Aalto University
School of Business

Effectual Framework for Supporting Sustainable Entrepreneurship with Development Cooperation: Case Study of Mozambique

SME Business Management

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EFFECTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR SUPPORTING SUSTAINABLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITH DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION: CASE STUDY OF MOZAMBIQUE

Master's Thesis
Ernesto Hartikainen
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Abstract of master's thesis

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Abstract

This thesis aims to develop a new framework for better supporting sustainable entrepreneurship with development cooperation. The thesis first presents the context of development cooperation. Global (OECD-DAC members) official development assistance expenditures amounted to 125.6 billion USD (0.29 % of GNI) in 2012. Finland used slightly over 1 billion EUR (0.53 % of GDP) for official development assistance in 2012. Development cooperation is often performed through programmes and projects which are designed utilising the Logical Framework Approach (LFA).

Sustainable development is viewed to consist of environmental, social and economic dimensions. A commonly cited definition for sustainable development is that of the UN World Commission "Brundtland Report". One view of sustainability by Turner is that in the concept of "strong sustainability" the three dimensions are not interchangeable. In addition, the environmental dimension sets the outer limit for sustainability.

Sustainable entrepreneurship aims to create environmental, social and economic value. One entrepreneurship theory is the effectuation theory by Sarasvathy, according to which expert entrepreneurs start from the means they control and think what they can accomplish with those means instead of defining a final goal and the most suitable path to get to that goal. The theoretical frame of reference of this thesis assumes both development cooperation and sustainable entrepreneurship have a common objective of supporting sustainable development and are thus complementary.

The empirical section of the thesis includes inductive research for developing a framework for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship with development cooperation through a case study of Mozambique. Mozambique in South-Eastern Africa is one of Finland's long-term development cooperation partners. The empirical research included field observations, archival research at the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland and expert interviews.

"Aid for Entrepreneurship (AfE)" is proposed as a new development cooperation category separate from "Aid for Trade (AfT)" and "aid for infrastructure development". This thesis also introduces a new effectual framework for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship with development cooperation. The framework was named "Sustainable Effectuation Framework Approach (SEFA)" and is a management tool comparable to the LFA used by development aid agencies worldwide.

The inability to field test the newly developed SEFA was a limitation of the research. Suggestions for further research also include developing measurement tools and indicators for holistic value creation and evaluation of holistic value creation opportunities.

Keywords effectuation, sustainable, entrepreneurship, development, cooperation, Mozambique, LFA, SEFA, framework

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Tiivistelmä

Tämän tutkielman tavoitteena on kehittää uusi viitekehys, jolla voitaisiin paremmin tukea kestävää yrittäjyyttä kehitysyhteistyöllä. Aluksi tutkielmassa esitellään kehitysyhteistyökontekstia. Maailmanlaajuisen (OECD-DAC jäsenet) virallisen kehitysavun määrä oli 125.6 miljardia USD (0.29 % BKTL:stä) vuonna 2012. Suomi käytti hieman yli 1 miljardia EUR (0.53 % BKT:stä) viralliseen kehitysapuun vuonna 2012. Kehitysyhteistyötä tehdään usein ohjelmilla ja projekteilla, jotka suunnitellaan käyttäen Logical Framework Approach (LFA) -viitekehystä ja lähestymistapaa.

Kestävän kehityksen ymmärretään sisältävän ympäristöllisen, sosiaalisen ja taloudellisen ulottuvuuden. Yleisesti viitattu määritelmä kestävälle kehitykselle on YK:n ympäristön ja kehityksen maailmankomission ”Brundtland-raportista”. Yhdessä kestävyyden näkemyksessä, jonka Turner esitti, ”vahvassa kestävyydessä” ulottuvuudet eivät ole toisillaan korvattavissa. Lisäksi ympäristö asettaa rajat kestävyydelle.

Kestävän yrittäjyyden tavoitteena on luoda ympäristöllistä, sosiaalista ja taloudellista arvoa. Yksi yrittäjyyden teorioista on Sarasvathyn effektuaatioteoria (*effectuation*), jonka mukaan kokeneet yrittäjät ottavat yritysten lähtökohdaksi keinot ja resurssit, joita he kontrolloivat ja miettivät mitä niillä voivat saavuttaa sen sijaan, että määrittäisivät lopullisen maalin ja edullisimman reitin saavuttaakseen tuon maalin. Tämän pro gradu-tutkielman teoreettisessä viitekehyksessä oletetaan kehitysyhteistyöllä ja kestävällä yrittäjyydellä olevan yhteinen tavoite tukea kestävää kehitystä näin täydentäen toisiaan.

Tutkielman empiirinen osuus, jonka tavoitteena on kehittää uusi viitekehys kestävän yrittäjyyden tukemiseksi kehitysyhteistyöllä, sisältää induktiivista tutkimusta Mosambik -case-tutkimuksen muodossa. Kaakkoisessa Afrikassa sijaitseva Mosambik on yksi Suomen pitkäaikaisista kehitysyhteistyökohdemaista. Empiirinen tutkimus sisälsi kenttähuomioita, arkistotutkimusta Ulkoasiainministeriön arkistossa sekä asiantuntijahaastatteluita.

”Aid for Entrepreneurship (AfE)” -kategoriaa ehdotetaan uudeksi kehitysyhteistyömuodoksi erillisenä ”Aid for Trade (AfT)” ja ”infrastruktuurikehitys” -kategorioista. Tämä tutkielma esittää myös uuden effektuaalisen viitekehyksen kestävän yrittäjyyden tukemiseksi kehitysyhteistyöllä. Viitekehyksen nimeksi annettiin ”Sustainable Effectuation Framework Approach (SEFA)” ja se toimii johdon työkaluna samankaltaisesti kuin maailmanlaajuisesti käytetty LFA.

Tutkimuksen rajoitteisiin kuuluu uuden SEFA -viitekehyksen kenttätestauksen puute. Kenttätestausta ei kyetty suorittamaan tämän pro gradu-tutkielman puitteissa. Lisätutkimuksen kohteeksi ehdotetaan myös mittaustyökalujen ja mittareiden kehittämistä kokonaisvaltaisen arvon luomiseksi sekä kokonaisvaltaisten arvonluontitilaisuuksien arvioimiseksi.

Avainsanat effektuaatio, kestävä, yrittäjyys, kehitys, yhteistyö, Mosambik, LFA, SEFA, viitekehys

PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This Master's Thesis was born out of my long personal history with Mozambique. I have very dear childhood memories living in Maputo during 1992-1995 and attending the Maputo International School with children from all over the world. Those critical years in my childhood moulded me into the person I am today. Twenty years later, Mozambique is still categorised as a least developed country. Somehow, I feel I have a personal obligation to give something back in exchange for the fond childhood memories I gained.

The world is facing unprecedented challenges, such as climate change, growing inequality and biodiversity loss, and I believe we all have a responsibility to push ourselves to contribute our own share in solving these challenges before it is too late. The target of foreign aid has been to find solutions for global problems. As the issues are complex and vast, a single one-size fits all solution does not exist. But I believe an entrepreneurial mindset is key to finding working solutions.

Unfortunately at the time of producing this thesis the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland does not finance Master's Theses. I was therefore not able to perform extensive field research within the context of this Master's Thesis. I would strongly recommend for the Ministry to finance Master's Theses that are relevant to their activities in the future. This would benefit Master's students by allowing them to perform guided research at the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland as well as gain relevant work experience in this field. It would also benefit MFA through cost-efficient innovation and R&D activities for improving processes and activities, as well as getting access to potential future employees of different academic fields and backgrounds. I would also recommend digitalising public historical project documentation and making it freely accessible, instead of charging service fees for photocopying, which prevents unfinanced research to be easily performed.

I wish to thank my thesis instructor and Entrepreneurship researcher Vera Haataja at Aalto University School of Business for her excellent guidance in writing this thesis. I

also wish to thank my professors Paula Kyrö and Arto Lahti for their insightful feedback during my research process.

I would also like to give my special thanks to the experts Juhani Koponen, Teija Lehtonen, Markku Kanninen, Juha-Erkki Mäntyniemi, Teemu Seppälä and Aape Pohjavirta who were kind enough to donate their valuable time for interviews.

Last but certainly not least, I would like to thank my family and friends for their constant support. I am sure many of my colleagues would agree, it is not easy to simultaneously be an entrepreneur (Exacta) and study an academic degree in entrepreneurship. Without the support of my lovely Katri, my parents Matti and Dania and my sister Maggie, I doubt I would now hold a M.Sc. (Econ) degree in this exciting yet demanding field.

Sincerely,

Ernesto Hartikainen

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ABBREVIATIONS

AfE	Aid for Entrepreneurship
AfT	Aid for Trade
AIDS	Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
CO_2	Carbon dioxide
CPA	Country programmable aid
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DCD	Development Co-operation Directorate
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross domestic product
GHG	Greenhouse gases
GNI	Gross national income
HDI	Human development index
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
LDCs	Least developed countries
LFA	Logical framework approach
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MFA	Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland (for this thesis)
ODA	Official development assistance
OECD	Organisation for economic co-operation and development
PRODEZA	Program for the development of Zambezia
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SEFA	Sustainable effectuation framework approach

STIFIMO	Programme of Cooperation in Science, Technology and Innovation between Finland and Mozambique
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VC	Venture capitalist
WTO	World Trade Organisation

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE EVOLUTION OF DEVELOPMENT AID

“I have not failed. I've just found 10,000 ways that won't work.”

