

Mozambique

Report **Hosting Families**

SOCIAL ANALYSIS OF RURAL COMMUNITIES LIVING IN DISASTER PRONE AREAS OF ZAMBEZIA.



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Table of Content

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Acronym and Abbreviations | 05 |
| Introduction | 07 |
| 1. The natural resources | 08 |
| 1.1 Living in disaster prone areas or being resettled | 14 |
| 2. The social framework: organisation and connection | 15 |
| 2.1 The leadership | 16 |
| 2.2 The community | 21 |
| 2.3 The family | 23 |
| 3. The human capital: knowledge and health | 25 |
| 3.1 The Education and Qualification | 25 |
| 3.2 Health | 26 |
| 4. The physical capital: infrastructure and services | 27 |
| 4.1 The Village: Housing and Infrastructure | 27 |
| 4.2 Land tenure in Mozambique | 31 |
| 5. The financial capital: livelihood and economic opportunities | 35 |
| 6. The socio-economic impact of the floods | 37 |
| Annexes | |
| A Case study - Namacurra | 40 |
| B Case study - Maganja da Costa..... | 44 |
| C References..... | 48 |

Acronyms and Abbreviations

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| CBO | Community Based Organisation |
| CCGC* | Disaster Management Coordination Council |
| CL-GRC* | Local Disaster Risk Management Committee |
| CENOE* | National Emergency Operations Centre |
| COE* | Emergency Operations Centre (Provincial level) |
| COSACA | Consortium of NGOs (Concern, Save the Children, Care) |
| CTGC* | Disaster Management Technical Council |
| CVM* | Mozambican Red Cross |
| CRE | Spanish Red Cross |
| DRM | Disaster Risk Management |
| DRR | Disaster Risk Reduction |
| DUAT | The right to use and profit from the land |
| FEWS NET | Famine Early Warning System Network |
| GAA | German Agro Action |
| HCT | Humanitarian Country Team |
| HCT-WG | Humanitarian Country Team-Working Group |
| IFRC | International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies |
| INAM* | National Meteorological Institute |
| INE* | National Institute of Statistic |
| INGC* | National Institute for Disaster Management |
| IOM | International Organization for Migration |
| MZM | Meticaís (i.e. Mozambican currency) |
| NFIs | Non-Food Items |
| NGOs | Non-Governmental Organizations |
| OCHA | Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN) |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNAPROC* | National Civil Protection Unit |
| UNFPA | United Nations Fund for Population Activities |
| UN-Habitat | United Nations Human Settlements Programme |
| UNHCR | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees |
| WASH | Water, sanitation and hygiene |

*Acronyms of Mozambican Government ministries and bodies are those of their official names in Portuguese

Introduction

The present study is based on the observations and findings of the field survey conducted within the communities of Namacurra and Maganja da Costa, two Districts of the Province of Zambezia, outlined in the “Output 1-The Field report” and integrated with an extensive desk-top review of available documentation and other related studies by different Institutions and Organisations.

The purpose of this document is to provide an in-depth analysis of important aspects concerning the communities living in the most disaster prone areas of Zambezia in order to feed them into the discussion about programmatic actions and type of appropriate support to hosting arrangements during future emergency in the country.

The intention is to promote the inclusion of host communities and families’ support in the agenda of future humanitarian response recognising the opportunities offered by hosting arrangements as an option in the menu of assistance provided in the shelter sector during the emergency phase.

The findings of the filed survey described that in the aftermath of 2013 floods, affected communities actively reacted and made all possible efforts to cope with the shock including providing shelter assistance by hosting the affected families. Unfortunately such spontaneous aptitude of the community to cope with the disaster was limited by the real possibility to provide the required mutual genuine assistance to the affected neighbours including hosting them:

- the traditional existing houses are commonly small and unable to provide adequate space for another family (the hosted family);
- the already frequently poor conditions of the families, consequently made worse by the impact of the disaster, couldn’t facilitate the sharing of food or other basic items in order to meet the immediate needs of the displaced families.

Strong communities can mutually provide assistance to the most affected individuals - Spontaneous hosting arrangements are a sustainable form of shelter assistance in strong communities.

The first step of this process is to come to an understanding of the relevance and the opportunities offered by hosting arrangements during a disaster responses and the related implication of this mutual assistance in programming the improvement of community *resilience*.

It stands to reason that “strong” communities can react more effectively to the shocks including making more sustainable the spontaneous hosting arrangements. The level of resilience a community has is key in this sense. The resilience of a community can be measured as the sustained ability to utilize available resources to respond to, to withstand, and to recover from adverse situations. In recent years, there has been a growing recognition that strengthening resilience to disasters is not only about disaster management but an essential component of all emergency and development programming. Communities/householdss with sustainable

livelihoods, good levels of health care and access to a strong and accountable civil society are less susceptible to hazards and faster to recover.

The International Federation has made it a priority to ensure that disaster risk reduction is an integral part of its development work and that all its programmes work towards it in an integrated and mutually supportive way. A recent study published by IFRC “Understanding community resilience and program factors that strengthen them” is here presented and used to structure this first part of the study.

A list of five characteristics which refers to the five capitals¹ can be used to describe a safe and resilient community:

A safe and resilient community:

- can manage its natural assets;
- is organised and connected;
- is knowledgeable and healthy;
- has infrastructure and services;
- has economic opportunities.

Meeting the **basic needs** (shelter, food, water, health) is a prerequisite to cope with the disaster and individuals are able to do that can survive. The **assets** (listed as 5 capitals: natural, physical, social, political and financial) are part of the critical buffers to withstand shocks and stresses. Finally, but perhaps most importantly is the capacity of the community to adapt to change, to self-organize, act and learn from experience; factors which ultimately enable communities to mobilise their assets and resources.

The following section outlines the assessed characteristics of the communities living in the most disaster prone areas of Zambezia and provides basic information which can feed to recommendations on hosting arrangements (Output 4).

Distinction should be made between those assets within the control of the individual and the access to external assistance and resources during the post disaster assistance from Government and NGOs.

However assets and resources alone are insufficient to be prepared in view of future emergencies. It is the qualities of those assets which determine the safety and the resilience of a community.

No community is ever free of risks or absolutely resilient against all hazards; building resilience is therefore an on-going process, rather than an outcome. A safe and resilient community is

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¹ The five capitals are used as framework to analyse the livelihoods of a community or HH where the Human capital comprises the skills, knowledge, ability to labor and good health; the Social capital refers to the networks and connectedness among community members and the outside the Natural capital includes the natural resources stocks upon which people relies such as land, forest, marine/wild resources; the Physical capital encompasses basic infrastructure (such as shelter) and production inputs; finally, the Financial capital is the availability of cash or equivalent that enables people to adopt different livelihood strategies. The five capitals is a part of the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach that has been adopted by many Humanitarian and Development Agencies (i.e the IFRC)

the result of cumulative action and intervention over time, involving multiple actors operating across multiple sectors.

Therefore pro-active measures on hosting arrangements should be considered also in Continuity Plans and included in any Disaster Preparedness Programmes.

The intention is to create sustainable prerequisites to spontaneous hosting arrangements. Creating the prerequisites for spontaneous hosting arrangements means to create synergy between the implementing Community Based Disaster Preparedness (CBDP), Community Based Disaster Risk Reduction (CBDRR) and Development programmes (integrated programming) in order to foster the solidarity, and hence community autonomy and resilience instead of inducing dependency to external aid..

This approach could in part answer to the concerns exposed to Consultants by key stakeholders during the interviews on possible negative consequences to assist the hosting arrangements affecting the most important component of such practice: solidarity.

Moreover this study attempt to outline an approach to hosting arrangements in order to guide and inform programmatic decision about appropriate types of actions to be undertaken during two of the most relevant phases of the disaster management cycle:

a. Contingency Plans and Disaster Preparedness Programming

Assessing the resilience of the community: to understand the capacity of families to cope with the shock and if spontaneous hosting arrangements can be fostered and stimulated.

b. Disaster Response Actions

Assessing the impact of a natural disaster on the social framework of the communities and how to complement limited capacity for hosting with external assistance.

1. The natural resources

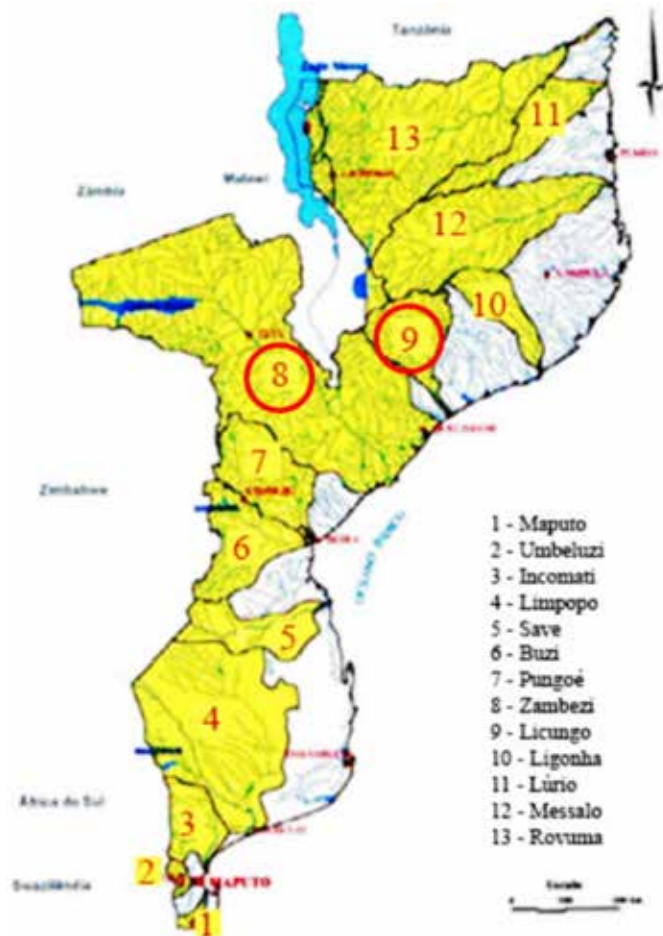
The considered rural communities of Zambezia haven't the ability to assess, manage and monitor its risks, but they can learn new skills and build on past experience and benefit from community based preparedness plans to be established by CLGRCs and supported prior to future emergencies.

