THE ROLE OF PLANNING IN MEDIATING CONFLICTS INVOLVING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND LAND ACCESS BY LOCAL COMMUNITIES: THE CASE OF THE MATUTUINE DISTRICT

PAULO BENTO GOMES NHAMPOSSA
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A Research Report submitted to the Faculty of Engineering and The Built Environment, University of the Witwatersrand, in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Development Planning.

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DECLARATION

I declare that this research report is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Science in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

(Signature of candidate)

20th Day of November, 2006
ABSTRACT

The Role of Planning in mediating conflicts involving tourism development and land access by local communities in the Matutuine district, south of Mozambique, is the theme of this research report.

The aim of the study was to analyse and understand how tourism development in a particular context, the Matutuine district, has impacted on the life of the local communities.

Access to land and to the other natural resources as well as associated socio-economic aspects was explored. Present and proposed planning approaches and their role in minimising land use conflicts were also investigated. In order to address the research problem, the following research question has been proposed:

Are the problems arising from the conflict of interest that involve tourism development and land access by local communities responsible for land degradation in the district?

The following subsidiary questions have been proposed to assist in answering the main question:

What type of land use conflicts exist in the district of Matutuine and how has tourism affected the local communities?

Has tourism been beneficial to local communities in terms of land access, participation and tourism spin-offs?

To what extent do land use conflicts influence land degradation and how does planning respond to this?

After developing the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study, a combination of methods such as documentary analysis, sampling and interviews,
participant observation and spatial observation was used to collect primary and secondary data under analysis.

Data collection mainly focused on the main land use types and land use conflicts, participation of local communities in tourism development, socio-economic benefits that accrue from tourism development, land degradation and planning and management of tourism, land and the other natural resources.

The resulting data and information were organised and analysed throughout the chapters in order to answer the research questions.

The research revealed that tourism development has not been beneficial to the local communities. Institutional fragmentation and overlapping of mandates, a lack of common understanding and enforcement of legislation, corruption, and a lack of capacity building and legal status of the local communities are the main reasons for a dysfunctional tourism system in the study area.

In order to contribute for the management and resolution of land use conflicts in the study area, it is recommended that planning and planners should introduce new planning processes such as collaborative and communicative approaches, facilitation and mediation techniques as well adaptive processes to address power relations among stakeholders.
DEDICATION

To my wife and sons
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all I want to thank the Ministry for the Coordination of Environmental Affairs (MICOA), especially the management team of the Marine and Coastal Biodiversity Management Project for their financial assistance and moral support during my studies at The University of Witwatersrand, South Africa.

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Special thanks to My supervisor, Brain Boshoff, for the insights and direction throughout the process of this work.

I also thank all the people who supported my project and encouraged me from the beginning.

Thank you to my fathers who believed in me and provided their warmth care.

Finally, and above all, I need to thank you, my wife Raquel, and you, my sons Joaninha and Nito. Your love, smiles and your frequent calls simply made it possible.
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CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The Matutune District is located in the Southern part of Mozambique. According to Instituto Nacional de Estatistica (1997) the district has a population of 35161 inhabitants and a surface area of 5513 Square Kilometers.

The District is bordered by South Africa to the South, by Swaziland, Namaacha and Boane Districts to the West. The Maputo Bay and The Indian Ocean are the water bodies that limit the district to the North and East, respectively. It comprises a vast area which is unique in terms of quality, diversity and species richness of its habitats.

Dune forests, grasslands, floodplains, swamps, forests, mangroves, elephants and turtles are some of its remarkable natural resources. Part of the district was proclaimed a Conservation Area (The Maputo Special Reserve-MSR) by the Portuguese colonial authorities even before the country’s independence and Matutuine was declared a Tourism Zone (See Decree No 20288 of 20/04/67 published in State Bulletin No15 series I of 20/04/1967).
Presently, the elephant herds are the most attractive features of the district but other coastal features such as mangroves, sand beaches and corals are of significant importance. High levels of degradation of these resources have been reported (Ministry for Coordination of Environmental Affairs, MICOA, 1996), mainly in densely populated areas.

The District’s proximity to South Africa and to the capital of Mozambique, Maputo, makes it a preferable destination of business people, and investors who
seek to develop economic activities such as Tourism, Agriculture, Livestock and Commerce. (MICOA, 1996). In fact, improvements in roads, water supply, electricity and telecommunications, make the District more accessible and attractive.

However, land use conflicts have been frequently reported and these involve various interests such as local communities, whose survival depends mainly on the use of the natural resources and private investors that have been concessioned considerable plots of land, mainly for tourism development (see for instance, McGregor, 1997).

According to MICOA (1997), the Matutuine Conservation Area had been conceded to Blanchard Sodetur, a private company, for ecotourism development. This is a tourism development initiative which operates in an area that has been mainly defined for conservation purposes. The government of Mozambique considered the two initiatives as economically important to the region.

Data from the Mozambican National Institute for Agronomic Research, INIA (1985) indicate that 18% of the district’s area is comprised of parks, reserves and forests and 27% of the total area was devoted to tourism concessions in 1996 (MICOA, 1996). This author argues that the opportunity cost that results from diverting the local labour from subsistence primary activities to remunerable work, such as tourism, does not compensate the gains that local people achieve in the development of this activity. This means that the mobilization of the local communities to secondary activities such as tourism needs to be done with care to avoid disruptions in the socio-economic base of the communities, which can result in serious conflicts.

Planning and Management of activities such as tourism, play a very important role in this regard.
1. 2. AIM OF THE STUDY AND RATIONALE

The Matutuine District is known as experiencing the most controversial and serious land use conflicts ever recorded in Mozambique. (MICOA, 1996). The conditions already described form the motivation for proposing the present study that aims at analysing how tourism developments in the district have impacted on the life of the local communities, in terms of their access to land and to the other natural resources, and how this relationship has influenced the conservation of these natural assets. The importance of planning for the achievement of sustainability will also be highlighted.

The issue of sustainability in the use of the natural resources has been a priority both of researchers and of those who are involved in development programmes worldwide.

Hewawasam (2002) suggests that sound planning and management may lead to the conservation of the natural resources, particularly in areas that are rich in biodiversity, and to the maximization of the economic opportunities present in those areas.

This is in line with the principles of Sustainable Development according to which the present generations must use the resources in such a way that they are also available for future generations (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987).
1.3. PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Land degradation is a major concern in the district of Matutuine, South of Mozambique. The problems that result from the conflict of interests between tourism developments and the access to land and to other natural resources by local communities may be responsible for the degradation of these resources. To address this problem, the following research question has been proposed:

1.3.1. Are the problems arising from the conflict of interest that involve tourism development and land access by local communities responsible for land degradation in the district?

The following subsidiary questions have been proposed to assist in answering the main question:

1.3.1.1. What type of land use conflicts exist in the district of Matutuine and how has tourism affected the local communities?

1.3.1.2. Has tourism been beneficial to local communities in terms of land access, participation and tourism spin-offs?

1.3.1.3. To what extent do land use conflicts influence land degradation and how does planning respond to this?

1.4. RESEARCH REPORT STRUCTURE

The research report consists of six chapters. Following the introduction, Chapter 2 presents a literature review and theoretical and conceptual framework.

The literature review examines topics relevant to tourism and economic development; ecotourism; land degradation, management and sustainability; land
use conflicts, conflict management and resolution and an overview of policy and legal framework for tourism development in Mozambique.

The information provided by the literature review guided the formulation of the research questions, assisted in the development of the conceptual framework and supported the development of the analytical framework.

Chapter 3 describes the research design and methodology that have been used for the study. It describes the development of the research, the methods that have been used to collect primary and secondary data, the analytical framework and ends with the discussion of strengths and limitations of the research process.

Chapter 4 relies on information collected from secondary and primary sources to describe the characteristics of the study area, such as location, accessibility, population and economy.

Chapter 5 uses findings from chapter 4 and additional information together with information obtained from the interviews to examine tourism development and land access by local communities in the study area.

Finally, Chapter 6 summarises and discusses key findings that can be drawn from the study and suggests some recommendations on how tourism planning and development in the study area can be enhanced for the benefits of all stakeholders and especially to local communities.
CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. THEORETICAL/ CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

According to Farlex (2005), natural resources are the available source of wealth offered by nature. Land is part of the natural resources and its use has generated serious conflicts in many areas.

The Pacific Institute for studies in Development, Environment and Security (2003) argues that different land uses make different demands upon space and a great mixture of land uses can generate a high degree of conflict among different users.

In areas where access to land and to the other natural resources by the local communities is difficult, conflicts and land degradation are most likely to occur (Cleaver and Schreiber, 1994). Land degradation, in turn, will cause land conflicts due to the competition for scarce resources.

According to MICOA (1996), Land degradation is a process that is characterised by adverse alterations of land resources and it includes pollution, erosion, and deforestation among others.

Effective participation of local communities in the development programmes is a key factor for preventing land use conflicts and their negative impacts on conservation of the natural resources (MITUR, 2004).

Arnstein (1969) sees participation in terms of the degree to which people are involved in the projects and programmes that influence their lives. She
produces a typology of eight levels of participation from which five seem to be the most important, namely, information, consultation, partnership, delegated power and citizen control. Although participation of local communities is an important factor, mediation and conflict resolution mechanisms are necessary, especially in tourism development projects where various interests clash.

According to The International Institute for Peace Through Tourism (2003), conflicts may occur at any stage of development projects, and especially when the projects start to deliver benefits. They point out that in the Planning phase, it is important to foresee possible areas of conflict and establish mechanisms of conflict management and resolution.

Warner (2000) refers that conflicts results mainly from development pressures that include the commercialization of common property resources and the involvement of rural communities in conservation and privatisation of rural public services. In fact, many tourism development projects, especially those based on eco-tourism, take advantage from the use of land resources that are the main assets of local communities.

