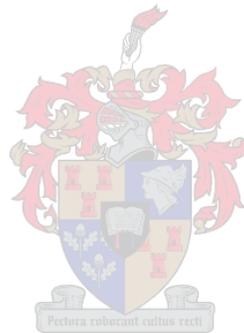
**December 2006**

## DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature.....

Date.....



## **ABSTRACT**

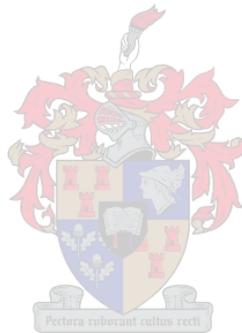
Though the Maganja da Costa District in Mozambique has potential for the development of natural resources, the District is neither economically self-reliant nor empowered and is the poorest within the country. Thus, the research question set for this study is: What are the main factors that inhibit poor people in the study area from effectively using local resources for their livelihoods and what possible alternatives could enable them to achieve economic empowerment? In an attempt to answer the question, the following aspects were investigated: the systems of local resources, product and indigenous knowledge use and management; the local mechanisms of acquiring and sharing information, knowledge and skills; the obstacles to acquiring and sharing information, knowledge and skills; the influence of such obstacles on the management of local resources and livelihood strategies, as well as on the community's organisational, leadership and entrepreneurship capacity.

An exploratory study was conducted in the study area using the qualitative method, involving participatory action research. A comparative literature review and field work was conducted in order to collect the data. Raw data were collected in two phases: While pilot research took place over 5 days, more extensive research took place over 21 days. During the extensive research, in-depth household interviews were conducted, using semi-structured personal interviews, focus group interviews and discussions, direct observations and cross-checking methods employing a sample size of 101 respondents randomly selected and 10 key informants. The Statistical Programme of Social Science (SPSS) was used to process and analyse the raw data.

The results show that the main factors that inhibited poor people in the study area from effectively using local resources and products for their livelihood were: i) a lack of knowledge, skills and talents; ii) the inadequate mechanisms in place for sharing local information, knowledge and skills; iii) the ineffective community organisation and leadership; iv) a lack of entrepreneurship skills and capabilities; v) the inadequate existing infrastructure, transport and trading systems; vi) a low level of partnership and networking; vi) a disruption of socio-cultural cohesion; and vi) inadequate mechanisms for planning, implementation and management of local development strategies, programmes and projects by local government.

Most of the government's development strategies in Mozambique focus on economic growth, which does not necessarily entail the economic empowerment of poor people. The role of traditional leadership has been neglected, which has resulted in the disruption of traditional values and belief systems that might otherwise have positively contributed to socio-cultural cohesion. The role that *community building* could play in assisting poor people in the study area to establish common values, and to develop collective goals and actions, should enable them to acquire and/or share information, knowledge, skills and talents in such a way as to strengthen themselves. Such strengthening of organisational, leadership and entrepreneurship capacities and skills could significantly contribute to attaining economic self-reliance, poverty alleviation and sustainable development, if the *community building approach* were to be adequately applied. Additional research is

required in order to identify appropriate mechanisms for making further advances in applying such an approach in rural Mozambique, especially in the study area.



## ***OPSOMMING***

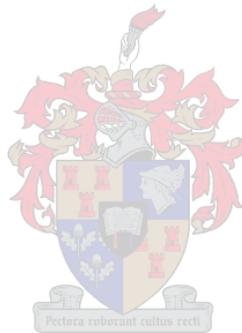
Hoewel die Maganja da Costa-Distrik in Mosambiek die potensiaal bied om natuurlike hulpbronne te benut, is hierdie distrik nóg ekonomies selfstandig, nóg bemagtig, en die armste distrik in die land. Die navorsingsvraag wat in hierdie studie gestel word, is dus: Wat is die grootste faktore wat die arm mense in die studiegebied verhinder om plaaslike hulpbronne doeltreffend vir hulle bestaan te benut en watter moontlike alternatiewe kan hulle in staat stel om ekonomies bemagtig te word? In 'n poging om hierdie vraag te beantwoord, is die volgende aspekte ondersoek: die stelsels waarvolgens plaaslike hulpbronne, produkte en inheemse kennis ingespan en bestuur word; die plaaslike meganismes om inligting, kennis en vaardighede te bekom en te deel; die struikelblokke wat verhinder dat inligting, kennis en vaardighede bekom en gedeel word; die invloed van hierdie struikelblokke op die bestuur van plaaslike hulpbronne en lewensbestaanstrategieë, asook op die gemeenskap se kapasiteit vir organisering, leierskap en entrepreneurskap.

Die kwalitatiewe metode, wat deelnemende aksienavorsing insluit, is gebruik om 'n ondersoekende studie in die studiegebied te doen. 'n Vergelykende literatuuroorsig en veldwerk is gedoen om die data in te samel. Die rou data is in twee fases versamel: die loodsnavorsing het oor vyf (5) dae plaasgevind, en meer omvattende navorsing oor 21 dae. Tydens die omvattende navorsing is indiepte-tuisonderhoude gevoer deur middel van semi-gestruktureerde persoonlike onderhoude, fokusgroep-onderhoude en -besprekings, direkte waarneming en kruiskontrollerende metodes, wat 'n steekproef met 101 lukraak gekose respondente en 10 hoofinformante behels het. Die Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) is gebruik om die rou data te verwerk en te ontleed.

Uit die resultate blyk dat die grootste faktore wat die arm mense in die studiegebied verhinder om plaaslike hulpbronne en produkte doeltreffend vir hulle bestaan te benut, is: i) 'n gebrek aan kennis, vaardighede en talente; ii) ontoereikende meganismes om plaaslike inligting, kennis en vaardighede te deel; iii) ondoeltreffende gemeenskapsorganiserings- en leierskap; iv) 'n gebrek aan entrepreneurskaps-vaardighede en -vermoëns; v) die ontoereikende bestaande infrastruktuur en vervoer- en handelstelsel; vi) swak benutting van vennootskappe en netwerke; vii) die ontwrigting van sosio-kulturele kohesie; en viii) ontoereikende meganismes waardeur die plaaslike regering strategieë, programme en projekte vir plaaslike ontwikkeling kan beplan, implementeer en bestuur.

Die meeste van die Mosambiekse regering se ontwikkelingsstrategieë is op ekonomiese groei gerig, wat nie noodwendig die ekonomiese bemagtiging van arm mense insluit nie. Die rol van tradisionele leierskap is verwaarloos, wat daartoe gelei het dat tradisionele waardes en geloofstelsels, wat andersins positief tot sosio-kulturele kohesie kon bydra, ontwrig is. Die rol wat *gemeenskapsbou* daarin kan speel om die arm mense in die studiegebied te help om gemeenskaplike waardes en doelwitte te bepaal en op aksies te besluit, moet hulle in staat stel om inligting, kennis, vaardighede en talente te bekom en/of te deel ten einde hulself te bemagtig. Sodanige verhoogde kapasiteit vir organisering, leierskap en entrepreneurskap kan aansienlik daartoe bydra om ekonomiese

selfstandigheid te bereik, armoede te verlig en volhoubare ontwikkeling te bewerkstellig – as die *benadering tot gemeenskapsbou toereikend toegepas word*. Bykomende navorsing is nodig om toepaslike meganismes te identifiseer wat die toepassing van so 'n benadering op die platteland van Mosambiek, en veral in die studiegebied, sal bevorder.



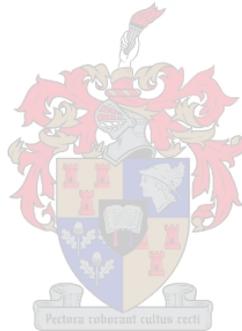
## ***ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS***

I would like to thank:

- The W.K.Kellog Foundation for the scholarship by means of which I could pursue my Master's and for their financial support of my master's research project.
- My supervisor, Francois Theron, for his unlimited support and encouragement. Without him, this thesis would hardly have been possible.
- The ADRA Mocuba – Agencia de Desenvolvimento de Recursos Adventistas, and its senior staff, for their logistical and technical support while conducting the field work.
- Professor Nel, of the Department of Statistical Analysis at Stellenbosch University, for his technical assistance with designing the questionnaires, as well as with analysing and interpreting the findings of the study.
- Jennifer Saunders, who has been very helpful throughout my entire involvement in the MPhil Programme, as well as, most notably, in finalising details regarding the thesis and in concluding technical and administrative arrangements for the graduation ceremony.
- Lucas Maconta and Latifo, both community development assistants of ADRA Mocuba, for guiding my fieldwork.

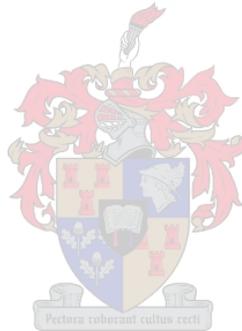
## ***DEDICATION***

This thesis is dedicated to my lovely son, Akil Saíde, who was born while I was writing this thesis; to my mother, Saina, who brought me into this world; and to my wife, Ancha, and my brother, Victor Saíde, for their unlimited support and encouragement.

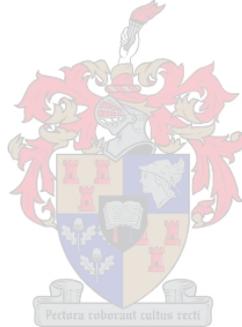


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# CHAPTER I

## Introduction

### 1.1. Introduction

Community building is viewed as an ongoing process, during which members of the community acquire and/or share information, knowledge, skills and experience that strengthen or develop both themselves and their communities (Sheehann, 2003:2). Community building is about building common values that promote collective goals and actions aimed at improving people's livelihoods and economic self-reliance (Briggs, 2003:1). Effective application of a community building approach can enable economic self-empowerment and sustainable development in poor rural areas (Munslow, 2001: 497–506).

Economic self-reliance, empowerment and sustainable development in Africa are mostly dependent on human development (access to information, knowledge and skills) (Burkey, 1993:50–52). Although Africa possesses extensive natural resources, many rural farmers still live below the poverty line (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006:2–9). For example, in Mozambique it is estimated that more than 69% of the rural population live below the poverty line, compared to the country-wide 54% of poor people estimated to live throughout Mozambique as a whole (MPF/UEM, 2002:11). Therefore, projects and new research approaches, such as Participatory Action Research (PAR), are being developed and applied to help poor communities achieve economic self-reliance (Chambers, 1997: 206–209).

Normally rural farmers have their own forms of coping with livelihood problems. Van Vught (1992:142) states that some rural farmers in Mozambique have the ability to organise themselves in such a way that they can ward off crises and progress economically. This kind of ability can be interpreted as a form of entrepreneurial spirit. Despite making such attempts, most rural farmers still remain below the poverty line (MPF/UEM, 2002:17; PNUD, 1998:235). According to Skelton *et al.* (2003:15), “the absence of an entrepreneurial tradition due to the colonialist and socialist past is

frequently cited as an explanation for the impoverishment of rural farmers in Mozambique. The rural uneducated population that represents the vast majority of Mozambicans has little exposure to a model of successful business ownership and thus does not aspire to ownership and, even less, to entrepreneurship.” Such lack of exposure may be due to the lack of available market information and practical or basic skills relating to small-scale enterprise management. In the past, some projects that were primarily developed to help the rural poor to build up their social entrepreneurship capabilities may have neglected to incorporate consideration of local knowledge, organisational structures and systems (Chambers, 1997:167; Freire, 1996:46; Wetmore & Theron, 1998:1–3). Although the relevance of such economic aspects is acknowledged in this study, its primary focus will be on overcoming the debilitating local social conditions that might otherwise bring about the financial ruin of many.

The study intends to explore how community building can foster the entrepreneurship capabilities of poor people in the Maganja da Costa District in such a way as to facilitate the development of sustainable economic self-reliance and empowerment. The concept of *sustainability* will be approached with regard to *community participation* in light of the fact that it can lead to *capacity-building*, and to the strengthening of people’s knowledge, skills and capabilities. Community participation can also lead to engagement in an *active social learning process* and to the *empowerment* of local people, enabling them to use local resources both effectively and equitably so as to improve their standard of living. Doing so should lead to poverty alleviation, greater economic self-reliance and more sustainable development (Swanepoel, 1997:17–18; Theron, 2005b: 121–123).

## **1.2. Motivation for the study**

Studies undertaken by MADER (1999:16) and Saide (2003:43) in the Maganja da Costa District concluded that the local inhabitants largely rely on the produce of long-standing coconut palm trees for their livelihoods, due mainly to the lack of other employment opportunities and lack of alternative sources of income, as well as to the low agricultural yields primarily resulting from poor soil fertility. Therefore, the search for adequate

alternatives by means of which communities can be assisted in securing an adequate livelihood and economic self-reliance is urgent. The current study aims, by way of applying PAR methodology, to assist the communities in the Maganja da Costa District to identify alternative ways of becoming economically empowered. The use of PAR allows for simultaneous open inquiry, discussion, reflection, social learning and action.

### **1.3. Problem statement**

Mozambique has a population of about 19,5 million people of whom 80% live at below the poverty line in the rural areas of the country (INE, 2004:271). The economy is dominated by the agrarian sector, which depends on natural resources. According to the UNDP (2001a:71), though the signs of economic growth in Mozambique are promising, no long-term improvement of the conditions of especially the rural poor has, as yet, been forthcoming. Consequently, more than 60% of the rural population still suffer from lack of employment opportunities and adequate food supplies.

In the Maganja da Costa District, the level of poverty is higher than in other districts in the country, mainly due to two problems: i) the *lack of employment opportunities*, as the only four coconut palm enterprises that previously provided job opportunities to those in the area have since closed down; and ii) *low agricultural yields*. The latter is a result of the low soil fertility in the area, which is largely due to the monoculture coconut palm farming system and the existence of deeper, mostly aged coconut roots that deplete any available soil nutrients (MADER, 1999: 54). The district is also located along the Indian Coast, an area that is generally characterised by salty sand. These three aspects may limit the capacity of the poor to generate an adequate income and to produce enough food from which to make a living. Such a finding agrees with the view propounded by Kotze and Kellerman (1997:36) that the vulnerability of those living in less-developed areas, such as Maganja da Costa District, results from their incapacity to meet their own desires and needs.

Lack of job opportunities and low agricultural yields may force the local inhabitants to depend mainly on coconut palm trees for their livelihood (MADER, 1999:17). Some of the communities also exploit coconut palm trees in an unprofitable way. By harvesting unripe coconuts for sale, they effectively lower their yields and the quality of the produce, as well, as of the possibility of obtaining a premium price that could generate sufficient income for them, as in the past. Exploitation of unripe coconuts would not occur if the local inhabitants had adequate entrepreneurship skills and understood the value of supplying only ripe coconuts to the markets (Skelton *et al.*, 2003:14).

The researcher seeks, by way of this study, to determine what the main factors are that inhibit the poor of the Maganja da Costa District from securing a livelihood by way of using local resources effectively, as well as what possible alternatives could lead to the economic empowerment of the local community.

#### **1.4. Research assumptions**

Based on Brynard and Hanekom (1997:29), the inductive assumptions of the current study are the following: a community building process can establish collective values, goals and actions that will lead to:

- an effective harnessing of local resources, products and knowledge systems;
- the use of efficient farming technologies and techniques by farmers;
- the emerging and strengthening of local leadership and community organisations;
- and
- the reinforcement of people's entrepreneurial capabilities, skills and talents.

## **1.5. Objectives of the study**

### **1.5.1 General objective**

The general objective of the study is to identify ways in which the community building process can enable the poor of the Maganja da Costa District to exploit local resources effectively in order to secure a livelihood and their economic self-empowerment.

### **1.5.2 Specific objectives**

Specific objectives to be explored by the study are the following:

- how people harness local resources, products and indigenous knowledge systems (IKS);
- how people acquire and share farming and marketing information, knowledge and skills;
- what the main obstacles to acquiring and sharing information, knowledge and skills are;
- how the above obstacles affect the management of people's resources and livelihood strategies;
- how the above obstacles influence the efficacy of community organisation and leadership; and
- how people can overcome the above obstacles to improve their livelihood and achieve self-reliance.

## **1.6. Research methodology**

An *exploratory* study, using qualitative methodology, specifically PAR, was undertaken in the Maganja da Costa District. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:80), exploratory studies generally lead to insight and comprehension regarding a situation rather than a mere collection of detailed data. Exploratory studies are relevant in social science research, because the “researcher is breaking new ground, and they can almost

always generate new insights into a topic of research” (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:80). In addition, exploratory studies often involve the use of an open and flexible research design strategy, as well as the use of a literature review, in-depth interviews, observation, questionnaires and informants. Welman and Kruger (2001:7–8) presume that epistemological, exploratory studies are usually based on a phenomenologist and non-positivist approach, since, in such studies, the researcher tries to explore human behaviour from the perspective of those participating, taking into consideration the complexities and multiple dimensions of real-life experience (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:29).

Mouton (2001:314) and Wetmore and Theron (1998:38–47) argue that PAR is the most suitable approach for grassroots social research, especially in the poor rural areas of developing countries, such as in the Maganja da Costa District of Mozambique. PAR, as a methodology, allows for an alternative system of knowledge production (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:61), by means of its adoption of a holistic and context-bound approach. Such a system allows for complex action-knowledge generation (Greenwood & Levin, 1998:50), entailing an ongoing learning process for all participants (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:56–57). PAR allows both the researcher and subjects of the study to participate in a research process that involves simultaneous open inquiry, discussion, social learning, reflection and action.

In the current study, data collection was performed in two phases. The first step constituted a *comparative literature review* aimed at identifying the research topic and problem, as well as developing an appropriate research design and methodology. The second step consisted of *fieldwork*. The fieldwork was conducted in the Maganja da Costa District of Mozambique, and consisted of a dual process of a *pilot field study* (lasting 5 days) and an *extensive field study* (lasting 21 days). The objective of the pilot fieldwork was to test the suitability and validity of the research question, the methodology and the questionnaire. To test the questionnaire, preliminary interviews, using the questionnaire, were conducted with representatives from all focus groups of the research (women, men, young people and traditional leaders). Those who participated in

the preliminary stage were not interviewed later during the extensive fieldwork (Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:40). When undertaking research, most new researchers are disillusioned when they discover that theoretical principles are only encountered in an idealised research environment, in the absence of preliminary research (Welman & Kruger, 2001:141). Therefore, a pilot study is meant to assist a researcher in detecting possible ambiguous instructions and inadequate time limits, as well as in reflecting upon the validity of a research problem, and the related objectives, hypotheses and research methodology.

After initial development in English, the questionnaires were translated into Portuguese. Though the interviews were conducted in the local languages (Moniga, Lomué or Nharinga) Portuguese was used where appropriate. The following methods were applied during the extensive fieldwork process:

- i) *In-depth household interviews using a questionnaire* as well as semi-structured personal interviews, was conducted with respondents from randomly selected homesteads. These respondents were not asked to state their names, in order that their anonymity could encourage their open participation in the study. This was done in order to overcome the tendency of the rural inhabitants of Mozambique to be very suspicious of strangers.



- ii) *Focus group interviews and discussions* with youth, women and men and elders were conducted, during which the names of participants were not asked.



- iii) *Direct observation* of household socio-economic activities took place.



- iv) *The triangulation and/or cross-checking* method was also applied to studies of the key informants of the area in order to check the validity and reliability of the information collected (Brouwer, 1997:13). The key informants, including traditional and religious leaders, teachers, local government officers, NGO officers and trade agents, were asked to provide their names.