Mozambique stretches in the tropical and subtropical region comprising thereafter tropical to subtropical climates, locally modified by effects of the location at the offshore warm-waters of the Mozambique Current and the distance from these waters, as well as by effects of the altitude. Mozambique can be divided into four distinct units; coastal lowlands, middle plateau, upland plateau and the mountainous areas. These form belts of decreasing altitude from the interior to the Indian Ocean coast.

To the north are the uplands (200-500m) and the high plateau (500-1000m), which covers 29% and 21% of the country area, respectively. The remaining 6% of the country is mountainous

(over 1000m), notable among these being the mountain range of Manica with its highest peak, Mount Binga at 2,436m.

More than 50% of the Mozambican territory is part of international river basins – from South to North: Maputo, Umbeluzi, Incomati, Limpopo, Save, Buzi, Pungoé, Zambezi and Rovuma. There are also rivers having national basin such as Licungo, Ligonha, Lurio and Messalo. All these rivers have their flood plains inside Mozambique, with the exception of the Rovuma River that forms the border between this country and Tanzania. The largest basin is the Zambezi River². Due to the country's topography most of them flow from west to east.



The map shows the thirteen major rivers of Mozambique and their area of influence through their respective tributaries.

Vegetation is of three main types: dense and open forest, plains vegetation and savannah with low growing trees and bushes which covers about 70% of the country. Swamp, beach and dune vegetation occur in the coastal areas.

The climatic conditions of Mozambique make that the country is often subject to various types of events that can originate floods: cyclones and tropical depressions from the Indian Ocean

² Zambezi River, is with its length of about 3.541 km is the fourth river in Africa. It rises in the north-west side of Zambia flowing through Angola, Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique to finally empty, splitting up into a delta, in the Indian Ocean in Chinde District. The river is divided in upper, middle and lower Zambezi, the Victoria falls are considered the boundary between upper and middle Zambezi, and the Cahora Bassa Lake the boundary between middle and lower Zambezi. The river enters in its middle part in Lake Kariba, created with the Kariba Dam in 1959, and in Lake Cabora Bassa created in 1974 by the construction of Cahora Bassa Dam. Both Dams and Lakes were man-made work in order to provide electricity to much of Zambia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa. Despite presence of impediments, Zambezi River is largely used for navigation (from Cahora Bassa to the Indian Ocean) as well as its tributaries, for a total distance of 740 km.

and cold fronts from the south. In addition to that, considering the extension of the country, the large areas of its major river basins and the climatic conditions, it is quite natural that floods of various degrees of severity occur repeatedly, sometimes with devastating effects.

Zambezia is located in the central coastal region of Mozambique and it is its second most-populated province.

Generally Zambezia has a predominantly tropical rainy climate typical of savannah, with a cool season from May to September and a rainy season from November to March. October and April are considered transitional months.

Zambezia has a total area of 103,127 km, much of it drained by Zambezi and Licungo Rivers and their respective tributaries. Due to its geographic location Zambezia is one of the provinces most prone to floods and cyclones.

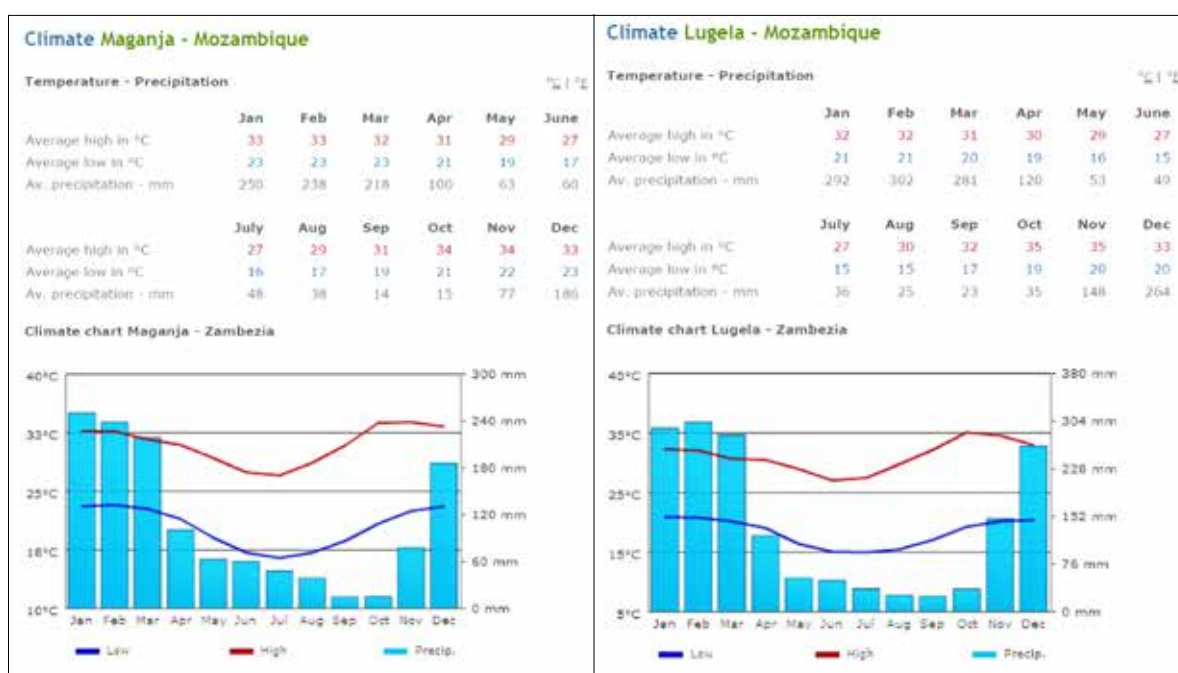


From a geographical point of view, Zambezia can be divided into two zones, which refers to ecological, climate and elevation differences.

1. The “Alta Zambezia” (high Zambezia) is in the northern and non-coastal part of the province, encloses higher elevation³. Temperate climatic conditions with slightly cooler temperature are experienced in this region even though it has periodically rain generated by the presence of mountains (orographic effect). In the high Zambezia large area of forest is predominant where hunting is practiced and timber is exploited.

³ In the district of Gurué, “Alta Zambezia”, is located the second highest peak of Mozambique, Namuli Mount (2.419 m).

2. The “Baixa Zambézia” (lower Zambézia) contains very low elevation and it is located mostly near the coast and the southern area of the province. This region has very hot and humid climate, flooding near the coast, in Licungo river banks and surroundings low areas, in the Zambezi valley and delta, is common.



The basic climate indicators of two different Districts (Maganja - Lower Zambezia and Lugela -Higher Zambezia) are compared in this table.

This section focuses on Lower Zambezia as that is the most flood-prone area.

The main natural resources are cultivable land and water (with irrigation from the rivers). Plains and grasslands cover a large part of the topography and the vegetation mostly includes grass, mixed indigenous trees, shrubs, and bushes.

All the low areas are prone to flooding, which cyclically hits during the agricultural season. However, in normal conditions the impact of flooding is locally specific and some villages are protected from small flooding by dykes. These farming areas actually benefit from minor floods (inondação), which bring good harvests, while other villages, slightly further from the river branches, often remain unaffected. But during heavier floods (cheias) farmers often lose all of their crops. People gamble and farm in areas at greater risk of flooding because the production potential is higher. Farming low-lying areas in the Licungo River and the immediate riverbanks are fertile and support two cropping seasons. Same situation is in the Zambezi River valley and on the islands of the delta which also offers the chance for a second, dry-season crop, especially of vegetables. Some villages in the Rivers Valley Zones have small streams that allow for some small-scale rice cultivation, and in the dry season, maize and sweet potatoes.

The rivers usually rise by January, though, and the first season's crop can sometimes be lost. Due to climate change severe flooding of the riverbanks seems to be more frequent than previously, as often as every two to three years, and causes temporary displacement of the population to the higher land.

The zone which covers the **delta area of Zambezi River** is distinguished by the economic importance of the river delta — as an opportunity for fishing and dry-season cultivation, and as a threat for flooding. The flat land has reasonably fertile, clay soils, a hot climate, with rainfall of 1,200 mm per year in a single rainy season from November to March. There are two main livelihood activities in this zone: fishing in Zambezi River and agriculture.

Restrictions on land use come from the Maimba Reserve. A private company has a concession for tourism, and the local population is not allowed to use the land, even for fishing in the smaller river branches of the Zambezi Delta. Fishing in the main branch of the Zambezi is not affected. As a result of the limited land availability and poor marketing opportunities, the zone operates largely as a subsistence area, with only small quantities of food leaving or entering the zone.

Beside of fertile soil and water sources, Zambezia has also vast forest, some of major hydro and coal energy sources of Mozambique (Cahora Bassa, Moatize) and it is consider good exporter of natural resources (wood and minerals).

However, despite this remarkable natural capital this province ranks as one of the less developed of the country. The several disasters occurred in the past in Zambezia can be one of the reasons and natural shocks are likely to worsen the country's poverty reduction efforts. On the other hand the national political dynamics and the present economic trends originating from the emerging free market economy such as the increasing private foreign investments mostly affecting the business of traditional smallholder are other factors which contribute to this situation.