As Warner (2000) points out, there are five strategies for managing conflict, namely, force, withdrawal, accommodation, compromise and consensus. The last two seem to be more appropriate to deal with conflict situations in tourism development projects as they are likely to bring more collaboration and commitment towards the use and conservation of land resources, the main assets for tourism development. The author refers that the compromise strategy seeks to minimize a win-loss outcome through trade-offs. He adds that although consensus building in some situations may contain elements of compromise, it finally seeks to avoid trade-offs altogether and to achieve a win-win solution.
In order to minimise the negative impacts of land use conflicts, land degradation and to achieve balanced development, the planning initiatives must incorporate the issue of conflict mediation, management and resolution in all implementing stages.

A common feature among various definitions of development is that the process aims at inducing change that will result in the welfare of the society.

Many development approaches have been adopted in the course of the history of the humanity. These approaches appear as a response to the changes that occur in certain stages of the development of the societies. For instance, the shift from Modern to Post-Modern societies has brought new ideas and theories on how development is conceived in the current world (Crook et al., 1992).

New planning approaches have also emerged and have been applied worldwide.

Although the traditional and rational (instrumentalist) theories are still being applied, new forms of theorising planning are being developed, such as the communicative and collaborative theories (Getz 1994; Habermas 1984; Healey 1996).

Communicative and collaborative planning approaches seek to bring all stakeholders together in a consensus building process towards the achievement of common objectives.

Foucault, cited by Flyvbjerg and Richardson (2002), points out that the above-mentioned approaches fail to recognise the role of power relations in shaping the outcomes of planning processes.
The author argues that non-communicative effects on communication play a very important role and are highly influential on the decisions and outcomes of the process.

In fact, planning is also about politics and political decisions that impact on planning are sometimes taken outside communication (Flyvbjerg and Richardson, 2002). This may enable powerful groups of interest to lobby outside normal communication channels in order to achieve individual goals that undermine common objectives.

Dealing with power relations in planning is a complex issue. Both Forester (1999) and Focault cited by Flyvbjerg and Richardson (2002) agree that the first step is to recognise power and conflict as part of the process and understanding their dynamics.

Forester advocates that planners need to be deliberative practitioners who work and learn with others. He also urges planners to be politically critical and astute in order to address inequalities of power.

The degree of success that planners will achieve in addressing conflict and power relations in planning processes will depend on how flexible and prepared they are to balance communicative and non-communicative aspects of planning towards the achievement of common objectives. This will require adaptive and combined approaches that are suited to local conditions and circumstances.
According to Murphy (1985), Tourism Planning is a relatively recent phenomenon and has developed from a site-oriented and physical perspective into a more regional and systems approach. Consequently, several tourism planning approaches have been developed that include Physical /Spatial, the Community-oriented and the Sustainable approaches (Hall and Page, 1999).

Although they present differences, these approaches are not mutually exclusive. The last two approaches are common worldwide and at local level and they stress the participation, dialogue and integration of social, cultural, economic and environmental aspects of tourism development (Hall and Page, 1999).

The problems arising from tourism development at local level are complex. No single development approach, by itself, can guarantee adequate solutions for each of the problems.

In order to achieve “sustainable tourism”, defined as “that which seeks to achieve a suitable balance between environmental, economic and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development to guarantee its long-term sustainability” (World Tourism Organization, 2007:12), a set of integrated measures that include policy, legislative, institutional, planning and management has to be carried out. The strengthening of the local capacities is also an important measure.

2.2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.2.1. TOURISM AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

According to Keyser (2002), economic development is supposed to result in improvement in the socio-economic circumstances of all people. Tourism is globally seen as an economic activity that may induce a significant change towards the achievements of the objectives of economic development. According to the World Tourism Organization (1997), global tourism grew by an estimated
7.4 per cent in 2000 and this was considered its highest growth in nearly a decade and almost doubled the increase of 1999.

The less developed countries, especially African countries, see tourism as a new force that may contribute to the economic development and to the welfare of their people.

Many African countries are presently striving to overcome negative experiences of internal armed conflicts and poor planning and management that contribute to weaken their economic base and tourism development.

Some other authors express differing views concerning the economic impacts of tourism on the less developed countries. Freitag (1994), for instance, argues that in some less developed countries, tourism failed to yield the beneficial effects that were originally hoped. He points out that in the Dominican Republic, for instance, the tourism market is controlled by multinational companies based in North America and Western Europe who retains the greatest part of shares derived from tourism.

Other criticisms concerning the impact of tourism on the less developed countries focus especially on environmental issues. Weaver (1998), argues that the conventional tourism practice, mass tourism, results in huge economic benefits to the investors while depleting the resource base at destinations.

Although tourism development has not resulted in shared benefits for many less developed countries, there are enough reasons to believe that those countries having abundant tourism assets should pursue policies, strategies, programs and plans desired to prevent profit leakages, environmental degradation and socio-cultural disruption.
2.2.2. ECOTOURISM AS A NEW TOURISM DEVELOPMENT ALTERNATIVE

The impacts of ecotourism on the less developed countries vary considerably. Good examples as well as bad practices related to ecotourism can be found in different countries.

If ecotourism can be described as “any that provides a first-hand active experience of the place; provides an educational experience that develops visitor’s understanding and appreciation of the place visited and promotes appropriate behaviours and conservation ethic; is environmentally responsible, involves the local communities in planning and management and uses various strategies to minimize impacts and maximize local rents” (Bottril and Pearce, 1995: 266) one can ask why some ecotourism developments are regarded as having negative impacts.

By recognizing that tourism projects, including those categorised as ecotourism, are having serious socio-cultural impacts in the destination areas, the less developed countries have been developing new approaches aimed at addressing the imperfections of the conventional tourism.

Good examples of sustainable ecotourism in Africa are described by Cater (1995) and Goodwin et al. (1998). The authors argue that the Zimbabwean Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) is one of the best-known African efforts to act after the colonial legacy that impacted negatively in the relationship between local communities and their environment. Established in 1989, this innovation aims at transferring the ownership over wildlife on communal lands to local communities.

Although the other developing countries have much to learn from the lessons derived from the Zimbabwean experience, the success of their tourism development initiatives will depend on how their specific policy, legislative,
planning and management framework will be organized and implemented in order to achieve the socio-economic and environmental sustainability.

Despite the fact many less developed countries that possess significant natural assets see ecotourism as a viable alternative to mass tourism due to its reliance on environmental protection and involvement of local communities (Weaver, 1998), the magnitude and distribution of this new category of tourism are concentrated in fewer regions of the less developed world.

“A 1987 survey of US-based tour operators specializing in nature tourism to the less developed world revealed a concentrated pattern of distribution where 37 countries were cited by the sampled operators as significant venues, and just 11 of these accounted for more than 70% of the 270 indicated activity-destination opportunities” (Weaver 1989: 71).

This picture seems to prevail although the last decade saw very important developments in policy, institutional and legal framework intended to position ecotourism in the centre of tourism development in many less developed countries.

Participants of an international seminar on planning, development and management of ecotourism in Africa, held in Mozambique, concluded that ecotourism, if properly planned and managed, can result in shared profits for governments, private entrepreneurs and local communities alike. On the hand, they warned that controversial impacts on prevailing ecosystems, local communities and traditional cultures may threaten the desired sustainability of ecotourism development (Ministry of Tourism, MITUR, 2001).
Mozambique is a less developed country whose natural features show a high potential for the development of tourism, including eco-tourism.

The Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique (Government of Mozambique, 1990), the Tourism Policy (MITUR, 1995) and the Environmental Policy (MICOA, 1995) safeguard the promotion of efforts to guarantee the ecological balance and the conservation and preservation of the environment for the betterment of the quality of life of the Mozambican citizens.

The Tourism Policy stresses that Tourism is and should remain an activity of essentially private sector initiative. In the current conditions of Mozambique, characterized by poor planning and managerial skills, weak implementation and enforcement of legislation as well as a low level of awareness of the local communities regarding issues around development, the greater involvement of the private sector in tourism projects is likely to cause serious problems.

Both the Land Law (Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, MADER, 1997) and the Forestry and Wildlife Law (MADER, 1995), envisage that the rights of the local communities towards land and the other natural resources must be safeguarded and the local communities must be consulted in the process of land concessioning to private operators.

Unfortunately, this is not the case in many tourism destinations in Mozambique. According to The Mozambican Land Tenure Centre (2002), power relations where private interests subjugate the rights of the local communities have determined the way land resources are accessed and managed.

The Mozambican Tourism Policy (MITUR, 1995), envisages the elaboration and implementation of tourism development plans and programs intended to
materialize the objectives of tourism development in all destinations across the country.

The Strategic Plan for Tourism Development 2004-2013 (MITUR, 2004), recognises that tourism development needs to be aligned with the National Action Plan For Poverty Eradication (PARPA) which is periodically updated by the Mozambican Government, and stresses the importance of other sectoral plans towards the achievement of the objectives of development and poverty eradication.

Although the idea of integration is consistently applied in policy documents concerning tourism development, fragmentation still characterize both elaboration and implementation of tourism development programs and plans.

Source: Fieldwork, 2006

Figure 2 Institutions involved in tourism development in the study area
The National Strategic Plan for Tourism Development 2004-2013 (MITUR, 2004) identifies the following as contributing to fragmentation: lack of an integrated land use and land resources planning; lack of institutional and sector coordination; and unclear definition of mandates of each institution or sector concerning development issues.

But besides these, local planning is specifically fragmented due to the lack of capacities to form strong partnerships involving the public sector, private operators and local communities. This seems to be one of the main reasons why land use conflicts have been reported in many tourism destinations.

2.2.4. LAND USE CONFLICTS, CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND RESOLUTION

According to Food and Agriculture Organisation, FAO (2006), conflicts over interests occur when there are incompatibilities regarding how a certain resource is used.

Goodwin et al., (1998), argue that patterns of land ownership have profound implications for the distribution of costs and benefits arising from tourism development. In fact, where land and land resources are mostly controlled by private owners and by state managers (in parks and reserves), conflicts are likely to occur, especially when no mechanisms exist which may safeguard the access to land and land resources to local communities.