To allow for the statistical significance of statements, a representative sample of 5% of the household population in each village involved in the study was interviewed (Brouwer, 1997:12; Brynard & Hanekom, 1997:45–47). On the last day of fieldwork a general meeting was held with the communities in the area, providing an opportunity for the discussion of the preliminary findings, after which relevant conclusions and recommendations were formulated.

### **1.7 Data analysis and interpretation**

After the fieldwork, the Statistical Programme of Social Science (SPSS) was used to process and analyse the raw data. Data analysis is descriptive of the systems used in the harnessing of local products or resources, including access to marketing and agricultural information and technologies. The impact of such systems on the sustainability of local resource harnessing and livelihood management practices is explored. The effects of local mechanisms of access to information, knowledge and skills about community organisation, visioning and capacity building are analysed. Finally, the impact of these mechanisms on building peoples' organisational, leadership and entrepreneurial skills towards sustainable livelihoods and economic self-reliance is also discussed. The findings are then evaluated in terms of the theories developed during the literature review in order to identify significant correlations or indicators. Conclusions and recommendations from the study are then drawn.

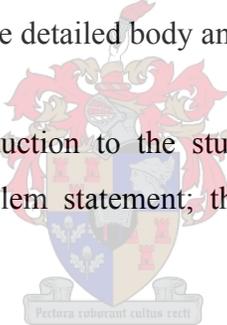
To analyse the raw data the *grounded theory analysis method* with *constructivist perspective* was used. Grounded theory involves qualitative content analysis, in its simplest, most realistic and most objective form. The methods consist of flexible strategies of data collection and analysis, which provide a set of inductive steps leading to the conversion of “concrete realities” to “conceptual understandings of them” (Henning, 2004:114–115). Grounded theory also helps researchers to generate theories from empirical evidence and their own background and existing knowledge. Grounded theory is more suitable to exploratory researches that use PAR, as in the case of the current thesis.

To analyse the raw data and write the report, the researcher consulted with the academic staff, most particularly Professor Nel, of the Institute for Statistical Analysis at Stellenbosch University, who assisted him with the design of the questionnaire, in accordance with the data analysis and interpretation undertaken. Such a process helped achieve reliable, consistent and valid results. The researcher also consulted the Writing Laboratory of Stellenbosch University, where he was given guidance in the principles of English academic writing, starting with his preparation of the research project, continuing with his report writing and ending with his compilation of the final thesis.

### **1.8. Structure of the thesis**

This study consists of six chapters. Each chapter contains a brief introduction, an outline of the purpose of the chapter, a more detailed body and a conclusion:

Chapter 1 provides a brief introduction to the study, including a description of the motivation of the study; the problem statement; the objectives of the study and the research methodology.



Chapter 2 outlines the theoretical background needed to analyse the raw data derived from fieldwork (as presented in Chapter 5).

Chapter 3 traces the background to the study area, providing a full description of the location, climate, soils, population and socio-economic activities performed in the area.

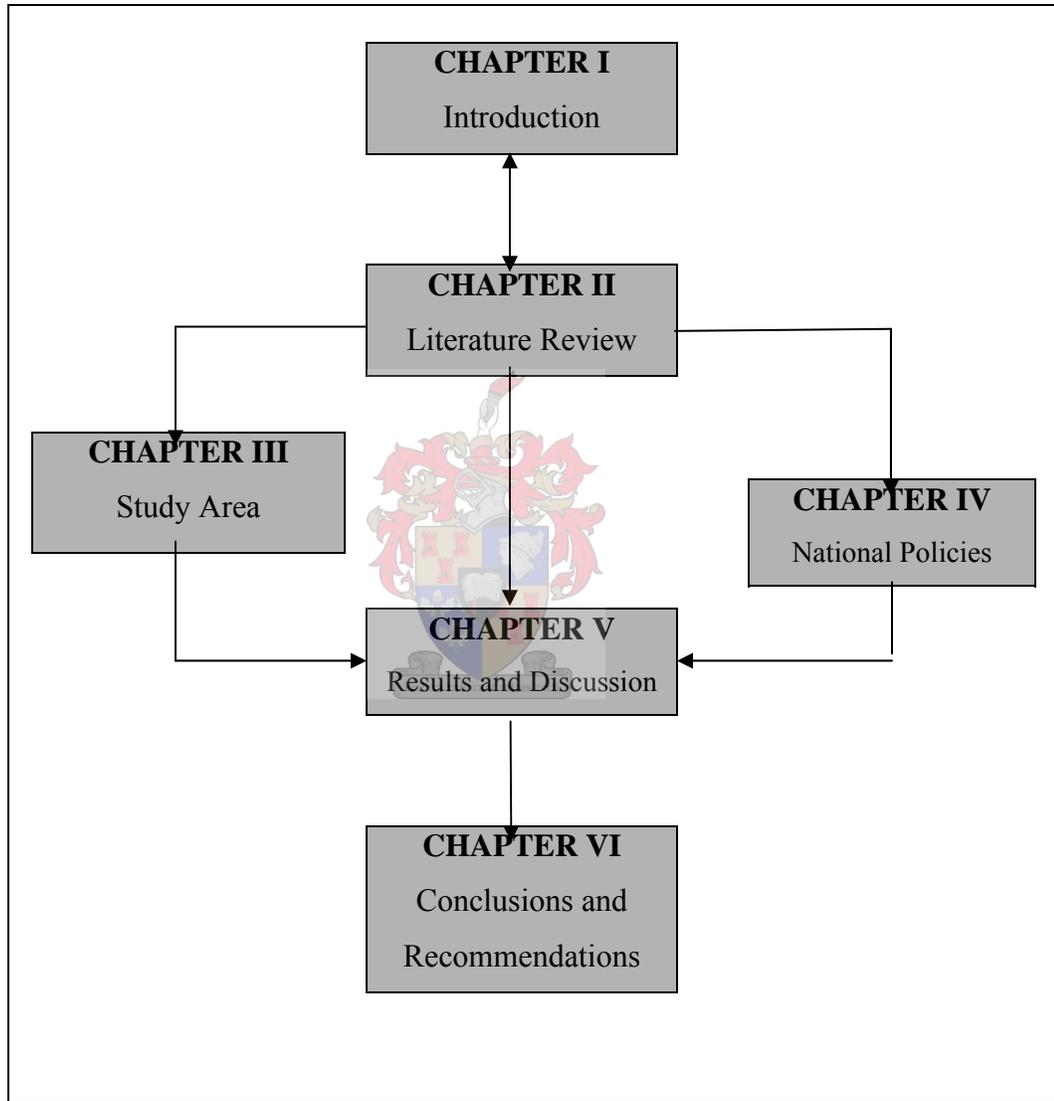
Chapter 4 reviews and examines the national policies and frameworks relating to poverty reduction strategies and local economic development.

Chapter 5 presents and discusses the fieldwork findings, based on a case study of the Maganja da Costa District.

Chapter 6 contains the conclusion and recommendations of the study.

The following figure summarises and illustrates the chapter sequence.

**Figure 1.1 Outline of chapters**

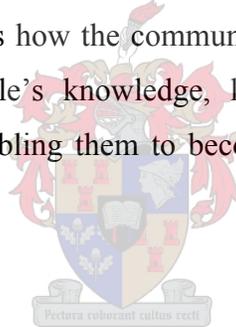


## **CHAPTER II**

### **Literature review**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Chapter II stresses the community economic empowerment concept, focusing on the application of the community building approach in building rural people's collective values and goals regarding poverty alleviation, economic empowerment and development. The chapter explores the theoretical dimensions and characteristics of community building (information and knowledge sharing, collective values/goals, leadership, the vision and plan, organisation, networking and entrepreneurship) and economic empowerment concepts (equity, capacity-building, participation and self-reliance), including the relationship of such concepts to various aspects of development. Furthermore, the chapter examines how the community building process can be used to build and strengthen local people's knowledge, leadership, and organisational and entrepreneurial skills, thereby enabling them to become more economically self-reliant and empowered.



#### **2.2 Objectives of the chapter**

The purpose of Chapter II is, firstly, to explore the origin, evolution and development of the following two concepts: community building and economic empowerment. Secondly, the chapter aims to examine the current debates on community building, including those relating to its dimensions and processes. Thirdly, Chapter II sets out to identify strategies that can be applied in terms of the community building approach, and to evaluate the relationship between community building, economic empowerment and development. Finally, the chapter assesses the effectiveness of the community building approach in strengthening community organisational, leadership and entrepreneurial skills, as well as in promoting the economic self-reliance of the community. The chapter is divided into two subsections: While the first subsection (2.3) deals with community building, the second covers economic empowerment (2.4).

### 2.3 Community building

The term 'community building' emerged during the early 1990s in the USA and has been applied to the strengthening and development of low-income rural communities by way of increasing their access to information and technology facilities. Although different interpretations of the concept exist, possibly because the concept is quite new (especially to Africa), few debates on the subject have, so far, been conducted. Another factor that may constrain the understanding and implementation of the concept is that community building is often associated with the organising, leadership, entrepreneurship and development that takes place within the community. Some associate the concept with the provision of community information technology, networking, training and technical assistance (TAACAL, 2000:3). Such varying associations problematise any understanding and implementation of the concept, despite their also aiding in the identification of its main dimensions and characteristics.

Sheehann (2003:1) states that *community building* is an ongoing process, in which members of a community acquire and/or share knowledge, skills, talents and experiences that help to strengthen or develop themselves and the community, for purpose of securing both their *livelihood* and their *economic self-reliance*. According to Swanepoel (1997:17), community building can empower the communities concerned to realise their own self-reliance and dignity, and enable them to organise themselves more effectively and to develop their own leadership capabilities. Swanepoel also believes that community building can strengthen a community's organisational ability to develop on institutional, networking, leadership, and entrepreneurship levels, which may contribute to improving the living conditions of local inhabitants. Generally, the different types of strategies and actions associated with community building include community organising, leadership, entrepreneurship and community development (NCBN, 2003:3).

Conceivably, community building can also: (a) strengthen social connections; and (b) build common values. In this way, community building might effectively promote collective goals and actions towards desired outcomes, resulting in better-preserved

cultural values, the equitable use of natural resources, employment creation and improved access to clean water, clinics, schools and markets (Briggs, 2003:2). Therefore, community building is a more effective and inclusive approach for *grassroots capacity-building*. Due to its greater effectiveness and inclusivity, it can be used as a vehicle to encourage community members to participate actively in decision-making processes, especially in issues that directly concern them. In this way, they can come to use their local resources more effectively, equitably and sustainably, leading, in turn, to their own sustainable development.

Given the central importance of the connection between community building, empowerment and development, defining the concept of community building apart from other aspects of development, such as *organisation, leadership and self-reliance*, is a daunting task. Generally, community building is associated with the following dimensions of development: organisation; networks, partnership or linkages; leadership; entrepreneurship; information and knowledge; livelihood and self-reliance. These elements are the most frequently mentioned aspects in most descriptions of the concept of community building (Briggs, 2003:2; NCBN, 2003:3; Sheehann, 2003:3; Swanepoel, 1997:17)



The following sections of Chapter II will explore how the community building concept is linked to the above mentioned dimensions of development. Such an exploration could help to promote a comprehensive understanding of the concept ‘community building’.

### **2.3.1 Community organisation and leadership**

*Community organisation* is a process whereby local people are united in intent and concern in regards to renewing their own community, planning and acting together from an organisational base that they control. They are usually aided by a community organiser, a so-called change agent (Burkey, 1993:76–77,173; Theron, 2005b:107), who tends either to be a local leader, whether a professional or a volunteer, who is empowered with skills and experience that enable the agent to help the community to plan ahead and

to move forwards towards achieving their own agreed goals (Murphy & Cunningham, 2003:79). According to Gittel (1998:2), community organising “is people working together to get things done or to improve their neighbourhoods and villages”. Community organising can focus on a wide variety of issues, including: housing; environment; public safety; public health and health care; child care; job creation; poverty; and discrimination. However, there are constraints to community organising, such as: lack of patience; lack of an adequate infrastructure to facilitate community organising activities; misuse and misunderstanding of the concept; as well as the possibility that local leadership is relatively ineffective.

The notion of 'community leadership' has gained in importance with the evolution of the development approach. Despite the attention so far devoted to community leadership, no consensus has yet been achieved on either the meaning of the term or on an appropriate approach to its study. In the present context, “community leadership refers to the process in which a relatively small number of individuals in the community behave and act in such a way that they effect a *significant change* in the lives of a relatively large number”. Leadership has two components: it refers both to a process in which (1) a decision is made regarding a possible significant change in the lives of a large number of the community members; and to a process in which (2) the aforementioned decision is made by a small group of the members of the community (Freeman, 1968:2).

The significance of a decentralised decision-making process is sometimes neglected in these days of constant international crisis (Kotze, 1997:25–34). However, the problems of the local community often entail the allocation of essential resources and facilities. Decisions concerning these problems may affect the comfort, and even the survival, of large segments of the population. A significant change, therefore, is one that affects the allocation of community resources and facilities. Day-to-day problems are accommodated in regularised administrative action. Significant decisions in a community may be made in either of two ways: (1) a ‘market’ decision can be made, in which all participants decide on a course of action without organising and planning action collectively, in which case the decision is the outcome of independent votes; or (2) an

‘administered’ decision can be made by individuals who represent the group in some form of organisation. The latter type of decision involves leadership in the context of the process of making administered decisions that have consequences for the allocation of community resources and facilities (Freeman, 1968:3).

All socio-cultural systems contain leaders, who are persons or groups of persons who mobilise human, material, and symbolic resources of society toward a specific social end. The mobilisation of resources in any social system depends upon the ability of leaders to direct the behaviour of others. Exactly how this direction is followed varies from society to society. One common way in which leaders may understand these differences turns on the distinction between the use of coercion and the use of persuasion in implementing leadership goals, of which the former is termed *power*, while the latter is termed *influence*. In many societies, leadership uses a combination of power and influence (Kellerman, 1983: 42).

### **2.3.2 Information, knowledge and skills (IKS) sharing**

One of the most constraining factors for rural poor people is access to and/or share in information and knowledge through communication (Patel, 1998:215). According to Burton (2001:435–436), communication is a process of conveying and understanding information, whereas knowledge is the process of knowing in terms of individual cognisance. Both “knowledge and information are therefore the products of human activity, and as such cannot be separated from human interest”. Freire (1973:19) expresses a similar view when he states that knowledge is built up in relations between individuals and the world, in which the poor are immersed. Such construction of knowledge involves its production through interaction and dialogue, which leads to critical reflection and action (Freire & Shor, 1987:7–8). Critical reflection and liberating dialogue, which presupposes action, must be carried out with the participation of the poor, no matter at which stage of their struggle for liberation or well-being they currently are (Freire, 1996:47–48). Critical and open inquiry, reflection and participative action are important aspects, because such activity may lead to processes of building up knowledge

and skills during the interaction and dialogue conducted with communities. Such aspects may also determine the validity and reliability of the research conducted, as well as its practical application.

Generally, there are two types of knowledge in human history, scientific or 'formal' knowledge, which is usually recorded in writing outside the local community and/or by scholars, and 'non-formal' knowledge, which tends to form part of the indigenous knowledge system, and which is normally not documented. For the purpose of this study more emphasis will be placed on the indigenous knowledge possessed by the local inhabitants (Treunicht, 1997a:93). According to Chambers (1989:83), stating that knowledge is *indigenous* implies that the knowledge under discussion originates and is naturally produced in the area in question. In addition, Chambers argues that the concept 'indigenous knowledge' is misleading, proposing the alternative 'rural people's knowledge and products' as the most inclusive term. The term 'rural', in Chamber's view, includes, small, medium and large-scale farmers, who are thoroughly acquainted with intricacies of the market, with the purchasing of inputs and with the selling of cash crops, such as cashews and coconuts. The 'people' aspect means that most of the knowledge is based within the people themselves and only rarely documented. 'Knowledge' refers to the whole system of knowledge, such as concepts, beliefs and perceptions, the source of knowledge, and the processes by means of which it is acquired, augmented, stored, and transmitted or shared (Chambers, 1989:83). Even though the knowledge possessed by those living in rural areas may either be augmented or destroyed by external knowledge from outside the area, it is simultaneously vulnerable and adaptable, as elements of such knowledge are often lost through the death of those possessing such knowledge, while other elements undergo a process of continuous renewal and correction through inter-generational transmission.

The knowledge of those living in rural areas, especially that which forms part of the IKS, has many different aspects, such as those that fall within the fields of linguistics, medicine, agriculture and animal husbandry (Chambers, 1989:89). The strength of such knowledge is rooted in the ability to observe acutely, to have a good memory for detail,

and to transmit knowledge through teaching, apprenticeship, and story-telling. The relative strength of rural people's knowledge lies in what directly touches their realities, lives or livelihoods. In addition, Chambers (1997:131) argues that indigenous knowledge is the largest resource not yet adequately mobilised in the development process, especially in agricultural, entrepreneurship, marketing and management areas. Such aspects are important to this study, especially in light of its aim, *inter alia*, to explore the role of IKS in local resource exploitation, in marketing and in the management of livelihoods and development.

### **2.3.3 Networking, partnership and linkages for development**

*Networking* can be regarded as the process of developing, nurturing and, at times, exploiting networks that have been identified for individuals or group of people (Pettit & Thompstone, 1990:38). Successful entrepreneurs often adopt an active stance on networking, creating an extensive network and, as a result, becoming better informed, more aware of environmental changes and more generally able to maximise the benefits to be gained from the use of available ties in response to specific problems and situations that arise. Development agencies can play an important role in developing rural entrepreneurs' networks in order to compensate for the effects of the relative isolation of such entrepreneurs. The agencies can facilitate linkages between rural people and external investors or the private sector, development expertise and central governments, serving to "minimize the distance to authorities" (Gibb, 1996:47), which may enable people to mobilise the required resources to meet their own needs and desires.

According to Pettit and Thompstone (1990:40), the ability of rural people to network effectively is an important factor in developing entrepreneurial capabilities and in sustaining entrepreneurial activities. These authors believe that, by creating a network of linkages and social relations within local, regional or national communities, the local people or entrepreneurs may be better positioned to identify new opportunities, to access market information and to assemble the necessary resources that will enable them to grasp those opportunities that are available for generating employment and income.

Therefore, in some circumstances, rural networking may lead to direct support in terms of raising funds, inter-trading, co-operative efforts, and leadership and entrepreneurship development.

### **2.3.4 Community entrepreneurial development**

In developing countries, the development of rural entrepreneurship is seen as the most important aspect of development. As a result, governments in developing countries are beginning to recognise the central role played by rural entrepreneurship development, in terms of its perceived potential for employment and wealth creation (Altuve & Hartnell 2003:1). The principal policy focus of many governments over recent years has been the promotion of a spirit of rural entrepreneurship. Such promotion has been aided by the fact that structural changes in rural economies have favoured the development of entrepreneurs through self-employment activities.