However for a developing country like Mozambique, environment and poverty are closely interconnected: the rural communities may, due to lack of alternatives, be severely affected by consequences of climate change and environmental degradation. The environment is very important to people living in rural areas, and these communities are the most affected by impact of climate change to environment due to their vulnerability, high dependence on natural resources, and low capability to cope with external shocks, such as floods and droughts. Local people use land to farm and forests to hunt, for construction material, for wood/charcoal, to gather spontaneous fruits and vegetable (complementing their poor agriculture production) and traditional healing. Consequently the livelihood of population living in rural and remote areas of Zambezia is strictly linked with their environment mainly agriculture and also including fishing in the rivers and harvesting in the forest and other kind of vegetation.

1.1. Living in disaster prone areas or being resettled

More than 70% of Mozambican population lives along rivers and coastline and they are exposed to natural disaster such as cyclones, storms and flood more than any other country in Africa. The population of these areas is partially or entirely regularly evacuated because of cyclones and floods.

Government policy has been to encourage the relocation of people away from the immediate riverbanks to higher ground, because of the risk of flooding.

The Government approved in 2012 the rules to resettle communities living in zones declared at high risk. This resettlement policy has been started since 2000 and it is part of the government strategy to reduce the impact to human and economic sector of future natural disasters. These measures are intended to encourage the displaced population affected by floods to shelter in collective centers during the emergency and instead to return, to resettle to safer areas. According to INGC⁴, people living close to rivers must be resettled but it is estimated that only about 40% of the recently displaced population is permanently living on the resettlement sites allocated by the Government. The reason is often that most of the allocated land has neither infrastructure nor services provided, so that families tend to return to their original disaster-prone areas. In a Province whose economy is heavily dependent on agriculture and 80% of the population live in rural areas and their entire livelihood depends on farming, families choice becomes understandable.

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⁴ Source: Humanitarian news and analysis, a service of the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs.

2. The social framework: organisation and connection

The level of organisation (social framework) within the analysed rural communities of Zambezia is quite good due to traditional leadership (including religious leaders) generally recognised and in power. Trainings to Community members such CLRGK trainings have increased the ability to identify problems and establish priorities but the limited resources available at village level reduce the possibility to act, implementing the proposed solutions. Difficulties of transport, communications and media access make these rural communities “disconnected” reducing the capacity to mobilise and to request technical advice and support from different actors when required. During the field visit it was noticed that at least one member of the family (the head or the young son) got a mobile phone and they currently used to communicate. This new gadget is progressively changing the way how the members of the village communicate with the “rest of the world” and create opportunities which should be taken into account in any future programme to be implemented in these “remote” areas. Approximately the 80% of the assessed families identified the local leader as the channel to communicate with Government authorities. During last emergency the link between communities and national disaster management agency (INGC) was very weak due to lack of resources (personnel, means of transport and financial resources).

The Province of Zambezia is divided in 16 districts (Alto Mólocue, Chinde, Gilé, Gurué, Ile, Inhassunge, Lugela, Maganja da Costa, Milange, Mocuba, Mopeia, Morrumbala, Namacurra, Namarroi, Nicoadala, Pebane)⁵.



- a) Alto Molocue
- b) Chinde
- c) Gilé
- d) Gurué
- e) Ile
- f) Inhassunge
- g) Lugela
- h) Maganja da Costa
- i) Milange
- j) Mocuba
- k) Mopeia
- l) Morrumbala
- m) Namacurra
- n) Namarroi
- o) Nicoadala
- p) Pebane

⁵ Source: <http://www.maplibrary.org>

2.1. The Leadership

The Public Administration system.

Mozambique is administratively divided into Provinces, Districts, Administrative Posts (*postos administrativos*), Locality (*localidades*) and Villages (*povoações*). The urban settlements are organised as Cities (*idades*) and Town (*vilas*)⁶.

| | Area (sq.Km) | Inhabitants |
|------------------------|----------------|------------------|
| District | 2,000 - 20,000 | 10,000 - 100,000 |
| Administrative Post | 1,000 - 5,000 | 2,000 - 50 000 |
| Locality (localidades) | 500 - 2,000 | 1,000 - 10,000 |
| Village (povoações) | 100 – 700 | 100 - 3,000 |

Summary of service provision in different spheres of government in Mozambique

Each provincial government is presided over by a governor, who is the representative of the president of the republic in the Province and he is responsible for his activities in front of the national government. Each province also has a provincial assembly, which legislates on matters exclusively bearing on that province.

Mozambique adopted a multi-tier local government system for the public administration of the country but the autonomy of such sub national structures was constrained by excessive centralisation of decision-making until the amendment of the 1990 Constitution (by Law nº. 9/96) which established the Local Power (*o poder local*), under the principle of implementing decentralisation. The principle of Local Power and the commitment to decentralisation is highlighted in the 2005 new Constitution.

However, many of the enabling regulations that need to accompany the decentralization law remain to be enacted. There is the potential for conflict between the municipalities and the decentralised administrations of the sector ministries. In particular the capacity of municipalities and the local office of ministries to manage finances are very weak. A process of gradual **decentralisation** is on-going but suffers under dual subordination to the centre, through the sector ministries and governors and provincial administrations.

The product of certain taxes is divided between the central government and local government. But sometimes, the central government controls and lowers the local government generated revenue effort.

In general, the municipalities (urban context) are responsible for collecting taxes and user fees, and have the autonomy to set their own user charges and to decide what levies are most important, based on the characteristics of their own local economies. Poll taxes; land and property taxes; building licenses; service charges (particularly on sewage and refuse collection);

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⁶ art. 7 of Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique

license and municipal market fees; charge for municipal services, constitute the principal sources of revenue for municipal authorities in Mozambique.

Summary of service provision in different spheres of government in Mozambique

| Delivering Authority | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---------|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| Services | Central | Provinces | Districts | Municipalities |
| General Administration | | | | |
| Police | • | | | • |
| Municipal police | • | | | |
| Fire services | • | | | |
| Civil protection | • | | | |
| Criminal and Civil justice | • | • | • | |
| Civil status register | • | • | • | |
| Statistical office | • | | | • |
| Electoral register | • | • | • | |
| Education | | | | |
| Pre-school | | | • | • |
| Primary | | • | • | • |
| Secondary | • | • | | |
| Vocational and technical | • | • | | |
| Higher education | • | | | |
| Adult education | • | • | • | |
| Social Welfare | | | | |
| Kindergarten and nursery | | • | | • |
| Family welfare services | • | • | • | |
| Welfare homes | • | | | |
| Social security | • | • | • | |
| Public Health | | | | |
| Primary care | | • | • | • |
| Hospitals | • | • | • | |
| Health protection | • | | | |
| Housing and Town Planning | | | | |
| Housing | • | • | • | • |
| Town planning | • | • | • | • |
| Regional planning | • | • | | |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| Transport | | | | |
| Roads | • | • | • | • |
| Urban roads | • | | | • |
| Ports | • | • | | |
| Airports | • | | | |
| Environment & Public Sanitation | | | | |
| Water and sanitation | • | • | • | • |
| Refuse collection and disposal | | | • | • |
| Cemeteries and crematoria | | | • | • |
| Slaughter-houses | | • | • | • |
| Environmental protection | • | • | | |
| Consumer protection | • | • | | |
| Culture Leisure and Sport | | | | |
| Theatre and concerts | • | | • | |
| Museums and libraries | • | • | • | • |
| Parks and open spaces | | • | • | • |
| Sports and leisure | • | • | • | • |
| Religious facilities | • | • | • | |
| Utilities | | | | |
| Gas services | • | | | |
| Water supply | • | • | • | • |
| Electricity | • | • | • | |
| Economic | | | | |
| Agriculture, forests and fisheries | • | • | • | |
| Urban Agriculture "Green zones" | | | • | • |
| Economic protection | • | • | • | • |
| Trade, Tourism and Industry | • | • | • | • |
| Informal activities | | | • | • |

With the implementation of decentralisation, local authorities (the state local government) are supposed to have their own budget and its management responsibilities but no financial autonomy.

The traditional practice of treating provincial services as extensions of central programs has done little to encourage the staffing of local administration with well-qualified staff. However, insufficient funds have enabled them to exercise these powers. As a result, local management tends to lag behind because local councils are generally staffed by individuals with few formal and technical qualifications. Similarly, equipment and infrastructures are very limited outside the capital, and working conditions generally very poor⁷.

In spite of this constraint, the Government of Mozambique has committed itself to increase both administrative decentralization and grassroots citizen participation in public affairs in rural districts. The government's guiding policy framework, the Action Plan for the Reduction of Absolute Poverty (PARPA or PRSP) has identified decentralized planning and finance as a key element of its programme in rural areas. **The traditional authorities are playing a part of role as institution.**

The level where the Public Administration system interacts with traditional system is at the District Level. Within the District offices, the Ministries and other National Institutions are represented by the respective District Directorates and Sectors (Agriculture, Education, Health, Sport, Women, etc.) The Government Body of the District includes the Heads of Administrative Posts, Presidents of Localities, community leaders and traditional leaders.

Local Delegations of National Institutions related to Disaster Management are at Provincial level where staff runs the sub offices. The INGC for instance, has a Delegation in Quelimane, provincial capital but due to limited resources, only few officers are in charge for the entire Provincial territory. Most of activities targeting rural communities are implemented with the support of international NGOs as their staff can provide sufficient connections with beneficiaries. Districts, which according to organigram of activities, should also be part of the process aren't due to limited resources and no staff is available for this sector.