Thomas A. Edison

There is still plenty of debate on the effectiveness of development aid and whether or not rich economies should be using their resources in assisting developing countries (Dollar & Pritchett, 2000). Arguments for development aid include the joint responsibility for the wellbeing of all human beings on our planet regardless of their nationality or geographical location. Arguments criticising development aid include thoughts of wasted resources on inefficient and corrupt organisations as well as accidentally causing more harm even with good intentions. Both arguments seem valid, so perhaps it is the question that misleads us. We should not simply ask whether or not, but rather how.

The concept of development aid has evolved throughout history and still continues to evolve. One can argue that even crusaders, conquistadors and settlers have all thought that they were supporting development. Before the concepts of basic human rights and equality were generally accepted (UN, 1948), many wrong-doings to native societies were at the time disregarded. The catastrophic events of World War II finally led to the formation of the United Nations, which would serve as a platform in an attempt to form consensus between nations on universal issues (UN, 2013).

Sustainable development has been one of these universal issues. Early thoughts on development assistance have been that by using resources (mainly financial) from wealthy Western countries, developing countries could be helped to reach a state similar to that of wealthy Western countries, thus leading to development. Early development activities have focused on developing basic infrastructure such as roads, factories, machinery, vehicles, and so on. These highly capital intensive activities have not come without problems. Building several year-long projects in complex environments is difficult enough in itself. When one adds different cultures, state of technology and skill

levels to the challenge, development assistance can sometimes seem to be an almost impossible task. (Easterly, 2008)

We are now well on the way in the 21st century. Even though several nations have risen from a developing country status in the past few decades we are still facing severe global inequalities between nations and individuals. In addition, the global financial crisis which was ignited by the burst of the US real-estate bubble in 2008 has made Western economies ever more concerned for the efficient use of their existing resources. A lot of hope is put on increasing the creation of new companies to provide new sustainable growth for a recovering Western economy. At the same time, creation of new companies brings hope for sustainable development in least developed countries (LDCs). The research topic of this Master's Thesis is therefore how entrepreneurship that aims to support sustainable development in a least developed country could be supported.

Chapter 2 of this thesis presents the context of this thesis by explaining what development cooperation is, how it is financed, how programmes and projects are designed and managed as well as how programmes and projects are monitored and evaluated. It gives both a global overview as well as a Finnish perspective of the development cooperation context. The chapter also introduces the logical framework approach. Next, Chapter 3 builds a theoretical framework by examining the phenomena of sustainable development, sustainable entrepreneurship and effectuation. The chapter summarises the status quo of current academic research on these subjects. Chapter 4 presents the research methods for the empirical research of this thesis. The chapter includes the research methods for a case study of Mozambique including field observations and project documentation research, expert interviews and building of a framework for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship in a development cooperation context. Chapter 5 is dedicated to the case study of Mozambique and Finnish development cooperation in Mozambique. It presents a country analysis, previous entrepreneurship research on Mozambique and an overview of Finnish development cooperation activities in the country. The chapter also presents two ongoing Finnish development cooperation programmes in Mozambique called PRODEZA II and STIFIMO. The findings of this thesis are presented in Chapter 6. Firstly the chapter

presents a proposed categorization of development cooperation activities. The chapter then presents a model for holistic value creation which is an integral part of the newle developed framework. The chapter then introduces the effectual framework for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship with development cooperation named as the Sustainable Effectuation Framework Approach (SEFA). Discussion and conclusions of the themes covered in this thesis are presented in Chapter 7 together with limitations and suggestions for further research.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

How should development cooperation be implemented? The question is simple enough, but finding the correct answer is a much more challenging task. One of the major global problems development cooperation intends to fix is that of extreme poverty, meaning people living with less than 1.25 USD/day. In 2013 there are still 1.2 billion people categorised as living in extreme poverty (World Bank, 2013).

Channelling economic wealth from rich countries to poor countries is not an easy task. Foreign aid has historically had both huge successes and huge failures (Easterly, 2008). Entrepreneurship has been proposed as an option where people with a low level of income could be able to earn and generate a higher level of income, thus removing poverty (Hall et al., 2010). With growing global environmental and social concerns sustainability is becoming an integral part of our economic activities.

Entrepreneurship as a field of science is relatively new with Joseph Schumpeter (1883-1950) often named as one of the first scholars of entrepreneurship research. Entrepreneurship in the context of least developed countries is a field that has been studied even less, with a majority of entrepreneurship research covering developed markets of North America and Europe. It has not been until the past few decades that research articles that combine entrepreneurship and sustainable development in least developed countries have surfaced. Much remains to be researched on the topic of entrepreneurial activities and their effects on sustainable development (Hall et al., 2010). This Master's Thesis aims to address this research gap by developing and proposing an effectual framework for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship with development cooperation.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

The research objective of this Master's Thesis is to develop a new framework for development cooperation that would better support the creation of new sustainable ventures and markets in Mozambique. The research is done from the Finnish perspective by analysing development cooperation activities funded by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland (MFA) in Mozambique.

The main research question of this Master's Thesis is defined as:

"What kind of framework would best support sustainable entrepreneurship in a development cooperation context?"

As the research objective and preliminary research question of this Master's Thesis have now been defined, we move on to present the development cooperation context of this research and the phenomena sustainable development, sustainable entrepreneurship and effectuation within the development cooperation context.

2 DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

2.1 WHAT IS DEVEPLOMENT COOPERATION?

The terms development and cooperation suggest that development cooperation is an activity in which two or more parties work in cooperation to support development. Development cooperation and development aid are terms that are often used interchangeably. The word aid suggests there is an action of help from one party to another whereas the word cooperation on the other hand suggests that activities are not only directed by the party giving aid, but in cooperation with several stakeholders.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines development cooperation as: "the international transfer of public funds in the form of loans or grants, either directly from one government to another (bilateral aid), or indirectly through nongovernmental organizations or a multilateral agency (multilateral aid) such as the World Bank or WHO". (WHO, 2013)

Some aims and objectives of development cooperation were defined by the United Nations (UN) in the year 2000 with the creation of a set of eight universal goals that should be met by 2015. These goals were named the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). By 2015, the UN member countries should aim to (UN, 2013):

1. *Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger*
2. *Achieve universal primary education*
3. *Promote gender equality and empower women*
4. *Reduce child mortality*
5. *Improve maternal health*
6. *Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases*
7. *Ensure environmental sustainability*
8. *Develop a Global Partnership for Development*

As the year 2015 is closing in without all of the goals being met, the UN is now developing a new set of goals for the post-2015 era. These post-2015 goals will be

called the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). They have not yet been defined at the moment of writing this thesis as the UN will convene in September 2015 to finalise these new development goals. (UN, 2013)

One relatively recent form of development cooperation is Aid for Trade (AfT). It was developed on the idea that economic development of a country can be achieved through developing the international trading capabilities of a country. AfT is an initiative institutionalized by the WTO 2005 Hong Kong Ministerial Meeting. WTO defines AfT as:

"Aid for Trade is about helping developing countries, in particular the least developed, to build the trade capacity and infrastructure they need to benefit from trade opening. It is part of overall Official Development Assistance (ODA) — grants and concessional loans — targeted at trade-related programmes and projects". (WTO, 2013)

In Finland for instance, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland commissioned an evaluation report in 2011 to research the status of Finnish Aid for Trade activities. The evaluation found out that even though elements of Aid for Trade activities were present in numerous MFA development programmes there was still a lack of a clear understanding of the Aid for Trade concept by MFA and programme staff. This could imply that there is a need for a clearer framework for implementation of private sector development cooperation activities. (Bird et al, 2011)

"Reinventing Foreign Aid", a book published by William Easterly in 2008, tries to look back at the history of foreign aid and give some insight to major historical challenges and propose some new ideas on how development cooperation could be performed (Easterly, 2008). Some of the major historical challenges presented in the book included:

- Projects are too big for effective management (Whittle & Kuraishi, 2008)
- Donors are fragmented and uncoordinated (Knack & Rahman, 2008)
- The private sector is not involved in development cooperation efforts (Hoffman, 2008)

In his introduction Easterly argues that foreign aid has been historically implemented by "planners" that create big plans and then attempt to implement them. Instead, Easterly

believes foreign aid should be implemented more by "searchers" who do not set predetermined problems and have big plans. Searchers continually collect feedback from those who are affected to find out what they need to fix it. Easterly's comparison between "planners" and "searchers" is comparable to a comparison between causal and effectual logic presented in the later phases of this thesis. (Easterly, 2008)

2.2 HOW IS DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION FUNDED?

Official development cooperation is funded through development aid agencies. Major development aid agencies that are involved in development cooperation are listed in Appendices 1 and 2. There are globally at least 23 international development aid agencies, such as UN, OECD and World Bank. In addition there are at least 45 national development aid agencies.

Funds for development cooperation is mainly collected through tax revenues of nations. The United Nations General Assembly formally recognised a target for development aid financing of 0.7 % of GDP for donor countries in October 1970 (OECD, 2010). The 0.7 % target has been in place ever since. The various development aid agencies presented in Appendices 1 and 2 then channel development funding into development cooperation activities such as programmes and projects. In addition to official governmental development funds, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) collect donations from individuals and other organisations and fund their own activities. Nevertheless, NGOs are often also partly dependent on government funding.

2.2.1 GLOBAL FUNDING

A financial indicator used for measuring development cooperation activity is the Official Development Assistance (ODA) expenditure of a country. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) defines ODA as:

"Grants or loans to countries and territories on the DAC List of ODA Recipients (developing countries) and to multilateral agencies which are:

(a) undertaken by the official sector;

(b) with promotion of economic development and welfare as the main objective;

(c) at concessional financial terms (if a loan, having a grant element of at least 25%).