Various interpretations of the concepts of ‘entrepreneurship’ and ‘entrepreneur’ exist. Some authors argue that an entrepreneur is someone who, when given a set of *opportunities*, can carry through an endeavour, irrespective of surrounding constraints and risks, and maximising any advantages that can be gained for personal benefit (Welsch, 2004:3). Others believe that a rural entrepreneur is someone who is prepared to take risks for self-betterment, but who is also willing to share with the community by remaining in the area in order to create local wealth (Vyakarnam, 1990:ix). Some researchers add that entrepreneurs are people with a high need for achievement, strong self-confidence, and independent problem-solving skills (Corbetta, Huse & Ravasi, 2004:3). Bolton and Thompson (2004:16) describe an entrepreneur as a person or group of people who habitually create and innovate to build something of recognised value around perceived opportunities, despite certain risks. Lowe and Marriott (2006:9) provided the concise definition: “*entrepreneurship is the spirit of your own initiative to develop something based on an idea or concept to make money or perform social services and involving a certain amount of risk*”. They argue that “*there are essential personal qualities required to initiate and establish an initiative*”. The varying definitions of an

‘entrepreneur’ all share common characteristics, such as risk taking, innovation, creativity, motivation, vision, perseverance and determinism, networking, massive action and unconventional thinking. In this study more attention will be paid to the strategies required to promote rural entrepreneurship and the role of rural entrepreneurs in creating opportunities for rural employment, welfare and local economic development.

According to Seidl (2003:333-350), entrepreneurship is a precondition for economic development. Economic development is based on exceptional changes emanating from novel combinations of factors present in an economy. Innovational combinations are created by entrepreneurs, who are people who either do something different or who do something differently to the norm, often under adverse conditions. Temane (2005:9) believes that entrepreneurship is critical for poverty alleviation in developing countries, because “*the multiplying effect is so huge*”, holding that Africans should return to their roots when looking for solutions to current developmental challenges.

As most rural populations continue to be employed in, and consequently are reliant on, subsistence agriculture, it is imperative that policy makers and planners alike recognise the needs of local people and diversify the economic base, encouraging both growth and balanced development by introducing policies to promote and support local entrepreneurs (Vyakarnam, 1990:4). In isolated rural communities, entrepreneurs can play a valuable role by creating new economic opportunities and generating new employment by providing goods and services, which larger operations cannot profitably provide. Such activities can draw on local knowledge, skills and experience by tapping local resources and labour, which serves to reduce the negative impact of the inefficiencies and structural inflexibility that generally characterise the performance of larger operations in such isolated markets (Bolton & Thompson, 2004:314). In order to improve the quality of life of the rural poor, it is vital that they empower themselves to use locally available resources efficiently in order to meet their own needs and achieve socio-economic self-reliance.

Culture and local knowledge systems may play an important role in supporting rural entrepreneurship development and underpin a role model of success in society via individual or collective entrepreneurial endeavours. Those who run micro, small or medium businesses mostly do so in such a way as to secure their livelihood and have a culture (consisting of values, attitudes, beliefs and norms) typically shaped by a particular set of characteristics that appear to be common and important for maintenance of that particular way of life (Altuve & Hartnell, 2003:11; Gibb, 1996:4). The process of economic development, whether it is local or national, is dependent on existing human, natural and physical capital, trade and policies. An effective entrepreneurship support approach includes *empathy* with the cultural context of the entrepreneur as a person; *understanding of the necessary know how* rather than of the know what; *real understanding of the importance of know who*; and *being aware, in precise detail, of the entrepreneurship development process* (Rodriguez, 2002:49–50).

Entrepreneurship alone is not the solution to rural poverty, as rural areas lack many aspects of development, including an adequate infrastructure, sufficient motivation, an adequate rate of literacy, credit facilities, supportive cultural factors, up-to-date information and knowledge and institutional support, which are all elements important for the development of entrepreneurship (Kekana, 2002:15). Those living in rural areas lack four major aspects, namely institutional support, ready access to markets, and technical and entrepreneurship viability. Presumably, the role of such development practitioners as the government, the private sector and NGOs is to assist rural inhabitants with resolving their most immediate difficulties by means of identifying entrepreneurs and helping the local people to develop their entrepreneurial capabilities. However, for many different reasons such support is scarce throughout rural Mozambique. Consequently, some communities living in rural areas have already learnt to defend themselves against isolation and to generate some degree of self-sufficiency (Vyakarnam, 1990:3).

The question may be asked how the community building approach can enable the farmers in the Maganja da Costa District to develop a competitive advantage aimed at achieving

economic self-reliance. In order for rural people to achieve economic self-reliance, they may have to gain a competitive advantage by adopting an entrepreneurial perspective and market-driven production processes. They have to base their strategy on a competitive advantage, based on knowledge of innovation, creation and adaptation, which will enable them to offer value-added products and services. Such knowledge is key to achieving competitive advantage (Porter, 1980:276), as farmers need to differentiate their products and services from those already available to both domestic and international markets. They also have to develop a holistic strategy through establishing effective community leadership; collective values, goals and actions; networking or partnerships; capacity-building and a sense of cultural identity, which should allow them to produce and commercialise well-designed and packaged products and services (Rodriguez, 2002: 49–50). The community building approach can play a role in this process, as such an approach is generally associated with the above aspects, helping local communities to build and strengthen their organisational, institutional, leadership and entrepreneurial capabilities in order to improve their livelihoods and achieve self-reliance.

### **2.3.5 Livelihood and economic self-reliance**

According to Burkey (1993:51), development should be self-reliant, implying that each community should come to increasingly rely on its own strength and resources. Many believe that development means building roads, clinics and promoting cash crops, rather than supporting skills development as a form of empowerment aimed at securing sustainable livelihood and self-reliance. Development initiatives should focus on helping the poor to achieve their capabilities and capacity to rely on and believe in themselves, instead of encouraging reliance on others for improvement of their conditions (Adams, 2002:16).

*Self-reliance*, which is only one dimension of development (see subsection 2.3), is not only an aspect of empowerment in general, but also of community building and economic empowerment. Economically, self-reliance is the ability of a community to produce some or all of its basic needs as well as to produce surpluses for trading for those commodities

and services that the community itself does not produce (Burkey, 1993: 31–51). Roseland (1998:161) provides an alternative explanation of self-reliance, stating that such a concept entails diversifying local economies to support local needs, encourage cohesiveness, reduce waste and enable more sustainable trade practices with other communities. In addition, Roseland argues that local self-reliance fosters greater responsibility, due to the costs and benefits of decisions that are directly borne by the community in which they are made. The goal of a self-reliant community is to enhance local wealth by developing the community's existing resources, whether human or intellectual, natural and physical, base.

*Community economic self-reliance* is the capacity of a community to provide for its own economic support and the support of their families, according to Schultz (2004:557-579). Furthermore, Schultz states that effective economic self-reliance for poor rural people is difficult, due to a lack of political will, the traditional or cultural constraints that especially impact on rural women, inadequate access to markets (affecting the supply of goods and services), and a lack of adequate education and trained skills available as labour or for small-scale business management. Economic self-reliance can be achieved in many different ways, such as through bartering and selling food rations, fishing, the selling of indigenous heritage products and resources, the selling of handcrafts, the receiving of remittances obtained by means of migration, the selling of farm products, employment in the local economy, or by establishing a small business and participating in formal or informal income-generating initiatives.

For most poor rural people, economic survival is based on what is locally available and includes activities such as farming, fishing and participation in informal income-generating initiatives, as well as trade in natural resources, including handcrafts. Yunus (1993:37-38) argues that a strategy for economic self-reliance must start from below as part of securing the basic human rights of food, shelter and income flow. Economic self-reliance strengthens a community (Stones & Hughes, 2002:63) and allows for the development of capable leadership, skills and knowledge, public–private partnerships and the ability of communities to participate in the development process.

*Economic self-reliance* can be viewed as an improvement in *livelihood*, or living, conditions. *Livelihoods* can be described as levels of wealth, and stocks and flows of food and cash, which provide for physical and social well-being and security against impoverishment (Chambers, 1989:146). For most of the rural poor, several sources of support exist. Their living is improved and sustained through their livelihood capabilities, through tangible assets in the form of grocery food stores, as well as through intangible assets, in the form of claims and access (Chambers, 1997:163–165). However, some of the livelihood strategies of rural families do not stem from organised formal employment, resulting in many rural households diversifying their sources of livelihood. “The diversification of rural livelihoods is central to understanding livelihoods dynamics in rural households. Diversification of livelihoods means both different ways of organizing agricultural productions and different forms of integration of off-farm incomes” (Scoones, 2001:109). Scoones adds that, in order to develop an appropriate intervention for the rural poor, a more holistic form of livelihood strategy analysis is required for different groups of people. Such analysis accommodates the development of an understanding of how livelihoods are built up by different people in different settings and of how different intervention options are linked to the broader pattern of livelihood and rural economic changes or dynamics existing within different communities.

## **2.4 Community economic empowerment**

As different views of the concept of ‘empowerment’ exist, it is important to clarify the concept before defining the more specific concept of ‘economic empowerment’. Although, in the context of development, the term ‘empowerment’ is complex and multidimensional, the most basic definition is given by Bynum and Porter (2005:513), who state that empowerment is the result of a process in which people are given or delegated the powers or authority to perform in something or participate in a decision-making process about the issues that most directly affect their lives. Swanepoel (1997:7) argues that empowerment amounts to more than merely having the power to participate or to make decisions, as deciding correctly demands knowledge and understanding.

Therefore, empowerment neither means giving people facilities that they were previously denied or which were previously unavailable to them, nor does it mean giving them skills that they lacked; rather, empowerment entails the acquisition of power and the ability to give it effect (Swanepoel, 1997:7). Theron (2005a:123) views empowerment in terms of two perspectives: the first views empowerment as a process of skills and abilities development, while the second views empowerment as a process that equips people to decide on and take action regarding the issues of concern to them. Burkey (1993:59) provides the most basic and consensual definition of empowerment, stating that empowerment is a process that releases power to the people, which they can use to access resources in order to achieve desirable goals.

In spite of such varying views and interpretations regarding empowerment, the different definitions share two common components: the first component involves the devolution of people's *power to participate*, while the second entails *capacity-building*, by which is meant the building up of people's knowledge, skills and ability to enable them to make decisions and take actions correctly. According to Swanepoel (1997:7), an adequate process of empowerment cannot only function in terms of a single isolated component, but must work in unison with other components of development. Adams (2002:13) states that the relationship between empowerment, community building and development is so profound that defining empowerment apart from other aspects of development is problematic. However, the most important dimensions of development frequently connected to empowerment are *equity*, *capacity-building*, *participation* and *self-reliance*. These four dimensions are regarded as the most common denominators in most definitions of empowerment and debates regarding the role of empowerment in the development process (Adams, 2002:13; De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998:23–27; Korten, 1990:217–221; Liebenberg & Stewart, 1997:112).

Apart from explaining how these four dimensions of development are linked to the concept of empowerment, the following section also discusses the characteristics of empowerment in the development perspective.

### 2.4.1 Equity

De Beer and Swanepoel (1998:134) and Chambers (1997:164) argue that, generally, the rural poor, or those who are viewed as the oppressed by Freire (1997:3), lack significant access to assets such as land, production input, cattle and other financial resources. They also have limited access to basic services, such as health and educational (whether formal or non-formal) facilities; to trade, markets, information and transport facilities; and to clean water. The equitable provision of these services or facilities could improve the social and economic conditions of the poor. Empowerment of the poor could occur if they were to gain equal access to resources and services, or if fair distribution of resources, services and opportunities were to take place (Adams, 2002:13), either of which would enable them to exploit local resources more effectively for their livelihood.

The previous arguments also carry an implication in terms of economic development. Presumably, if the poor are empowered and if equity is achieved in terms of equal access to resources, services and opportunities, once the poor have gained access to the resources, services, opportunities and assets, they should no longer be as poor as they would otherwise have been. An alternative assumption is that, once the poor have become empowered, they will gain sufficient power to improve their own social and economic status, with enhanced access to better land, jobs, and markets by means of which to pursue their production inputs and other socio-economic opportunities. If such an assumption is valid, then equity should not only lead to empowerment, but should also, eventually, lead to economic empowerment (Adams, 2002:14). Therefore, one can argue that empowerment and economic empowerment, which is achieved by means of establishing greater equity, can be attained by means of participation in the community building process.

An environment in which participation or empowerment takes place tends to place greater emphasis on community knowledge, resources, self-reliance, initiative and decision making as community assets. It is felt that a community with a historically created disadvantage will, however, need special support in order to effectively achieve

self-empowerment. However, empowerment also requires assistance from the outside “in terms of skills and organisational training, income generating schemes, appropriate technology, education and access to basic services” (De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998:23). De Beer and Swanepoel view empowerment as a collective action that takes place at grassroots level, creating self-awareness and releasing people from the poverty trap by way of transforming their lives.

### **2.4.2 Capacity-building**

According to De Beer and Swanepoel (1998:134) and Meyer and Theron (2000:18) the process of capacity-building has three main components: skills, accessibility, and support. The first component involves the disadvantaged or poor acquiring the necessary knowledge, skills, competences and abilities to be able to produce goods and services, which helps them to satisfy their ultimate desires and needs. The first component refers to the poor attaining the capacity to provide for themselves and to engage in and actively contribute to their own development (Adams, 2002:16).

The second element of capacity-building is related to the need to make productive assets, resources or services available or accessible to the poor. Unlike the first component, this aspect of capacity-building does not refer to physical or mental ability, but rather to the resources, opportunities, services and assets made available and accessible to the poor. Availability and accessibility are issues related to the equity aspect of empowerment and development, as previously discussed.

The third factor is related to the establishment of effective and efficient administrative and institutional supportive structures and facilities. This factor also involves the improvement of communication, information and coordination systems or mechanisms between different key role-players in the community development process. The process may help to strengthen the institutional capacity for sustainable development. Later in the current chapter, the issue of sustainable development, which is also related to that of self-reliance, will be examined.

### 2.4.3 Participation and empowerment

Currently, the most prominent aspect of community development associated with empowerment is that of community participation. According to Theron (2005a:122–123), Liebenberg and Stewart (1997:118) and De Beer and Swanepoel (1998:6), participation leads to empowerment and empowerment results in vulnerable people or oppressed groups achieving sufficient power or authority to be able to influence the decisions that affect their lives and livelihoods, so that they can attain ownership of their lives. These arguments are based on the assumption that the poor lack control over the situations in which they find themselves or that they lack the ability to evaluate their situations and to make decisions that could improve their specific circumstances. Some researchers characterise empowerment as a process with two dimensions, the first being a process of people acquiring skills and abilities that enable them to manage and/or negotiate better with the development delivery system, and the second being a process concerned with equipping people to decide and take action within the context of their own development process (Cernea, 1991:119–130).

De Beer and Swanepoel (1998:23) assume that empowerment also requires assistance from outside the local community “in terms of skills and organisational training, credit, income generating schemes, appropriate technology, education and access to basic needs”. They stress that the most important question addressed by the empowerment process is the “*question of control and decision making*”, which means “*finding the appropriate role for each and accommodating the various roles in the decision making process*”. De Beer and Swanepoel believe that concrete and abstract human needs (being allowed to make decisions) are addressed through empowerment. Empowerment is a *learning process* (a problem-solving approach that is a prerequisite for learning to take place, especially if the community accepts responsibility for identifying its own problems). Such a process is a *collective action*, entailing a group of people sharing a mutual interest, sentiment or concern, acting together in concert. The process is, moreover, an action at *grass-roots level*, as it creates *self-awareness* and *releases* people from the poverty trap through transformation. De Beer and Swanepoel (1998:25)

conclude that communities that suffer from a historically created disadvantage require special support in order to achieve *self-empowerment*.

*Participation* means that the people themselves are involved, to a greater or lesser degree, in organisations that are indirectly or directly concerned with decision making about, and the implementation of, development (Roodt, 2001:469). It is argued that participation "...is the development of self-confidence, pride, initiative, responsibility and cooperation, which without such a development within the people themselves all efforts to alleviate their poverty will be immensely more difficult, if not at all impossible. In this process, the fact that people learn to take charge of their own lives and solve their own problems..." (Manila's Declaration, in Meyer & Theron, 2000:4). One of the important attributes of participation is community empowerment. Korten (1990:2) argues that *community empowerment* requires a *people-centred development approach*, which calls for active mutual self-help among local people, by means of which they can work together to solve their common problems through a process of increasing self-reliance. Enhanced participation can pave the way for efficient use of local resources aimed at meeting local needs. Kok and Gelderblom (1994:57) view *empowerment* as the means of seeking to increase the control of the poor over those resources and issues affecting their lives, such as hunger, poverty and public security. Chambers (1997:162) and Freire (1996:77) visualise that *participation* and *empowerment* can enable the lower classes and the poor in general to express and analyse both their individual and shared multiple realities.

The above discussion illustrates the fact that relatively little has, so far, been said about how community participation and empowerment are related to community building, as well as about how community building can lead to economic self-reliance and empowerment. However, one can claim that concepts such as participation, capacity-building, organisation, and empowerment are more related to *social empowerment*, whereas community building tends to be more widely associated with *economic empowerment*. The discussion also indicates the relative paucity of debate and research regarding the linkage between the three concepts of community building, economic empowerment and development.

#### 2.4.4 The rhetoric of community development

Before starting to discuss the term *community development*, it is important to understand the meaning of the concepts of ‘community’ and ‘development’. Different interpretations of the concept *community* exist. The most consensual definition states that a *community* is a group of people living in a local and limited area, who share a particular dynamic environment and socio-economic, political, cultural or ethnic and religious values, goals and concerns (Cantle, 2005:11). The current study uses the concept, as developed by Swanepoel and De Beer (2006:45): “...a community consists of a spatially separated people who share common needs and values”.

Some define a community as “a grouping of people who reside in a specific locality and who exercise some degree of local autonomy in organising their social life in such a way that they can, from that base, satisfy the full range of their daily needs” (Edwards & Janes, 1976, in Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006:43). Roberts (1979, in Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006:44) sees a community as “... a group of people perceiving common needs and problems, acquiring a sense of identity, and having a set of objectives”. The above definitions agree in three aspects: a community includes (i) a group of people (ii) living in a specific locality, and sharing (iii) ‘common’ needs or problems and values.

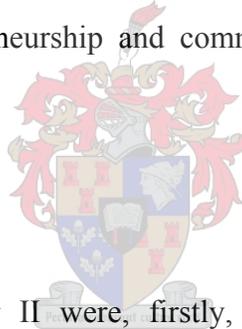
The concept of development is complex, consisting of multidimensional aspects, mainly due to its historical evolution, different understandings and applications. Consequently, any discussion about development would be incomplete if the dimensions and characteristics of development were not to be dealt with in detail. Most of the concepts associated with development share two similar characteristics. There are four dimensions of development, namely equity, participation, capacity-building and self-reliance (Adams, 2002:27) and four building blocks of development, consisting of participation, social learning, empowerment and sustainability (Theron, 2005a:121–123). The researcher sees development as a “process by which the members of a community or society increase their resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in their quality of life consistent with their own aspirations” (Theron,

2005a:121–123). Development also involves interrelated changes and social learning, as well as being a context-bound process.

Having discussed the meaning of ‘community’ and ‘development’, it is now necessary to understand the significance of the concepts, when combined in *community development*. Community development is viewed as a conscious process in which small, geographically contiguous communities are assisted to achieve improved social and economic living standards (Roodt, 2001:431). The process is achieved through the efforts of the community members themselves and through local community participation at all stages of goal selection, mobilisation of resources, and execution of projects, thus enabling the communities to become increasingly self-reliant. Such efforts include participation in research processes that are conducted to help them with identifying their needs and priorities in order that they can improve their own livelihoods. An additional term usually connected with community development is that of *rural development*. Rural development can be defined as “a strategy designed to enable poor rural women and men to demand and control more of the benefits of development” (Chambers, 1989:140). In other words, rural development is a process that enables the rural poor to gain more of what they want and need for themselves and their children. Such development involves helping the poor to identify their own needs, priorities and best responses in order to generate a secure and decent livelihood for themselves and their close dependants.