All too often, particularly in rural areas, local communities are denied significant opportunity to enter the tourism market (Goodwin et al., 1998). This is another factor that may cause land use conflicts involving local communities and tourism operators.

For Ashby (1998), land resources use conflicts may occur because of the following reasons: when stakeholders with livelihood use for the resource are excluded from use and/or from decisions concerning the use of the resources;
inequitable access to scarce or degrading resource; Unprecedented increase in rates of extraction; use of a natural resource for development and livelihood purposes is defined as inimical to its conservation; lack of clarity about boundaries, access and use rights and responsibilities; extraction by international or non-local economic interests; traditional ways of sharing resources undermined by governments, etc.

Taking into consideration that in many tourism destinations in developing countries local communities live on the basis of kinship networking under informal and traditional ways of accessing and managing resources, the lack of recognition of these traditional mechanisms may cause land tenure insecurity and conflicts (see, for instance, Myers, 1995). This explains why in many cases, the use of formal and top-down legislative processes through the courts have often proved to be inadequate mechanisms of regulating competing interests and addressing conflicts regarding natural resources (FAO, 1998).

New ways of dealing with land resources use conflicts have been developed and they include the so-called Alternative Dispute Resolution techniques (ADR).

These techniques include arbitration, mediation, conciliation, and direct negotiation, and alternative means of regulating to avoid or manage conflict (FAO, 1998).

It is not easy to determine which method of conflict resolution has to be employed for which case but for tourism development projects a proactive approach that maximises the use of facilitation and mediation in a process of collaborative planning and management of resources seems to be the most appropriate.

Before facilitation and mediation are initiated for conflict management and resolution it is crucial that the facilitators understand the origins of the conflict and its dynamic and stakeholders should be encouraged to recognize and respect their differences and their conflicting values and interests (FAO, 2006).
Innes and Booher (2004), give an example of how a group of stakeholders (Sacramento Water Forum) managed to come together in a collaborative and consensus building process in order to set up a strategy to manage the limited water resources in northern California. Although this process may be time-consuming and requiring a lot of commitment of all stakeholders and facilitators, the achievement of consensus and an agreed strategy to solve the problem is rewarding and serves as a good example for others to follow.

2.2.5. LAND DEGRADATION, LAND MANAGEMENT AND SUSTAINABILITY

Although examples of positive impacts of tourism are recognized worldwide, such as the creation of job opportunities and its multiplier effects on other economic sectors, a set of constraints have made tourism to cause unwanted impacts in many areas, especially in less developed countries.

Mathieson and Wall (1982) identify conflict as a negative relationship that may occur between tourism and the environment. They point out that tourism induces detrimental effects on the environment, degrading its resource base and finally destroying itself. The environment must be understood in its broader concept and it includes social, economic, cultural, historical and political elements (Miller, 1998).

Land degradation is seen as a serious problem in the study area and efforts towards the achievement of sustainability in the tourism development have not yielded the desired impacts. (MICOA, 1996).

Achieving sustainability in tourism development requires a combination of a variety of measures. Land management is one of them and refers to a set of tools designed to achieve a better use and enjoyment of land and its resources.
Christie and Crompton (2001), see physical planning as an essential tool within a national tourism policy to ensure that tourism developments do not take place on sensitive ecological sites and have no impacts on such sites and do not take place on land reserved for other purposes such as agriculture or a green belt. Physical planning also controls the location and densities of tourism development to prevent exceeding the physical carrying capacity of the area and having a negative impact on the host society and its culture.

Zoning is an important tool that physical planning can use to promote a balanced land use and thus avoid land use conflicts. However, in many remote tourism destinations, zoning is either neglected or badly implemented. This may be attributed mainly to the lack of capacities to elaborate and implement plans and zoning schemes at local level.

Cleaver and Schreiber (1994), argue that lack of incentives for local communities to participate in the management of land resources is another factor that makes plans and zoning tools inefficient. They point out that incentives such as the government’s recognition of traditional management systems, the acceptance of customary land tenure rights and the involvement of local communities in projects that render benefits to them are crucial.

In fact, many developing countries have been developing new policy and legislative frameworks intended to encourage the participation of the host communities in the management of land resources, however the effectiveness of such tools is still to a lesser extent.

“Good land resources management and sustainable tourism can be achieved through the recognition that the public and private sector, the host communities and the natural environment are interdependent stakeholders in a complex tourism ‘domain’ where no single individual, agency or group can resolve strategic tourism issues by acting alone” (Getz and Jamal 1994: 152).
For tourism planning and management to be sustainable and to result in shared benefits among all the affected parties, new approaches must be adopted.

The community approach, one of the most recent tourism development approaches, stresses the importance of local communities’ involvement in the planning process, through a bottom-up approach (Murphy 1985; Prentice 1993; Simmons 1994).

Another recently developed tourism planning approach is that of sustainable tourism planning which gives more emphasis to integration of economic, physical/spatial, social, and cultural, community and environmental aspects that characterize a tourism destination’s reality (Hall and Page, 1999). This approach is strategic in nature and it also entails the collaborative and communicative tools that characterize the new planning paradigm in general.

The following table shows the difference in approach between conventional and strategic planning:
Table 1: Conventional Planning versus Strategic Planning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conventional Planning</th>
<th>Strategic Planning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plan-oriented; planning separated from implementation.</td>
<td>Action-oriented; planning and implementation as a single process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oriented to substantive issues; organizational issues are suppressed.</td>
<td>Oriented to the organization’s mandate and its internal/external environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All-encompassing.</td>
<td>Focused and selective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization’s values not considered and its performance not examined critically.</td>
<td>Situational analysis includes examination of organization’s values critique of its performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental scan rarely done.</td>
<td>Environmental scan considers factors in external environment affecting achievement of objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vague goals, not tested for consistency or implementability in a shared action space.</td>
<td>Explicit mission statement, fully cognizant of implementation capability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive and reactive; no contingency planning.</td>
<td>Proactive, with contingency planning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning often separated from budgeting; land becomes the key integrator.</td>
<td>Strongly oriented to allocation of organizational resources; budget is the key integrator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning process is periodic.</td>
<td>Planning process is ongoing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity-building is not an explicit objective.</td>
<td>Builds capacity for planning and organizational learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values analysis highly.</td>
<td>Values intuition and judgment highly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Gunn 1988: 18)

Although the above-mentioned approaches concern planning in general, they also apply to tourism planning.
CHAPTER 3

3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

As Leedy (1997) points out, research design is the visualization of the body of the data to be collected, the way to secure data collection and the process of analysing and interpreting data.

This study relies mainly on qualitative research approach characterised by flexibility concerning the choice of the sample, the type of questions to be administered during the interviews (open-ended) and the areas and phenomena to be studied and observed.

The analytical framework is mainly based on interpretation of data that resulted from interviews and participant observation. Analysis of documentary and mapping data is also used to support the evidences gathered from interpreting the interviews.

3.1. DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

A number of techniques were used to generate the required data:

3.1.1. DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS

This type of research is useful as a supplement of qualitative methods. Data was collected that include topics such as economic activities, socio-cultural dynamics, land use and conflicts, environment, planning among others. Special attention was given to policy documents, project implementation and appraisal documents and reports from government, mainly at district level.
Data was also collected from different institutions including National and Provincial Departments and district authorities, project and business offices outside and inside the district, libraries, newspapers and the internet.

The literature review helped to form the conceptual and theoretical background of the study, highlighted the formulation of research questions and brought useful insights concerning previous studies about the research subject.

3.1.2. SAMPLING AND INTERVIEWS

A purposive sampling method seemed to be the most appropriate to the aim of this study. Following a rapid but thoroughly diagnosis of the characteristics of the study area, focus areas were identified where land use conflicts involving tourism development and local communities are most pronounced.

Using a qualitative approach, open-ended questions with a flexible interview guide were administered to key informants and representatives of stakeholders, namely, local communities, private businessmen including tourism investors, government officials and tourists.

Information that was gathered from secondary data and preliminary contacts with the district authorities were crucial to the identification of focus areas and interviewed people.

Individual interviews and focus group discussions resulted in collecting data on access to land and the other natural resources by local communities; land use conflicts; land degradation; tourism planning and the impacts of tourism development, especially in the livelihoods of local communities.
In order to collect a variety of views and different understanding considering the wide range of affected stakeholders, interviews with non-leading representatives of the stakeholders were carried out, especially at community level. A snowball technique was used to identify additional interviewers through recommendations of previously interviewed people.

Interviews were secured through previous notification to the selected people or their leaders.

Ethical issues such as confidentiality and anonymity were observed to ensure an enthusiastic and free participation of individuals and to improve the quality of
responses (Yin, 1994). Consequently, interviews generally took more time than expected, enabling the interviewer to collect more useful information.

A total number of fifteen people were interviewed and their responses recorded verbatim in written form.

3.1.3. PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION

This method was used to observe how people execute their daily activities, the way they interact and influence land use and the management of the natural resources. The observation will focus on the activities being carried out by tourism developers, planning authorities, local communities and tourists, mainly in the focus areas.

3.1.4. SPATIAL OBSERVATION AND MAPPING

Spatial features will be observed directly in the field and through mapping. This kind of technique does not only provide a mere description of the actual condition but it also enables the observer to gain an insight into the relationships among spatial features and their significance.

For instance, water sources can be related to agriculture and livestock activities; Vegetation types to ecotourism sites, charcoal production and hunting, etc.

3.2. ANALYSIS

The analysis of the research data for this study was based on the information that was gathered from the primary and secondary sources.

The analytical framework results from the triangulation of techniques such as map reading and interpretation, interpretation of the results of the interviews, data comparisons, including information that will result from written secondary sources.
Basic statistics were used to analyse information on population and surface area of the different zones of the study area.

3.3. STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

3.3.1 STRENGTHS

Taking into consideration the difficulties that researchers have been facing to gather enough and reliable data related to Mozambican districts, the use of a combination of different methods of investigation facilitated the production of a variety of data and evidence.