The local leadership

In 2000 the Mozambican government initiated a process of formally recognizing traditional leaders both as representatives of local community interests and as assistants of local state organs. Twenty-five years after the FRELIMO government abolished the formal power of traditional leaders, the Decree 15/2000 provided for their re-inclusion in the performance of a long list of state administrative tasks and re-named chiefs or *régulos* as "community authorities". Since 2002, more than 4,000 "community authorities", have been recognised, deriving equally from the categories of traditional leadership, chief of village (*Chefes de aldeia*), or chief of suburban quarters (*Secretario de Bairros, Chefe do Quarteroes, Chefe de bloco*).

The Decree delegates to community authorities a long list of key state-administrative functions and assigns them the performance of various civic-educative functions in the communities

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⁷ World Bank - Public Sector Reform Project in Mozambique

they formally represent⁸. The state administrative tasks include *inter alia* policing, taxation, population registration, justice enforcement, land allocation and rural development. In fulfilling these executive tasks, community authorities are envisaged as assistants of local state organs and as the concrete “entrance points” for the governance of rural territories and for the distribution of development provisions. In addition, the recognised authorities are expected to perform a double role as representatives of rural communities and as assistants of the state⁹.

At the same time the chieftainship system is replaced with *grupos dinamizadores* (dynamising groups), elected by local populations and led by party secretaries. Although the *grupos dinamizadores* were intended to spread popular participation to politics and public management, they did not become the rule across the country. So, while formally abolished, in practice, the chieftaincy system still continues.

In Zambezia Province, the implementation concerning the legitimation of local authorities was recently finalised and officially recognized by the competent authorities Community Leaders of various level:

- Secretary and Chief of districts (*Régulos e Secretários de Bairros*)
- Group leaders of villages (*Chefes de Grupos e de Povoações*)
- Chief of the village (*Chefe de Povoação*)
- Reputed personalities of the community for their social, cultural, economic and religious role

Unfortunately the aim of this local framework is not completely fulfilled and traditional leadership can vary from a village to another and the leadership still results fragmented and this affects the efficiency of communication among different levels and sectors.

It has been told that there is a sort of division among different community leaders:

- Secretaries have nowadays mainly the function mobilizing the community for social and economical tasks;
- *Régulos* are in charge of registering the population, giving the number of families and inhabitants according to sex, for taxation;
- Traditional Leaders are mainly in charge of traditional events such as ceremonies and rituals and to deal with community conflicts.

The assessed role of traditional authorities

The appropriate terms are still debated, because “tradition” and “custom” have changed radically in this century under the influence of both colonialism and the political party Frelimo. It is clear that in many rural parts of the country, communities have people they consider to be “the traditional leaders” and to whom they defer for certain kinds of advice and decisions. The titles these leaders go by, and their precise status in society, varies very widely across Mozam-

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⁸ (Regulamento do Decreto 15/2000, art. 5).

⁹ World Bank - Decentralized Planning and Financing Project

bique. And it is equally clear that in cities, among young people, and in some rural areas such leaders have no authority.

Similarly, so-called customary law, even if rapidly changing to reflect modern society, is still accepted in many rural areas, and the decisions of traditional leaders are important in settling local disputes. They play a key role particularly with respect to inheritance and traditional authorities have a specific role (by law) in land allocation. In the section 4.3 it is explained how the Land law requires that the government brings in a new model which will have to deal with “traditional authorities” and related land issues.

2.2. The Community

Every individual has its own social network (whether close to where he lives or far). Everyone has friends, families, and people they are acquainted with. The social networking simply makes people connected. During the field visit it was noticed that at least one member of the family (the head or the young son) got a mobile phone and they currently used to communicate. This new gadget is progressively changing the way how the members of the village communicate with the “rest of the world” and create opportunities which should be taken into account in any future programme to be implemented in these “remote” areas.

What distinguishes the personal social network from belonging to a community is how people are held together in same area by common interest. The Territory Organisation Code define a Local Community as a group of families and individuals living in a territory at level of locality (*localidade*) or lower (*povoação*) which aims the safeguard of common interests through the protection of residential areas, agricultural areas - whether cultivated or fallow - forests, sites of cultural importance, grassland, water sources and areas of expansion¹⁰.

In these rural areas, the Community, considered as the whole group of individuals, is the most important social capital and individual can have and is a significant piece of the social framework to take in consideration. The role of the Community in Disaster Management sector is fundamental and cohesive communities facilitates the conditions of sustainability of every actions undertaken by external support.

Mozambique is a large and diverse country with people from many different cultural, religious, economic and geographical backgrounds. In addition to the many indigenous groups, Mozambique has received waves of colonialists, immigrants and migrant workers over the years which all add to the great diversity of Mozambique. There are dozens of ethnic groups represented in Mozambique along with many different languages. Almost half of the population, even if Christian or Muslim, holds traditional African beliefs. There are small numbers of Jews, Hindus, and Baha'is.

According to the National Institute of Statistics 2007 census, in Mozambique 28% of the population is Roman Catholic; 27% is Protestant, Pentecostal, or Evangelical; 18% is Muslim; 9% is divided among other small religious groups; approximately 18% of the population does not

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¹⁰ Regulamento da lei de ordenamento do territorio - Decree 23/2008, art. 1 - Definition

profess a religion or belief.

The predominant practiced religions in Zambezia province are Anglicanism, Evangelism and Islam (see table below¹¹), there are few representatives from others religious faiths, and it is normal practice for the leader of the various religion to organize social activities, in coordination with the local authorities.

| Religion | % Family |
|------------------|----------|
| Anglican | 40.0 |
| Zionist | 15.2 |
| Evangelic | 14.6 |
| Islam | 10.0 |
| Atheist | 9.7 |
| Catholic | 8.6 |
| Other Religion | 1.1 |
| Unknown religion | 0.8 |

In the assessed Communities families with different religions are peacefully cohabiting without tensions and conflicts. No incidents related to religious matter have been reported during last emergency operations.

According to District Profiles prepared by the Ministry of State Administration (MAE) the present major ethnic groups are Chuapós and Macua, with smaller groups of people belonging to Lolo and Lomwè.

Portuguese is the official language in Mozambique but is not the most spoken language among rural communities. In Namacurra Districts for instance in 2005 70% of the population don't speak Portuguese especially children and people between 20-44 years old. In the southern part of the province people mostly speak Echewabo (Chuabo), while in the northeast near Nampula province Emakhua (Makua) is commonly spoken and in the northwest more Elomwe (Lomwè) is spoken. Closer to Milange and Malawi, people speak more Chichewa. There are other languages as well, and the regional towns offer many opportunities to for mixing languages in the same marketplace.

Organizations present among the community

Many rural communities of Zambezia province receive external support from several international and national NGOs and cooperation agencies. They promote social assistance, protection of the environment, rural development, women rights, and many other social activities.

These organizations play an active and important role to support reconstruction and development of affected areas by floods, like Concern for water supply in rural areas and ADRA for

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¹¹ MINED Direcção de Planificação e Cooperação

seeds distribution.

Other few organizations, such as CVM, World Vision, are operating in sector of professional training, agriculture and rural development, health and rehabilitation of roads and schools.

It was assessed that the OMM (Mozambican Women Organisation) has in each village a representatives who generally is sharing this assignment with other leadership positions.

2.3. The Family

Definition

The National Institute of Statistics (INE) consider a family as households and define it as group of people who reside in the same dwelling, whether being or not in kinship relations, occupying all or part of the housing and whose primary needs expenses are supported partially or totally together. A households it is also considered to be, an independent or isolated group of people occupying all or part of the housing.

INE also provide an additional definition related to rural context.

A Rural Households is a group of people living in rural areas, whether being or not in kinship relations, usually “living under the same roof” and eating from the same “pot”, in communion of life.

The typical family living in rural areas is described to be “nuclear type” formed by a couple with 3- 4 children (polygamy is now rare). Normally there are one or more relatives who are included to the family, which increases the average size to 6-7 members.

Family Law¹²

In Mozambique a new family law, which takes into account contradictions between common and customary legal systems, has been discussed since the independence from Portugal in 1975,.

The majority of Mozambicans, mostly uneducated people, used to regulate their lives virtually independent of official laws, preferring local customs and practices. Yet official laws were drafted with very little consideration of local customs. As a result, Mozambican law courts are ill-equipped to deal with a litany of legal cases, such as marital disputes between couples married under customary law (marriages contracted outside of common law, usually by their family elders and local chiefs).

In 2003, after more than a decade in the works, the Mozambican Parliament approved a new Family Law. This legislation is a major victory for women’s rights in Mozambique. The new

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¹² From the article “Mozambique’s Family Law Passes!” By Leonard Maveneka, Oxfam America Information Officer, Harare Office.

Family Law protects a broad range of women's rights and for the first time legally recognizes customary marriages.

The new Family Law asserts that both spouses have responsibility over the family and can decide who will represent the family on a particular issue. In the past, women required their husband's consent before taking a paid job. In the past, women married under customary law could not claim any property or custody rights because their marriages were not recognized by the official law of Mozambique. The Family Law protects informal unions between men and women. Men who live with women for years will frequently avoid formalizing these relationships because they cannot pay an adequate dowry to protect their property. Under the new law, women who have lived with their partners for more than a year are entitled to inherit the property of their husbands. The law also offers more protection to children by increasing the minimum age of marriage from 14 and 16 years (for girls and boys respectively) to 18 years for both sexes. In Mozambique, members of the woman's family traditionally decide whether or not a girl is to wed. Marriage brings money and gifts to the bride's family, so a family desperate for money might seek to marry their daughter despite her young age. By marrying at an older age, research has proven that women's economic opportunities are greater, their educational levels are higher, and their health from delaying childbirth is much better than those marrying at younger ages.