Another pragmatic concept associated with that of development is *sustainable development*. The World Commission for Environment and Development (1987), as cited in Pezzoli (1997:549) and Dresner (2002:1), defines sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. Gartner and Hogger (2004:205) assume that sustainable development includes the retention of an optimum level of farming, the maintenance of an acceptable quality of farm life, the equitable distribution of material benefits from economic growth, and the building of capacity in the farming community to participate in the development process, including the use of local knowledge to create new choices and options over time. Cooper and Vargas (2004:247) express themselves

similarly, when they state that “successful implementation of sustainable development requires development and management of action-centred networks”. Some argue that the essence of sustainable development is effective community participation in the determination of priorities, the identification and distribution of resources and the selection of strategies suited to meeting their needs (Meyer & Theron, 2000:4). Although the WCED’s definition is the most popular, Gartner and Hogger’s concept, in its conciseness and practicality, seems to be more appropriate for this study, in its defence of the building and use of local knowledge and resources in the development process. Basically, sustainable development combines the four dimensions of development (equity, participation, capacity-building and self-reliance) described by Adams (2002:14) with the four building blocks of development (participation, social learning, empowerment and sustainability) proposed by Theron (2005a:121–123) and the key characteristics of the community building approach (collective value and goals, leadership, organisation, entrepreneurship and community development) described by Sheehann (2003:2).



## **2.5. Conclusions**

The main objectives of Chapter II were, firstly, to explore how the concepts of community building and economic empowerment are viewed and applied in the relevant literature. Secondly, the Chapter set out to identify and discuss the components of each concept. Thirdly, the Chapter aimed to analyse the relationship between the community building and economic empowerment approaches. Fourthly, an attempt was made to verify how the community building approach can be used to strengthen community organisational, leadership and entrepreneurial skills, as well as to boost economic self-reliance within communities and to alleviate rural poverty. The investigation entailed identifying practical ways in which the community building approach can be applied to enhance local economic empowerment, poverty alleviation and development.

It has been shown that, just as people understand and interpret the community building approach differently; so also do they the economic empowerment concept. Such

differences in understanding and interpretation occur mainly because both concepts are relatively new and have not yet been adequately researched, especially in the African context. Nevertheless, community building is fundamentally associated with the process of acquiring and/or sharing information, knowledge, skills, talents and experiences that can lead to the building of common values and capacities that may encourage collective values, goals and actions aimed at improving the quality of people's lives. The concept consists of five distinctive components, namely: collective value and goals; information, knowledge and skills sharing; networking; leadership and organisation; and; entrepreneurship. Economic empowerment requires that people acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities to use local resources equitably for the improvement of their economic situation or for the achievement of sustainable self-reliance. The components of economic empowerment are equity, capacity-building, participation, empowerment and self-reliance.

The community building approach can develop local people's leadership capabilities and promote common or collective values and goals, as well as actions, which may lead to the fair or *equitable* distribution of local resources and opportunities, as well as to development. As a result, such an approach should lead to the enhancement of local people's power to *participate* in the decision-making process and to take adequate action. Community building can also allow access to information, knowledge and skills through the development of people's networks and connections, which, in turn, should lead to *capacity-building*. Access to information, knowledge and skills, as well as leadership and network development processes, can enable capacity-building leading to entrepreneurial development, which can improve the degree of economic *self-reliance* involved. Thus, fair integration of the different components of both concepts could lead to poverty alleviation and sustainable development.

One of the leading constraints to promoting economic empowerment or achieving self-reliance in rural areas is the lack of technical and institutional capacity. Managing nature-based livelihoods or enterprises efficiently demands a range of skills that have been well developed in the urban areas, but which still remain scarce among the rural poor.

Developing such skills among rural inhabitants is a complex task, as no complete formula yet exists for promoting economic empowerment and achieving self-reliance. Such a situation is evident in the Maganja da Costa District, where those living locally have to depend on local resources, but still exploit the scarce resources inefficiently. However, an adequate application of the community building approach could bring about economic empowerment or lead to more wide-ranging achievement of self-reliance, as the application of such an approach could lead to the strengthening of leadership capabilities, which would, in turn, encourage the building of collective values, goals and actions aimed at achieving the equitable use and distribution of local resources and opportunities. Doing so could also facilitate the establishment and widening of people’s networks and connections with stakeholders (including local governments, private sectors and NGO). The expansion of people’s networks, connections and partnerships might then enable them to acquire and/or access information, knowledge and skills – aspects that might, by enhancing their entrepreneurship potential, improve their livelihoods, as well as help them to achieve sustainable economic self-reliance.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework of sustainable development

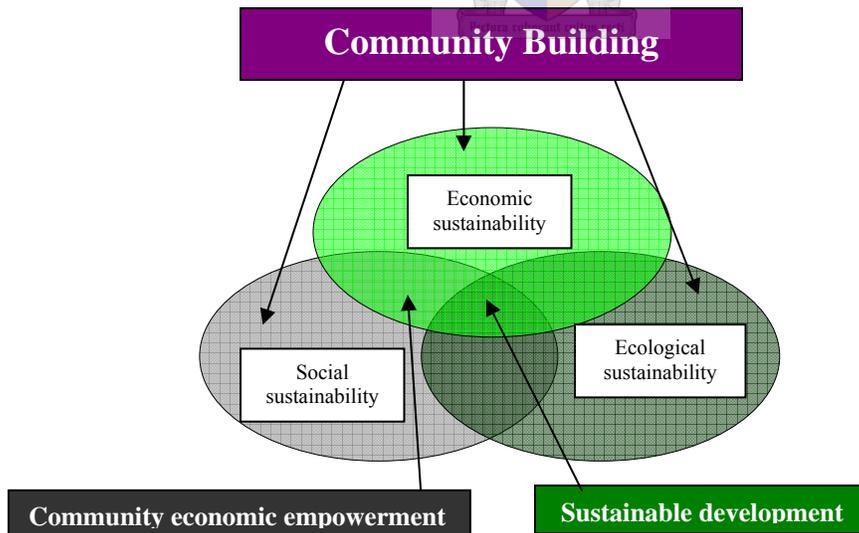
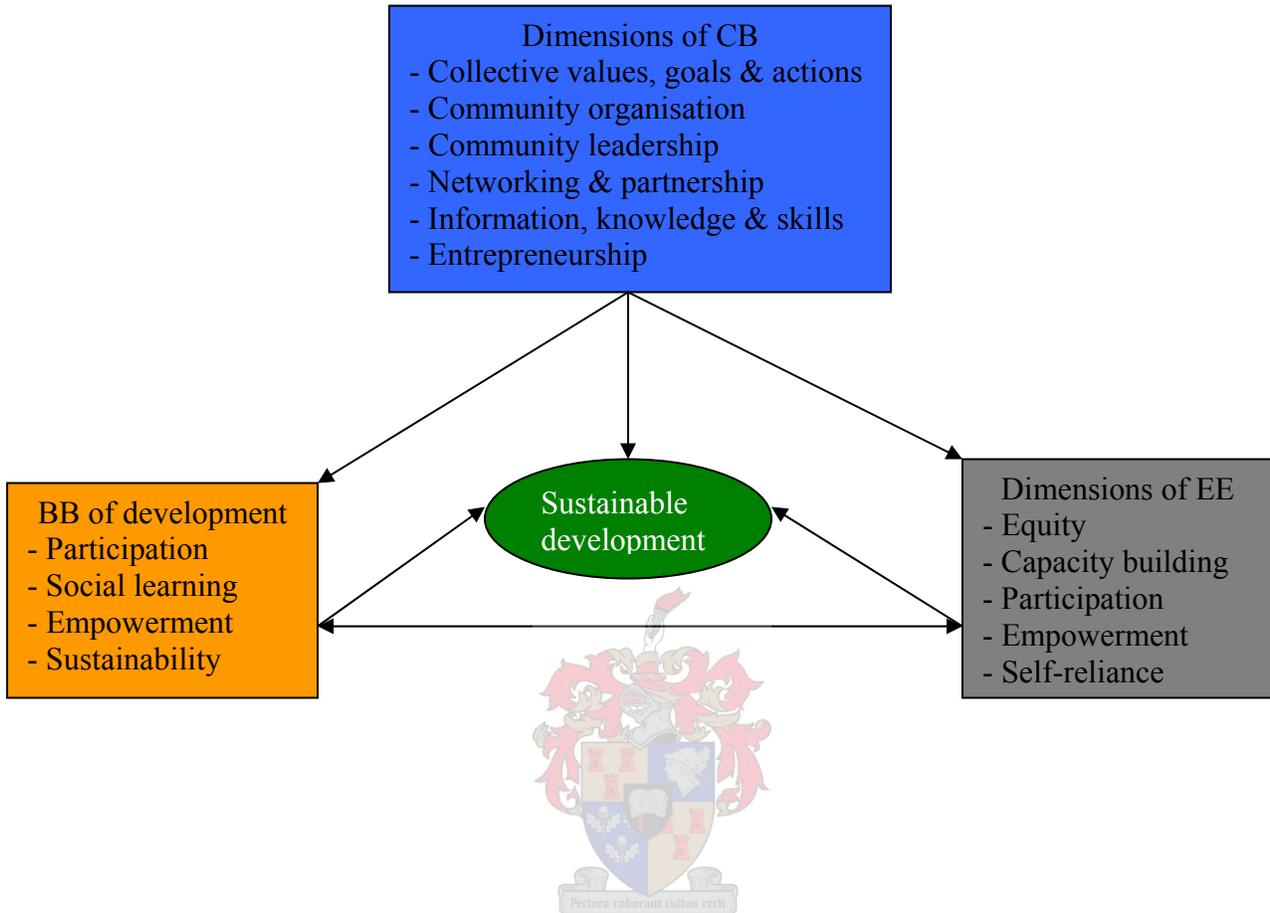


Figure 2.2: Linkages between community building (CB), economic empowerment (EE) and the building blocks (BB) of development.



## CHAPTER III

### Background to the area of study – the Maganja da Costa District

#### 3.1 Introduction

Mozambique is a vast country with diverse physical and socio-economic characteristics. Consequently, it is challenging to conduct exploratory research based on a participatory approach in the rural areas of the country. This is even more so in the Maganja da Costa District, because only limited research documentation is, as yet, available on the study topic. For participatory research it is vital firstly to profile and understand the historical background and the current realities or physical and socio-economical context (including the dynamics) of the study area. This information may help us to appreciate the holistic picture. It will also contribute to the development of accurate research guidelines and help us to take appropriate measures to deal with the issues raised during the research process.



#### 3.2 Objectives of the chapter

The purpose of Chapter III is, firstly, to describe the location, demographic and socio-economic aspects of the study area, the Maganja da Costa District. Secondly, the Chapter aims to explore both the historic and current status of the area in terms of natural, physical and socio-economic capabilities for production and development. Finally, the purpose of the Chapter is to identify and describe the existing natural resources, including the cultural resources, and to evaluate their potential for community economic empowerment, mainly in terms of using them to boost local entrepreneurship development.

### 3.3 Geographic location and administrative division

The Maganja da Costa District is located along the Eastern Coast of the Zambezia Province, Mozambique, consisting of about 7 597 km<sup>2</sup>, covering an area between the following co-ordinates: latitudes 16° 18' and 16° 42' South and longitudes 36° 38' and 37° 58' East, with an average altitude of 200 m (Bene, 1991:9). The District shares the following boundaries with its neighbouring Districts: in the north, it is bordered by the Districts of Mocuba and Ile; in the south, it is bordered by the Indian Ocean and by the District of Namacura; in the east, it is bordered by the District of Pebane, with the *Muniga*<sup>1</sup> River forming the border; in the west, it is bordered by the Licungo River, which also separates this District from the Mocuba and Namacura Districts (GMCD, 2003:2).

The Administrative Division of the Maganja da Costa District consists of four Administrative Areas or Posts, namely: Bala, Mocubela, Nante or Baixo Licungo and Bajone, with a total population of 295 208 inhabitants (GMCD, 2003:2; INE, 1997:43–49). According to Capela (1988:17), Bajone was elevated to the level of a Post in 1945, when its strategic role and economic importance in the District was recognised, resulting from the establishment of various private coconut palm enterprises, such as those of Madal, Morrôa, Zambezia and Boror.

### 3.4 Climate

As climatic conditions are critical to the development process, it is imperative to possess reliable climatologic information (Gonçalves, 1997:71). The agro-ecological conditions prevailing in certain regions determine the productive and utilisation capacity of local and available resources. Lack of alternative sources of income, combined with the lack of skills and knowledge of some local inhabitants, limits the degree of management and utilisation of these resources possible in the long term. In the area of study, such

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<sup>1</sup> Muniga is also the name of a local language that has developed from Macua, the most popular language spoken by those living in northern Mozambique

information is scarce, due to the paucity of existing research and documentation in this area.

Generally, the District is characterised by two distinctive climatic seasons: While the rainy season in the region usually starts in November and ends in May, the dry season tends to stretch from June to October. The months of August, September and October are characteristically dry (Bene, 1991:23; Gonçalves, 1997:21). Such seasonality is found along the coasts and leads to the development of salty, sandy soils, which are suitable for coconut palm and cashew nut production.

### **3.5 Soil quality**

Various types of soils, with very distinctive agronomic characteristics, exist in the Maganja da Costa District. While some are less suitable for agricultural production, others are more suitable. Though most of the areas of fertile soil are owned by local private companies, the farmers can utilise such areas for their own agricultural production. Four different types of soils are present in the District under study, namely: i) Dunnare or coastal soils, known as *rego-soil eutrics*, developed mostly in the eastern region of the District; ii) *alluvionarie soils* and fluvial marines, as well as *fluvi-soil tionic*, found in the local lowlands and residual lands; iii) hydromorphic or *fluvi-soils, glei-soils and fluvi-soils eutrics*, localised in the internal, central and coastal zones; and iv) *franc-clay* and red-sand soils, found in the central and northern region of the District (Bene, 1991:55; Gouveia & Marques, 1973:28).

According to MADER (1999:6), besides coconut palms and cashew nut trees, which have higher capabilities of adaptation to different soil conditions (and so demand less water and nutrition), no other perennial crop is likely to be cultivated economically in the soils situated along the coast. Consequently, most of the farmers depend mainly on coconut palms for their income and food supply, as agricultural production cannot provide enough to satisfy the local needs for long periods. This situation makes the local community

more vulnerable to agricultural or rural market dynamics and to climate changes, such as drought and cyclones.

### 3.6 Composition of population

Historically the population of the Maganja da Costa District has two matrixes of cultural evolution: The Macua-lomué from northern Mozambique, and the Aringas or Nharinga, who form part of the local ethnic group. The inter-relations and evolution of these two cultural groups led to the development of three ethnic groups that currently constitute the population of the Maganja da Costa District. The first group, consisting of the *Macua-lomué or Nharingas*, who live around the administrative posts of Bala and Nante (in the central and southern region); the second group, consisting of the *Lomués*, living at the administrative post of Mocubela (in the interior and north-west of the District); and the third and last group, consisting of the *Moniga*, living in the vicinity of the administrative post of Bajone (in the north-east of the District) (Capela, 1988:31–38).

Two main languages are spoken in the Maganja da Costa District, being Macua in Bajone (on the coast) and Lomué at the other three administrative posts (in the west and interior part) of the District (Bene, 1991:70–71). Normally, people from all four posts can understand one another's use of language.

Cassava, sweet potatoes and various marine species constitute the basic diet of those living locally. Rice is usually consumed only on special occasions, such as during traditional ceremonies or in the presence of important guests. Sweet potatoes and cassava (either fresh or cooked) usually form part of lunch (Capela, 1988:33). At the time of the study, however, in some families maize meal is served for lunch and dinner, as well as during special ceremonies or on special occasions. This new diet emerged during the recovery period after the war, when maize meal was widely distributed for human consumption.

### **3.7 Socio-economic activities**

Material production is argued to constitute the basis of the livelihood of human beings. Those living in the Maganja da Costa District tend to base the sources of their livelihood on the development of economic activities related to the use of available natural resources, such as agricultural production; fishing; animal husbandry; and trade in cultural products, marine products, coconuts and cashew nuts (Capela, 1988:41). These four activities will be described in light of the socio-economic weight or role that they play at household level.

#### **3.7.1 Agricultural production**

Agricultural production constitutes the most important activity at the local or household level. Such production occupies about 90% of the local labour force, serving as a source of food and sometimes even as a supplier of income (Capela, 1988:68). Generally, parts of the interior are more suitable for the cultivation of drought-resistant crops, while the coastal region is more suitable to perennial crops, such as cashew nuts, coconuts (copra) and bananas. Due to the congenial climatic conditions, coconuts, cashew nuts, cassava and occasionally short-cycle maize, sweet potatoes and beans are produced primarily along the coast, as well as a few kilometres into the interior. The system of production is that of inter-cropping, in which perennial or annual crops are combined with permanent crops, such as cash crops (largely consisting of coconut and cashew nut trees). The cultivation season usually ranges from December to January, while the harvesting period tends to fall between January and May (Reddy, 1986a:145).

#### **3.7.2 Fishing**

The Maganja da Costa District is bordered by an extensive coast, approximately 100km long, on the east. The coastline contains beautiful beaches, where mangal vegetation can be found (Bene, 1991:89). Offshore, the extensive Sofala Bench harbours a diversity of

fish and other marine resources, being one of the most prawn-rich regions in Mozambique.

The marine resources are exploited by means of traditional fishing methods. Despite its low level of development, fishing constitutes the most important economic activity, aside from agriculture, in the area of study. All fish consumed in the area are captured locally by means of traditional systems. Sometimes such fish are traded or exchanged in neighbouring districts and provinces of the country. The region also uses traditional systems of production to farm salt, which can either be traded locally or outside the district or province (Capela, 1988:114; Reddy, 1986b:171). These natural resources have not, as yet, been adequately explored by those living locally to improve their livelihoods and economic self-reliance, perhaps due to the lack of appropriate skills and knowledge.

### **3.7.3 Animal production**

Animal production was practised in the past by both private and family sectors. The most popular species of animals were cattle, pigs, and goats, the production of which was dominated by the private sector, while the production of chickens, ducks and goats tended to be reserved for the family sector. The distribution of this produce was principally determined by cultural, social and economic aspects. The predominant pastoral system was extensive, and animals were kept on the coconut palm plantations in the private sectors. Such a system was followed by both sectors (Reddy, 1986a:179). Animal production and trading was an important alternative or additional source of income in the past for farmers, as it was relied upon for the proper conducting of many traditional ceremonies, including those occurring at places of prayer. However, such animals could no longer be found, at the time of the current study, in the study area.