The validity of the research findings is also improved as the various approaches compensate for the weakness of one another. (Patton, 1990).

Through the use of qualitative method based on open-ended interviews a variety of views and different understanding considering the wide range of the affected stakeholders were collected. Focus group discussions that included both men and women were useful in providing insights about gender relationships and their relevance to the theme under the study.

The relevance of the research topic in the district’s socio-economic context was highlighted by the interest that was shown by almost all interviewed people. Interviews could last more than the expected time in many of the meetings.

Known difficulties to collect data in the country were minimised by cooperation of local communities, local government officials, representatives of NGO, and government officials at central level.

The interest of the initially interviewed people to the research topic, facilitated the identification of additional interviewees who brought useful information.
Easy communication with local community members was secured by the fact that the researcher can understand and speak local idioms. No translation was needed, that brings more reliability to the collected information.

Face-to-face contacts were helpful in terms of observing emotional and intellectual responses of the interviewees.

Direct observation allowed the researcher to be more familiar with the study area in terms of the tourism system and the reality of the local communities and it helped with the clarification of controversial findings.

3.3.2. LIMITATIONS

Qualitative research methods based on open-ended, semi-structured interviews are more susceptible to limitations which relate to reliability and validity.

In this study attempts were made to secure reliability and validity through confronting the opinions of various respondents and the use of different methods.

The study of the specific problems of this particular area, the Matutuine district, makes generalisations more difficult to achieve, however, a deep knowledge and understanding of the subject under the study seem to have been secured.

According to Peterson (1994), qualitative research findings may be limited by the skill, experience, and understanding of the researcher. Although the study might have bias related to consistency, efforts were made to reduce them through the use of different methods and the flow of information that resulted from the interviews.

Accessibility constraints made it difficult to reach more remote areas which also have high tourism potential and have been disputed by different land use interests.
Despite the above-mentioned limitations, the study was carried out in such a way to gain insights, knowledge and understanding of the specific tourism development problems of the study area.

3.4. ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethical issues are so important that they must be taken into consideration by the researcher.

Brown et al. (2001) stress that raising people’s hopes and expectations without the ability to deliver promises is unethical and ultimately damaging to the research process. During the fieldwork, efforts were made to explain clearly the objectives of the research to the respondents.

The support of the district’s administration authorities and the local community leaders was crucial in facilitating a good rapport with the respondents.

Prior to the interviews with the various respondents, notifications were made through proper mechanisms and interviewees’ consent was achieved.

Confidentiality and anonymity were granted to the respondents, contributing to their free and spontaneous participation in the research process.
CHAPTER 4

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AREA

4.1. LOCATION

The Matutuine District lies within the southern Mozambican province of Maputo. The District is bordered by South Africa to the South (The Province of Kwazulu-Natal), by Swaziland, Namaacha and Boane Districts to the West. The Maputo Bay and The Indian Ocean are the water bodies that limit the district to the North and East, respectively (see Figure 1).

The District is situated some 70 km south of Maputo city and its main settlements (Administrative posts) are Bela-Vista, Catembe N’sime, Catuane, Machangulo and Zitundo.

4.2. ACCESSIBILITY

The accessibility of an area is not only defined in terms of its geographical characteristics and distances to other places. The presence and condition of infrastructure such as roads, railways, airports and communications play a very important role in determining the degree to which an area becomes accessible.

The Matutuine District, although is geographically accessible from all its surroundings, the poor condition of infrastructure reduces mobility to inner areas, especially to those areas with higher tourism potential. For instance, the District’s center (Bela Vista) that is some 60 km away from Maputo city could be easily reached through a direct road, after crossing Maputo Bay. However, due to the poor condition of this road, many travelers prefer to use the longest route, via Boane District, as it offers better condition.
The majority of tourists who have managed to reach the District remote areas come from South Africa through the border with Kwazulu-Natal province by means of four-wheeled drive vehicles.

The conditions of the internal roads worsen during rainy seasons, making transitability more difficult.

Some other tourists reach the district by air, to Ponta de Ouro aerodrome which can only handle smaller aircrafts.

There are basic telecommunication services in some urbanised areas of the district but the overall performance can be considered unsatisfactory.

4.3. POPULATION

The majority of the Matutuine District population is part of the Ronga ethnic sub-group, one of the Tsonga group components (MICOA, 1996).

Other ethnic groups in the district are Tsuas, Changanas and Ngunis.

The Ngunis have strong linkages with Zulus from Kwazulu-Natal and Swazis in Swaziland. Contacts among these neighboring populations are very common and they were intensified during the years of armed conflict in Mozambique (MICOA, 1996).

According to Instituto Nacional de Estatistica (1997), the district population decreased from 57,509 in 1980 to 35161 in 1997.
Table 2  Population of the Matutuine District

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Administrative Post</th>
<th>1980 Census</th>
<th>1997 Census</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Households</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bela-Vista</td>
<td>26,401</td>
<td>5,075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catembe N’sime</td>
<td>8,601</td>
<td>1,843</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catuane</td>
<td>9,091</td>
<td>1,948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machangulo</td>
<td>5,545</td>
<td>990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zitundo</td>
<td>7,871</td>
<td>1,528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57,509</td>
<td>11,385</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The number of people per household has also known a reduction from an average 5 to 4.3 in the same time frame.

Strong migration flows to Maputo city and to South Africa are the main reason for the decrease in population absolute numbers and the number of people per household.

Migration patterns have a considerable impact on the district male/female index (89.5%), considering that men are more susceptible to migrate than women. This is also true in relation to age structure of the district population, where more than 45% has ages between 0-19 years (Baxter and McKechnie, 1995).

This reality needs to be considered when issues of land use and natural resources conservation are dealt with.
4.3.1. SPATIAL POPULATION DISTRIBUTION

The population of Matutuine District is unevenly distributed. Data from the Mozambican national census (Instituto Nacional de Estatistica, 1997) indicate that 34% of the total district’s population of 35,161 inhabitants lives in Bela-Vista administrative post. (See table 2).

The average district’s density is of 8.6 persons/km². The Bela-Vista administrative post occupies a surface area of 2512km², with a population density of 4.8 persons/km². Higher densities are found in Machangulo and Catembe administrative posts, 17.2 and 8.9, respectively.

4.3.2. POPULATION GROWTH

As it was mentioned earlier, migration patterns have had a greater influence on the evolution of the Matutuine district population. In this context making population projections for the forthcoming years is a complex exercise.

The table below results from an analysis of various scenarios that concern the district population growth.

Table 3 Matutuine district population projections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r = 2% / year</td>
<td>57509</td>
<td>47454</td>
<td>51336</td>
<td>62615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r = 2.5% / year</td>
<td>57509</td>
<td>47454</td>
<td>51380</td>
<td>67051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r = 3.0% / year</td>
<td>57509</td>
<td>47454</td>
<td>53410</td>
<td>71778</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MICOA, 1996
This model was developed before the 1997 census and it was based on data from 1980 census and 1996 population inquiry.

The 2.5% growth scenario was based on the assumption that emigration was likely to decrease as a direct result of the end of civil war.

The ambitious 3% growth scenario was an expectation that development programmes and projects were likely to multiply and attract more people to the district, including part of the district’s population that had emigrated to South Africa and Maputo city.

The results of 1997 census show that none of the two expected growth scenarios was achievable in short to medium-term. As a result of prevailing migration patterns the district population dropped to 35,161 in 1997 (Instituto Nacional de Estatística, 1997).

4.4. ECONOMY

According to the Matutuine District Administration (2002), around 80% of the district’s population is occupied in primary productive activities.

Agriculture appears as to be the main economic activity. Fishing, hunting, tree-cutting for wood and charcoal are also alternative livelihood strategies, especially for the poorest families.

Maize, cassava and sweet potatoes are the most produced food crops. Vegetables, sugar-cane, and a variety of fruits are produced as cash crops on the fluvial soils of the district, while cassava, maize and banana are also used as cash crops in the district hinterland.

Many families although, can only manage to produce for their own subsistence, those who can have a production surplus are faced with serious difficulties to
reach the market centers due to the bad condition of roads and transport inefficiencies.

The contribution of tourism to the district’s economy is still very low despite the fact that a considerable area of the district comprises diversified natural assets with a high potential for tourism development.
CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS

5.1. LAND USE AND CONCESSIONS IN THE MATUTUINE DISTRICT

5.1.1. MAIN LAND USE TYPES IN THE STUDY AREA

A comprehensive study of the main land use types in the study area was developed by MICOA (1996). The study was based on a land use map that was elaborated by INIA (1985), summarised on the following table:

Table 4 Matutuine District Land Use Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Land Use</th>
<th>Area in hectares</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Forests and reserves</td>
<td>95,391</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rain-fed family sector agriculture</td>
<td>138,317</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rain-fed family/commercial agriculture</td>
<td>4,769</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rain-fed commercial agriculture</td>
<td>1,536</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigated commercial agriculture</td>
<td>4,769</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silviculture</td>
<td>1,642</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock production</td>
<td>54,585</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unoccupied land</td>
<td>228,939</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>529,952</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: INIA, 1985

The above table shows that by the time the land use information was drawn, a significant part of the district area (26.1%) was devoted to rain-fed family sector...
agriculture, while forests and reserves occupied 18%. This trend seems to have changed after the peace accord, in 1992, as a result of increasing land concessions for private farmers and tourism developers as well as the redefinition and expansion of the existing reserves.

5.1.2. NEW LAND CONCESSIONS AND COMMUNITY LAND DEMARCATIONS

According to McGregor (1997), although the Mozambican structural adjustment program that was introduced in 1987 sought to transform an unproductive state sector and reinvigorate agricultural production, providing support to the family sector, it has dispossessed and impoverished smallholders.

After 1992, increasing land applications by private operators have been registered in the Matutuine district.