In addition to financial flows, technical co-operation is included in aid. Grants, loans and credits for military purposes are excluded. Transfer payments to private individuals (e.g. pensions, reparations or insurance payouts) are in general not counted." (OECD, 2013)

Another financial indicator for measuring development cooperation activity is the Country Programmable Aid (CPA). The OECD defines CPA as the portion of aid programmed for individual countries by donors, and over which partner countries could have a significant say. It was developed in 2007 in close collaboration with OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) members. OECD also has a directorate focused on development cooperation issues called the Development Co-operation Directorate (DCD-DAC). The OECD argues that CPA is much closer to capturing the flows of aid that go to the partner countries than the ODA. (OECD, 2013)

In 2012 the total ODA disbursements from the OECD-DAC members was 126.4 billion USD (OECD, 2013). World total CPA was 92.2 billion USD for the same year (OECD, 2013). The share of total ODA of total gross national income (GNI) was 0.29 % in 2012. The 29 OECD-DAC members are: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Korea, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom United States and the European Union.

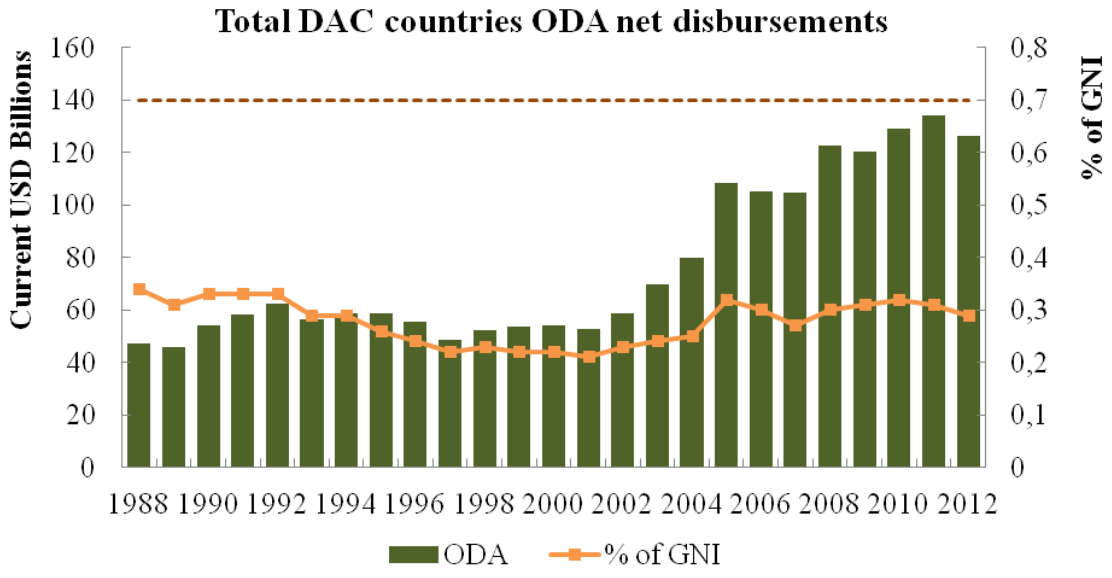


Figure 1 Total DAC counties ODA net disbursements 1988-2012 (OECD, 2013)

Although ODA amounts have risen strongly from a stagnant non-inflation-corrected 40-60 Billion USD level in the 1988-2002 period to over 100 Billion USD since 2005, the share of ODA of GNI has remained in the 0.2-0.3 % level.

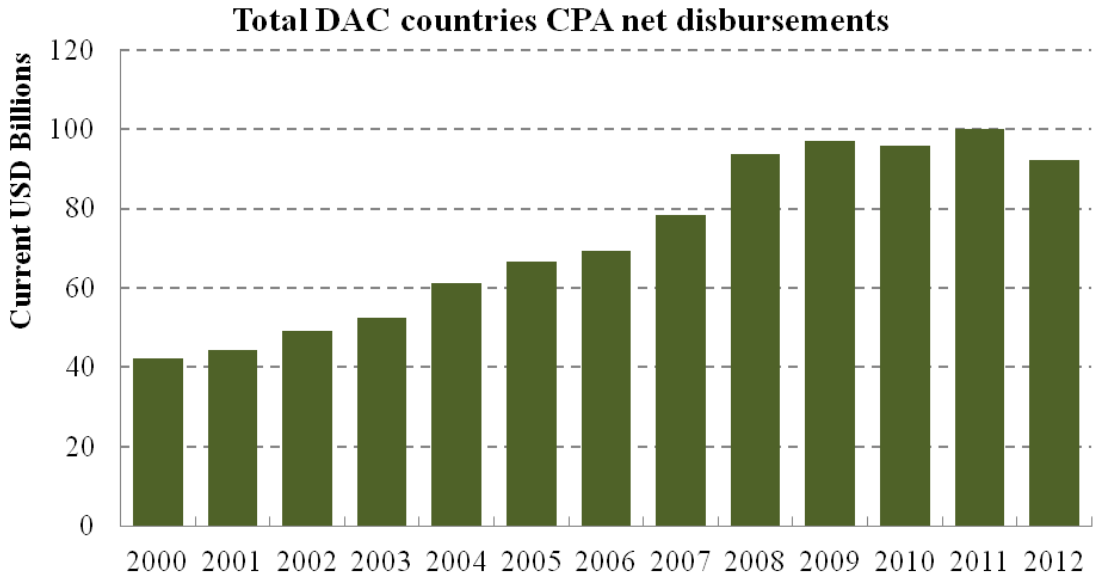


Figure 2 Total DAC countries CPA net disbursements 2000-2012 (OECD, 2013)

The CPA is a new accounting indicator for development cooperation expenditures and better reflects the funding host countries receive. CPA was steadily growing from 2000

until 2008, after which it has stayed at relatively stagnating level. There was a slight decline in CPA disbursements from 2009-2010 and a more significant decline in 2011-2012.

2.2.2 FINNISH FUNDING

In 2012 Finland paid out 1027 million EUR as ODA. Finland's ODA budget for 2012 was 1124 million EUR. There are some yearly differences between budgeted and disbursed amounts. During the period 1988-2012 the net difference of budgeted and bisbursed ODA was positive 263.6 million EUR, meaning Finland has tended to pay on average 10.5 million EUR less yearly than it has budgeted during the period. Still, the yearly differences between budgets and disbursements are relatively minor and are more an accounting issue. (MFA, 2013)

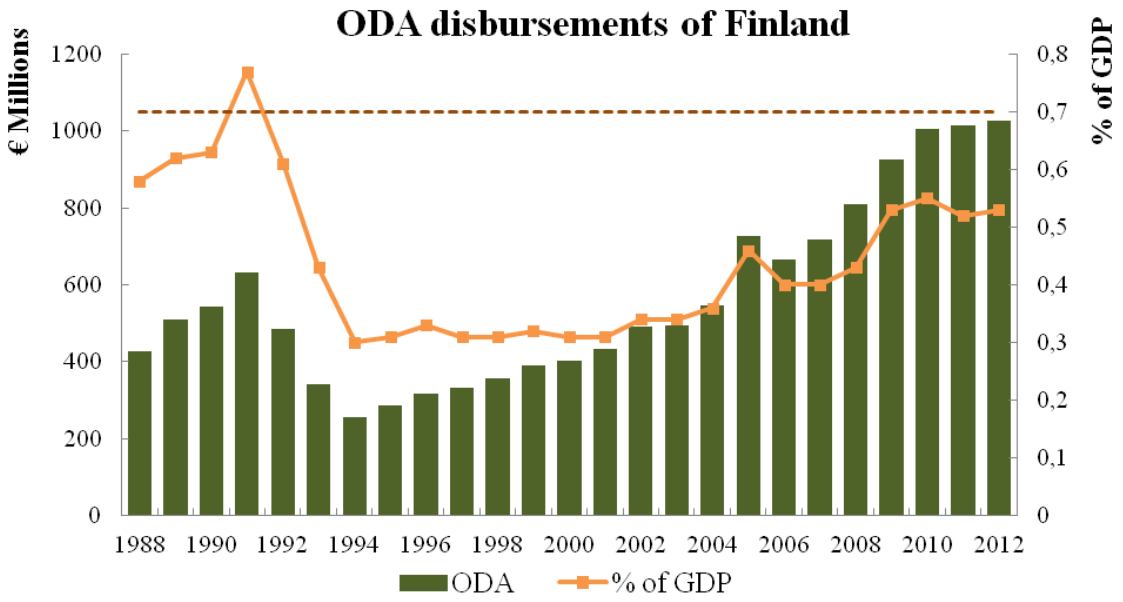


Figure 3 ODA disbursements of Finland, 1988-2012 (MFA, 2013)

During the period 1988-2012 Finland has reached the UN 0.7 % target only once in 1991. Although the budget amounted to 0.71 % of gross domestic product (GDP) in 1990, the actual expenditure ended up being 0.63 % of GDP. Next year Finland ended up using 0.77 % of its GDP on ODA and surpassed the 0.7 % target although the ODA budget was only 0.64 % of GDP.

There was a steep decline in development aid expenditure in Finland during the early 1990s due to savings pressures caused by the depression led by the Finnish banking crisis. Throughout the mid 1990s up until the beginning of the second millennium Finnish ODA remained at a level of 0.3-0.4 % of GDP. It has since then been gradually increasing to its current level and in 2012 was 0.53 % of GDP.