### **3.7.4 Trade**

The trade network in the area of study is very limited, as most of the infrastructure has been destroyed or is in a poor condition as a result of the civil war, during which it

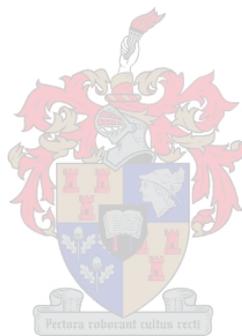
became subject to the absence of, or abandonment by, the private sector. Both before and after independence, private companies played an important role in the expansion and development of trading activities and in the exchange of agricultural and fishing products for manufactured goods and services. Such trade was conducted by company-owned shops, which served the local communities (Capela, 1988:161). When the companies concerned left the area, such trade collapsed. Trading currently is reduced to three products, namely copra, cashew nuts and marine fish, and is generally conducted by informal traders (Bene, 1991:37). Such a situation worsens local conditions, as members of the local communities lack access to markets where they might otherwise be able to purchase and trade their goods and products. Overcoming such limitations on people's ability to access and share information and knowledge should enhance their entrepreneurial potential and enable them to achieve economic self-reliance.

### **3.8 Conclusions**

The Maganja da Costa District has potential in respect to natural, physical and socio-economic resources, including the marine resources (such as fish, salt, the vegetation and the coast), the aged coconut palms, the cashew nut crop, small-scale animal husbandry and the yield of different soils. Due to its particular climatic conditions, the area may also be suitable for growing ground nuts and beans. In spite of the apparent potential of natural resources, the current area of study is the poorest within the province of Zambezia, mostly due to the following reasons: the deterioration of elements of its infrastructure, such as roads, shops and markets, and the lack of technical knowledge, skills and experience.

The community building approach can play an important role in promoting economic empowerment in the Maganja da Costa District; as such an approach seeks to harmonise the sustainable utilisation of local resources (including cultural heritage). In order to gain the most from this approach, there is a need for leadership and organisational management development, increased accountability, and long-term planning and implementation. Intelligent partnerships also require development, with the improved

connectivity and commitment of all existing stakeholders, such as the private sector, the government, NGOs, CBOs, state institutions, churches, traditional leaders and communities. The government must ensure that existing legislation is appropriately enforced at different levels, with the impact of laws being regularly evaluated and adapted to meet the needs of the prevailing circumstances.

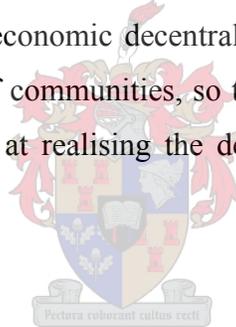


## CHAPTER IV

### National policy frameworks for development

#### 4.1 Introduction

In Mozambique economic development and poverty reduction are the focus of leading projects and objectives of government. The sustainable reduction of poverty is regarded as being related to local economic growth and to the establishment of capable, responsible and credible public institutions equipped to stimulate the participation of citizens in the decision-making process and in the creation of their own welfare. The effective development and application of policies should create conditions, infrastructure and services that will facilitate adequate capacity-building, which should, in turn, create job opportunities and improve rural social and economic conditions (ADEL, 2003:12). For this to happen, political and economic decentralisation is required for the effective participation and empowerment of communities, so that they can fully participate in the decision-making processes aimed at realising the development and poverty alleviation processes.



#### 4.2 Objectives of the chapter

Chapter IV presents an overview of the main policies, strategies and frameworks aimed at poverty reduction in the rural areas of Mozambique, including: the Mozambican Constitution; the 2025 Development Agenda; the Action Plan for Absolute Poverty Reduction (APAPR); the Local Economic Development Strategy (LEDS); and the National Agrarian Programme (NAP). The limitations of such policies, strategies and frameworks, as well as their impact on boosting rural economic development and their capacity to enable the rural poor to achieve self-reliance will be identified. In conclusion, some suggestions aimed at improving the policies and strategies will be mooted.

### **4.3 The Mozambican Constitution (November 1990)**

The Mozambican Constitution determines most of the issues related to the implementation of developmental processes in the country. For example, Article 36 of the Constitution stipulates that the state should promote the knowledge, the skills and the valorisation of natural resources, as well as determining the conditions for their use and exploitation, taking the national interest fully into account. Article 39 of the Constitution states that the Republic of Mozambique considers agriculture as a basis for national development. The state also guarantees and promotes rural development for the gradual and multiform satisfaction of the needs of the population, as well as for the social and economic progress of the country as a whole. In addition, Article 41 of the Constitution states that the economic state of the country is mainly based on the valorisation of work, market forces, the initiatives of economic agents, and the participation of all types of property owners, as well as on the state's action as a regulator and promoter of growth and social and economic development. According to the Constitution, the aim of the state is to satisfy the basic needs of the population and to promote social welfare. To achieve this goal, the state offers incentives for smallholder production, encouraging smallholders to organise themselves in such a way that they maximise the benefit to be gained from using efficient forms of production. Article 44 of the Constitution recognises the contribution of small-scale production to the national economy, seeing its development as a way of valorising the capacities and creativities of the population.

### **4.4 The 2025 Development Agenda**

Responding to the multisectorial complexities and dimensions of poverty present in the country, Mozambican leaders, the government, civil society, technical associations, the private sector, community members and international development agencies in 2003 together developed a 25-year *National Development Strategy – the Agenda 2025, an independent framework of external or political influences*. In its chapter on rural development, the 2025 agenda highlights the following goals: i) the rise of productivity; ii) the processing and transformation of raw products; iii) technical assistance and

training; and iv) specialisation and employment promotion. However, how such goals can be achieved and how the rural poor will be able to participate in such progress is insufficiently clear. The strategic areas and development approach involved still also require clarification.

#### **4.5 The Action Plan for Absolute Poverty Reduction (APAPR)**

In 2001 the Mozambican Government developed an Action Plan for Absolute Poverty Reduction (APAPR) as a replacement for the Stabilisation and Structural Adjustment Programme previously largely imposed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. The main objective of the APAPR was the following: reduction of the incidence of absolute poverty from 70% in 1997 to less than 60% in 2005. According to the APAPR, the most determining factors of poverty are: i) the low level of education and skills development; ii) the low level of productivity, especially in the agricultural sector; iii) the lack of employment opportunities; and iv) the low level of development of the rural infrastructure (INE, 2001:20). A study conducted in 2004 to evaluate the impact of APAPR implementation found that the level of poverty within the country has been reduced by 15%: in other words, the level has decreased from 69,4% in 1996/1997 to 54,1% in 2002/2003 (INE, 2004:8). The impact of this achievement on the conditions of the poor at grassroots level is still not clearly visible, possibly because most of the analyses that have been conducted in the past were based on the performance of macroeconomics indicators and household assets, rather than on access to basic needs and services, such as education, health, clean water, sanitation, market-related information and vocational skills, credit and other services, such as trade in, and the exchange of, agricultural goods and products.

The reduction of poverty has occurred sporadically throughout the country. For example, according to INE (2004:8), some improvements have been seen in the central region, such as in Sofala Province, while in other areas, such as in Maputo, the income levels have remained relatively stable. Another debate around the results that have been obtained so far is that most of the impact assessments were conducted in urban areas or

near district and provincial capitals, where the living conditions of most people are relatively better than those experienced in more rural areas.

In 2005 the APAPR II was developed in order to continue with the government's commitment to fight against poverty and to promote development. This process coincided with the development of the first post-independence Rural Development Strategy (RDS), which focuses on developing the potential of vulnerable groups, such as women and young people, and which, together with the implementation of other development programmes, can have an impact on the rural quality of life.

However, the APAPR II omits consideration of such factors as: i) how those rural non-farm activities that serve as the source of income generation and livelihoods (such as fishing, handicrafts, woodcraft, tourism and other non-farming activities) for most households will be encouraged; ii) the connection between agricultural production and agro-processing enterprises that could add value to products is not stressed; and iii) the role of markets in guaranteeing the flow of agricultural products and in strengthening the rural–urban connection, and, consequently, in promoting sustainable rural development is not adequately stressed; and iv) in many rural areas in Mozambique, including in the Maganja da Costa District, the main obstacle to rural farmers increasing their production and income levels is the low level of soil fertility. The APAPR II does not make evident how this situation will be dealt with in order to achieve the envisioned goal of raising production and productivity levels, as well as of achieving greater economic development (INE, 2004: 22).

#### **4.6 The Government's five-year programme, 2005–2009**

The government's five-year programme proposes the social and economic transformation of the rural areas, leading to the improvement of the level of well-being experienced in such areas. The main objectives of the government for the next five years are *reduction of the level of absolute poverty through rapid economic growth promotion conducted in a sustainable and effective way*. To enable realisation of these objectives, more attention is

paid to: i) the establishment of an appropriate environment for national private investment and rural development; ii) the social and economic development of the country, as specifically oriented to rural areas and aimed at the reduction of regional inequalities; iii) the consolidation of national unity, peace, justice and democracy, as well as the spirit of self-esteem as conditions indispensable to the development of harmony; iv) decentralisation and the fight against corruption; and v) the strengthening of international co-operation and national identity. This programme sees rural development as the main factor involved in global and integrated social and economic development. In particular, the government intends to develop actions that can raise the level of economic growth in the rural areas, with more focus on improving the quality of life of the rural poor.

Despite the government's particular focus on rural development, there is a common concern that this strategy is more oriented to the promotion of private investment, mainly in the form of major foreign investment, as a way of inducing rapid economic growth, employment creation and rural welfare. However, building the national capacity and developing rural people's entrepreneurship capacity could lead to expanding opportunities for self-employment creation and income generation, as well as for rural poverty reduction and sustainable economic self-reliance. President Armando Guebuza, in his fight against poverty, is also defending the need to develop and strengthen a rural entrepreneurship spirit, accordingly pointing to the rural areas or districts as the base for related planning and development. Such developing and strengthening of the national spirit involves simultaneously building on existing local resources and people's knowledge, as well as on the expansion of skills related to sustainable economic self-reliance and development.

#### **4.7 The Local Economic Development Strategy (LEDS)**

The context of local economic development in many developing countries, such as Mozambique, has changed since 1980. During the 1990s, the conditions of local economic development were moulded by central government institutions through para-

state institutions which played an important role in supplying local inhabitants with seeds, fertilisers and extension services. The government was mainly responsible for determining the prices of products which it was buying up through its co-operatives or trading enterprises. The types of crops to be cultivated by the farmers were generally determined by both the agrarian policies of government and by the local presence of trading deposits or markets (ADEL, 2003:13). As a result, entrepreneurship based on agricultural commodities came to be seen as an important extra source of livelihood for many nuclear families in Mozambique and other developing countries in Africa.

The Mozambican Local Economic Development Strategy states that, in promoting local economic development, it is important to recognise the role of agricultural activities in employment creation and income generation. The Strategy adds that agriculture should be seen as the base (or as an entry point of the value chain) for the creation of local capacity and investment in rural areas, as well as fundamental to the establishment of other activities in related areas, such as agro-industry and industries. In addition, the LEDES states that local economic development should be based on the construction of systematic competitiveness throughout the entire productive chain, including in the integration and articulation of other local sectors of production and services. In contrast, local economic development implies the diversification of sources of employment and income and the more vertical integration of the economic activities of rural areas with those of urban centres. Local economic development requires a model of social change and production, capable of complementing the productive capacity of those living in rural areas and of strengthening their entrepreneurial negotiation ability and economic autonomy (ADEL, 2003:17).

However, the effectiveness of the LEDES in employment creation and income generation for the local inhabitants is debatable. The LEDES is more concerned with promoting foreign investments at local level, rather than in building up a long-term system that will allow for employment creation, income generation and social welfare. One of the most common concerns regarding the implementation of the strategy is that it over-concentrates on promoting non-agricultural income-generating activities to the detriment

of agriculture, although agriculture constitutes an important source of food and income supply for most rural dwellers, despite its continuously declining contribution to the national GDP.

#### **4.8 The National Agrarian Programme (NAP)**

Agrarian sector transformation in Mozambique has involved a number of different challenges since the country declared independence in 1975. The main challenges since then have been: most of the Portuguese farmers who left the country after independence was declared, causing increased demand on agricultural production in some areas; after the abandonment of the plantations by the farmers, the state took over the companies concerned, including their workers, but most of the new managers not only lacked experience, but also leadership and management skills. As a result, after a few years the companies went bankrupt. The trade and commercial network, together with its infrastructure, also started to deteriorate. This aggravated the rural→urban→rural network and the institutional infrastructure, created by the farmers' organisations, the rural bankers and credit agents, the agricultural commercial agents, and the institutions that rendered reduced assistance, also moved away from the rural areas into the urban centres (MAF/WB, 1998:14). The Civil War (1975–1992) waged largely between Frelimo and Renamo also had unprecedented socio-economic consequences, such as the widespread destruction of the rural economy.

Currently, the Mozambican economy still continues to be determined by the following structural factors: i) the standard of capital accumulation that inhibits the progress of the country; ii) the limitation of intrasectorial connections; iii) the social and regional differentiation; iv) the small dimension, as well as the fragmentation, of domestic, mainly rural, markets; and v) the weaknesses of the institutional, human and technological base (RDS, 2005:17). As a result, many people in rural and urban areas continue to face the negative impact of the above structural factors of poverty and inequalities. This situation requires an appropriate organisation and reallocation of local resources and the

empowerment of those living in rural areas in order to enable them to use such resources efficiently as to secure their own livelihood and development.

Due to the above factors, in 1997, the first democratically elected Mozambican government developed a National Agrarian Programme, of which the main objective was to achieve self-sufficiency through: i) the securing of food supplies; ii) the strengthening of the level of productivity and capacity; and iii) the promotion of sustainable natural resource use. To facilitate adequate implementation of this programme, an *Integrated five-year Sectorial Programme*, called the AGRARIAN PROGRAMME (PROGRAMA AGRICOLA – PROAGRI), was designed in 2001 by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fishing, with a mandate from the government. The overall goal of the sectorial programme was to increase production and productivity through: i) research to raise production in a sustainable way; ii) rural extension promotion, aimed at increasing productivity and income; iii) animal husbandry; iv) irrigation; and v) management of agricultural lands. However, the production system in Mozambique is dependent on weather conditions, especially in terms of rainfall, which means that households are likely to be vulnerable to weather-related production variables. Also, it is important to understand the possible impact that NAP can have on rural households in terms of income and food supply in the long term (MAF/WB, 1998:10) and what possibilities exist for articulation with other programmes.

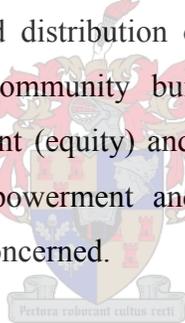
Another criticism regarding NAP is that it focuses on a *production-driven process* as a basis for welfare creation and rural development. However, experience has shown that the application of this approach in many developing countries, including Mozambique, has not yet produced enough results among rural households in terms of resource allocation, increases in productivity and incomes – probably because the approach is inefficiently strong to respond to rural market dynamics and consumption demands (RDS, 2005:21). Therefore, the approach leaves the rural poor vulnerable to fluctuations in both human- and nature-induced variables.

**Table 4.1 Summary of the National Policy Frameworks for Development**

| <b>Policy</b>             | <b>Main objectives</b>  | <b>Approach to development</b>  | <b>Converging points in terms of the community building approach</b>                                 |
|---------------------------|---|---|--|
| Mozambican Constitution   | agricultural development aimed at poverty reduction and basic needs satisfaction                                      | enhances small farmers' capacity for natural resource use (amounting to a basic needs and production-driven approach) | efficient production through capacity-building / organisation of small farmers into co-operatives    |
| Agenda 2025               | poverty reduction through capacity-building and agro-industrial development aimed at employment and income generation | the raising of productivity levels (a production-driven approach)   | Capacity-building and self-reliance  |
| APAPR                     | poverty reduction   | rural investment promotion and rural market development (a mixed approach)  | information, knowledge and skills development  |
| Five-year government plan | rapid economic growth for poverty reduction (through foreign investment promotion)                                    | foreign investment and rural entrepreneurship promotion (market-oriented production)                                  | rural self-reliance and entrepreneurship   |
| LED                       | income and employment creation  | vertical integration of economic rural activities and entrepreneurship promotion (market-oriented production)         | diversification of sources of employment and income<br>self-reliance and entrepreneurial development |
| NAP                       | self-sufficiency through the raising of productivity levels   | integrated sectorial development (a production-driven approach)   | Capacity-building  |

## 4.9 Conclusions

An overview of Mozambican policy frameworks or strategies regarding poverty reduction shows the complexities of rural development. The policies emphasise the importance of promoting rapid economic growth for job creation, income generation and poverty reduction. Such policies recognise the role of information and knowledge systems in building up the entrepreneurial capabilities of the rural poor in order to enable them to participate actively in decision-making processes, to take action and to use local resources effectively and equitably for purpose of their livelihood. Such enablement can lead to poverty alleviation, economic self-reliance, welfare creation and rural development. For the same reasons, rural markets, local infrastructures and entrepreneurial development are also seen as being of importance for employment creation and the promotion of local capital investment, as such elements might facilitate the effective and equitable use and distribution of local resources and opportunities. However, some components of community building (leadership, organisation and networking), economic empowerment (equity) and the building blocks of development (participation, social learning, empowerment and sustainability) are not considered sufficiently in most of the policies concerned.



Most of the policies recognise that, although the policies are well formulated, their implementation at grassroots levels may not contribute as much to the improvement of the lives of the poor as they were originally intended to do. Although most of the policies favour an increase in economic growth, the degree to which they overlap leads to much confusion and their implementation is very complicated. The new approach of poverty alleviation and development, as introduced by President Guebuza, and which regards the District as the base for planning and development through political or administrative and financial decentralisation, as well as the capacity-building of local government, will hopefully be a success. However, the practical reality of the outcome of these policies must first be seen.

## CHAPTER V

### Research results, interpretation and discussion

#### 5.1 Introduction

Economic growth and poverty reduction, principally the reduction of rural poverty, are Mozambique's top priorities. To realise these objectives, the government developed the Action Plan for Absolute Poverty Reduction and other developmental strategies, which have already been discussed in Chapter IV. As a result of the implementation of such measures, the poverty assessment conducted in 2004 indicated that the level of poverty in the country had decreased by 15%, from 69% in 1996/7 to 54% in 2002/3 (INE, 2004:11). The same study highlighted that the decrease of poverty occurred unequally among the different provinces. For example, the level of poverty in Maputo, Nampula, Zambezia and Cabo Delgado remained particularly stable. However, these provinces present the lowest human development index within the country (UNDP, 2005:16), which implies that the majority of people, especially those living in rural areas, are not benefiting from the proclaimed economic growth of 7% per annum. Chapter V attempts to demonstrate how community building can assist poor people at grassroots level effectively to realise their livelihoods and to achieve self-reliance.



#### 5.2 Objectives of the chapter

Chapter V aims to discuss some of the empirical evidence supporting the premise of the study (see Chapter I), in an attempt to profile the major dimensions of poverty occurring in the area of study. In order to achieve this aim, the study analyses the following aspects: the different forms of natural resource use and local products harnessing; the influence of local mechanisms of information, knowledge and skills sharing regarding local resource and product use; the current farming practices and participation in the local markets; and community organisation, leadership and entrepreneurial development. Correlations are drawn in order to find connections regarding the ways in which community building can be applied to enable the local inhabitants to improve their livelihoods and to achieve self-reliance. As stated in section 1.7, the Institute of Statistical Analysis at Stellenbosch

University assisted the researcher in designing the questionnaire, the data analysis and presentation.