McGregor (1997) illustrates this situation by mentioning the case of two land applications that were submitted by two competing private companies. The first was submitted by Mosaflorestal, a 32,000 hectares joint venture between the South African Pulp and Paper Industry (Sappi), two Mozambican companies (Socimo and Socief). The second regards the American multibillionaire James Blanchard and his company, the Elephant Coast Company (ECCo), who applied for 250,000 hectares intended for ecotourism development.

It is important to note that large area concessions such as the above-mentioned are always negotiated at central government level, overlapping smaller applications that are usually made at provincial level (McGregor, 1997).

Whatever the result that may be achieved after settling disputes among competing companies, the interests of smallholders and those of the local communities have been undermined. This is substantiated by the fact that tourism operators have
been increasingly applying for considerable plots of valuable land that otherwise would be used to sustain the livelihoods of local communities.

Additionally, Smallholders and local communities have been threatened by uncertainties that result from the proposed expansion of the Maputo Special Reserve which will include areas that are of great importance for their livelihoods (MSR Expansion Project, 2006).

Taking into consideration that economic benefits and spin-offs that result from tourism development have not yielded the desired impacts on the life of local communities, new land concessions and expansion for tourism projects will remain suspicious to these communities (evidence from interviews with members of local communities).

MICOA (1996), based on international experiences identifies two main reasons for the increasing number of land applications that have been submitted by private operators: The first regards the accumulation of savings and the easy access to credit by investors; the second concerns the combination between the lack of knowledge about investment risks that may derive from an inadequate market analysis and the accumulation of land for speculative purposes.

Helvetia is a Non-Government organisation which has been involved in development projects in the Matutuine district. The programme manager of this organisation, during an interview, described the case of two private applicants who requested 10,000 hectares each for tourism development. He said that after many years, it was found that the land was still undeveloped, showing that those private applicants were not prepared to start the investment.

Before the introduction of the new Land Law in 1997 (MADER, 1997), the interests and the rights of the local communities towards the use and enjoyment of
land were not legally protected. Much of land that had been used and enjoyed by local communities, individually or in group, had been secured through traditional mechanisms that were not recognised by the state modern Law.

The lack of recognition of the traditional mechanisms for land access contributed greatly to the disparities and injustices that characterised the system of land concessions after 1992. According to MICOA (1996), in the Matutuine district, the increasing number of land applications by private operators has been accompanied by a lack of organisation of the government authorities and a lack of clear concession criteria.

Mr. E, a project manager at the Ministry of Tourism highlighted that:

“Some of the private concessionaires were only occupying land in physical terms, without having legal rights, but they were able to fence the land that was attributed to them” (Personal interview, 21/09/2006).

The above imperfections were recognized by the new Land Policy and MADER (1997) stated that the new challenges that have been imposed by present socio-economic transformations and the experiences and lessons drawn from the previous Land Law of 1979 call for an urgent revision and actualisation of the Land legislation.

One of the objectives of the new Land Law is to secure land access to the local communities (individually or in group) and to the national and foreign investors.

Regarding the rights of the local communities towards the use and enjoyment of land, the new Land Law of 1997 establishes that the Right of use and enjoyment of land is acquired through: ‘’occupation by individuals and local communities according to norms and customary Law which do not violate the constitution’’; ‘’occupation by individuals who are citizens and who, in good faith, are using the land for, at least, ten years’’ (MADER 1997: 12).
The Law is also intended to protect the local communities and its members through the right of transmission from one family member to another.

Organised local communities are also given the right to be consulted prior to a land concession to any applicant, to demarcate their land with the support of government structures and to participate in the management of the natural resources, conflict resolution and land titling. (MADER, 1997).

Although the land that has been acquired through traditional norms and customary Law is also subject to registration and titling, the lack of a title deed or registration does not prejudice the recognition of the “Right of Use and Enjoyment of Land” (MADER, 1997).

The main objectives of community land demarcation is to identify land that is an asset to the local communities so that the land can be protected from usurpation and be used as a strong mean to negotiate deals with private or public interests.

In the Matutuine district, non-government organisations such as Helveta have been supporting local communities in understanding the Land legislation and the technical processes of land demarcation.

According to Mr. F, Helvetia programme manager, the process of community land demarcation has been concluded in some localities such as Machangulo but a combination of various constraints has prevented the local communities from reaping the expected benefits.

For this programme manager, “Community land demarcation is still in its early stage and the stakeholders (local communities, government, private sector, non-government organizations) that have been involved in the process are still facing enormous implementation difficulties due to inefficiencies in the existing institutional and legal framework” (Personal interview, 20/09/2006).
5.2. THE IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE MATUTUINE DISTRICT

5.2.1. THE TOURISM SYSTEM IN THE MATUTUINE DISTRICT

The National Tourism Policy and Strategy for Mozambique (MITUR, 2003) and the Strategic Plan for Tourism Development in Mozambique (MITUR, 2004), have defined priority areas for tourism investment and development in the country (PATI). The areas are categorised as A, A/B and B, according to their strategic importance for the country’s development through tourism.

Both the National Tourism Policy and the Strategic Plan for Tourism Development in Mozambique (SPDTM) recognise that the Matutuine district is endowed with a combination of invaluable natural resources that are essential assets for the development of tourism in the region. The coastal area of the district (Elephant Coast) is categorised as A/B (PATI).

A focal area for strategic tourism development has been also identified which includes the Matutuine Futi region, part of the Trans-frontier Conservation Area (TFCA). This TFCA known as Ndumo/Tembe/Futi resulted from an agreement between Mozambique, South Africa and Swaziland, intended to join efforts for a regional tourism development.

Figure 4 indicates the areas of strategic importance for tourism development in the Matutuine district.

Both Holden (2006) and Keyser (2002) see tourism as a system of interrelated elements that include the Market (generating area), the Supply (destination), the Marketing and Travel. These four main elements are highly influenced by external factors which include social, environmental, political, economic, technological, institutional and legal aspects.
V&L Landscape Architects (2006) stress that a successful tourism destination depends on the fulfillment of four primary criteria. These criteria that have been termed the 4 A’s are the Attractions, Access, Amenities and Awareness.

The Matutuine district is characterised by diverse vegetation zones resulting in a diverse range of tourism attractions that include spectacular beaches and bays, pristine coral reefs with high potential for scuba diving, various inland coastal lakes and the Futi and Maputo River Deltas; The Maputo Bay and the associated mangrove zones adjacent to the Maputo Special Reserve present a unique environment with high conservation value; The Maputo Special Reserve has exceptional scenic beauty and a viable population of elephants estimated at around 300 individuals; the Usuthu, Maputo and Futi rivers with unique fauna and flora communities, the scenic floodplains of the Maputo River also hold good potential for supporting game populations; the area has strong cultural and historical aspects which can be developed as tourism attractions (V&L Architects, 2006).
The Matutuine district offers a high potential for a combination of coastal ecotourism, leisure tourism and cultural tourism which can maximise the tourist’s experience and optimise the benefits both to local communities and to private and public interests, if well planned and managed (See V & L Landscape Architects, 2006).

Access is another important factor that needs to be considered in evaluating a destination’s tourism potential.

Border posts exist at Ponta do Ouro (Mozambique/RSA) and Goba (Mozambique/Swaziland).
South Africa has developed a high quality tarred road to the Ponta de Ouro border post. From this point the road is very sandy and only accessible to by four-wheeled drive vehicles. From Swaziland, good access is available through Goba Border post on a tarred road to Porta Henrique (V&L Architects, 2006).

From Maputo, there are two ways to reach the study area. A longer and better road from Maputo to Boane and then to Bela Vista, the district’s administrative center, or a dirt direct road to Bela Vista after crossing Maputo Bay.

Internal roads to the tourism sites are sandy and only accessible to four-wheeled drive vehicles.

Air access is very poor. The Maputo International Airport is the closest, although not providing a direct access to the study area. There is an aerodrome at Ponta do Ouro which only caters for smaller aircrafts.

There are no facilities for marine access but smaller vessels can reach the Maputo Special Reserve via Maputo Bay or Maputo River.

In terms of amenities it is important to describe and analyse the situation of the Maputo Special Reserve which covers an area of approximately 800km2, 15% of the district’s area.

The Portuguese administration has declared and defined the Reserve by Legal Diploma N. 22314 of 9 August 1969.

The Reserve amenities are concentrated at Ponta Chemucane, Ponta Membene, Ponta Milibangalala and Ponta Dobela. The amenities are campsites with no legal status except those which are located in Ponta Milibangalala, operated by the MSR authority. A Game Scout is positioned at this facility to control the collection of fees and vehicles access to the beach. Current rates charged for this facility are relatively low (R35-00 per person) (V&L, Architects, 2006).
Two community lodges have been established close to the Reserve in the localities of Gala and Malhalhane. These lodges were funded by Helvetia and IUCN, a non-government organization which has adopted the concept of community tourism.

Along the coast and outside the park, more lodges can be found that are operated by private investors (see the following figure).
Source: V&L Landscape Architects, 2006

**Figure 5: The Matutuine district tourism amenities**

The analysis of the existing and the potential market for a tourism destination provides useful information for decision-making concerning planning and management of tourism.
Presently, the study area is served by domestic and regional markets. Domestic tourists come mainly from Maputo City while tourists from South Africa and Swaziland dominate the regional market.

Quantitative data concerning the number of tourists that reached the district in the first six months of 2006 were only available for the Maputo Special Reserve and are summarised in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of origin</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; trimester</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; trimester</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>216</strong></td>
<td><strong>644</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MSR-2006

The table shows that the overall number of tourists that reach the study area has been increasing and the majority of tourists come from South Africa.

According to the MSR official international tourists from Portugal, United States of America, France and Germany use to come to the study area in small numbers, which indicate that the study area is relatively unknown to the broader tourism market. V&L Landscape Architects (2006) refer to a comparative search which was conducted via internet. The market evaluation search revealed that 90000 documents containing the words Maputo Special Reserve were found while 4300000, 1100000 and 342000 were found containing the words Kruger National Park, Serengeti National Park and Addo Elephant Park respectively.