Development cooperation activities are financed through various channels. In the case of Finland for instance, the major categories for development aid are multilateral aid, bilaterial and regional aid, support for NGO development aid, share of EU Development budget and humanitarian aid. The categorised amounts for funding development aid in Finland are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 ODA disbursements of Finland by category 2006-2012 (MFA, 2013)

MILLIONS OF EUROS	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**
Multilateral aid	143.8	157.6	184.0	198.7	199.1	239.3	258.6
Bilateral and regional aid	168.4	172.7	175.5	223.7	250.3	241.5	240.6
European Development Fund	39.6	44.5	54.0	42.4	55.4	48.6	42.4
Country unassigned aid	18.5	21.3	26.2	28.8	54.1	46.7	49.7
Humanitarian aid	59.4	69.1	65.8	73.0	81.0	91.4	84.4
Development aid design	5.7	5.3	6.7	8.0	6.9	8.4	8.7
Development aid evaluation	0.5	1.0	1.1	1.8	2.0	2.7	2.1
Support for NGO development aid	57.1	64.5	76.2	86.1	90.3	92.4	95.0
Interest subsidy	8.6	11.1	10.8	8.7	4.7	6.0	7.4
SUB-TOTAL	**501.5**	**547.1**	**600.3**	**671.3**	**743.9**	**777.1**	**788.9**
Other public development aid							
Finnfund operation	7.5	8.6	12.1	18.9	31.5	19.1	32.7
Share of EU development budget	82.7	84.1	92.5	112.4	95.6	106.5	103.6
Administrative costs	25.1	27.1	43.8	48.7	51.1	53.1	57.5
Costs from refugees	9.1	12.9	18.1	29.5	34.5	25.3	17.8
Civilian crisis management	8.4	7.1	10.2	13.5	14.5	15.4	10.9
Other development cooperation aid	30.4	29.9	31.2	32.2	35.1	16.8	15.3
SUB-TOTAL	**163.3**	**169.8**	**207.9**	**255.2**	**262.5**	**236.3**	**237.8**
TOTAL	**664.8**	**716.9**	**808.2**	**926.5**	**1006.4**	**1013.3**	**1026.7**

2.3 HOW ARE PROGRAMMES DESIGNED AND MANAGED?

One of the main methods for implementing development cooperation activities still continues to be through development cooperation programmes and projects. A development cooperation programme is typically focused on a specific theme or sector and can consist of several projects and other activities. Projects as defined by Shenhar and Dvir (2007) as "a temporary organisation and a process set up to achieve a specified goal under the constraints of time, budget and other resources".

Typically a development programme financier, also referred to as a "donor", is an international or national development aid agency, such as those listed in Appendices 1 and 2. Development aid agencies hire external service providers, such as development cooperation consultancies or other for-profit or non-profit organisations, to design and/or manage programmes and projects. This process is often tendered and typically several service providers bid for assignments. Depending on the programme, service providers are often organisations already operating in the host country, although assignments such as programme design and evaluations are also performed by organisations outside the host country.

Development aid agencies can each have different processes and methods for project design and management. The Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland has published a set of Guidelines for Programme Design, Monitoring and Evaluation. The figure below presents the Programme-Based Approach (PBA) to development cooperation. (MFA, 2013).

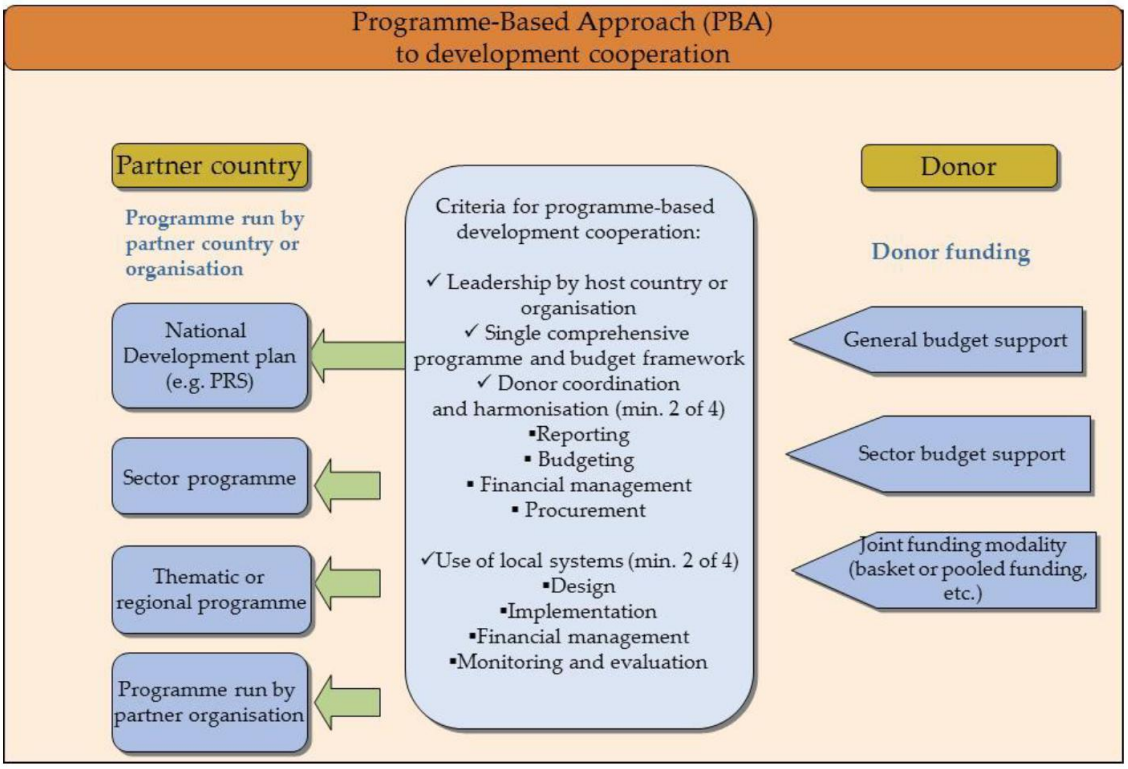


Figure 4 Framework for Programme-Based Approach (PBA) (MFA, 2013)

As can be seen from the figure above donors are responsible for the funding of programmes whereas the "partner country" or "partner organisation" is responsible for the implementation of the programme. The criteria for programme-based development cooperation includes: leadership by host country or organisation, single comprehensive programme and budget framework, donor coordination and harmonisation as well as use of local systems.

Individual projects are designed and managed using a project cycle model presented below.

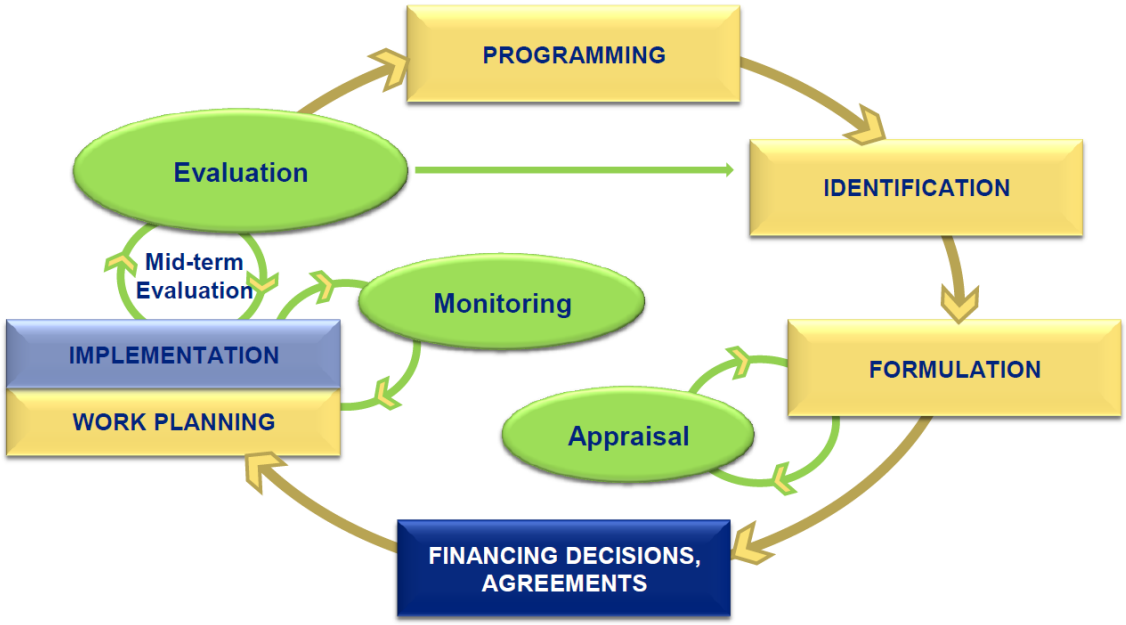


Figure 5 Project cycle and its phases (MFA, 2013)

The project cycle is made of several phases. The MFA proposes programmes for development cooperation. This phase is called programming. Then the stakeholders and the context for development cooperation activities are identified. The development cooperation project is then formulated into an action oriented form. This formulation is also appraised by third parties. If financing decisions and agreements are positive then projects move on to the work planning and implementation phase. These are continuously monitored by the project team and the donor. Mid-term evaluations are performed midway through the project. Finally development cooperation programmes are evaluated to serve as feedback input for future development cooperation programming. The feedback is especially useful for programmes that continue with a second phase, if feedback is effectively utilised as input.

A framework for participation in the planning phases of a development cooperation project is presented in the below figure. It presents how a Project Document is created through the identification, formulation and apparaisal phases of the project cycle. The

Project Document is a central document that describes the objectives, budget and schedule of a project.