### **5.3 Factors influencing the effective use of local resources for the securing of livelihoods**

Africa possesses important natural resources and products, though many living in rural areas still live below the poverty line, suffering all kinds of deprivation. Studies conducted indicate that the most important factors influencing the rate of poverty in rural Mozambique are the high levels of illiteracy; the inadequate infrastructure and the systems of transport and trade; the rural market dysfunction; the lack of credit facilities and the inadequate implementation of developmental strategies (INE, 2004:73). In addition, the lack of much-needed information, knowledge and skills; the lack of entrepreneurial capabilities; the inadequate systems of leadership and governance; and gender and cultural issues also act as constraints. Particularly in the Maganja da Costa District, the main factors influencing the level of poverty are: i) the inadequate use of local resources and products; ii) the inadequate mechanisms used for sharing local information, knowledge and skills; iii) the ineffective community organisation and leadership; iv) the lack of entrepreneurship skills; and v) the inadequate infrastructure and systems of transport and trade (Saide, 2003:47).

#### **5.3.1 Local resource, product and heritage use and management**

The severity of poverty in the developing world is forcing people to abuse and over-exploit the very natural resources on which they depend and on which following generations, in turn, might need to depend on for survival (Narayan *et al.*, 2000, in De Beer & Swanepoel, 2006:14). The poor tend to misuse resources, due to their unequal access to them. For example, when people only have access to a small piece of marginal land, and they cannot afford to let the soil recover its fertility naturally, or if they do not have enough money to buy the required inputs (such as fertiliser) to improve the quality of the soil, the quality of the soil is rapidly likely to deteriorate (Narayan *et al.*, 2000, in

De Beer & Swanepoel, 2006:14). To maintain their well-being, people need to secure adequate livelihoods. In rural areas, generally most of the poor rely on their ability to exploit local natural resources, such as land, for a secure livelihood.

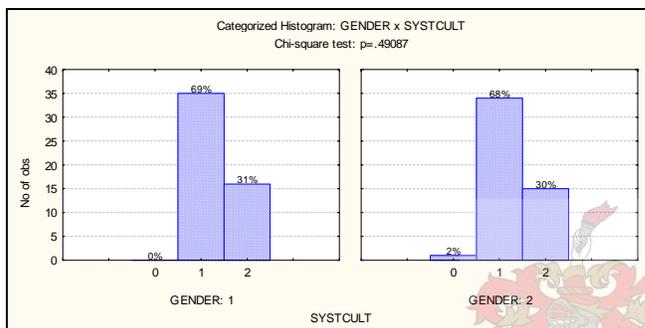
In the Maganja da Costa District people use natural resources, especially land set aside for agricultural purposes, to generate sufficient income and food to support their families. Such resource-based activity is practised by men, women and children. The main crops produced are cassava, coconut trees and cashew nuts, while maize and beans are produced in very limited quantities. In order to understand the system of cultivation, as practised in the community, the respondents were asked what system of soil cultivation they most used. According to Table 5.1 below, out of 101 respondents, 69 (69%) (both men and women) stated that they used *monoculture*, while 31 (31%) used *intercropping*. In some areas, the farmers integrate the growing of annual crops, such as cassava, beans, and maize, with that of perennial crops, such as coconut and cashew nut trees (Bene, 1991:19; Capela, 1988:57; Gonçalves, 1997:92; Reddy, 1986:122). Table 5.1 also shows that 35 (69%) of the men and 34 (68%) of the women use monoculture (system 1), while 16 (31%) of the men and 15 (30%) of the women use intercropping (system 2). The data was analysed by means of a contingency table, given below, which resulted in the accompanying categorised graphs of frequencies. The likelihood ratio *chi-square* test shows the absence of a significant difference between men and women in terms of system of cultivation, with a p-value of 0.491, which is more than 5%.

Based on interviews and focus group discussions conducted with key informants, an awareness emerged that farming is usually practised by women, who are largely careful and conservative when managing local resources. Apart from trying to minimise risks and their ability to plan rationally, the influence of elders and ancestors was also found to be important to them.

Table<sup>2</sup>: 5.1: **Gender in respect of system of cultivation**

| Marked cells have counts > 10. Chi-square test: p=.49087 |               |               |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| GENDER   | SYSTCULT<br>0 | SYSTCULT<br>1 | SYSTCULT<br>2 | Row<br>Totals |
| 1  | 0             | 35            | 16            | 51            |
| Row %  | 0.00%         | 68.63%        | 31.37%        |               |
| 2  | 1             | 34            | 15            | 50            |
| Row %  | 2.00%         | 68.00%        | 30.00%        |               |

Graph 5.1: **Gender in respect of system of cultivation**



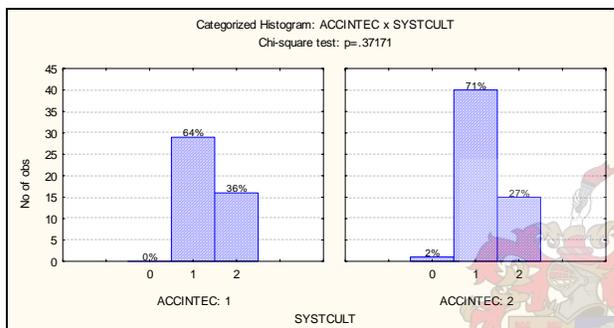
Conceivably, access to information and knowledge influence the systems of cultivation and natural resource management. According to Table 5.2 and Graph 5.2 below, of the 69 of the respondents who use *system 1*, 29 have access to information, while 40 lack such access. In addition, of the 31 of the respondents who use *system 2*, 16 have access to information, while 15 lack such access. In other words, 64% of the 45 respondents with access to information use monoculture, while 71% of the 56 respondents who lack such access use monoculture as well (see Table 5.2 and Graph 5.2 below). Statistically, such numbers indicate the absence of any significant difference between respondents who have access to information and those who do not in terms of the system of cultivation used, as the P-value of the *Chi-square test* is higher than 5%. These results run counter to the above premise that access to information influences the system of cultivation used.

<sup>2</sup> Gender 1 = male; gender 2 = female; SYSTCULT: 0 = not applicable; 1 = monoculture; 2 = intercropping.

Table<sup>3</sup>: 5.2: **Access to IKS in respect of system of cultivation used**

| Marked cells have counts > 10. Chi-square test: p=.37171 |               |               |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| ACCINTEC   | SYSTCULT<br>0 | SYSTCULT<br>1 | SYSTCULT<br>2 | Row<br>Totals |
| 1  | 0             | 29            | 16            | 45            |
| Row %  | 0.00%         | 64.44%        | 35.56%        |               |
| 2  | 1             | 40            | 15            | 56            |
| Row %  | 1.79%         | 71.43%        | 26.79%        |               |
| Totals   | 1             | 69            | 31            | 101           |

Graph 5.2: **Access to IKS in respect of system of cultivation used**



The focus group discussions, interviews with key informants and the observations undertaken all reveal that in the area under study traditional leaders play a role regarding the access to, and sharing of, agricultural information and knowledge. The respondents recalled that, when there is a drought, the traditional leaders arrange a ceremony in order to petition the ancestors for rain and a good farming season. During the ceremonies, the leaders advise the community regarding what to do, and what not to do; for example, in which areas or types of soil they should grow specific drought-resistant crops. In addition, group discussions and observations showed that local leaders and elders tend to share their knowledge of soils, plants and animals. For example, the discussions and observations indicated that cassava is potentially grown in black soil ('mboba'), ground nuts are grown in brown soil ('ecothoca'), and sometimes in white soil ('muhaga'). The respondents explained that, in order to refertilise the soil, they use different methods, such as soil rotation or letting the soil recover its fertility for a period of two or six

<sup>3</sup> ACCINTEC: 0 = not applicable; 1 = yes; 2 = no access to IKS.

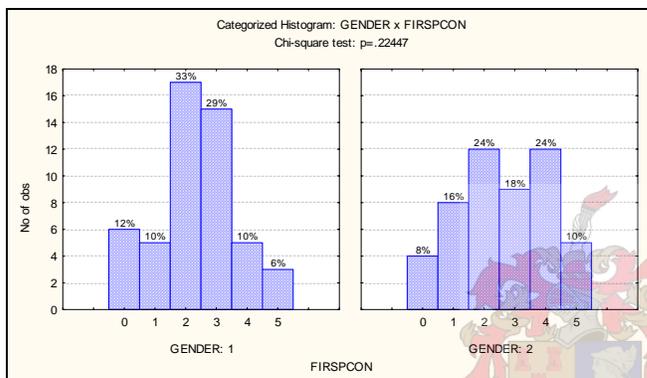
months, or apply leaf manure and mulching (Saide, 2003:47). The above data show that some community leaders and elders in the area of study share their knowledge and experiences regarding agricultural production and other issues with young people. However, the desire to be up-to-date, exposure to alternative methods and the decline in the power of traditional leaders in Africa have had an impact on the rural socio-cultural and technical landscape (Mbigi, 2005:23).

In order to understand the role of traditional leaders and elders in the study area, during interviews and focus group discussions respondents were asked whom they consulted first when they encountered problems. Out of 101 respondents, 29 (29%) answered that they consulted other family members first, 24 (24%) consulted traditional leaders first, 17 consulted their friends first, and lastly, 13 respondents consulted their elders first. However, one important aspect, although not significant, is that most of the female respondents preferred to ask for advice from parents and friends, while male respondents preferred to ask their parents and traditional leaders for advice (see Table 5.3 and Graph 5.3). Statistical analysis showed no significant difference in terms of gender and the first person asked for advice, as the P-value of the *Chi-square test* is higher than 5% (see also Table 5.3 and Graph 5.3 below). Such a finding confirms the general premise stated above that the role of local traditional leaders in modern society is gradually shrinking (Mbigi, 2005:27). Thus, traditional values and belief systems, as well as cultural identity, are all aspects that have served to mould the local forms of conduct, local resource use and survival strategies are all gradually being eroded (Treurnicht, 1997a:97–99). Further research is needed in order to establish the main reasons behind this phenomenon and its impact on the well-being of the community.

Table<sup>4</sup> 5.3: Gender in respect of the first person asked for advice

| Marked cells have counts > 10. Chi-square test: p=.22447 |               |               |               |               |               |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| GENDER   | FIRSPCON<br>0 | FIRSPCON<br>1 | FIRSPCON<br>2 | FIRSPCON<br>3 | FIRSPCON<br>4 | FIRSPCON<br>5 | Row<br>Totals |
| 1  | 6             | 5             | 17            | 15            | 5             | 3             | 51            |
| Row %  | 11.76%        | 9.80%         | 33.33%        | 29.41%        | 9.80%         | 5.88%         |               |
| 2  | 4             | 8             | 12            | 9             | 12            | 5             | 50            |
| Row %  | 8.00%         | 16.00%        | 24.00%        | 18.00%        | 24.00%        | 10.00%        |               |

Graph<sup>5</sup> 5.3: Gender in respect of the first person asked for advice



Traditional leaders could play an important role in building up collective values, goals and actions; in strengthening the community's harmony with nature; and in inspiring younger people and other community members to participate in local natural resource management initiatives (Cooper & Vargas, 2004:343–373). Due to their extensive knowledge and experience, traditional leaders can provide important guidance in effective and sustainable natural resource use, which could lead to the improvement of livelihoods and self-sufficiency strategies, as well as to the preservation of cultural values and identity. Such improvement could lead to the establishment of a socio-cultural and natural resource balance, which could be beneficial to both people and nature (Treurnicht, 1997b:86–91).

<sup>4</sup> FIRSPCON: 0 = not applicable; 1 = elders; 2 = family; 3 = traditional leaders; 4 = friends; 5 = others.

<sup>5</sup> FIRSPCON: 0 = not applicable; 1 = elders; 2 = family; 3 = traditional leaders; 4 = friends; 5 = others.

Mbigi (2005:1) argues that the role of African leadership throughout the ages has been to enable development of communities and organisations, and therefore the ultimate task of leadership is the management of transformation. Effective leadership must have the capacity to transform individuals, societies, communities and institutions by providing role models. In ancient African communities and institutions, the key task of leadership was to see to cultural renewal and preservation in order to ensure political, social and economic progress. However, the reality in modern African societies, for example in the Maganja da Costa District, is that the role of cultural stewardship has been neglected, which has, inevitably, resulted in social and economic decay.

### **5.3.2 Mechanisms for acquiring and sharing IKS**

Access to information and knowledge are viewed as key elements in poverty alleviation and the promotion of community development (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006:62; Treurnicht, 1997a:97). Information and knowledge can empower people to participate, to make informed or accurate decisions and to take collective action, in terms of local resource or product use, as well as participation in the market. Information and knowledge can also enable people to establish appropriate networks and partnerships for further capacity-building, resource mobilisation or business ventures. However, most of those in the area of study lack such assets, which is characterised by the lowest recorded levels of illiteracy and human development in the country (UNDP, 2001b:187).

Swanepoel and De Beer (2006:63) argue that informed decisions cannot be made if people do not acquire the necessary information or knowledge to make such decisions appropriately. In addition, access to information, knowledge and skills facilitates the mobilisation and empowerment of communities. As a result, ongoing communication is required to ensure that effective linkages can be established to enable meaningful participation by those in the area. In order to achieve such participation the mechanisms for communicating and the content of the message need to be based on the needs and

values of each community, as well as on the particular stage of the development process at which the community currently resides.

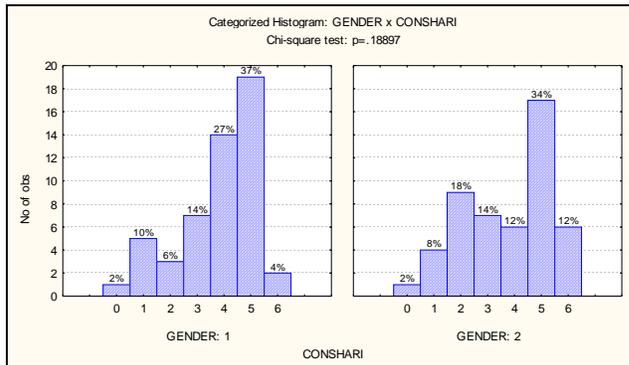
In order to identify the main factors inhibiting the sharing of information and knowledge in the Maganja da Costa District, during interviews and focus group discussions the respondents were asked what they saw to be the main factors limiting the sharing of information, knowledge and experience. From 101 respondents, 36 stated lack of habit; 20, lack of trust; 14, lack of solidarity; 12, fear; 9, arrogance; while the remainder stated lack of educational and information facilities. Most male respondents indicated that they saw lack of habit (19) and trust (14) as being the main constraints, while most female respondents recognised lack of habit (17) as the main limiting factor (see Table 5.4 and Graph 5.4). The statistical analysis demonstrates that there is no significant variation in terms of gender, age and level of education regarding views on the constraints on sharing information, knowledge and skills in the community, as the P-value of *Chi-square* test is higher than 5%. However, there is a slight indication that if a larger sample size were to be used, there could be a significant deviation in terms of gender and the type of constraints viewed as restricting access to information, knowledge and skills.

Table<sup>6</sup> 5.4: Gender in respect of constraints on the acquiring and sharing of IKS

| Marked cells have counts > 10. Chi-square test: p=.18897 |               |               |               |               |               |               |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| GENDER   | CONSHARI<br>0 | CONSHARI<br>1 | CONSHARI<br>2 | CONSHARI<br>3 | CONSHARI<br>4 | CONSHARI<br>5 | CONSHARI<br>6 | Row<br>Totals |
| 1  | 1             | 5             | 3             | 7             | 14            | 19            | 2             | 51            |
| Row %  | 1.96%         | 9.80%         | 5.88%         | 13.73%        | 27.45%        | 37.25%        | 3.92%         |               |
| 2  | 1             | 4             | 9             | 7             | 6             | 17            | 6             | 50            |
| Row %  | 2.00%         | 8.00%         | 18.00%        | 14.00%        | 12.00%        | 34.00%        | 12.00%        |               |
| Totals   | 2             | 9             | 12            | 14            | 20            | 36            | 8             | 101           |

<sup>6</sup> CONSHARI: 0 = not applicable; 1 = arrogance; 2 = fear; 3 = lack of solidarity; 4 = lack of trust; 5 = lack of habit; 6 = other.

Graph<sup>7</sup> 5.4: Gender in respect of constraints on the acquiring and sharing of IKS



Though the market is a powerful engine of information, knowledge and technological progress, it is not powerful enough to create and diffuse the information, knowledge and skills needed to eradicate poverty. Information, knowledge and skills are created in response to market pressures, not in response to the needs of the poor, who have little purchasing power. Nevertheless, information, knowledge and skills are tools of human development that potentially enable people to increase their income; to live longer; to be healthier; to enjoy a better standard of living; to participate more in their communities; and to lead more creative lives (UNDP, 2001b:3–27).

People range in their needs and priorities in terms of the information and knowledge that they require to satisfy their needs. During the interviews and focus group discussion, respondents were asked what type of information and knowledge they most needed. Out of 101 respondents, 20 (20%) reflected a primary interest in health issues, 19 (19%) in market-related issues (the prices of products), with only 7 (7%) reflecting a primary interest in agricultural information, such as access to inputs, yield and issues relating to disease. Most male respondents (27%) reflected a primary interest in public information (e.g. politics), while most female respondents (22%) reflected a primary interest in health-related information (see Table 5.5 and Graph 5.5 below). The difference between male and female responses regarding the type of information most preferred is not

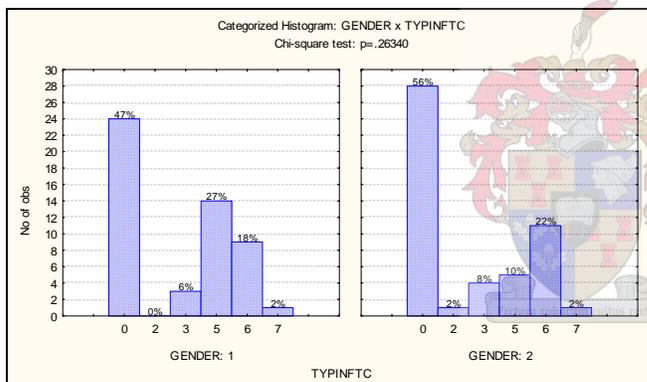
<sup>7</sup> CONSHARI: 0 = not applicable; 1 = arrogance; 2 = fear; 3 = lack of solidarity; 4 = lack of trust; 5 = lack of habit; 6 = other.

statistically significant, because the P-value of the likelihood ratio *Chi-square test* is higher than 5%. However, there is some indication that if a larger sample size were to be used, there could be a significant difference.

Table<sup>8</sup> 5.5: **Gender in respect of type of information required**

| Marked cells have counts > 10. Chi-square test: p=.26340 |               |               |               |               |               |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| GENDER   | TYPINFTC<br>0 | TYPINFTC<br>2 | TYPINFTC<br>3 | TYPINFTC<br>5 | TYPINFTC<br>6 | TYPINFTC<br>7 | Row<br>Totals |
| 1  | 24            | 0             | 3             | 14            | 9             | 1             | 51            |
| Row %  | 47.06%        | 0.00%         | 5.88%         | 27.45%        | 17.65%        | 1.96%         |               |
| 2  | 28            | 1             | 4             | 5             | 11            | 1             | 50            |
| Row %  | 56.00%        | 2.00%         | 8.00%         | 10.00%        | 22.00%        | 2.00%         |               |
| Totals   | 52            | 1             | 7             | 19            | 20            | 2             | 101           |

Graph<sup>9</sup> 5.5: **Gender in respect of type of information required**



The poor, lack relevant up-to-date information, knowledge and skills regarding their local context that might otherwise enable them to manage resources and products effectively (Patel, 1998:17; Treurnicht, 1997a:97). This lack can be addressed by way of interaction between communities and community members, or between community members and outsiders, through community meetings or workshops and traditional ceremonies and rituals. Strengthening of community participation (using the components of the building blocks) and the application of participation action research can also assist those living locally to access and share knowledge effectively (Cernea, 1991: 267–272; Chambers,

<sup>8</sup> TYPINFTC: 0 = not applicable; 2 = credit; 3 = agricultural; 5 = market prices; 6 = public; 7 = health.