The following table compare the number of householdss divided by civil status of a rural district such as Maganja da Costa with the whole province¹³. Most of families in rural areas are formed by a married couple and 50% are married according to traditional law.

| Indicadores | Distrito | Província |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Solteiros | 4.0 | 26.7 |
| Casados | 24.3 | 21.2 |
| União marital | 51.7 | 42.0 |
| Divorciado | 8.0 | 4.4 |
| Viúvo | 11 | 5 |
| Desconhecido | 0.7 | 1.2 |

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¹³ Estatísticas do distrito Maganja da Costa, Novembro 2012. Instituto Nacional de Estatística.

3. The human capital: knowledge and health

The human health and knowledge is considered central to the creation of a safe and resilient community. Most of the rural development programmes pretend to value the local and traditional knowledge but the way “contemporary” knowledge is disseminated and population can have access to is likewise important. Trainings related to disaster risk management (CL-GRC) provide an overview of risk and improve the general understanding of awareness and response processes, but it is not enough.

Communities are not too much engaged in programmes which aim to find local solutions to their local problems - the assessed communities are not adequately conscious in valuing the existing potentialities within the village and work on.

Maintaining good hygiene and sanitation practices, ability to administer first aid when needed is another characteristic that should be improved in order to improve the resilience to future shocks and stresses.

3.1. The Education and Qualification

More than 70% of the population of Zambezia province is illiterate and the majority are women. The school network doesn't cover the whole population, while the number of enrolled teachers is insufficient and the level of teaching qualification for most of them is very low. All these factors compromise the possibility of rural communities to have adequate access to education.

The scholar rate in Zambezia is one of the lowest in Mozambique and it is estimated that only about 30% of the population went to school.

In Zambezia the highest enrolment rate occurs in the age group of 10 to 14 years, followed by the age group of 5 to 9 years, which reflects a late entry tendency into school. Mostly the students are boys and mainly they attend only primary school, since upper levels schools are available only in the provincial capital. In addition, cyclical natural disasters reduce the possibility for most the children living in affected areas to attend regularly the school both because of their displacement period (in the middle of school year) and because most of the case schools are damaged and they have to be rehabilitated. Ministry of Education estimate that natural disasters prevent every years more than 20.000 pupils from attending school in the province of Zambézia.

3.2. Health

The epidemic scenario of Zambezia province is dominated by cases of malaria, tuberculosis, diarrhoea, and Sexually transmitted diseases (STD), mainly Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). The rate of population affected by HIV in Zambézia Province was estimated to be 12.6% in 2009. A number of educational campaigns have been conducted to reduce HIV transmission and to improve prevention among rural communities but it seems that no noteworthy results have been achieved since rates remain high in Zambezia.

General knowledge regarding prevention and transmission of HIV was primarily limited to the sexual origins of infection and the protective advantages of condom use.

In addition due to lack of health infrastructures people direct to traditional healers for every health problems including serious illness. There are programmes which are trying to include the traditional healers in community health-care promotion in order to take advantage of their reputation among the rural population to enhance the impact of prevention.

Furthermore, Mozambique is among the ten nations in the world most affected by malaria, causing between 44,000 to 67,000 deaths annually in all age groups. Approximately 682,000 pregnant woman and 2.8 million children under age five are at risk from malaria¹⁴.

In Zambezia province there is a high risk of malaria. Warmer temperatures may extend the range and prolong the seasonality of transmission of vector-borne diseases. The frequency and intensity of extreme weather events influences the incidence of water-and rodent-borne diseases also.

Other diseases are also expanding or re-emerging.

During the floods of 2013, the Ministry of Health conducted inside and outside accommodation centres in selected districts a nutritional surveys and found high levels of malnutrition among children under five years of age, (ranging from 12.3 % to 19.9 %).

Unfortunately to effectively respond to this epidemic scenario and to all other medical demand of the population, the health network in the province is insufficient. The following table show the evolution of Health Facilities in Zambezia, from 2008 to 2011,

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¹⁴ Ministry of Health 2005

| Infra-estruturas | Ano | | | | | Variação (%) |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------|--------------|
| | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2011/2010 | 2011/2008 |
| Unidades Sanitárias Públicas | | | | | | |
| Hospital Central | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - |
| Hospital Psiquiátrico | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - |
| Hospital Provincial | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.0 | - |
| Hospital Rural | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - |
| Hospital Geral | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - |
| Hospital Distrital | 2 | 9 | 0 | 0 | - | - |
| Centro de Saúde | 100 | 153 | 258 | 154 | -40.3 | - |
| Posto de Saúde | 28 | 47 | 45 | 47 | 4.4 | - |
| Equipamento | | | | | | |
| Nº Total de Camas | 1.448 | 2.079 | 2.337 | 2.544 | 8.9 | - |
| Camas nas Maternidades | 531 | 791 | 928 | 993 | 7.0 | - |
| Camas por 1.000 Habitantes | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 6.0 | - |

4. The physical capital: Infrastructures and services

The assessed rural communities require the rehabilitation and improvement of their physical assets and external support should be provided to create the minimal conditions for an effective and adequate response to disasters which values all the efforts made by the members of the communities to host displaced affected families.

From a shelter perspective, the existing infrastructures of the villages are not adequate to respond to natural disasters. However, in a wider overview, any future physical rehabilitation of village infrastructure should also take into account the correlated services that the facility provides to community and ensure their accessibility in any circumstances (including after a shock).

For instance, if the village school will be included in the Contingency Plan as collective shelter, the community leaders or the CL-GRC have to be engaged on maintaining the footpaths of evacuation or in order and inform all the population about the Contingency Plan.

4.1. The Village: Housing and Infrastructure

In rural areas the quality of the housing is very poor. The **typical house** is called “Palhota”, it is a one or two rooms huts (4x4 meter), built on elevated compressed earth base, with a bamboo frame, which is finished with mud plastering (wattle and daub technique). The roof is covered with palm leaves. The expected lifespan of most of the existing buildings in rural areas is about 5-8 years with an appropriate maintenance of plastering and replacement of some bamboo which lost its strength.

One room is used as storage and bedroom for the children the other one is for the adults. Visited houses had no furniture and mats were used to sleep in the ground. The cooking area was either in the veranda or outside in the adjacent plot.

The average family-pattern in rural areas is: no water and electricity supply, no adequate sanitation (few houses have been noticed with a pit latrines while the majority has no latrines). Most of the people (from 70 to 90%)¹⁵ use the collected water from wells or boreholes, or directly from the river.

The following table¹⁶ taken from the District Profile of one assessed District (Namacurra) compare the type of houses and its construction material existing in the District with the total of the Province. This is to give an idea of the general housing condition statistics in a rural District such as Namacurra.

| Tipo de Material | Distrito | | Província | |
|------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| | Número | % | Número | % |
| Tipo de paredes da casa | 50 236 | 100. 0 | 910 631 | 100. 0 |
| Bloco de cimento | 449 | 0.9 | 9 541 | 1.0 |
| Bloco de tijolo | 409 | 0.8 | 73 994 | 8.1 |
| Madeira/ zinco | 58 | 0.1 | 1 391 | 0.2 |
| Bloco de adobe | 12 982 | 25.8 | 400 641 | 44.0 |
| Caníço/paus/bambú/palmeira | 14 351 | 28.6 | 138 991 | 15.3 |
| Paus maticados | 21 702 | 43.2 | 279 910 | 30.7 |
| Lata/cartão/papel/saco/casca | 76 | 0.2 | 1 079 | 0.1 |
| Outros | 209 | 0.4 | 5 084 | 0.6 |
| Tipo de cobertura das casas | 50 236 | 100. 0 | 910 631 | 100. 0 |
| Laje de betão | 63 | 0.1 | 1 810 | 0.2 |
| Telha | 4 | 0.0 | 424 | 0.0 |
| Chapa de lusalite | 227 | 0.5 | 5 927 | 0.7 |
| Chapa de zinco | 1 966 | 3.9 | 73 767 | 8.1 |
| Capim/colmo/palmeira | 47 489 | 94.5 | 820 601 | 90.1 |
| Outros | 487 | 1.0 | 8 102 | 0.9 |
| Tipo de pavimento das casas | 50 236 | 100. 0 | 910 631 | 100. 0 |
| Madeira/parquet | 199 | 0.4 | 2 674 | 0.3 |
| Mármore/granulito | 44 | 0.1 | 1 264 | 0.1 |
| Cimento | 1 120 | 2.2 | 33 622 | 3.7 |
| Mosaico/tijoleira | 89 | 0.2 | 4 322 | 0.5 |
| Adobe | 43 559 | 86.7 | 681 711 | 74.9 |
| Sem nada | 4 877 | 9.7 | 178 230 | 19.6 |
| outros | 348 | 0.7 | 8 808 | 1.0 |

¹⁵ National Institute of Statistics. Census data 1997.

¹⁶ Estatística do Distrito Namacurra, 2012 – Instituto Nacional de Estatística,

Post-disasters surveys show that the current building techniques based on the use of traditional materials are not adequate to withstand strong winds and rain. Considering the frequency which tropical storms and cyclones affect this area, the concept of 'permanent structure' is a relative notion that must be viewed in such context. Rural people, in Zambezia generally are not surprised that their building is regularly destroyed; obviously they would prefer to build stronger houses if they had the opportunity. Finding the money for good construction material is a constraint, but also the know-how seems to be an obstacle, as the majority of local builders are not aware of basic safe construction techniques.

In addition no construction regulations or building code provide adequate coverage of minimum standards in terms of safe construction. Local authorities have no qualified and sufficient staff to provide support to families to improve the quality of existing houses in order to reduce vulnerabilities and assist communities to build back better.

Inadequate resources also limit the construction of larger houses. Generally a family of 4-5 members lives in a house that is less of 15 sqm¹⁷, which is considered not adequate to meet the minimum space indicated by Humanitarian Standards for a decent quality of living.