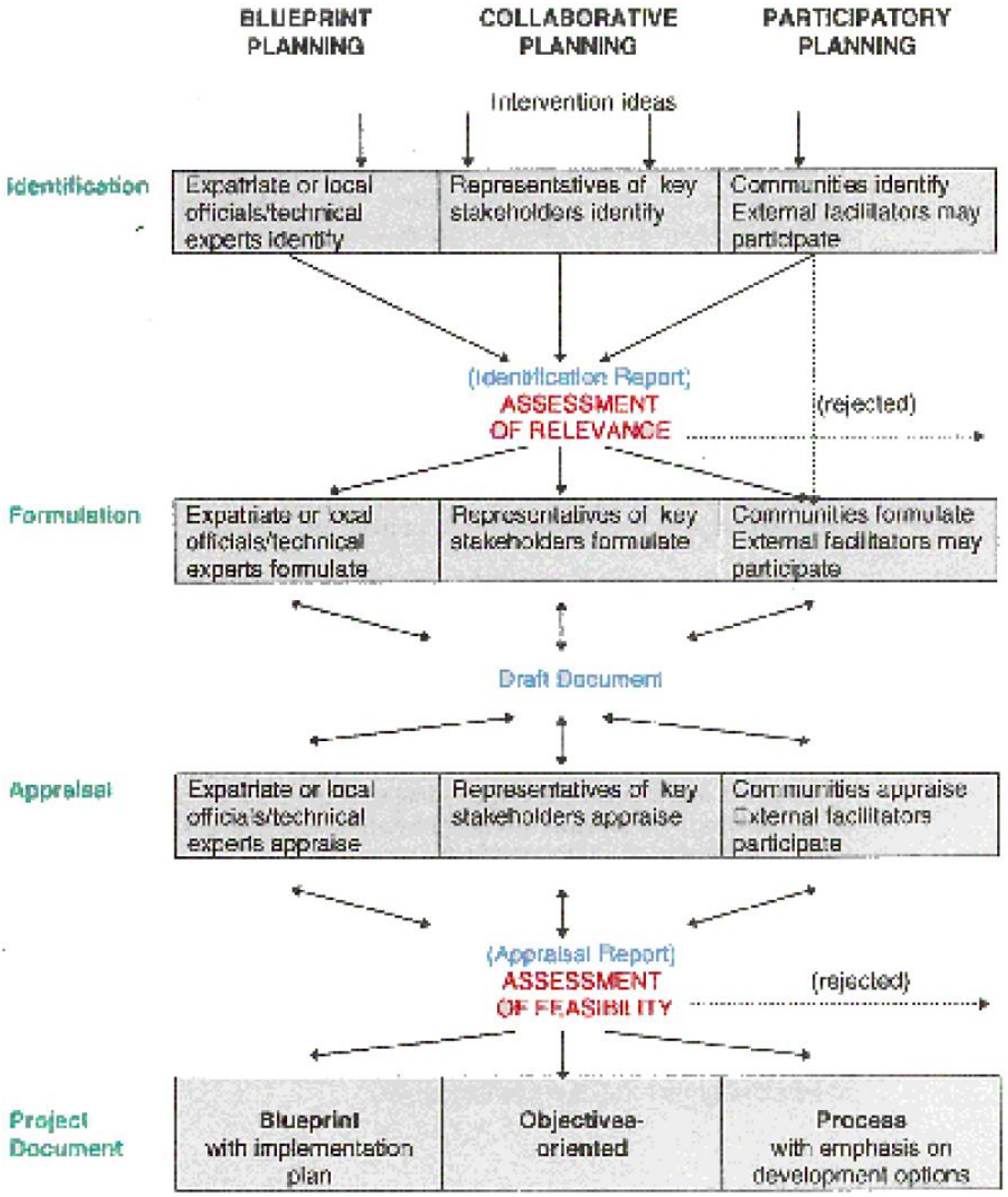


Figure 6 Participation in planning phases (MFA, 2013)

In his dissertation Koria studied innovation in development cooperation projects. He proposed a framework model based on Deming's plan-do-check-act model that project managers could use as a tool to identify, classify and asses various elements and

relationships development cooperation projects and evaluate and develop appropriate solutions. He also points out the importance of innovation mindset, stakeholder participation, beneficiary ownership and donor commitment for innovative development cooperation. (Koria, 2009)

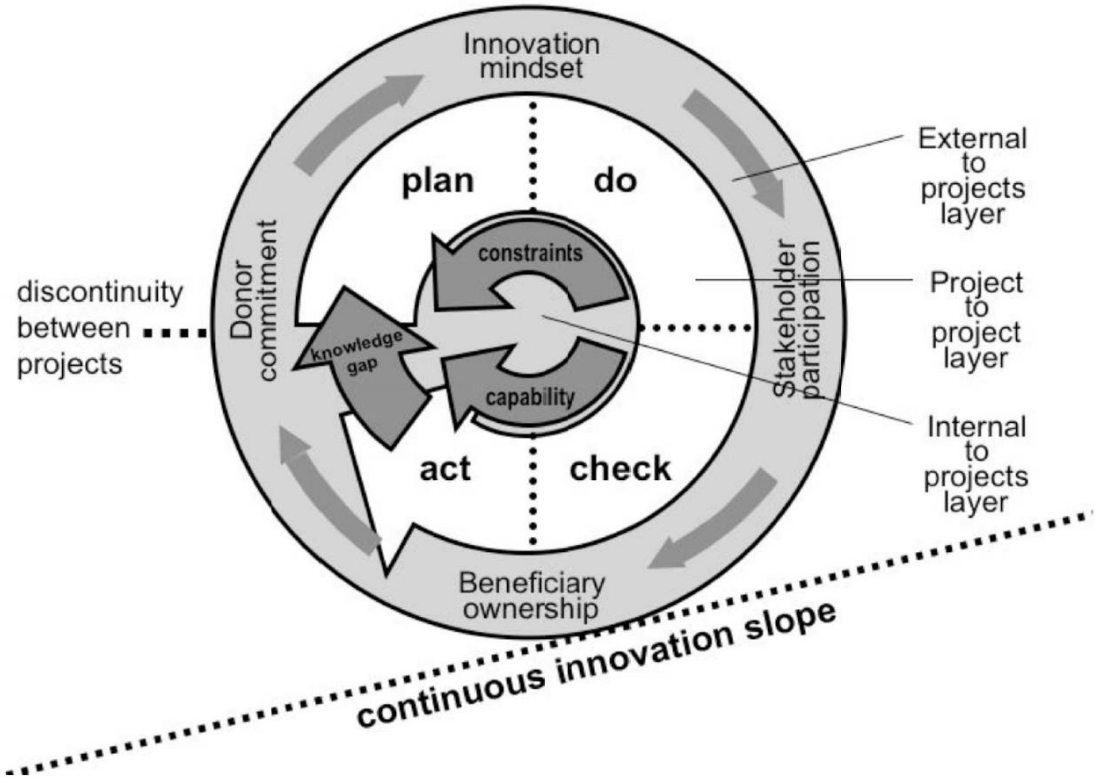


Figure 7 Framework for innovation in development cooperation (Koria, 2009)

2.4 HOW ARE PROGRAMMES MONITORED AND EVALUATED?

The World Bank published the book "Evaluating the Impact of Development Projects on Poverty: A Handbook for Practitioners" in 2000 (Baker, 2000). It defines the main steps in designing and implementing development cooperation impact evaluations. They are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Main steps in designing and implementing impact evaluation (Baker, 2000)

During Project Identification and Preparation:
1. Determining whether or not to carry out an evaluation
2. Clarifying objectives of the evaluation
3. Exploring data availability
4. Designing the evaluation
5. Forming the evaluation team
6. If data will be collected:
a) Sample design and selection
b) Data collection instrument development
c) Staffing and training fieldwork personnel
d) Pilot testing
e) Data collection
f) Data management and access
During Project Implementation
7. Ongoing data collection
8. Analyzing the data
9. Writing up the findings and discussing them with policymakers and other stakeholders
10. Incorporating the findings in project design

Main data collection instruments for impact evaluation are listed as case studies, focus groups, interviews, observation, questionnaires and written document analysis. (Baker, 2000).

The MFA also conducts general evaluation reports of specific sector programmes. For instance, the Finnish development cooperation in the water sector was evaluated in 2010. The evaluation aimed to assess the Finnish aid interventions in the water sector during the period 1995-2009 as well as provide analysis of global policies related to sustainable use of natural resources. The evaluation concluded that in general the

Finnish development cooperation does contribute to the living conditions of targeted beneficiaries although some inadequacies were found in project cycle management and in the policy framework. (Matz et al., 2010)

As can be seen from the MFA's Manual for Bilateral Programmes (MFA, 2013), one of the central tools in development cooperation programme and project design, monitoring an evaluation is the Logical Framework Approach (LFA). This specific tool will be detailed next as it is a critical part of this thesis and forms a basis for the development of a newly proposed framework in the later part of this thesis.