<sup>9</sup> TYPINFTC: 0 = not applicable; 2 = credit; 3 = agricultural; 5 = market prices; 6 = public; 7 = health.

1997:158; Theron, 2005a:120). According to Bruiners (2003:46), information, knowledge and skills are best shared in isolated rural areas characterised by high illiteracy and poverty levels by means of the singing of songs, the telling of stories, the distribution of pamphlets or public journals containing relevant information, the provision of access to relevant information through community information resource centres, and through the conducting of traditional, including religious, ceremonies and rituals.

However, in the area of study most of the youth neither participate regularly in community meetings, nor do they express an interest in acquiring information, knowledge, skills and experience by way of attending to their elders, who participate in the local traditional mechanisms (ceremonies and rituals). During interviews and focus group discussions, local elders expressed the view that most young people lacked patience and did not pay attention to their elders. The youngsters spoke with disdain of the elders' views being obsolete and not sufficiently relevant to satisfy the demands of the contemporary world. As a result, most young people deliberately did not participate in community meetings or ceremonies organised by local leaders in order to discuss local concerns.

As a result of the intergenerational divide, most of the customs and practices that, in the past, conveyed valuable information relating to survival strategies were found, at the time of the study, to no longer be practised in the area of study. Such failure to convey information vital to the survival of the local community has led to especially the young exploiting the scarce remaining resources inefficiently, a situation which, in turn, only serves to increase the level of impoverishment of the local community. According to the respondents, in the past, the elders did not allow the youth to exploit unripe coconuts, urging them to wait until the fruit became ripe and ready for harvesting; the elders also used to identify which palm trees should be harvested and which should be sold. Some palm trees were protected from regular harvesting, due to their traditional or cultural value, as they had strong interconnections with the ancestors, with which they constituted a medium of communication. Other palm trees were preserved for their special genetic characteristics, or for the nutritional value and tastiness of their fruit. The indigenous

knowledge relating to the management of local resources was also extensive in relation to other products, such as cashew nut and mango, as well as in relation to natural forests. Much of this richness of traditional knowledge and systems has already been depleted.

One of the constraints for isolated communities is access to agricultural and market information and opportunities, as their interaction and relationship with people from outside their immediate area is very limited. Learning or enhancing skills is attained during interaction, dialogue and critical reflection with others (Chamber, 1997:130-135; Freire & Shor, 1987:8). The difficulties of mounting effective access to information and knowledge for the poor in rural areas are compounded by the high rates of illiteracy and the lack of a tradition of community empowerment and of consumer activists demanding information and asserting their rights to know (UNDP, 2001b:73).

The role of information and knowledge in enabling effective decision making is indicated by Swanepoel and De Beer (2006:51), who argue that “empowerment becomes empty rhetoric if people are starved of information so that they cannot make informed decisions” (Theron, 2005a:120–123). These researchers find that growth in self-reliance, dignity and contentment comes about as a result of a vigorous learning or information and knowledge sharing process, in which each and everyone learns as much as there is to be learnt. As a result, communities gain the capacity and power to participate and make decisions regarding issues of common concern, resulting in the creation of a shared destiny, wealth and value as well as poverty alleviation and sustainable economic development (Cooper & Vargas, 2004:35–44; Mbigi, 2005:96).

### **5.3.3 Institutional and organisational capacity**

Sustainable and equitable community development requires support from relevant institutions and authorities in the community (Cooper & Vargas, 2004:247). Such development entails expanding participation, the building of collective values and goals, the strengthening of a wide variety of local organisations, and the increasing of individual access to resources and opportunities (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006:60). The

enhancement of community organisation and leadership capabilities might enable people to improve local programmes of mutual help, which can lead to sustained livelihood strategies.

The isolation of poor communities can be addressed by the creation of external linkages between different communities or between communities and various authorities and agencies. True leadership can gain much from community development. Existing leaders are enabled to lead more effectively, and new leaders are thrust to the fore through the development of new institutions. Leadership is enhanced, especially through skill attainment. Those living in such communities gain the organisational skills of planning and negotiating, as well as the hard skills that enable them to engage in a range of activities, including those relating to agriculture, building, arts, and health care (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2006:41).

During the interviews and focus group discussions, it emerged that one of the factors that limits the effective use of local resources and which, consequently, leads to the widening of the poverty level in the area of study is the *absence of reliable, consistent and active community-based organisations* (CBOs) and leadership. The development of CBOs in isolated communities generally plays a role in mobilising the community around issues of common concern, mobilising the community to defend their interests and natural resources (Gittel, 1998:344). CBOs can represent the voice of the community in negotiations with the government, the private sector and other development actors. They can also represent the rights and needs of a community regarding roads, schools, clinics and other basic services required by the community. In addition, CBOs can promote development in isolated communities through the establishment of local initiatives for self-employment and income generation. CBOs can also play an inspiring role, by strengthening community leaders through boosting of their creativity, imagination, vision and values. In this way, CBOs can promote people's self-esteem, self-discovery, and the preservation of cultural values, identity and local resources.

An American study on community building revealed that a *family-based community leadership development* strategy played an important role in strengthening a community's organisational ability (Gittel, 1998:325-344). The strategy contributed to the mobilisation of resources and to the improvement of local basic services, such as clinics and schools, as well as the establishment of community information resource centres. The process also led to the discovery and promotion of new effective local leadership. According to the American case study, the premise was that “*if a person is an effective leader at home he could be an effective community leader as well*” (NCBN, 2003:4).

Currently, traditional and religious organisations are the only existing organisations in the area of study that can effectively represent the interests of the community. During interviews and focus group discussions, most of the respondents blamed the lack of representative institutions on the lack of organisation prevalent in the local communities, which are distrusting of one another (see also Table 5.4 and Graph 5.4). Another factor that probably constrains the organisational capacity of the community is the lack of imagination, creativity, initiative and social entrepreneurship capabilities among the youth.

Such findings lead to the deduction that, if the communities in the area of study were to be adequately organised and their local leaders were to act effectively, some of the existing problems could be solved. In addition, if the community possessed adequate entrepreneurial skills and capabilities, they could organise themselves, decide on or negotiate the prices of their products (hence gaining the bargaining power of supply) in groups, which would enhance their ability to profit from the sales of their products and which would also serve to minimise risks related to the bargaining power of buyers. Consequently, communities in the Maganja da Costa District could improve their living conditions.

### **5.3.4 Business skills, infrastructure, transport and trading systems**

According to the World Bank (2001:72), in order to have any impact on improving the conditions of the poor, most development agendas or policies must be accompanied by institutional support, investment in infrastructure, and complementary capacity-building at the micro level. Information and knowledge can help break down some of the barriers of physical remoteness that many of the poor face. The wider dissemination of information and knowledge can foster rural entrepreneurship and business opportunities, which, in turn, can lead to employment creation and improved access to financial markets, especially through the provision of basic microfinance services (Bruiners, 2003:32).

Rural entrepreneurship in developing countries is viewed as an important factor for poverty alleviation and rapid economic growth for self-employment creation, income generation and food supply (Rodriquez, 2002:49). However, rural markets lack infrastructure, transport and market information related to the pricing of products and services, market dynamics influenced by legislation and global markets, and readily available market opportunities. Although, most respondents in the Maganja da Costa District used to participate to a certain degree in the local market, generally, they were accustomed to selling ground nuts, beans, cassava, rice, maize meal, cashew nuts and coconuts (in the form of either dry or raw coconuts or copra). At the time of the study, they could no longer do so, due to the decline in agricultural yields and most of the previous infrastructure and other market facilities having been destroyed, which inhibits farmers from effectively participating in the local market.

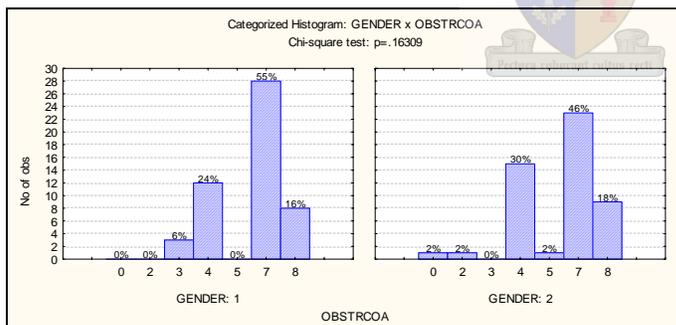
During the interviews and focus group discussions, the respondents were asked what they saw to be the main factors limiting their participation in the local market. 51 (51%) blamed the lack of appropriate market information, especially that relating to the price of agricultural products, while 27 (27%) blamed the lack of transport facilities and 17 (17%) blamed other factors, such as those relating to socio-cultural and gender issues. Analysis showed that both the male and female respondents faced the same market problems, such

as those relating to the lack of market information and transport facilities (see Table 5.6 and Graph 5.6 below). Statistical analysis using the likelihood ratio *Chi-square* test confirmed the above finds that no significant difference exists in terms of gender and types of obstacles in regards to local market participation, as the P-value is higher than 5%. However, there are some indications that if a larger sample were to be used, there might be a significant difference.

Table<sup>10</sup> 5.6: Gender in respect of obstacles to participating in rural marketing

| Marked cells have counts > 10. Chi-square test: p=.16309 |               |               |               |               |               |               |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| GENDER   | OBSTRCOA<br>0 | OBSTRCOA<br>2 | OBSTRCOA<br>3 | OBSTRCOA<br>4 | OBSTRCOA<br>5 | OBSTRCOA<br>7 | OBSTRCOA<br>8 | Row<br>Totals |
| 1  | 0             | 0             | 3             | 12            | 0             | 28            | 8             | 51            |
| Row %  | 0.00%         | 0.00%         | 5.88%         | 23.53%        | 0.00%         | 54.90%        | 15.69%        |               |
| 2  | 1             | 1             | 0             | 15            | 1             | 23            | 9             | 50            |
| Row %  | 2.00%         | 2.00%         | 0.00%         | 30.00%        | 2.00%         | 46.00%        | 18.00%        |               |
| Totals   | 1             | 1             | 3             | 27            | 1             | 51            | 17            | 101           |

Graph<sup>11</sup> 5.6: Gender in respect of obstacles to participating in rural marketing



A popular alternative that is currently emerging aimed at protecting and encouraging the participation of rural farmers in the market is the mobilisation of farmers in the form of co-operatives or the grouping of small numbers of farmers so as to facilitate trading in

<sup>10</sup> OBSTRCOA: 0 = not applicable; 1 = lack of experience/knowledge; 2 = lack of passion; 3 = lack of credit; 4 = transport; 5 = lack of start-up resources; 6 = lack of patience; 7 = market constraints (low prices); 8 = others.

<sup>11</sup> OBSTRCOA: 0 = not applicable; 1 = lack of experience/knowledge; 2 = lack of passion; 3 = lack of credit; 4 = transport; 5 = lack of start-up resources; 6 = lack of patience; 7 = market constraints (low prices); 8 = others.

their agricultural products (Burkey, 1993:131–136; Chayanov, 1987:5). Such mobilisation is sometimes combined with the establishment of strategic trading points close to where the farmers live and farm. Establishing such strategic trading points serves to minimise marketing constraints, such as the cost of transport, that most rural farmers face during their participation in the market (see Table 5.6 and Graph 5.6), as well as to facilitate their access to market information and knowledge and to financial support, with which they can purchase agricultural equipment and supplies (Pollnac, 1991:273–279).

During the interviews and focus group discussions, respondents stated that the NGO Agencia de Desenvolvimento de Recursos Adventistas (ADRA), during the harvesting seasons, used to assist the communities by providing them with market information relating to the current prices of crops. ADRA also tried to organise the farmers into groups in order to facilitate the exchange of their products and their sharing of market information. According to the respondents, the information provided by ADRA is of value in preparing them for, and protecting them against, price speculation by foreign merchants.

Despite the role played by ADRA in the past, during the interviews and focus group discussion, most of the respondents stated that they could not understand the advantages of marketing as a group, as they did not see the practicability of adopting such an approach in their communities. Such a perception might be due to a lack of information regarding such an approach. The approach previously adopted by ADRA in relation to the organising and dissemination of market information was most probably also not appropriate. The respondents become aware of the importance of the strategy. During the interviews and focus group discussion, the respondents were asked what they conceived to be the advantages of marketing as a group. While 54 (54%) respondents stated security, 35 (35%) indicated the sharing of experience and 10 (10%) noted an increase in income. In addition, most (34) male respondents stated that the most important advantage of marketing as a group lies in the security (protection against speculation by external merchants) that it provides, while most (24) female respondents indicated the sharing of experience as being the most important advantage (see Table 5.7 and Graph 5.7 below).

The statistical analysis of the relevant contingency table using the likelihood ratio *Chi-square* test shows that there is a significant variation in terms of gender regarding knowing about the advantages of marketing in a group, as the P-value, 0,02 is less than 5% (see Table 5.7).

The above results confirm the premise that most of those in the Maganja da Costa District lack adequate market-related information and do not understand the advantages that can be gained from marketing as a group. In addition, the results confirm that lack of trust in any guarantee that they will not lose their money or products, habit and confidence are regarded, principally by male respondents, as constituting the most constraining factors on the sharing of information and on participating in the local market. However, in the northern region of Mozambique this approach has been widely used, especially by tobacco, cotton and cashew farmers.

Table<sup>12</sup> 5.7: **Gender in respect of awareness of advantages of marketing as a group**

| Marked cells have counts > 10. Chi-square test: p=.01904 |               |               |               |               |               |               |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| GENDER   | ADVSELGR<br>0 | ADVSELGR<br>1 | ADVSELGR<br>2 | ADVSELGR<br>3 | ADVSELGR<br>5 | Row<br>Totals |
| 1  | 0             | 34            | 6             | 11            | 0             | 51            |
| Row %  | 0.00%         | 66.67%        | 11.76%        | 21.57%        | 0.00%         |               |
| 2  | 1             | 20            | 4             | 24            | 1             | 50            |
| Row %  | 2.00%         | 40.00%        | 8.00%         | 48.00%        | 2.00%         |               |
| Totals   | 1             | 54            | 10            | 35            | 1             | 101           |

<sup>12</sup> ADVSELGR: 0 = not applicable; 1= security; 2 = income; 3 = share experiences; 4 = mutual help; 5 = others.

Graph<sup>13</sup> 5.7: Gender in respect of awareness of advantages of marketing as a group

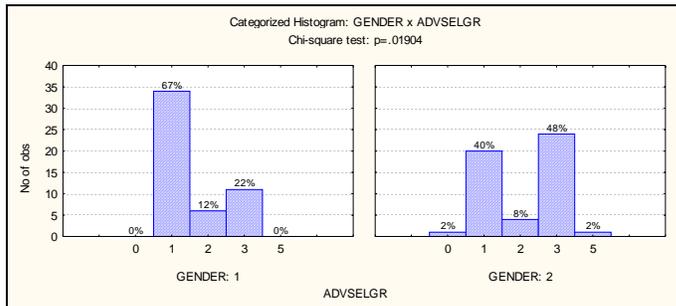
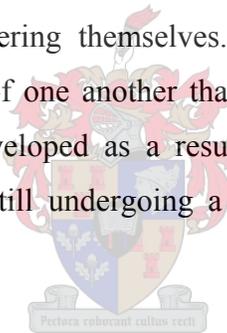


Table 5.7 and Graph 5.7 show that, generally, the male respondents indicated that they thought that the most important advantage that they could *gain* from marketing in a group is *security* or *confidence against* the speculation of merchants. In contrast, the female respondents stated that, when marketing in a group, they could *gain experience* from their other colleagues, thereby empowering themselves. The male respondents seemed to exhibit greater fear and mistrust of one another than did the female respondents. Such fear and mistrust might have developed as a result of the civil war, in which most combatants were men, who are still undergoing a process of reconciliation with one another.



Based on the above argument, the claim can be made that community building could be instrumental in strengthening the levels of communication and trust between the different communities, as well as the building of collective values, goals and actions. These factors can lead to the development of an adequate information and knowledge-sharing process, which, in turn, may lead to organisational, leadership and entrepreneurship skill enhancement. Building collective values, goals and actions can also facilitate the establishment and improvement of the local infrastructures and trading systems and, consequently, the improvement of local livelihood strategies, as well as the achievement of economic self-reliance and sustainable development.

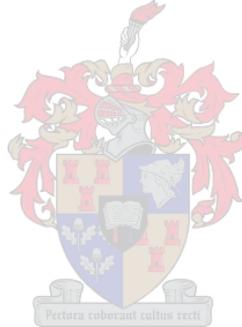
<sup>13</sup> ADVSELGR: 0 = not applicable; 1 = security; 2 = income; 3 = share experiences; 4 = mutual help; 5 = others.

## 5.6 Conclusions: The need for a community building approach

Most of the development approaches discussed in Chapter IV assume that increased economic growth will automatically benefit the poor through providing increased economic opportunities, including jobs (World Bank, 2001:72). However, the results discussed in Chapter V have shown that economic growth does not automatically translate into poverty alleviation, and that, in fact, strong economic growth can lead to an increase in the amount of inequality present (in effect, widening the gap between rich and poor), especially when such growth is focused only in a few sectors (e.g. in industrial led-economic growth) and involves technologies that only benefit small groups of people (Cooper & Vargas, 2004:247–240). Economic growth is crucial to the creation of opportunities, but growth, in itself, is insufficient. The poor and the vulnerable may not be able to benefit from growth, because they lack health, skills or access to a basic infrastructure, a market and reliable up-to-date information (Treurnicht, 1997a:97). The possession of information and knowledge are crucial to the empowerment of the poor, allowing them to take advantage of opportunities created by growth (World Bank, 2001:2). Furthermore, well-functioning markets are key to generating sustainable growth and expanding opportunities for the poor, especially in light of their reliance on formal and informal markets for the selling of their labour and products, for the financing of their investments, and for insuring against risks. Such factors serve presently to limit the effective use of local resources by the poor in the Maganja da Costa District.

Based on the above arguments and the results discussed in Chapter V, it is not surprising that most of Mozambique's development strategies aimed at eradicating poverty do not sufficiently contribute to the improvement of the livelihood of the rural poor. Such inadequacy of input relates to the fact that there is a lack of information, knowledge, skills and experience as regards the formulation of coherent and local anti-poverty strategies that might otherwise improve the outlook and capacities of those living in the area (Bruiners, 2003:32). Poverty must be addressed in all its dimensions, and not only in terms of economic growth alone (Cooper & Vargas, 2004:106).