These already-low standards are further reduced when the owner decides to host a disaster affected family. Generally the children share the first room while the adults are accommodated outside under the veranda.

Water in Zambezia Province represents one of the main concerns. In rural village pipe network systems doesn't exist and in most of the villages the existing water points are insufficient. The majority of the population living in rural areas used water collected from hand pump tube wells or boreholes or in some cases directly from the river. Lack of potable water leads to critical situations concerning sanitation and hygiene among rural families. A situation which gets worse when hosting displaced families.

It is estimated that only 26% of the total population of Zambezia has access to improved water sources and 19% to adequate sanitation services.

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¹⁷ The Sphere Minimum Standards reports 3.5-sq.m. as minimum shelter space per person during emergency. Estatística do Distrito Namacurra, 2012 – Instituto Nacional de Estatística,

Table of Water Supply system used by families in Namacurra and in the whole Province

| Fonte de água | Distrito | | Província | |
|--|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|
| | Número | % | Número | % |
| Água Canalizada dentro de casa (rede) | 57 | 0.1 | 57 | 0.1 |
| Água Canalizada fora de casa (rede) | 74 | 0.1 | 74 | 0.1 |
| Fontenário | 3 014 | 4.1 | 3 014 | 4.1 |
| Poço/ Furo protegido | 10 012 | 13.7 | 10 012 | 13.7 |
| Poço sem bomba (céu aberto) | 51 721 | 70.9 | 51 721 | 70.9 |
| Rio/ Lago/ Lagoa | 6 079 | 8.3 | 6 079 | 8.3 |
| Água da chuva | 13 | 0.0 | 13 | 0.0 |
| Água mineral | 11 | 0.0 | 11 | 0.0 |
| outros | 2010 | 2.8 | 2010 | 2.8 |
| Número total agregados familiares | 72 991 | 100.0 | 910 631 | 100.0 |

Table of type of sanitation used by families in Namacurra and in the whole Province

| Tipo de serviço Sanitário | Distrito | | Província | |
|--|---------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|
| | Número | % | Número | % |
| Retrete ligada à fossa séptica | 85 | 0.1 | 6 087 | 0.7 |
| Latrina melhorada | 135 | 0.2 | 18 865 | 2.1 |
| Latrina Tradicional Melhorada | 540 | 0.7 | 20 229 | 2.2 |
| Latrina Tradicional não Melhorada | 4 996 | 6.8 | 143 093 | 15.7 |
| Sem Latrina | 67 235 | 92.1 | 722 357 | 79.3 |
| Número total agregados familiares | 72 991 | 100.0 | 910 631 | 100.0 |

Table of type energy used by families in Namacurra and in the whole Province

| Fonte de Energia | Distrito | | Província | |
|--|---------------|--------------|-----------|------|
| | Número | % | Número | % |
| Electricidade | 655 | 0.9 | 32 891 | 3.6 |
| Gerador/ placa solar | 85 | 0.1 | 1 075 | 0.1 |
| Gás | 36 | 0.0 | 927 | 0.1 |
| Petróleo/ Parafina/ Querosene | 39 763 | 54.5 | 403 966 | 44.4 |
| Vela | 2 291 | 3.1 | 46 825 | 5.1 |
| Bateria | 62 | 0.1 | 1 130 | 0.1 |
| Lenha | 29 492 | 40.4 | 411 052 | 45.1 |
| Outras | 607 | 0.8 | 12 765 | 1.4 |
| Número total agregados familiares | 72 991 | 100.0 | | |

Main **roads** have been extensively financed by external aid in the past within big rebuilding projects and connection between districts and Quelimane is quite good.

But the roads in general are in very bad conditions in rural areas of Zambezia and many of them are unpaved and easily flooded, which seriously compromise connections during the rainy season.

Few families own a motorbike, most of the people (mainly man) use a bicycle and women just walk. From the villages to the administrative centres it takes around 4 to 5 hours walking.

The market infrastructure in rural districts is very basic: only a very limited range of products generally locally produced can be found in the small village markets; the main markets are generally held on Saturday in the Administrative Posts.

In the villages surveyed the only public buildings were primary schools consisting in 3 to 4 rooms built with the above described “wattle and daub” technique and thatched roof. Neither water nor latrines are available. Three or four teachers give lessons to all pupils following a classroom rotation system.

Schools are often used for all community activities, including initial sheltering during the emergencies.

No health facilities are available at village level. People need to travel to the Administrative post for primary health and to district capital if requiring hospital care. Families use traditional medicine to treat minor illnesses.

In the rural areas generally better quality construction (plastered bricks walls and CGI roofing) Some can be find in churches and mosques and like the primary schools they are also used to complement first shelter assistance to the displaced families during emergencies.

4.2. Land tenure in Mozambique

The Land Law. Three important pieces of land legislation were developed and approved: the Land Law, Land Law Regulations and a Technical Annex to the Regulations. All three were developed by the government through a genuine process of participation with civil society, including non-governmental organizations (NGOs), religious organizations and other stakeholders. The result was a set of documents that are not alien to its beneficiaries, and are solid instruments for policy implementation that are regarded as legitimate by all.

The Land Law embraces a rights-based approach that moves away from the former principle that land belongs to the people who work it. It translates into law the findings of agrarian systems and land-use research that show how communities occupy, use and manage vast territories of land in a dynamic and opportunistic way, and not only for economic purposes.

The law recognizes the right of rural communities over these areas and integrates customary and formal land access and management systems. While the state maintains its role as landowner, the only right that is legally recognized is the right to use land (DUAT - *direito de uso e aproveitamento da terra*). Existing customary or smallholder use rights, acquired through historic occupation or occupation in good faith, may be formalized into a formal land-use title but do not have to be registered in order to secure full legal protection. The registration of

new rights is compulsory but mostly it is ignored within rural communities. The titling process of a DUAT requires a mandatory consultation with the local communities to confirm whether indeed the requested land is “free” for an “investor” to use. This consultation process gives to communities the responsibility of local land management and a clear role natural resource management.

Land must be considered as a key production asset for development in the rural world, where socio-economic activities are encouraged by, among other things, partnerships between the rural households and the private sector.

An important issue that here is considered in relation with natural disaster impact to properties is securing land rights for communities that are exposed to frequent disasters of this kind, as well as in communities that can be identified as safe havens for displaced communities to settle temporarily in or permanently.

Customary land rights exist and are recognized as such. Local people also accept these rights, which are based on the occupation and use of land. This offers major advantages in the absence of formal documentation. It also gives weight to oral testimony in case this is required and promotes finding local solutions to problems. In effect a natural disaster such as floods, in addition to loss of life and the severe impacts on peoples’ livelihoods, have also an impact related to the disruption of land tenure systems and property loss. After a natural disaster, the access to land and security of tenure are very often damaged since in most of the case the affected people are unable to access their land either for production or for housing purposes. Some of the case are related to the destruction of land tenure records like land titles, land registry records, identity cards. They can involve the total or partial destruction of physical evidence of property boundaries; the disappearance or death of people who have the memory of property boundaries. The local leadership got from government the task to minimise possible conflicts after a disaster over land tenure that might appears at return of displaced families, as well as conflicts over inheritance of land rights.

Decision-making on land management, including dispute resolution, continues to be primarily dealt with by informal but mostly legitimate institutions at the local level. Displaced people as well as those who receive the disaster victims often use these same institutions to take care of their problems and challenges.

Based on information collected on focus group discussion and integrated with the report published by FAO¹⁸ some categories of different situations have been identified. In this report it has been decided to report about¹⁹:

- a. the rights of people returning to their areas without legal documentation;
- b. the rights of flood displaced people who decide not to return;
- b. the rights of hosts where resettlement would occur.

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¹⁸ On Solid Ground - addressing land tenure issues following natural disasters, FAO

¹⁹ The other categories are: the rights of informal settlers affected by floods and rights in resettlement areas.

Land tenure issues for the returnees

Resettlement often only gives to flood victims an opportunity to acquire a residential plot in a safe haven but this permanent option is not generally useful for establishing a new livelihood. Most of the families said that the best for them was to go back to areas of origin, where they encounter better conditions and established social networks for their livelihoods, and where they have their own acquired rights over land. These displaced people want to continue having access to the fertile and productive lands they left when taking up residence in a resettlement site.

There is a perceived possibility that people who are living in risk areas, will not be encouraged to leave the areas when the floods arrive since they may eventually lose access to their lands. It was not clear within the assessed communities if tenure to their original farming lands is secured, while they were more confident to have secured the access to their assigned residential plot in the safe haven.

Generally the families who returned and re-occupied their land had not encountered any problems in re-establishing their rights. Infrastructure was not wiped out completely, leaving clearly visible indications of previous occupation. The local leadership, neighbourhood secretaries and other local dignitaries have played an important role in confirming previous occupation and ownership when required.

Land tenure issues for resettled people who decide not to return

Upon arrival in their area of resettlement, flood victims were registered by relief agencies or the state authorities, making them eligible for emergency assistance. It was also on this basis that plots of land were allocated in the resettlement villages. In a majority of cases, this registration, supplemented by an index map where each plot number corresponds to the name of a resettled person or family, is the only documentation that secures any tenure over the land and property.(see annex B)

Maintaining secure access to productive assets such as land in the area of origin, as well as employment, is a core livelihood strategy that flood victims have long used as part of a post-disaster response. On the basis that “land belongs to those who use and cultivate it”, permanent occupation of land, or exercising highly visible land use, is an accepted way of establishing strong rights over land. This is part of the customary heritage of all social groups.

They have tried to occupy both the lands that they had to leave, as well as the newly allocated lands. When distances between the two sites are too great, families tend to split up and establish some form of presence on each plot.