The marketing strategy designed to attract more tourists to the area needs to be done carefully because, according to Mrs. D, MSR representative “the present
conditions of poor infrastructure and precarious amenities do not allow for many tourists to be accommodated in the area” (Personal Interview, 22/07/2006).

The Systems analysis of a tourism destination suggests that although the Matutuine district exhibits a high potential for tourism development due to its natural assets, the conditions of the other main elements of the system have been constraining. External factors such as political, institutional, socio-economic and legal have had minor positive impacts in this area.

Based on the Systems analysis of a tourism destination (Keyser, 2002), the elements that form the tourism system in the Matutuine district have not been mutually supportive. Fragmentation and lack of institutional coordination, lack of integrated planning and economic development, ambiguity in the legislative instruments are some of the external factors that constrain the use and development of the natural tourism assets of the district (MICOA 1996 and Garcia 1999). Local factors such as poor infrastructure, lack of local planning capacities, and lack of capacity building of the local communities also contribute to subtract value from the district natural tourism potential.

5.2.2. TOURISM AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

LOCAL COMMUNITIES LIVELIHOODS IN THE MATUTUINE DISTRICT

According to the Matutuine District Administration (2002), 80% of the district’s population is engaged to primary production activities. Rain-fed agriculture is the main activity which is practiced in poor soils without any form of technological inputs.

Despite the fact that no reliable information is available concerning households income in the district, data provided by local communities members suggest that very low income results from this family sector agriculture.
Considering that a significant number of households are headed by women who have the responsibility to feed five or more persons, it is easy to conclude that the majority of the district’s households have been facing enormous difficulties to survive.

The situation of the majority of the Matutuine district households is identical to that of many rural Mozambican families. The Action Plan for Poverty Reduction in Mozambique 2000-2004 (Ministry of Planning and Finance, 2000) identifies the following as the main reasons for increasing poverty in rural areas: Low impact of the economic growth on the household lives; low educational levels of the household members, especially women; high rates of economic dependency in the households; Low agriculture productivity; lack of job opportunities within and outside the sector of agriculture and poor infrastructural conditions.

The Matutuine District Administration (2006) stresses that the fragile ecosystems of the district are susceptible to be more vulnerable in situations of natural disasters such as droughts and floods, with serious impacts on the households livelihoods.

In order to secure their productive and reproductive functions the district households, especially the poor have been applying a number of livelihood strategies. These include tree-cutting for charcoal production, hunting, fishing, and palm wine production.

Remittances also play a very important role as livelihoods strategy. Emigration to the neighboring countries, especially to South Africa is very high affecting many district households.
SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT ON LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Keyser (2002: 380) stresses that ‘“sustainable tourism implies that the resources for tourism be conserved, and often enhanced, for both present and continuing future use and enjoyment by local residents and visitors; tourism development must be compatible with the society and culture of the tourism destination; sustainable tourism development meets the needs of the host population for improved living standards; tourists attractions, facilities, services, and infrastructure must be planned, located, designed and managed in an environmentally and culturally sensitive manner, so that they do not congest, pollute or degrade the environment, or create social problems; and local communities participate in planning tourism in their areas and benefit directly from tourism”.

The role of local communities in preserving, conserving and improving the quality of tourism assets is crucial. Their effective contribution in this process can only be secured if they participate actively in tourism planning and management and benefit from tourism development (MITUR, 2004; Goodwin et al., 1998).

As it was mentioned earlier, land concessions for private operators have been granted in an accelerated pace since the end of civil war in 1992. The Matutuine district is one of the most affected and a significant part of the granted concessions have been dedicated to tourism projects.

The MSR extension project (MSR Management Plan 2001-2006) envisages that considerable portions of land south of the Reserve will be added, resulting in relocation of people that are now living and using the area natural resources.

Although tourism investment has been defined as a top priority for the development of the district, the issue is to what extent tourism has benefited the local communities.
More than 90% of the interviewed people, including government officials, agree that tourism development has not benefited the local communities so far. Evidence of this situation can be seen from a statement of one of the community members, Mr. O, who said “we need our lands be demarcated and registered to prevent private operators from usurping our resources” (Personal interview, 28/07/2006).

Access to land and to the use of the existing natural resources has been in the centre of many disputes that involve the private, the public sector and the local communities (MICOA, 1996).

The Land Law of 1997 states that local communities must be consulted prior to land concession to a private applicant while the Forestry and Wildlife Law of 1995 stresses that local communities have the right to share the revenues that accrue from the exploration of forest and fauna resources.

The present reality of the Matutuine district is far from being what is prescribed by the above Laws.

The programme manager of Helvetas summarised that “corruption, lack of capacity to enforce the Law, weak land management structures and lack of legal status of the local communities are the main reasons for the prevailing situation” (Personal Interview, 20/09 2006)

Expected socio-economic benefits from tourism development such as job creation, capacity building of the local communities, infrastructure development, and beneficial partnerships with public and private sectors are still enjoyed by fewer members of the affected communities.
5.2.3. TOURISM, LAND USE CONFLICTS AND LAND DEGRADATION

Increasing number of land applications for tourism development projects has been submitted both to local and central government authorities in the Matutuine district.

More land has been proposed for the extension of the MSR, within the framework of Ndumo/Tembe/Futi TFCA. (see, MSR management Plan, 2001-2006).

Despite the fact that some of the proposed projects are intended to support the socio-economic development initiatives of the district through tourism, the overall impacts of these developments in terms of land access and resources use by local communities can be considered negative.

Figure 4 shows critical areas where land use conflicts have arisen as a consequence of land concessions for tourism development.
Figure 6 Map showing different levels of land use conflicts in the study area

High level of conflicts

In Santa Maria, involving local community and South African investors; concession of 14,000 ha for the establishment of a “Big Five” private reserve by the Elephant Coast Company in Machangulo; On the coastal zone, from Ponta do Ouro to Ponta Dobela, conflicts involving local communities, national and South African investors and the Elephant Coast Company (ECCo); Conflict involving local communities and ECCo due to the MSR extension project, fencing and
electrification. Local communities in Massoane, Madjadjane, Gala, Tsolombane and Muvukusa have been affected.

**Low Level of conflicts**

The conflicts are especially related to the use of natural resources, e.g., Hunting, tree-cutting for wood and charcoal production and grazing.

Despite the fact that some of the conflicts have been resolved through legal mechanisms, the condition of the local communities is still worrying.

Corruption, a lack of local level capacities for land use planning and management, the weak traditional structures and mechanisms of land resources management and conflict resolution, a lack of information and awareness to the local communities regarding tourism development proposals are the most important reasons for the reported conflicts (Helvetia 1998; MICOA 1996; McGregor 1997). Power relations play a very important role in this regard whereby political power remains concentrated at central and to some extent at provincial level. Important decisions concerning planning, land use management and development have been made without an effective participation of local authorities and communities. The system of land concessions in the district is a clear example of this situation as it was pointed out by the Helvetia Programme manager (Personal interview, 20/09/2006).

The impacts of land use conflicts are likely to be detrimental to the tourism development as was explained by McGregor (1997: 10) Distribution of land to the private sector, as it appeared in provincial registers, encroaches on these protected areas and may conflict with the ambitious transfrontier conservation plans for Mozambique, which have been so attractive to international donors.
The weak integration of the local communities in the MSR plan may exacerbate the conflicts that involve them and the elephants. Elephants have been destroying crops and human settlements in the west part of the Futi River (MITUR, 2001).

In the Matutuine district, the majority of the population is engaged in primary production activities (Administracao do distrito, 2002). Agriculture has been practiced in poor soils with very low production income. The accelerated pace of land concessions for tourism development and commercial agriculture means that land and natural resources are being subtracted from great part of people who have been living in poverty.

The logical consequence of this situation is more people competing for scarce resources and land degradation (Cleaver and Schreiber, 1994).

In the Matutuine district, tree-cutting for wood and charcoal production, uncontrolled burnings, over-fishing in some lakes and poaching are common (data from interviews).

5.3. PLANNING AND SUSTAINABILITY IN THE MATUTUINE DISTRICT

5.3.1. PLANNING SYSTEMS IN MOZAMBIQUE AND THEIR IMPACT ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE MATUTUINE DISTRICT

The systems approach that has been used to analyse tourism suggests that tourism planning and development are neither closed nor isolated systems.

The main elements of a tourism system such as destination, market, marketing and travel interact among themselves and are inevitably open to external influences from political, institutional, economic, legal, technological and socio-cultural factors (Keyser, 2002; Gunn, 1994; Holden, 2006). This is also true in regard to the Matutuine district which has been officially declared a priority area for

National and Provincial planning in Mozambique are economic in nature. International and internal factors have led to rapid socio-economic shifts from a centralised economic planning system to a free market-driven economy.

The coordination among district, provincial and national government institutions is made through a system of tiers.

The district’s role in the national development has also shifted. The present political discourse around the issues of decentralisation and empowerment of local communities is the driving force that led the government to delegate more powers to the district’s administrations.

According to the Law N.8 of 2003 and the Decree N. 11 of 2005 on Local Organs of the State (The Government of Mozambique, 2005), ‘‘The District is the principal territorial unit for the organisation and functioning of the State local Administration and it is the planning unit for economic, social and cultural development’’ (article 12, 1).

Article 39, 1b of this Law stipulates that the government of the district has competence to ‘‘approve the development plans, activity plans and the budget district plans’’. 
The Law also gives competence to the district to approve structure plans, land use plans, ecological zoning plans and to establish the district land reserves (See article 39, 1 e, f).

Local communities are given the right to participate in development initiatives and in decision-making process regarding issues that pertain to their interests (see article 39, 4,a; article 100,1).

Although this new legislative framework brings some innovations and new approaches for planning local development, the transition from theory to practice has been very slow.

The Matutuine district has never known a process of integrated planning. Fragmentation characterises the different planning initiatives that government institutions and non-government organisations have had (MITUR, 2004), with negative impacts on the local communities.