In order effectively to reach the poor, the implementation of development frameworks and strategies need to be supported by institutions in the form of “action centred networks” (Cooper & Vargas, 2004:247–248), investment in the infrastructure, and complementary strategies related to decentralisation and capacity-building at the micro level (Rondinelli, 1993:1–27). Community building could be the answer to existing inadequacies, as such a process could enable people to develop collective values, goals and actions through community participation, which, in turn, is likely to lead to social learning. Such social learning could lead to capacity-building, greater self-reliance and the empowerment of communities, resulting in the enhancement of community organisation and leadership (Burkey, 1993:50–51; Theron, 2005b:123). Such enhancement could then, in turn, inspire the growth of local entrepreneurs, who could then take advantage of the opportunities created by growth (World Bank, 2003:2) to improve their own livelihoods, whereby they could achieve greater self-reliance or economic empowerment.



## CHAPTER VI

### Conclusions and recommendations of the study

#### 6.1. Introduction

Community building can, by means of authentic participation and partnership of all the stakeholders (the community, local government, the private sector, NGOs, CBOs, government institutions) involved, play a key role in breaking through the obstacles that otherwise inhibit the rural poor from effectively exploiting their local resources for the improvement of their livelihoods and the achievement of economic self-reliance. Community building, as a new concept in Africa, still needs to have its full meaning made clear. Generally, community building realises two levels of change: physical and social. The concept of *physical change* is associated with building the community through increasing access to information and technology, as well as improving community-based services, such as clinics, schools, roads and community information and resource centres. The concept of *social change* is related to the mobilisation and building of the community's collective values, goals and actions towards the strengthening of people's organisational, leadership and entrepreneurship skills. Chapter VI attempts to identify ways in which community building can be applied in rural Mozambique, especially in the Maganja da Costa District, taking into account local socio-economic, political, cultural and environmental complexities and dynamics.

#### 6.2. Objectives of the chapter

Chapter VI aims to formulate conclusions, based on the findings presented in Chapter V, and sustained by the theories covered in Chapter II, as well as by the national policy frameworks outlined in Chapter IV. Chapter VI aims to provide recommendations to promote the effective use of local resources in the area of study in order to enable the local poor to improve their livelihoods and to achieve self-reliance, as well as economic self-empowerment and development.

### 6.3. Concluding remarks

The Maganja da Costa District is rich in natural resources, such as marine resources, coconut palms; cultural resources, such as the diverse cultural and traditional knowledge regarding to agriculture and medicinal plants; and socio-economic resources, such as small-scale animal husbandry and cashew nut cultivation. Due to its long coastal line, the area is also suitable for tourism development. In addition, because of its particular climatic conditions, the area is also appropriate for growing a variety of crops, such as bananas, ground nuts and beans.

Factors that inhibit the poor in the study area from effectively exploiting the abovementioned local resources for their livelihood include: i) the lack of knowledge, skills and talents; ii) the inadequate mechanisms for sharing local information, knowledge and skills; iii) the ineffective community organisation and leadership; iv) the lack of entrepreneurial skills and capabilities; v) the inadequate infrastructure and system of transport and trading; vi) the lack of financial and institutional support provided by the government and other development sectors; vii) the poor system of networking, linkage and partnership; and viii) the high level of illiteracy, isolation and distance from the authorities. Other factors include the lack of trust, confidence and solidarity prevalent among the different communities, as well as the inappropriate planning and implementation of national development strategies, programmes and projects.

Most of the development programmes or strategies currently being implemented in Mozambique, favour rapid economic growth due to the possibilities that such growth offers for the creation of job opportunities, an increase in income and poverty alleviation. However, economic growth does not automatically translate into poverty alleviation, because the approach is simplistic, as it is generally focused on development in only the industrial or technological sectors, so that only small groups tend to be able to benefit from it, so that, in effect, such development serves only to entrench the already existing inequalities between rich and poor. The poor and vulnerable usually do not benefit from growth, due to their existing disadvantages in health, skills, infrastructure, market access

and information. As a result, most of the development strategies that are aimed at creating jobs, increasing income levels and alleviating poverty do not contribute sufficiently to the well-being of the rural poor.

People in the study area acquire and share information, knowledge and experiences inter-generationally through customary traditional practices, such as traditional ceremonies and rituals, as well as through community workshops organised by development agencies. Due to the lack of trust, habit, confidence and solidarity prevailing among the communities, the youth tend not to utilise the existing information adequately. Such underutilisation of information may negatively influence the way in which community members harness, use and manage local resources, products and knowledge systems. The negative impact may also limit the participation of such members in decision-making processes and in the market as well, as in the management of livelihood strategies. In addition, the above constraints limit the organisational, leadership and entrepreneurial capabilities of communities and disrupt any tendency towards social cohesion.

The role of traditional leadership in the study area has gradually fallen into disuse, due to the lack of trust and solidarity generated in such leadership by central government, which tends to favour the local official authorities in issues of local governance, which detracts from the benefits to be gained by way of traditional leadership. Such detraction may have resulted in the disruption of traditional values and cultures, as well as in a lack of social cohesion and consequent economic ruin. Although the role of traditional leadership in the study area is currently undermined, the traditional leaders, nevertheless, assist the communities in dealing with their daily challenges, such as drought and agricultural and social-cultural challenges. Traditional leadership is central to building collective values, goals and actions, and in strengthening the community's harmonious relationship with its immediate environs. Traditional leadership could continue to provide important guidance in regard to the effective preservation of traditional and cultural values and identity, as well as in sustainable natural resource use. By so doing, a socio-cultural and natural resource balance could be established, that would be beneficial to both people and the natural surroundings.

To enable poor people in the study area to achieve self-reliance and economic empowerment, there must be deliberate implementation of a community building approach. Community building integrates the *dimensions of development* (equity, capacity-building, and self-reliance) with the *building blocks of development* (participation, social learning, empowerment and sustainability). Community building usually draws on PAR in addressing the issues of economic self-reliance and empowerment, taking into account both the specific nature and the complexities of opportunities or strengths, as well as the constraints and characteristics of the rural poor. Although the concept of community building is new to Africa, people in Mozambique, especially in the Maganja da Costa District, can learn to gain numerous benefits from its application, because the approach could lead to economic empowerment and poverty alleviation, if accurately implemented.

Improving local people's livelihoods and achieving economic self-reliance or empowerment as outcomes of community building, hold hope, and much challenge, for the future. Significant efforts by local stakeholders are required in order to change the existing perceptions of poverty and to increase organisational, leadership and entrepreneurial capacity. Change is also needed at the micro level of the household, as it has been proved that effective household leadership can translate into effective community leadership. Such change should result in the building of strong families and consequently strong communities, as well as in strengthening the social cohesion of the communities. In this way, community members will be enabled to become economically self-sufficient and self-reliant, to have their poverty alleviated and to achieve sustainable development.

#### 6.4. Recommendations

The challenges to those living in the Maganja da Costa District in regards to achieving economic self-reliance or empowerment through community building are numerous, as can be seen by the following recommendations:

- a) Participation Action Research should be recognised and applied as an appropriate tool for grassroots planning, implementation and management of poverty reduction and rural development strategies.
- b) The existing levels of social cohesion (trust and solidarity) and confidence should be strengthened through community organisation (CBOs) and especially traditional leadership, as the role of local leadership has been undermined, despite its potential for preserving and moulding traditional values and belief systems, cultural identity and local resource use and management systems.
- c) New effective ways of equitably and sustainably exploiting local resources and products aimed at securing a livelihood should be explored, which would minimise the use of other non-renewable resources and products, such as the soil, coconut palms and fish.
- d) New additional alternatives for survival, based on local community resources and the boosting of local cultural and traditional values, beliefs and costumes, as well as on their imagination, creativity and entrepreneurial capabilities, should be investigated.
- e) The possibility for expanding partnerships and networks should be explored and strengthened between the communities and the government, private sector and NGOs aimed at further capacity-building, resource mobilisation and infrastructure development for the attraction of investments.

The government must ensure that development strategies are planned and implemented and that their impact is adequately monitored, while allocating sufficient resources and facilities to enable community members to obtain maximum benefit from their present circumstances.

Additional research is needed in order to identify the main reasons for the neglect of the role of traditional leadership and the positive impact that it could have on community well-being. Furthermore, research is also needed to identify the steps that should be taken in applying the community building approach in rural Mozambique, as well as into how best to assess its impact on sustainable rural development.

A last comment. Exploratory studies of this nature entail high costs, as the researcher has to conduct participatory observation. The time and financial resources allocated for data collection were insufficient to allow for an adequate enough sample size, as originally envisaged, resulting in the size of the sample having to be reduced. Such limitations may have detracted from the quality of the information gathered, especially when taking into account the size of the District and the poor quality of the roads. Another constraint faced during the research process was the lack of available information relating to community building. Therefore more research on the topic is needed, especially as regards the practicability of the concept in the African context. Future research will also require a greater time and financial resource allocation in order to allow for effective exploratory studies to be undertaken.



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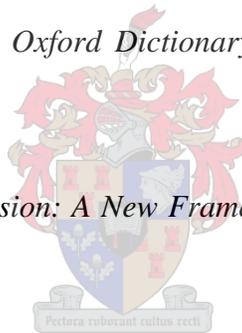
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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I a): Questionnaire for in-depth household interviews

#### Semi-structured interviews for in-depth household interviews and discussions

Village: \_\_\_\_\_ Interview No.: \_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_/ 04 / 2005

#### 1. Identification:

1.1. Position within the household:

[1] Head of household [2] Spouse [3] Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

1.2. Age: \_\_\_\_\_

1.3. Gender:

[1] Male [2] Female

1.4. Members of household: \_\_\_\_\_

1.5. Highest education

[1] Primary [2] Secondary [3] Pre-university [4] Other (specify)

1.6. Occupation:

[1] House worker [2] Carpenter [3] Fisherman [4] Farmer [5] Nursery [6] Other \_\_\_\_\_

#### 2. Access to and management of local resources (land, coconuts, forest, sea and coastal products, indigenous products)

2.1. What are the most important resources/products for livelihood?

[1] Coconut palms [2] Land [3] Sea fish [4] Sea forest [5] Palm wood [6] Other (specify)

2.2. Who controls and decides on their utilisation?

[1] Household [2] Private sector [3] Local elders [4] Community [5] Other (specify)

2.3. Are the local sources being harvested today in the same way as in the past 20 years?

[1] Yes [2] No [3] Not applicable

2.4. If not, what is the main reason for change?

[1] Unemployment [2] Population growth [3] Loss of cultural values [4] Hunger [5] Other \_\_\_\_\_

2.5. Does the community have other sources (e.g. traditional products) that can be used for livelihood, but which are not being used? [1] Yes [2] No [3] Not applicable

2.6. If yes, name them. \_\_\_\_\_

2.7. If yes, why are they not being used?

[1] Lack of ability [2] Tradition/religion [3] Lack of knowledge [4] Restriction [5] Other \_\_\_\_\_

### 3. Agricultural production and system of cultivation

- 3.1 Does the household own a farm/farms? [1] Yes [2] No
- 3.2. If yes, who cultivates and controls the farm(s)?\_
- [1] The head of household [2] Both [3] Woman [4] Children [5] Woman and children  
[6] The whole family [7] Other\_\_\_\_\_
- 3.3. What are the main crops grown on the farm(s)?
- [1] Rice [2] Maize [3] Cassava [4] Potatoes [5] Beans [6] Cashews [7] Coconuts [8] Other\_\_\_\_\_
- 3.4. What system of cultivation does the farmer/household use?
- [1] Monoculture [2] Intercropping [3] Others (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 3.5. Why?\_\_\_\_\_
- 3.6. Does the household apply any chemicals in order to improve soil fertility? [1] Yes [2] No
- 3.7. If no, what does it do to improve the soil fertility and to increase productivity/yield?
- [1] Nothing [2] Rotation of crops [3] Policulture/biodiversity [4] Mulching [5] Pausing  
[6] Rotation of the soil or removal [7] Others\_\_\_\_\_
- 3.8. What are the biggest problems for farmers in the community?
- [1] Lack of tools [2] Lack of seeds [3] Lack of disease control [4] Lack of fertiliser [5] Other\_\_\_\_\_

### 4. Local information, knowledge and skill-sharing mechanisms

- 4.1. Do the communities have anywhere from which they can get information and assistance?
- [1] Yes [2] No
- 4.2. If yes, what kind of technical assistance and information do such sources provide to the communities?
- [1] Vocational training [2] Credit [3] Agricultural information [4] Information relating to market prices  
[5] Public information [6] Health-related [7] Other (specify)
- 4.3. If not, where do the communities go if they need information or technical assistance?
- [1] To Quelimane [2] To Maganja [3] To friends in the city [4] Nowhere [5] Other (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 4.4. If a member of the community brings experience from the city, does he share it with the other community members? [1] Yes [2] No [3] Not applicable
- 4.5. If a community member has a problem with his crops, farm or business, does he consult others in this regard?
- [1] Yes [2] No [3] Not applicable
- 4.6. If yes, who is most frequently consulted?
- [1] Local elders [2] Extended family [3] Traditional leaders [4] Friends [5] Other (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 4.7. Why?\_\_\_\_\_
- 4.8. If not, what inhibits people from sharing their information, experience and knowledge?
- [1] Arrogance [2] Fear [3] Lack of solidarity [4] Lack of trust [5] Other (specify)

## 5. Entrepreneurial skills, knowledge and business experience

- 5.1. Has the household ever had or does it currently own any business? [1] Yes [2] No
- 5.2. If yes, what type of business is or was it?  
[1] Carpentry [2] Poultry [3] Agro-business [4] Shelter [5] Handcraft [6] Other (specify)
- 5.3. What products were or are being sold?  
[1] Agricultural [2] Fish [3] Coconuts [4] Goods [5] Other (specify)
- 5.4. Who was or is running the business?  
[1] The male head of the household [2] The woman [3] The children [4] Other (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 5.5. If not, does he aspire to own a business? [1] Yes [2] No
- 5.6. If yes, what kind of business do they want to own, or which products do they want to sell?  
[1] Handcraft [2] Carpentry [3] Grocery [4] Agro-business [5] Other (specify)
- 5.7. Why?\_\_\_\_\_
- 5.8. What are the constraints to starting your own business?  
[1] Lack of experience/skills [2] Lack of passion [3] Lack of support/credit [4] Lack of transport  
[5] Lack of personal funds [6] Lack of persistence/patience [7] Lack of market access [8] Others (specify)

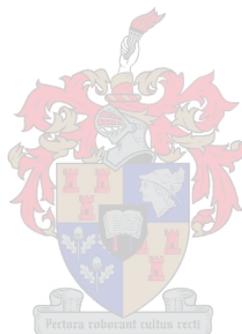
## 6. Community leadership, organisation and participation in decision-making

- 6.1. How does a community member become a community leader?  
[1] By heritage [2] By community election [3] By government election [4] By another method  
(specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 6.2. Are you happy with the method of becoming a community leader? [1] Yes [2] No
- 6.3. If not, why not?  
[1] Performance [2] Age [3] Gender [4] Responsibility/Behaviour [5] Skills/Experience  
[6] Other (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 6.4. Do the communities meet regularly to discuss their common concerns? [1] Yes [2] No
- 6.5. If yes, what kinds of matters are mostly discussed at the meetings?  
[1] Religious [2] Public security [3] Health [4] Natural resource use [5] Poverty [6] Unemployment  
[6] Hunger management [7] Disaster management [9] Other (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 6.6. Who usually organises these meetings?  
[1] The community leader [2] The CBO [3] An outside agent [4] Community members [5] Other  
(specify)
- 6.7. Who participates most in these meetings?  
[1] Adult men [2] Adult women [3] Youths [4] Both men and women [5] Others (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
- 6.8. Why?  
\_\_\_\_\_

6.9. What is the most important organisation or who is the most important role-player in the community?

[1] The local government [2] The local private sector [3] Churches

[4] The traditional nursery organisation [5] The youth organisation [6] The woman's organisation [7] The school [8] Other (specify)\_\_\_\_\_



## 1 b) Questionnaire for focus-group interviews and discussions

Number of the group: \_\_\_\_\_ Village/Locality: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_ / 04 / 05

1. Quais são as principais fontes de sobrevivência das comunidades?

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2. Que factores influenciam o desempenho destas fontes ou estratégias locais de sobrevivência (geração de rendimentos familiares e de segurança alimentar)?

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3. Como é que as comunidades obtêm informação e saberes relacionados com gestão dos recursos locais, produção e comercialização agrícolas?

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4. Que influência desempenha os líderes tradicionais locais na gestão das fontes ou estratégias de sobrevivência e solução dos obstáculos ao desenvolvimento?

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5. Como a comunidade envisionsa elevar as oportunidades locais de geração de auto-emprego, rendimento familiar e de segurança alimentar?

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6. Qual é a maior aspiração ou necessidade da comunidade ou grupo?

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7. Quais são as maiores forças e fraquezas da comunidade ou do grupo (SWOT)?

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8. Quais são os problemas que a comunidade pode resolver por se e quais são os que a comunidade precisa de intervenção ou ajuda de alguém de fora?

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9. Qual é a pessoa ou instituição local que presta mais assistência a comunidade?

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9. Comentarios gerais

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**1 c) Questionnaire for key-informant interviews and discussions**

Name of interviewer: \_\_\_\_\_ Village: \_\_\_\_\_ No: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_/04/05

1. What are the main factors influencing the development of the village (such as poverty, low income or food insecurity)?

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2. What are the main factors influencing access to market and agricultural information, knowledge and skills (such as chains or linkages of local knowledge flows)?

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3. How can the communities overcome these obstacles and what should be the role of the local indigenous knowledge systems?

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4. What are the main strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities (SWOT) of the communities?

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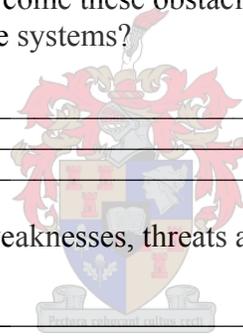
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5. What problems can the communities themselves solve and what are the problems that require outside intervention for solution?

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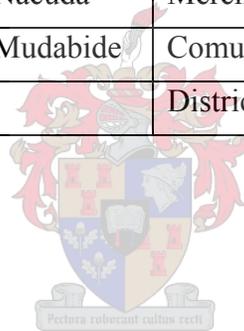
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## Appendix II: List of key informants interviewed

| Name of the respondent     | Village  | Position                 | Date         |
|----------------------------|----------|--------------------------|--------------|
| 1. Regulo Made             | Missal   | Traditional leader       | 15/ 04 /05   |
| 2. Regulo Maduela          | Maduela  | Traditional leader       | 12 / 04 /05  |
| 3. Regulo Muareia          | Muareia  | Traditional leader       | 14 / 04 /05  |
| 4. Regulo Capitao          | Capitao  | Traditional leader       | 25 / 04 / 05 |
| 5. Regulo Madabo           | Madabo   | Traditional leader       | 19 / 04 /05  |
| 6. Regulo Mudabide         | Mutabide | Traditional leader       | 21 / 04 /05  |
| 7. Regulo Tagana           | Tagana   | Traditional leader       | 17 / 04 /05  |
| 8. Lucas Maconta           | Missale  | Comun. dev. agente-ADRA  | 11/ 04 /05   |
| 9. Sr Domingos             | Mocubela | Merchant/entrepreneur    | 28 / 04 / 05 |
| 10. Sr Diogo               | Nacuda   | Merchant/entrepreneur    | 22/ 04 / 05  |
| 11. Latifo Nunes           | Mudabide | Comun.dev.agent-ADRA     | 16/ 04 /05   |
| 12. District Administrator |          | District local authority | 10 / 04 / 05 |



**Appendix III: Map of the study area: Maganja da Costa District**