There is no clear policy to legitimate the rights of resettled families over original farming land and the concerning regulations on resettlement²⁰ doesn't touch this matter since it is expected that resettled families cut the link with their original place declared unsafe by law.

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²⁰ Regulamento sobre o processo de reassentamento. Decree 31/2012

The 1997 Land Law also recognizes these ‘acquired rights’ as fully equivalent to the State Land Use and Benefit Right, or DUAT. However, these acquired DUATs do not have to be registered, with the result that their absence on official records creates vulnerability, which needs to be compensated for by strong local intervention that can support claims to long-standing occupants of land that has been abandoned during floods.

Land tenure issues for the host communities

Land issues and the tenure rights of host communities should also be addressed. The common practice is that resettlement occurs through the local government or district authorities, which it seems that the part of the host community lands is alienated without following the necessary procedures as described by the law (local consultation).

Consequently, this land is re-distributed to flood victims, who, after some time, will procure some form of individual tenure security for the plots that the state allocated. This results in resettled people acquiring rights over land that may be perceived as being stronger than the rights of their hosts. This situation can be exacerbated if community land rights are not delimited and registered.

In general, it was reported that principles of solidarity are used and accepted by host communities in giving refuge to their brothers and sisters who have been the victims of a natural disaster. When this solidarity turns into unconditional alienation of their own land – undermining their own rights and imposing pressure on their own natural resource base, often without their consent, and without bringing any benefits – it is understandable that conflicts can arise. Again, this is exacerbated by the fact that emergency and recovery aid is channelled only to the resettled victims, but not to the host community members.

5. The financial capital: livelihoods and economic opportunities

The economic opportunities and access to financial capital in the investigated areas of Zambesia are extremely limited. Agriculture is the only existing means of living and the area is not economically developed. Chronic poverty with risk to economic and food insecurity during the bad years – this includes the years with floods- affects an elevate number of H. Only a reduced number of families live beyond a meagre level of subsistence.

Almost all the inhabitants of this rural and remote areas practice agriculture as the main livelihoods with very similar patterns and land extensions.

The main source of income comes from rice cultivation on the riverbanks, however, maize, sugarcane, cassava, sweet potatoes, beans and vegetables are also grown and, although the main cash crops is rice, cassava, and vegetables surplus is also sold in the local markets.

The householdss combine the cultivation of irrigated land in the “baixas” (riverbank) where rice and vegetables are produced with rain-fed agriculture (mostly maize, cassava, sweet potato, sugarcane and beans) in the “altas” (the surrounding higher lands).

On the baixas rice is sown from October to December and harvested from April to June. Immediately after rice is harvested, a second cropping season takes place in the baixas with short-cycle cash-crops. The main rain-fed agricultural season starts with land preparation before the rainy season – September and October- and runs until June. However it is worth to note that seasonal calendar varies from one village to another and therefore differences could be found to the description presented. Land preparation is done using hoes and mechanisation or animal drow is almost inexistent.

Locally produced liqueur from sugarcane is the second source of income for many households. It is sold locally but also in the main Province Markets.

Livestock-holdings are remarkable reduced with most families only having four or five hens or chickens or ducks. Goats are even rarer, with some households owning one or two animals and exceptionally three or four. Livestock is rarely milked for human consumption. It is used as an asset to get liquidity and thus, to be sold to face unforeseen or additional expenses such as medicines, uniforms for the school or items for the festivals.

A very limited number of households practice fishing between January and April mostly for family consumption.

There are no labour opportunities in these rural communities, not even for agricultural labour. The sizes of the machambas (land cultivated) are very similar from one household to another and unlike in other areas of the country it is not common to find poor household members employed by middle and better-off householdss or agriculture companies.

On the other hand, in the last decade, it is common for youngest to migrate to South Africa to work in the mines in an attempt to escape from rural poverty and hardship. This collective

stays abroad almost permanently and comes back to their villages only for holidays once every year or two. During this period they provide the families with some remittances

There is little alternative to survival farming in these districts. For instance, in Naganja da Costa district, according to Government data²¹, there is only a food production company, nine shopkeepers, one hostel and seven restaurant.

In terms of wealth breakdown within the community, the area of land cultivated, the number of livestock owned, the property of assets for fishing and other assets such as bicycle are the primary determinants. However, the differences among the poor, the middle and even the better off are very little. In an attempt to produce a categorisation: poor would have no livestock at all or only a few poultry with a land extension of two Ha maximum and only few households owning bicycles; middle would have from two to three Ha, few poultry and one or two goats and bicycles; better off might possess a higher number of goats (but not much than four), up to five or six Ha, may be some fishing nets and bicycles.

Note that according to Government data²², only 35.9% of households living Maganja da Costa own a bicycle and 52.1% doesn't own any single equipment such as bicycle, radio, TV, telephone, computer, vehicle or motorbike.

Although trade happens mostly very locally (vegetables, maize and beans), illegal liqueur production and rice reach the district markets and even go to big markets in urban centres. The access to the markets is good during the dry season but can become hard during the rainy season. The long journey from the villages to the district capitals – it takes from four to five hours walking for the majority of the persons - might increase considerably. In consequence, the trade gets reduced during the raining season.

The prices fluctuate seasonally with the cheapest prices after the harvest and obviously the highest on the lean period. At that time households produce is over and thus, the offer of locally produced food in local markets gets much reduced whilst the demand from households rises although to a very limited extend.

There is an absolute lack of formal or informal credit availability for families living in these communities. There are no bank facilities even in the district capital and some common community initiatives to provide with credit to rural middle class and poor along Mozambique such as the “Caixa de credito comunitaria” (a community –driven savings group) does not exist in these investigated areas of Zambesia. No other formal or informal credit institution, saving groups or self-help groups seem to exist either in these communities. Village small shopkeepers seem to be the only ones in measure to provide some goods in credit and very exceptionally some credit in form of cash, more as an act of solidarity among villagers than a business.

The most vulnerable groups within these communities are the poor (household with less than two Ha to cultivate and no poultry) and the households that have members with chronic diseases such as tuberculosis and specially AIDS. In these households manpower -which is determinant for the Ha to be cultivated- is reduced and especially the costs of medicines that they need to afford undermine their limited assets.

People living along the river bank can also fall into the category of most vulnerable as ultima-

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²¹ Estatísticas do distrito Maganja da Costa, Novembro 2012. Instituto Nacional de Estatística.

²² Estatísticas do distrito Maganja da Costa, Novembro 2012. Instituto Nacional de Estatística.

tely due to recurrent floods in the last decades they are disaster affected by the destruction of their houses and the loss of the rice produce.

Although the fact that most household have irrigated lands as well as rain-fed lands which mitigate the risk of losing one of the harvest as well as liqueur produce as a secondary source of income, recurrent floods in the recent years is stressing the capacity of coping of the communities characterised by a high number of households living on chronic poverty and under-development and only with few people living beyond a meagre subsistence existence.

6. The socio-economic impact of the floods

Householdss living in the communities along the river Licungo are extremely homogeneous in terms of livelihoods and wealth. They are mostly dependant of subsistence agriculture (irrigated as well as rain-fed machambas) with limited secondary sources of income such as liqueur production and/or river fishing.

Their range of properties, equipment and productive assets is limited to their traditional dwelling, the kitchen utensils, some clothing, a bicycle- for the middle off-, a radio and hand hoes.

Availability of credit is inexistent and livestock rearing is the mechanism households practice to ensure some liquidity in case of a sudden need or for extraordinary expenses.

In such uniform communities where households have similar assets, undertake same livelihoods strategies- farming and produce alike livelihoods outcomes the impact of the floods will be very similar for the different families of the community.

However, there are two aspects to be considered when analysing the impact of the floods on households economies and wellbeing:

- a) On one side, the impact on families livelihoods. This will be rather similar for the whole community.
- b) On the other side, the impact on their properties. Here we have to disaggregate into two categories:
 - b1. Households living in the riverbank, which traditional houses will be most probably destroyed or heavily damaged by the river.
 - b2. Households living in the highland, which houses will not be affected by the floods.

The main impact of a severe flood such as the one happened in early 2013 is the loss of rice produce from the baixas. Such loss can reach up to 80 or 90% of the total production as it was the case in 2013.

Rice is the main cash crop as well as one of the main sources of food for the families along the year. When the rice production decreases to such levels, the households food security compromises as there will be insufficient food to feed the all the family along the year as well as

lack of cash to afford non-food items or non-produced food items such as oil or sugar.

Fortunately, in the recent years the government quick assistance response to flooding affected families ensured that in the aftermath of the disaster they received food and non-food assistance. Hardship is only postponed though, and will come during the lean season.

Although all the families have machambas in the high lands that will not be affected by the flood, the fact that household assistance happens in the collective centres often located far from the villages (several hours walking distance) prevent the household to take care of the machambas to some extent.

The prices of the rice in the local (village) markets will rise; this will add a negative impact in household's economies.

The cost of repairing or rebuilding a new house is relatively low. However, it is costly in terms of family man-power and the reduced equipment the household had could have been damaged or washed away as well.

The most common households' coping strategy will be reduction in expenditure. Non-essential items and expenditures such as festival related expenses, clothes and non-staple food will be cut in the year following a flood. They will rely mostly in eating the cheap produce such as cassava, sweet potatoes and fruits and try to sell the "high value" produce.

Sale of livestock will also be practiced to ensure some cash to buy essential food. However because the scale of livestock is also reduced the amount of cash raised is not going to be significant.

Opportunities to earn alternative income in the areas are really rare and short-term migration very limited. There is little demand for labour and no market for other products rather than staple food and basic food products.

In fact, the limitations on coping strategies reflect the lack of economic opportunities in the zone and the low level of economic development.