2.5 LOGICAL FRAMEWORK APPROACH (LFA)

The LFA is a management tool used in development cooperation project design, monitoring and evaluation. It was developed by Leon J. Rosenberg of Fry Consultants for the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in 1969. (Rosenberg et al, 1970)

The LFA is widely used by development aid agencies worldwide, including MFA. There have been slight modifications and updates to the original framework, but the main ideas and concepts the framework is based on have remained. Below is the version of the LFA that is used by the MFA:

	Intervention Logic	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Sources and Means of Verification	Assumptions
Overall objectives	The overall broader development objective, to which the project will contribute (= development objective)	The key indicators through which the achievement of the Overall Objective is monitored.	Information sources and/or monitoring methods through which the indicators for the Overall Objectives are followed.	
Project Purpose	The specific objectives, which should be achieved by the end of the project (or its phase); i.e. the project's expected end-result (= immediate objective).	The key indicators through which the achievement of the Project Purpose may be monitored. The indicators should enable both quantitative and qualitative monitoring.	Information sources and/or monitoring methods through which the indicators for the Project Purpose are followed.	Factors and conditions outside of the project's control which need to be realised in order to achieve the Overall Objectives.
Expected Results	The concrete results (e.g. systems, knowledge, methods, infrastructure) that have been taken into use by the immediate/final beneficiaries.	The key indicators through which the achievement of the Results may be monitored and verified. Both quantitative and qualitative indicators should be defined for each result.	Information sources and/or monitoring methods through which the indicators for the Results are followed.	Factors and conditions outside of the project's control which need to be realised in order to achieve the Project Purpose.
Activities	The key activities to be carried out in order to produce the expected results. A tentative schedule should be given for the activities.	Means: The means (inputs) required to implement the planned activities (e.g. personnel, equipment, supplies, materials, facilities, services, etc.)	Costs: Rough breakdown of funds needed for mobilising the required means.	Factors and conditions outside of the project's control which need to be realised in order to achieve the Results.

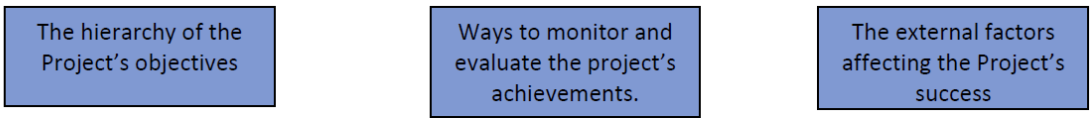


Figure 8 Logical Framework Approach used by MFA (MFA, 2013)

LFA is a causal approach typical of central planning where large overarching goals are first defined and then the most efficient methods for reaching those objectives are defined. According to the LFA, planning the intervention begins by defining the overall objective of the intervention. Objectively Verifiable Indicators must then be defined for the overall objective. Also, sources and means of verification for the indicators are defined.

After the overall objective has been defined, the project purpose with specific objectives which should be achieved by the end of the project is defined. Reaching the project purpose should work towards achieving the overall objective. Once again, objectively verifiable indicators and sources and means of verification are defined for the project purpose. In addition, assumptions of those factors and conditions outside of the project's control which need to be realised in order to achieve the overall objective are listed.

The expected results that are needed to achieve the project purpose are defined next with their indicators and sources and means of verification. In addition, the assumptions that go along with the expected results are defined.

Finally, the activities required for achieving results are listed. The means (inputs) that are necessary for carrying out the activities are defined as well as their costs. This hierarchical chain of phases is meant to form a logical path for achieving the overall objective set for a development cooperation programme and its projects.

2.6 SUMMARY OF DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

The chapter began by presenting the purpose of development cooperation activities which are largely derived from the UN development goals. Development cooperation is financed by the OECD-DAC members with total ODA funding amounting to 125.6 billion USD in 2012. Finland's share of this was at approximately 1% with ODA funding of 1 billion euros. Development cooperation funding is used largely for development cooperation programmes and projects. These programmes and projects are designed, monitored and evaluated using various project management methodologies. One of these methodologies is the LFA developed in 1969 for USAID, and later adopted by numerous countries including Finland. Koria (2009) argued for the importance of an innovative mindset in development cooperation. Entrepreneurial development would therefore be a natural evolution for development cooperation activities.

The thesis will next present theory on sustainable development, sustainable entrepreneurship and effectuation and build the theoretical framework for this thesis.

3 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

3.1 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND SUSTAINABILITY

To better understand the relation between sustainable development and entrepreneurship I first analyse the concepts of sustainable development and sustainability in more detail. The most cited definition for sustainable development is from the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development "Our Common Future" report, also known as the Brundtland Report (UN World Commission, 1987). It defines sustainable development as:

"Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It contains within it two key concepts:

- the concept of 'needs', in particular the essential needs of the world's poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and
- the idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organization on the environment's ability to meet present and future needs."

After the Brundtland Report there has been an increasing amount of thought on what sustainable development and sustainability actually are. The term "sustainable development" is comprised of the two words: "sustainable" and "development". The term "sustainable" refers to sustainability, the ability to sustain something. In the context of sustainable development it is understood as the ability to sustain the environment, the society and the economy (United Nations General Assembly, 2005). Still, there is difficulty in defining the time scope of sustainability as "future generations" is not concretely defined and measuring development on an infinite time scope is impossible.

The term "development" is also a complex concept to define, but can be understood to refer to a (societal) progression from lower or simpler stages to higher or more advanced stages. There is a general belief, at least in mainstream Western cultures, that different societies have different stages of development. A commonly used indicator to measure development is the UN's human development index (HDI). According to the

HDI people reach higher stages of human development by acquiring a higher income level, by studying longer and by living longer lives. From the definition of these two terms, sustainable development could be understood as reaching a higher stage of development within the boundaries of sustainability. Still, one must keep in mind that sustainable development has been defined on a very conceptual level.

One specific topic in sustainability research has been whether the three dimensions of sustainability are interchangeable or not. The term "weak sustainability" refers to an interpretation of sustainability where natural capital and man-made (physical) capital are interchangeable and the growth of one dimension is not limited by the others. Loss in natural capital, such as biodiversity, could therefore be compensated with economic and social benefits. (Turner et al, 1993)

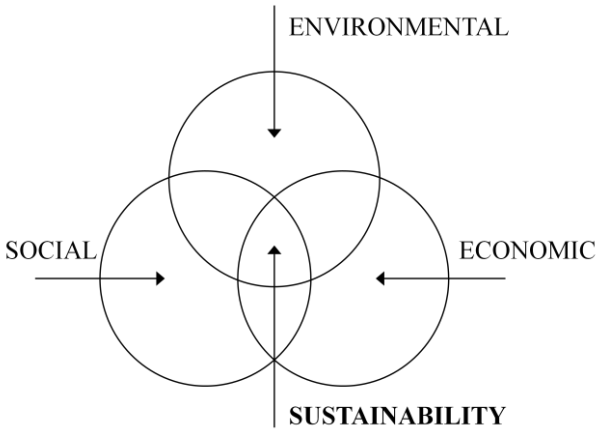


Figure 9 Abstract visualisation of "weak sustainability"

The term "strong sustainability" is an interpretation of sustainability that argues that different forms of capital are not interchangeable and therefore the natural capital (environmental dimension) sets the outer limit for sustainability within which both social and economic dimension belong. Economic development is not only limited by the environment but also by the social dimension. (Turner et al, 1993)

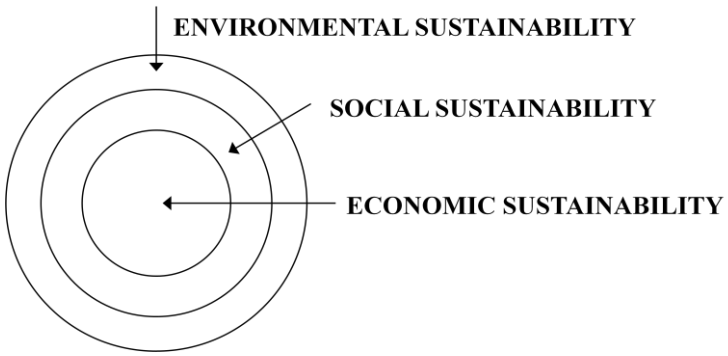


Figure 10 Abstract visualisation of "strong sustainability"

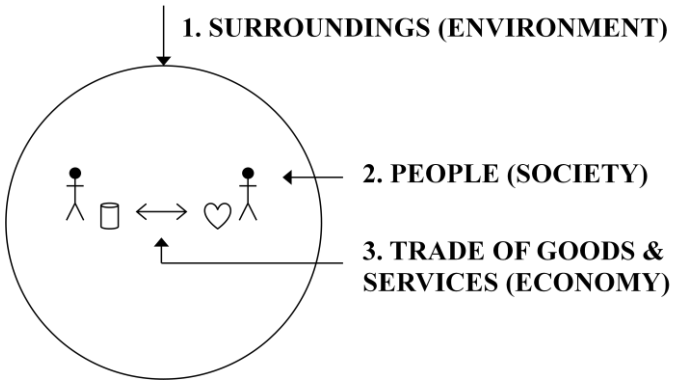


Figure 11 Practical visualisation of "strong sustainability"

The complexity and potential futility of defining the concept of sustainability was presented by Morris in the International Journal of Business and Management. He argues that sustainable development has been relatively vaguely defined with at least seventy different definitions existing and predicting the needs of future generations is impossible. He points out the role of technological innovation in creating universal solutions and the inability of people to predict the transformational potential of future innovations. (Morris, 2012)

Nonetheless, the limited carrying capacity of our planet is still an unarguable reality and a very pressing concern. From the environmental perspective we are utilizing natural resources at a pace that surpasses the renewing capacity of the planet. This phenomenon is also termed as "overshoot". The Global Footprint Network, a non-profit organization, has developed an accounting tool for measuring how much natural capital we have left, how much we currently use, and by whom it is used. The accounting tool is called the

Ecological Footprint. According to the Global Footprint Network, we are currently utilizing approximately 1.5 times the biocapacity of our planet. (Global Footprint Network, 2013)

Environmental concerns are mainly caused by industrialized countries. A large share of global population still has a very small ecological footprint but lives with severe socioeconomic poverty. These countries are often least developed countries. Examples include Sub-Saharan nations in Africa, such as Mozambique, Tanzania, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

If one assumes that all people are born equal as described in UN's Universal Decleration of Human Rights (1948), it can be deduced that there is a joint responsibility for the welfare of all people. There is therefore an obligation for those who are better off to help those who are worse off. This idea is one of the motives for economically wealthy countries to help economically poor countries. Other motives can be less unselfish, and include an idea that the assistance of those who are worse off lessens potential problems directed on those who are better off in the future. Regardless of the motive there has been a history of foreign aid from the economically wealthy to the economically poor. (OECD, 2013)

The creation of new wealth in turn is commonly attributed to entrepreneurial activity (Bruyat & Julien, 2001). We next look at how the creation of new wealth could be done within the boundaries of sustainability and introduce the concept of sustainable entrepreneurship.