Participation of local communities is inefficient as it was revealed by one of the local community members, Mr. L, regarding the MSR management plan: ‘we are not aware of the details of the MSR management plan and we fear that our lands will be confiscated’ (Personal interview, 22/07/09.)

This revelation is supported by Helvetia (1998) which found that the majority of local community members are not aware of the plans and projects that have been proposed in their areas and the investors’ proposals are even more scarce.

In 1996, the Ministry for Coordination of Environmental Affairs finalised a Land Use Plan for the Matutuine district. It was a kind of ‘planning under pressure’ due to central government concerns about the accelerated pace of investment applications and land use conflicts in the area.
The plan was elaborated by a team of consultants that were assisted by central and local government officials.

The participation of local communities in this planning process was almost nonexistent or through sporadic consultations (information derived from interviews).

One of the findings of the plan stated that ‘’The district resources are still being concessioned and managed sectorally, and with a lack of coordination among the different sectors. This is particularly evident in the coastal zones where marine and terrestrial resources abound. Consequently the role, competencies, decision-making and execution powers of the institutions overlay and weaken. This results in an episodic and uncontrolled development along the coast’’ (MICOA, 1996: 35).

Ten years after the land use plan was drawn, the district reality seems not to have changed much.

In 1999, the Matutuine district started a process of decentralised planning. This pilot project was supported by the Ministries of Plan and Finance and of State Administration with the involvement of international donors (Administracao de Matutuine, 2002).

Concepts of strategic planning, integrated planning and local community participation were introduced. Consultative councils at community level were created to facilitate communication between communities and other stakeholders.

Although the produced plan contains a strategic vision for the development of the district, integration has not been secured in the process. The plan does not contain a spatial framework and the budget alignment is very superficial.
On the other side the tourism strategy envisaged in the plan does not clarify the way local communities will be integrated in tourism developments so that they can achieve socio-economic benefits. This aspect deserves a special attention taking into consideration that both the public and private sector are presently in a powerful position in relation to the local communities. The district planning processes need to take this into consideration.

Constraints regarding local institutional capacities, a lack of a real financial decentralisation and a lack of clarity in the mandates of the institutions and their relationships seem to be the most important reasons for the weak implementation of the Plan.

For an integrated strategic plan to succeed, a number of success factors needs to be considered: “Strong guidance on substantive issues, strategic financial planning, strong commitment to the plan from provincial and national agencies and departments, strong spatial frameworks that offer the possibility of new patterns of development and the mobilisation of the civil society” (Harrison, 2003: 30).

The commitment from provincial and national agencies is especially important in what concerns the financial decentralization and the mobilisation of the local communities and civil society is crucial for the success of the plan, however local communities will be motivated to participate if they benefit from the process.

The institutional weakness that characterise the planning system in Mozambique is reinforced by ambiguities in the legislative framework.

Although new legislative frameworks have been developed that regulate access to land and use of natural resources (Land Law, Environmental Law, Forestry and Wildlife Law,) these are sometimes contradictory and lead to dubious interpretation (Cruz and Garcia, 1999).
Spatial Planning Laws are crucial in the management of land use, especially in districts with huge conflicts such as the Matutuine district; however no single spatial planning Law is available in the country.

If this situation prevails, tourism planning and development in Matutuine district will continue to be characterised by fragmentation and strong competition among sectors with serious negative impacts on the lives of the local communities.

5.3.2. PLANNING AND CONFLICT MEDIATION AND RESOLUTION

The role of planning in mediating and resolving conflicts that arise from land use and development is being increasingly recognised.

Past planning approaches and methodologies based on models of rationality are now being replaced by new planning paradigms centered on communicative and collaborative processes.

Muller (1992) argues that one of the weaknesses of the rational planning approach is its inability to recognise and accommodate socio-political reality.

Sandercock (2004: 76), states that “communicative paradigm defines planners’s key activity as focusing and shaping attention, and their important skills as talking and listening”

In fact, we are living in a world where rapid socio-political transformations can no longer be solved solely by technical means.

The Matutuine district is an example of real situations in which different socio-cultural, political and economic interests clash.

Land use plans based on rational models have failed to address the conflicts that oppose different interests towards access to land and the use of natural resources.
On the other hand, Watson (2002: 43), questions the efficacy of normative planning models ‘‘in a region of the world where, for example, informalisation is a dominant feature, kinship and other networks are critical to survival, state authority is weak and partial, civil society is deeply fragmented and there are complex intersections between modernity and the ‘re-traditionalisation’ of society’’

The role of planning and planners in the context of the Matutuine district appears to be even more complex given the fact that local communities are less informed about tourism and modern development processes.

Concerning planning and tourism development, the Programme manager of Helvetia replied: ‘‘There are no experiences of effective participatory planning in the district and local communities think tourism is a ‘white thing’ ‘’ (Personal interview, 22/09/2006).

Information, awareness and capacity building to all stakeholders and especially to the local communities concerning planning and development appear as the first step that planning and planners should take in order to build foundations for conflict management and resolution at local level.

For example, the MSR authorities are planning to extend the reserve area to the South, where some of the local people are settled and use the natural resources. This plan may seek to improve the lives of the local communities but it is important that all details of the plan are informed and explained to the communities in a clear, simple and understandable manner.

In the Matutuine district where power relations dominate the relationships between public, private sector and the local communities, the mobilisation of the local communities to participate in planning processes has been a way to legitimate the decisions that are made through a top-down style. Dlamini and
Moodley (2002), refer to this as ‘’pseudo-participation’’, concerning the way local communities were approached in the process of integrated development planning (first round) in the eTheKwini Municipality, South Africa.

Decentralisation and local planning imply that decisions on issues such as land use and land concessions must be taken at least after consultation to the local authorities and communities, however top-down decision-making has characterised the relationship between central government and local authorities in the district (see some of the respondents ‘statements).

It is crucial that planning processes incorporate new approaches such as stakeholders’ analysis, conflict assessment, facilitation and mediation which have been lacking in the plans that have been developed in the Matutuine district. Brown et al., (2001); The Centre for Conflict Resolution (1998) and FAO (2006) give more details about the applicability of these approaches.

When approaching and engaging with stakeholders, planners should avoid perceptions of considering local communities as ‘beggars’ or ‘spoon-fed people’. According to Brown et al., (2001) all stakeholders must be treated with equal respect.

Interviews with members of local communities in the Matutuine district revealed that some private operators and government officials have undermined the interests of the local communities. The respondents referred to examples such as lack of consultation in the process of land concessions, or when consultation is done, the interests of the local communities are not taken into consideration, and the lack of information sharing about land use or tourism development plans.

Brown (2001) explains that a long term commitment is necessary to support effective participatory processes and changes in the legislative and regulatory
conditions, government structures and systems as well as financial systems are required.

Although it is not the role of planners to make these changes, they are in better position to influence changes by working closely to the government officials and the other stakeholders.

If planners are willing to contribute for an effective participatory planning and for the minimisation of land use and development conflicts, it is necessary for them to change the attitude towards honesty, responsibility, impartiality, tolerance, patience and non-judgment attitude (The Centre for Conflict Resolution 1998 and Brown 2001).

There has been a debate around the role that planning and planners are supposed to play in this new world of rapid political, economic and socio-cultural transformations that bring upon more conflicts.

Apart from being mere technical designers, planners should also strengthen social and communication skills and expertise in order to be able to face the complex and unpredictable environment that characterise the contemporary planning processes.

Facilitation and mediation skills are required as many of the land use conflicts can no longer be solved by court mechanisms (FAO, 1998).

Considering that tourism planning in destinations such as The Matutuine district deals mainly with issues of efficiency in the use of the resource base, it is important that in the planning processes, stakeholders are informed and aware that competing and conflicting interests over the use of resources may have serious long term implications in terms of resources sustainability.
Private tourism operators should be informed and aware that although their investments may bring huge economic returns in short to medium term, if they operate in suspicious and conflicting relationships with local communities, their businesses are likely to fail in a long term perspective.

Presently, the stakeholders that have been involved in land use and development in the Matutuine district see each other as strong competitors (MICOA, 1996, McGregor, 1997).

Communication, collaboration and cooperation are needed and planning should introduce these approaches and facilitate their assimilation by stakeholders.

In the Matutuine district, informal and traditional community experiences of land management and conflict resolution are weak. Communication and trust between formal authorities and traditional leaders need to be strengthened through mechanisms of collaborative planning.

Examples of positive partnerships involving public, private sector and local communities have been documented worldwide. Goodwin et al. (1998), mention the Zimbabwean CAMPFIRE as a programme that has managed to bring together public tourism agents, private operators and local communities towards development and conservation objectives. The authors highlight that local communities have been stimulated to work with private operators as tourist guides and small service providers and they participate in the control and conservation of the natural assets.

In the Matutuine district, local communities are able to work side by side with the other sectors (private and public), offering their traditional knowledge as guides for tourists and helping to identify and describe important natural resources in the area. This may both contribute to planning and management of the natural resources and conflict minimisation.
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CONCLUSIONS

This study was motivated by factual knowledge of socio-economic impacts that arise from conflicting use of land resources involving tourism development and local communities in the Matutuine district (reports from previous researches, newspapers, television programmes).

The end of the armed conflict in Mozambique in 1992 and rapid socio-economic transformations that culminated with the adoption of a market-driven economy and structural adjustment programmes have led to increasing pressures on the use of land and other natural resources.

The aim of the study was to analyse and understand how tourism development in a particular context, the Matutuine district, has impacted on the life of the local communities. Access to land and to the other natural resources as well as other associated socio-economic aspects were analysed. Present and proposed planning approaches and their role in minimising land use conflicts and degradation were also investigated.

A literature review was developed on subjects such as tourism and economic development, ecotourism, Policy and legal framework for tourism development in Mozambique, Land use conflicts, management and resolution and sustainable development.
A combination of methods such as documentary analysis, sampling and interviews, participant observation and spatial observation was used to collect primary and secondary data under analysis.

Secondary data were collected from government and private agencies documents, books, articles, brochures, newspapers, magazines and internet websites.