Most of the coping strategies families will undergo will be damaging and irreversible, for instance if they sell all the livestock it will be hard and take some time to have enough income to recover to the same level.

For the children of the poorest families the reduction of food intake and quality of food (rice and maize will be replaced by cassava which has less value in terms of nutrition) during a long period can have detrimental effects on the long run.

In terms of housing, the strategy that these families/communities use to cope with the lack of shelter in the aftermath of the disaster is to be hosted at relatives' or friends' houses, or at the community buildings.

During the hosting period, the hosting family will share their kitchen utensils, spaces and their food with the hosted, in an act of solidarity. This support will reduce the hosting family staple food reserves and will probably affect negatively their food security.

ANNEX

ANNEX A

Case study - NAMACURRA

This case study was conducted on 24th of August 2013 in the Village of Manhala by Mrs. Josefinha do Livramento Mocambique, member of the field team.

Case study (HOSTING FAMILY) - Manhala/Namacurra

Summary

Namacurra is emerging from a decade and half of conflict that ended in 1992 with Roma Agreement between the Government and Renamo. The district's location and topography have made it vulnerable to a range of natural hazards that threaten lives and livelihoods. INGC and other stakeholders, such as Red Cross have been working with communities to reduce and mitigate the impact of disasters and to aid their recovery, with a focus on livelihoods.

Background

Namacurra is prone to natural disasters, including, floods/inundation and drought. In addition, many villages are exposed to strong winds that each year destroys homes, crops and palm trees that are the plants of life in this region. The government Mozambique has made disaster risk reduction an urgent priority, with emphasis on strengthening community capacities. However, it is still struggling to provide basic services and to meet the needs of the population in terms of food, shelter, security, health care and employment.

The INGC in recent years, it has been developing its disaster management programme, which has gradually expanded to encompass community preparedness, disaster risk reduction and emergency response through a Contingency Plan. The basic strategy of its risk reduction component is to support the most at-risk communities in developing livelihood skills and to provide them with basic tools to help generate self-employment.

A coordination meeting was held for all COE members and attended as well by community leaders, volunteers and representatives of other non-governmental organizations.

The COE-INGC and community members jointly organized a participatory risk analysis in Manhala, Birua, Muguerege and Lugela communities.

In the mean while the affected families were seeking for survival alternatives, and this had been the case of lady Maissa Rodrigues who became eligible for our conversation because she is a women leader and actively participated in sensitizing the population to shelter displaced people and in difficult situation as well as by collaborating with local authorities, in search of solutions and resources for the betterment of her community life conditions.

During 2013 floods/inundation, she was notable for having hosted AF's, during approximately 3 weeks and continuing to contribute in the mitigation of the disaster impact which considering that the reconstruction of buildings and life in general is still ongoing, still can be felt.



(Lady Maiassa, the husband and two of her 8 children)

The hosted families stayed at her house for about 8 days. She provided them with food, clothes, and other basic necessity products. These products were directly channeled to the affected people who managed them directly.

After the situation has come to normal, the hosted families returned to their original areas to reconstruct their lives in general and their houses, in particular, completely destroyed by water. The reason that obliged them to act this way was because in this community there are no accommodation centers, neither resettlement wards, due to the lack of infrastructures, and the area is, fundamentally, disposed to inundation/ floods.

Along this period there was no access to medical assistance, and education because the classes had been suspended. Apart from the help offered by the host family they did not get any assistance from any other organization or institution.

Her house is considered of big size within the community and it has 4 small rooms (3x2.5m each). She hosted them for about 8 days. As far as herself, she could have hosted them longer if they needed.



(one of the house compartments)



(Maissa's house)

This community does not have infrastructures. As stated before, in case of illness, need of any other service, they recourse to Forquia chief town, approximately 15Km of distance. The school that has been referred is two rooms, built of sticks and barked with clay. During this period the AFs recourse to local survival strategies, eating dried cassava, coconut, wild fruits and the host food reserves.



(Class room at the community primary school)

She stated that all Manhala area is propense to floods except Muguelemuno; hence, the necessity of taking precaution and the strengthening of solidarity spirit in the community and mainly in the families. It is her understanding that in such circumstance, there must be more respect for human being, and more attention should be given to affected people.

Considering that the Manhala community does not have infrastructure that the can be used as accommodation center, people must be hosted by families that live in high land secure areas. Being a leader of woman organization, she wants to create production centers (collective farms) to cultivate food that will be preserved to respond to Family Aggregates necessities, mainly those of vulnerable groups during and after disasters.

ANNEX B

Case study - MAGANJA DA COSTA

This case study was conducted on 29th of August 2013 in the Village of Muguloma by Mrs. Josefina do Livramento Mocambique, member of the field team.

Case study (HOSTED FAMILY) - Mugomola / Maganja da Costa

Summary

Maganja da Costa is emerging from a decade and half of conflict that ended in 1992 with Roma Agreement between the Government and Renamo. The district's location and topography have made it vulnerable to a range of natural hazards that threaten lives and livelihoods. INGC and other stakeholders, such as Red Cross have been working with communities to reduce and mitigate the impact of disasters and to aid their recovery, with a focus on livelihoods.

Background

Maganja da Costa is prone to natural disasters, including, floods/inundation and drought. In addition, many villages are exposed to strong winds that each year destroys homes, crops and palm trees that are the plants of life in this region. The government Mozambique has made disaster risk reduction an urgent priority, with emphasis on strengthening community capacities. 3 However, it is still struggling to provide basic services and to meet the needs of the population in terms of food, shelter, security, health care and employment.

The following story is about the origin and lifestyle (nourishing habits, religion, participation in community and humanitarian activities, occupation and reasons for remain in places prone to floods and why seeking help from relatives/families instead of resettling on accommodation centers) of lady Alda Geraldo who became eligible for our conversation due her abnegation to work and belief in family solidarity as way to strengthen the family ties and extend them to the community level.



33 years old, born in Maganja da Costa Sede, married from since 2000 with Mr. Felix Oliveira (traditional marriage) from Mugoloma. Orphan from the blossoming stage of her life she live with the aunty her father sister until 8 years old when she was transferred to Quelimane to her cousin house to helping domestic tasks what consequently deprived her from school. She speaks fluently Portuguese, she learnt with friends/relatives.

Mother of 4 children (3 girls and a boy) after marriage she moved to Mugoloma-Namabiwa, her husband home land where his relatives gave them a plot to build their house (from bamboo, sticks, burked with clay grass for roof), and another portion for agriculture.

Although she practice agricultural activities, but her main income source in the production and selling of sugar cane alcoholic drink (Nipa-fire water)

In her farm she grouses rice, beans, cassava, sweet potato, nname and she breads chicken and ducks. All these products are for family consumes and they have a varied nutritional diet.

There is a primary school at community where she lives and her elder daughters study there in grade 3 and 1 respectively.

There is no health care post, but in cases of illnesses they go to nate chief town health care post. Her first parturition was assisted by a traditional mid wife (matron) and went on smoothly with no complications. However people in her area usually seek for help from traditional healers and spiritual leaders, for the above mentioned occasions.

Her family was affected by floods/inundations in January 2013. The impact can still be felt because life and houses are being reconstructed.

She stayed 3 weeks at her husband uncle's house who lives in the same locality but at the high land. She received all support she needed. Such as a room to stay, food, blankets. They took this decision because it is a place where they were welcome.

The reason why they left the host house was because the authorities had begun the process of resettlement. However when they went to Intabu and Mussaia resettlement centers there was not more space for them. They shared their problem with the community leader and the ward secretary who listed them for next distribution.

During this period they had no access to medical assistance and education.

The host family, in this specific case, is considered a wealth man because he is a business man; he has what is considered a big house. They could have stayed longer if they needed.

The community in this area has basic infrastructures (school, shops, church and informal market) which were affected by floods therefore there was shortage of goods in the shops and food in the markets. There is no health center.

ANNEX C

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Os Princípios Fundamentais do Movimento Internacional da Cruz Vermelha e do Crescente Vermelho

Humanidade. O Movimento Internacional da Cruz Vermelha e do Crescente Vermelho nasce da preocupação de prestar auxílio sem discriminação aos feridos no campo de batalha: esforça-se, na sua capacidade internacional e nacional, de prevenir e aliviar o sofrimento humano seja lá o que pode ser encontrado. O seu propósito é de proteger a vida e a saúde e de promover o respeito pela pessoa humana. Favorecer a compreensão, a cooperação e a paz duradoura entre os povos.

Imparcialidade. Não faz nenhuma discriminação quanto a nacionalidades, raças, credos religiosos, condições sociais, ou opiniões políticas, empenhando-se exclusivamente em socorrer todos os indivíduos na medida dos seus sofrimentos e da urgência das suas necessidades, e dar prioridade aos casos mais urgentes de infortúnio.

Neutralidade. A fim de conservar a confiança de todos, abstém-se de tomar parte em hostilidades ou em controvérsias de ordem política, racial, religiosa ou ideológica.

Independência. O Movimento é independente. As Sociedades Nacionais, enquanto auxiliares dos serviços humanitários dos respectivos governos e sujeitas à lei dos respectivos países, têm de manter sempre a sua autonomia para poderem sempre actuar de acordo com os princípios do Movimento.

Voluntariado. É um movimento de alívio voluntário, não se movendo, de modo algum, pelo desejo de ganho.

Unicidade. Em cada país, pode existir apenas uma Sociedade da Cruz Vermelha ou do Crescente Vermelho. Tem de ser aberta a todos. Tem de realizar o seu trabalho humanitário em todo o seu território.

Universalidade. O Movimento da Cruz Vermelha e do Crescente Vermelho, em que todas as sociedades têm igual estatuto e partilham as mesmas responsabilidades e deveres de ajuda mútua, é universal.