The primary data collection mainly focused on the main land use types and land use conflicts, participation of local communities in tourism development, socio-economic benefits that accrue from tourism development, land degradation and planning and management of tourism, land and the other natural resources.

The resulting data and information were organised and analysed throughout the chapters in order to answer the research questions.

**KEY FINDINGS**

The results of this study suggest that tourism development has not been beneficial to the local communities. Institutional fragmentation and overlapping of mandates, a lack of common understanding and enforcement of legislation, corruption, a lack of capacity building and legal status of the local communities are the main reasons for a dysfunctional tourism system in the study area.

Under this environment, the public, private sectors and local communities operate in a strong competition for the control and use of land and the other natural resources such as wildlife, forestry, water sources, soils among others.

Land use conflicts are mainly characterized by competition between private and public sectors, private and public sectors and local communities.
Power relations were identified as influential in the relationships among stakeholders and there are examples of land concessions that were given to private operators out of the normal Law requirements.

Land use conflicts are still amounting in the study area and socio-economic benefits that are expected from tourism development such as job creation, revenues from partnerships with private and public corporations, capacity building to the local communities are almost inexistent.

Two community lodges have been established with assistance of non-governmental organizations but they are in their early stage of development. Community organisation and management as well as capacity building are the main constraints that face these pilot projects. If success is not achieved, there will be no replication of these projects due to high expectations from the targeted communities.

Participation of local communities in the process of land concessions and in tourism projects has not been effective. Both public and private tourism plans and projects have been weakly informed to the local communities, which inhibits their participation from the beginning.

Both private and public sector have been acquiring more land. Although there are promises to involve local communities in planning, management and benefits that will accrue from these developments, the present reality may lead to overexploitation of the community areas’ resources and to land degradation as the majority of people who live under subsistence will be over concentrated in smaller areas.

Present examples of land degradation include tree-cutting and clearing, uncontrolled burnings and hunting and over-fishing on some lakes.
The land use plans and tourism plans that have been elaborated in the district have not been effective for the establishment of partnerships, mobilization of local communities for effective participation and minimisation of conflicts.

Efforts have been developed to introduce strategic and integrated planning in a process of decentralisation but serious constraints such as a lack of coordination and clear definition of institutional mandates, weak local government institutions, a lack of capacity building of the local communities have been preventing the consolidation of the process.

RECOMMENDATIONS

After identifying, describing and analysing the constraints that involve tourism development and local communities in terms of land access and socio-economic benefits that accrue from tourism planning and management, a set of recommendations have been proposed.

Considering that the Matutuine district’s potential for tourism development is recognised by all stakeholders and that the government of Mozambique has defined tourism investment as priority for the district’s development, it is essential that all stakeholders be mobilised to join efforts towards a collaborative and cooperative approach to manage and resolve their conflicts.

As power relations are susceptible to undermine collaborative and cooperative efforts to manage and resolve conflicts, planning and planners have the responsibility to introduce new processes to deal with this issue. The adaptive management approach to collaborative tourism planning (Reed, 1999), seems appropriate where stakeholders maintain their own positions and show difficulties to cooperate.
This approach entails that planners have to recognise the existence of conflicts and respect the stakeholders’ positions. The next step will be to raise and address the issues around conflicts, facilitating debate and discussion among stakeholders.

Recognising that power relations are complex and difficult to dissolve (Foucault; Flyvbjerg and Richardson, 2002), planners need to be astute and flexible to deal with non-communicative processes that influence planning and development decisions. Their privilege of working close to government officials and centers of power may help them introduce and propagate new ways of thinking planning and development at local level.

Planning and planners are called to shift from mere technical processes of solving problems to socially and culturally-oriented approaches in order to deal with complex social and cultural aspects that characterise tourism destinations such as the Matutuine district.

Communication skills as well as experiences in facilitation and mediation of conflicts are required for planners to be able to bring stakeholders into consensus building and agreed decision-making, though keeping in mind the issue of power relations already mentioned.

Community tourism planning needs to be strengthened and consolidated where possible, but planning and management of community tourism sites require capacity building, awareness, and legally bounded communities.

Land use zoning should be promoted following good management practices that contribute to conflict minimisation such as efficient allocation of land uses, mixed land uses where appropriate in order to benefit a wide range of users, the introduction of principles of sustainability and social justice as the base for land allocation and utilisation.
Integrated development plans guided by strategic vision are useful tools to mobilise all stakeholders towards common objectives and may contribute to the overall objective of sustainable development in the Matutuine district, however, strong commitment of all stakeholders is necessary as well the capacity to align spatial frameworks to budget considerations.

The commitment from provincial and national agencies is especially important in what concerns the financial decentralisation.

In the Mozambican context, where all stakeholders show specific and some common deficiencies in dealing with tourism and development matters, cooperation more than strong competition is needed and the policy and legal framework should create an enabling environment for this to happen.

The minimisation of the negative impacts of tourism developments and the achievement of sustainability both for local communities and for tourism developers will require that a set of coordinated and integrated measures that include planning and management of land resources and activities, strong institutional framework, the introduction of adequate policies and legislation and its enforcement, the strengthening of local capacities that include capacity building of the local communities.
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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. What is the name of your organization and when was it established and when did it become involved in tourism in Matutuine District/Area?

2. What is your organization’s mandate in regard to tourism development?

3. What is your organization’s mandate in working with other organizations concerned with tourism development in the District/Area?

4. Is your organization a
   a) government organization
   b) Non-government organization
   c) Profit organization
   d) Non-profit organization
   e) If other, please specify

5. How many members does your organization have?

6. Is your organization open to public?

7. What are your organization’s current plans/projects in regard to tourism in the District/Area?
8. What are your organization's long range objectives?

9. Please, explain decision-making process regarding tourism planning and development.

10. What are the main agencies/ministries/organizations your organization works with?

11. Does your organization make public reports of each plan/project and are these reports available to the public (to me)?

12. Does your organization hold periodic events like community forums and workshops for all segments of the community to participate in?

13. Would your organization like to see more collaboration among the various organizations involved within tourism in the District/Area?

14. How satisfied are you about opportunities for participation in the various organizations involved in tourism in the District/Area?

15. How satisfied are you about opportunities for partnerships between your organization and other potential partners regarding tourism in the District/Area?

16. How satisfied are you about the partnerships that have been initiated between your organization and other organizations regarding tourism in the District/Area?

17. What do you personally think is the most pressing issue in regard to tourism development in the District/Area?

18. What is your position/role within your community?
19. How is your community organized?

20. What is the main economic activity in your community and yourself?

21. What are the other activities your community/yourself practice to raise the income?

22. Is your community or yourself involved in any government/non-government/private sector development plan/project?

23. Is your community or yourself involved in any tourism plan/project? Specify and explain

24. Are you satisfied with your involvement?

25. How do you think your community should be organized to take advantage of the tourism development in the District/Area?

26. Are there benefits of having community involvement in tourism plans/projects? Explain:

27. Are there any disadvantages of having community involvement in tourism plans/projects? Explain:

28. Do you think that collaboration between your community and other organizations has improved tourism development in the District/Area?

29. What do you personally think is the most pressing issue in regard tourism development in the District/Area?

30. Who do you think controls tourism development in the District/Area?
31. Do you think tourism developers are willing to involve the community in tourism development?

32. What are the most important natural resources in the District/Area?

33. Who do you think controls the natural resources in the District/Area?

34. Does the community have access to land and other natural resources?

35. Are there any mechanisms intended to involve the community in the use and enjoyment of the land/natural resources? Explain.

36. Do you think the present Land Law/Forestry and Wildlife Law contribute for the involvement of the local community in land/natural resources use and enjoyment? Explain.

37. What do you think threatens the participation of the community in the use and enjoyment of land/natural resources in the District/Area?

38. Is tourism beneficial to the use and enjoyment of land/natural resources by the community?

39. What kind of conflicts occur that are regarding tourism? Explain.

40. Why do you think the conflict occurred?

41. Is there land degradation in the District/Area?

42. What are the types of land degradation and what are the main causes?
43. Are there any mechanisms for land use conflicts resolution in the District/Area? Explain:

44. What is the role of government’s structures in conflict management and resolution?

45. What is the role of the local leaders in this regard?

46. Does the implementation of the present Land Law and Forestry and Wildlife Law contribute to Land/natural resources Management and conflict resolution? Explain:

47. Do you think planning for tourism development incorporates mechanisms of consensus building and conflict resolution?

48. Would you explain the process of land management in the District/Area?

49. Who participates in this process?

50. What/how do you think should be done for a sustainable tourism development in the District/Area?

51. Are you satisfied with the level of services which are offered here?

52. Are you satisfied with the level of natural resources conservation?

53. What do you think is the most concerning issue in tourism development in the District/Area?

54. What do you think should be done to solve this?
APPENDIX B

LIST OF INTERVIEW RESPONDENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Date of interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>District Tourism Representation</td>
<td>Chief</td>
<td>20/07/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>District Directorate for Public Works</td>
<td>Chief</td>
<td>20/07/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>District Administration</td>
<td>Official</td>
<td>31/07/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Maputo Special Reserve</td>
<td>Project representative</td>
<td>22/07/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Ministry of Tourism</td>
<td>Project coordinator</td>
<td>21/09/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Helvetia</td>
<td>Program manager</td>
<td>20/09/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G*</td>
<td>Local Community</td>
<td>Political leader</td>
<td>22/07/2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>H*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>I*</td>
<td>Local Community</td>
<td>Traditional leader</td>
<td>22/07/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J*</td>
<td>Local Community</td>
<td>Women’s representative</td>
<td>22/07/2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>L</td>
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<td>Community member</td>
<td>22/07/2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>M</td>
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<td>Tourism operator</td>
<td>26/07/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Tourism Business</td>
<td>Tourism operator</td>
<td>26/07/2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Local Community</td>
<td>Transport operator</td>
<td>28/07/2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Tourist</td>
<td>29/07/2006</td>
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* Respondents who participated in group focus discussions at Gala, Matutuine District.