3.2 SUSTAINABLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Since the early 2000s a growing number of researchers have started to study the field of sustainable entrepreneurship (Dean & McMullen, 2005; Kyrö, 2005; Hall et al., 2010; Pacheco et al., 2010; Patzelt & Shepherd, 2011). But before recent sustainable entrepreneurship literature is presented, it would be logical to present a definition of what entrepreneurship is. Although several researchers have attempted to create a general definition for an entrepreneur and entrepreneurship, no final single definition exists.

Shepherd and Patzelt studied the linkage of "what is to be sustained" with "what is to be developed" in the sustainable entrepreneurship context. They list nature, sources of life support and communities as the things that should be sustained by sustainable entrepreneurship. They also list economic gain, non-economic gain to individuals and non-economic gains to society as things that are developed by sustainable entrepreneurship. (Shepherd & Patzelt, 2011)

For this thesis I have chosen a definition for entrepreneurship by Bruyat and Julien, who define the entrepreneur as: "the individual responsible for the process of creating new value (an innovation and/or a new organization)—in other words, the individual without whom the new value would not be created". I chose this definition because it defines entrepreneurship through the responsibility for the value creation process. It could then be determined that sustainable entrepreneurship could be defined as the responsibility for the process of creating new sustainable value. (Bruyat & Julien, 2001)

Patzelt and Shepherd (2011) presented their own definition for sustainable entrepreneurship. They defined it as: "the discovery, creation, and exploitation of opportunities to create future goods and services that sustain the natural and/or communal environment and provide development gain for others". Patzelt and Shepherd chose to define sustainable entrepreneurship through the opportunity discovery/creation view of entrepreneurship.

However, Hall and Wagner point out that there is still little understanding of how entrepreneurs discover and develop sustainable entrepreneurship opportunities as they often involve business that still has no clear market pull. They also argue that sustainability issues are more challenging for entrepreneurs and small businesses than for large corporations because they have fewer resources for managing diverse stakeholder concerns. In relation to the development cooperation context of this thesis, donors could bring in the resources for discovering and developing sustainable entrepreneurship opportunities which host countries and organisations do not possess. (Hall & Wagner, 2012)

Hall, Daneke and Lenox made an overview of the academic research articles on sustainable development and entrepreneurship that had been done up to date. They point

out that entrepreneurship has been proposed by high-profile thinkers as a significant conduit in the creation of sustainable products and processes and can therefore present a method for achieving sustainable development. Still, no clear frameworks for methods for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship with development cooperation have been presented. (Hall et al, 2010; Pacheco et al, 2010)

Kyrö (2005) argued that the evolution to modern sustainable entrepreneurship theory has its roots in ecological economics from the 18th century which has then gradually transformed into modern environmental economics. She points out how modern mainstream neoclassical economic theory has lost sight of the role of entrepreneurship in the economic system as well as the importance of ecologically sustainable business.

Dean and McMullen argued that where environmental economics considers environmental degradation as the result of failure of markets, entrepreneurship research argues that entrepreneurial opportunities lie in market failures and thus sustainable entrepreneurial opportunities lie in failures of markets to address environmental and social problems. The development cooperation context is inherently filled with environmental and social market failures, as otherwise development aid would not be required. It can be deduced that entrepreneurial opportunities lie in the same markets where development cooperation is present. (Dean & McMullen, 2005)

In an article published in the journal of business venturing Pacheco, Dean and Payne argue that entrepreneurs are not able to effectively allocate environmental and social resources because they are at a disadvantage to competitors that do not currently pay for environmental and/or social externalities. They call this phenomenon the "green prison". The article argues that entrepreneurs can escape the green prison by "altering or creating the institutions–norms, property rights, and legislation–that establish the incentives of competitive games". This argument is consistent with the political dependency of sustainable development activities. (Pacheco et al, 2010)

Pinkse and Groot (2013) also pointed out how there are political market barriers to sustainable entrepreneurship by presenting the Dutch clean energy sector as an example. They argued that while sustainable entrepreneurs have been required to become politically active to break through market barriers, but a clear method for successfully

accomplishing this has not yet been explored. They came up with three propositions on how sustainable entrepreneurs can gain political access and influence. They argue that this can be done by forming alternative coalitions and bypassing the need to act through industry associations, by building specialised expertise and framing their venture as a novel contribution to a collective interest and by creating a relationship of mutual dependence with industry incumbents. These propositions could also be considered in a development cooperation context when facing similar political market barriers. (Pinkse & Groot, 2013)

One entrepreneurship theory that describes a framework for flexible entrepreneurial action is the effectuation theory. It will be described in more detail next as it is a critical element of the framework developed in the empirical section of this thesis.

3.3 EFFECTUATION

Effectuation is a theory developed by entrepreneurship professor Saras Sarasvathy. It is described as: “a logic of thinking, discovered through scientific research, used by expert entrepreneurs to build successful ventures” (Society for Effectual Action, 2013). Effectual reasoning is based on a logic wherein entrepreneurial action is not locked on a single goal, but instead focuses on a variety of potential goals an entrepreneur can have from a given set of means. It is the opposite of causal reasoning where a goal (or effect) is first determined and then the best method for achieving this goal is chosen from a set of different alternative means. (Sarasvathy, 2008)

The below figure presents a comparison of causation processes and effectuation processes. As can be seen causation processes are more relevant in statitc, linear and independent environments whereas effectuation processes are more appropriate for dynamic, nonlinear and ecological environments. (Sarasvathy, 2001)

Contrasting Causation and Effectuation

Categories of Differentiation	Causation Processes	Effectuation Processes
Givens	Effect is given	Only some means or tools are given
Decision-making selection criteria	Help choose between means to achieve the given effect Selection criteria based on expected return Effect dependent: Choice of means is driven by characteristics of the effect the decision maker wants to create and his or her knowledge of possible means	Help choose between possible effects that can be created with given means Selection criteria based on affordable loss or acceptable risk Actor dependent: Given specific means, choice of effect is driven by characteristics of the actor and his or her ability to discover and use contingencies
Competencies employed	Excellent at exploiting knowledge	Excellent at exploiting contingencies
Context of relevance	More ubiquitous in nature	More ubiquitous in human action
	More useful in static, linear, and independent environments	Explicit *assumption* of dynamic, nonlinear, and ecological environments
Nature of unknowns	Focus on the predictable aspects of an uncertain future	Focus on the controllable aspects of an unpredictable future
Underlying logic	To the extent we can predict future, we can control it	To the extent we can control future, we do not need to predict it
Outcomes	Market share in existent markets through competitive strategies	New markets created through alliances and other cooperative strategies

Figure 12 Contrasting Causation and Effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2001)

Sarasvathy first came up with the theory in 2001 (Sarasvathy, 2001). She had performed research where she interviewed 27 expert entrepreneurs with over 15 years of experience and who had founded both successful and failed ventures and had taken at least one company public. In her experiment, she had the expert entrepreneurs work through a 17-page problem set of 10 typical questions encountered when building a venture. They were also asked to think aloud for the entire test period. All of their responses were taped, transcribed, and analyzed by Sarasvathy and a team of researchers. The responses were coded according to whether they demonstrated causal and/or effectual logic. Sarasvathy found that 65% of the respondents used effectual logic 75% of the time when they were solving the problems. (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

There were two conclusions that Sarasvathy made from her experiment. First, she believes that expert entrepreneurs share a common logic in solving entrepreneurial problems. Second, causal thinking is also required in forming a venture, but it is the timing and amount of effectuation reasoning that separate expert entrepreneurs. It is

especially in the early stages of a venture that expert entrepreneurs use effectual logic in creating new opportunities. (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

Later in 2006 a research group including Sarasvathy formed a conceptual framework for the effectuation process. The effectuation process is presented below:

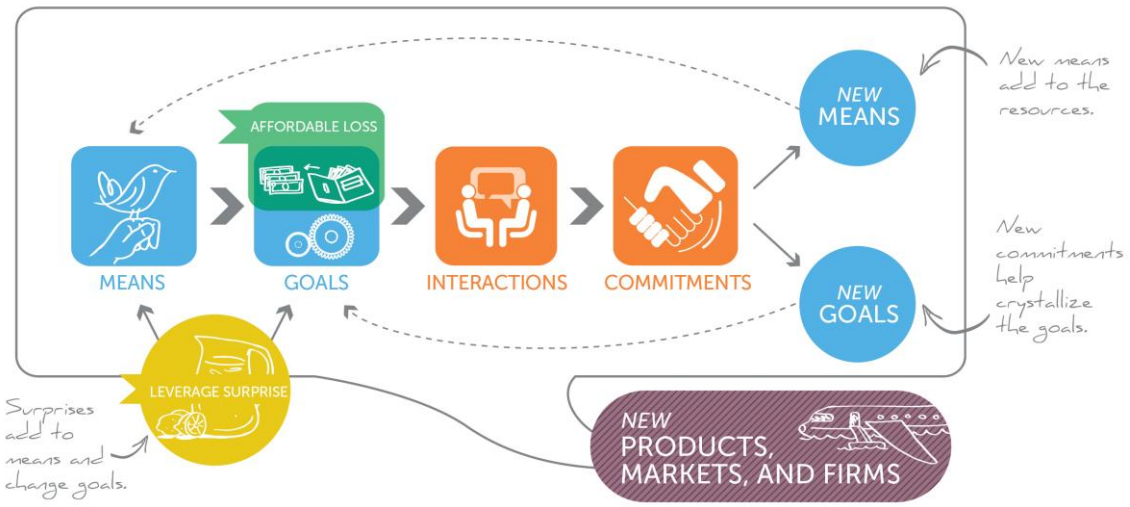
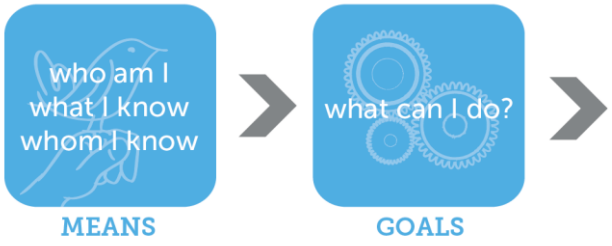


Figure 13 Effectuation process (Society for Effectual Action, 2013; Wiltbank et al, 2006)

The effectuation process begins with an inventory of the means an entrepreneur controls. These means include the knowledge the entrepreneur has, the people the entrepreneur knows, the physical resources the entrepreneur has access to and so on. The entrepreneur then begins to imagine different sets of opportunities that can be seized with the means the entrepreneur controls. From these different sets of opportunities the entrepreneur chooses goals to pursue which are within the affordable loss of the entrepreneur.



The individual begins with an inventory of his/her means, from which s/he imagines goals. The goals s/he chooses to pursue are within his/her affordable loss. Goal construction and goal achievement are different sides to the same coin.

Figure 14 Means and goals in the effectuation process (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

Once the entrepreneur has set goals he/she begins to interact with different stakeholders seeking co-creators with varying roles for the new venture. By collecting commitments from stakeholders the entrepreneur builds the venture by constantly updating its goals. Commitments also bring new means to the entrepreneur which can be used when creating new goals.

Figure 15 Interactions and commitments in the effectuation process (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

The effectuation process also involves a set of five principles. These principles are presented in the following figure and explained below.

Figure 16 Principles of Effectuation (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

Bird-in hand

The bird-in hand principle means that expert entrepreneurs start their new ventures by thinking about the means they control: who they are, what they know and whom they

know. Then the expert entrepreneurs imagine different possibilities that can be achieved with the set of means they control. (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

Affordable loss

Instead of focusing on expected returns, expert entrepreneurs calculate affordable loss for each step of a venture. They create situations where even if things do not turn out the way they had imagined they skill gain something. (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

Lemonade

According to the lemonade principle expert entrepreneurs welcome surprises as learning experiences, instead of trying to minimise risk with numerous "what-if" scenarios. (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

Patchwork Quilt

The patchwork quilt principle means that expert entrepreneurs create ventures through self-selecting partnerships instead of focusing on analysing the competition. Through pre-commitments from partners the expert entrepreneur minimises risk. (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

Pilot-in-the-plane

According to the pilot-in-the-plane principle expert entrepreneurs focus on activities they know they can control. It is the belief of expert entrepreneurs that through effectual logic the future is created by their actions instead of being found or predicted. (Society for Effectual Action, 2013)

3.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The literature review of this thesis began by presenting the context of development cooperation and definitions of sustainable development and sustainability are. The concept of sustainable development is mostly attributed to the Brundtland report of 1987. The United Nations urges for countries to meet their present needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Sustainability was presented to be formed of three dimensions: environmental, social and economic sustainability. The "weak sustainability" view argues that each dimension is separate

and is not constrained by the other two. The “strong sustainability” view argues that the environment sets the outer boundaries for the society which in turn sets a boundary for the economy. The “strong sustainability” view also argues that different forms of capital (natural or physical) cannot be substituted by each other.

Through Bruyat’s and Julien’s (2001) definition of the entrepreneur sustainable entrepreneurship could be defined as “the responsibility for the process of creating new sustainable value”. Patzelt and Shepherd (2011) also defined sustainable entrepreneurship as “the discovery, creation, and exploitation of opportunities to create future goods and services that sustain the natural and/or communal environment and provide development gain for others”. These two definitions will be kept in mind later when developing the new framework for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship.

The literature review also presented the effectuation theory by Prof. Sarasvathy. Effectuation is the opposite of causation and is used by expert entrepreneurs especially in the first phases of their ventures when discovering and creating possible opportunities that can be captured with the means and resources they control.

Development cooperation which is the context of this thesis has as its objective the promotion of sustainable development. The objective of sustainable entrepreneurship, which is a combination of sustainability and entrepreneurship, is also to promote sustainable development. Effectuation is a theory that describes the entrepreneurial process especially in the early phases of venture formation and in contexts of significant uncertainty. The combination of these elements forms the theoretical framework of this thesis. Through this theoretical framework it can be suggested that development cooperation could be made up of activities that support sustainable entrepreneurship as they are complementary.

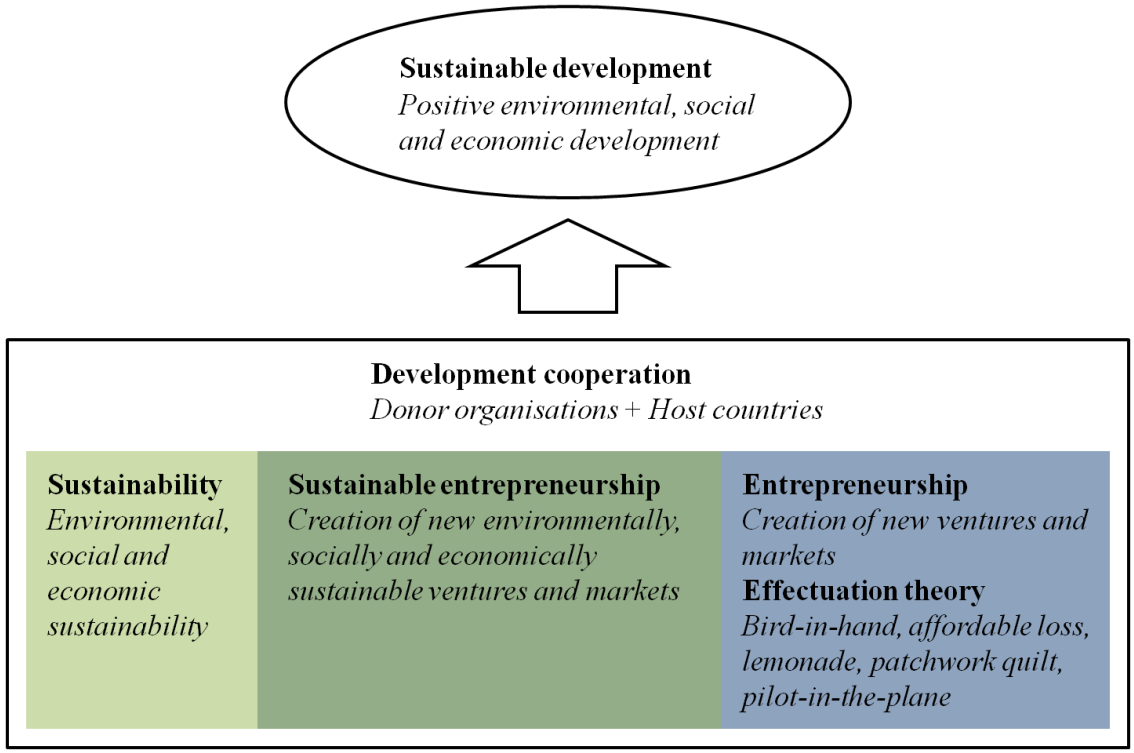


Figure 17 Theoretical framework for this Master's Thesis

Through the theoretical framework built by examining sustainable entrepreneurship and the effectuation theory in the context of development cooperation, we are able to refine the research questions for the empirical study of this thesis:

"How can effectual thinking be applied to the logical framework approach (LFA) used in development cooperation project design, monitoring and evaluation?"

"How could this new framework be used in Finnish development cooperation projects in one of its long-term development cooperation partner countries?"

4 RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 APPROACH

The main methodology chosen to for the empirical section of this thesis included a case study with archival research performed with mixed methods and an inductive approach. The main reason for choosing this methodology was that it allowed investigating a phenomenon in a real-life context where the phenomenon and context are intertwined and difficult to study independently. The inductive approach was chosen since the focal research topic is new with limited amount of existing theory. Inductive research is also valid for research where the context needs to be understood closely, qualitative data is collected, flexibility is required during the research process and the researcher is part of the research process (Saunders et al., 2007). Some deductive research was performed on the basis of the existing theory presented in the first chapters for the development of the new framework.

The case study and archival research strategies were chosen as the research strategies of this thesis. They allowed empirical research to be done without significant financial investments for acquiring research data. Mixed model research was chosen to analyse both qualitative and quantitative data where quantitative data could also be qualitised. The primary data for the empirical research consisted of the case study and secondary data consisted of the open ended interviews.

The below figure demonstrates the research onion developed by Saunders. The research onion is a tool for defining methodology for business research.

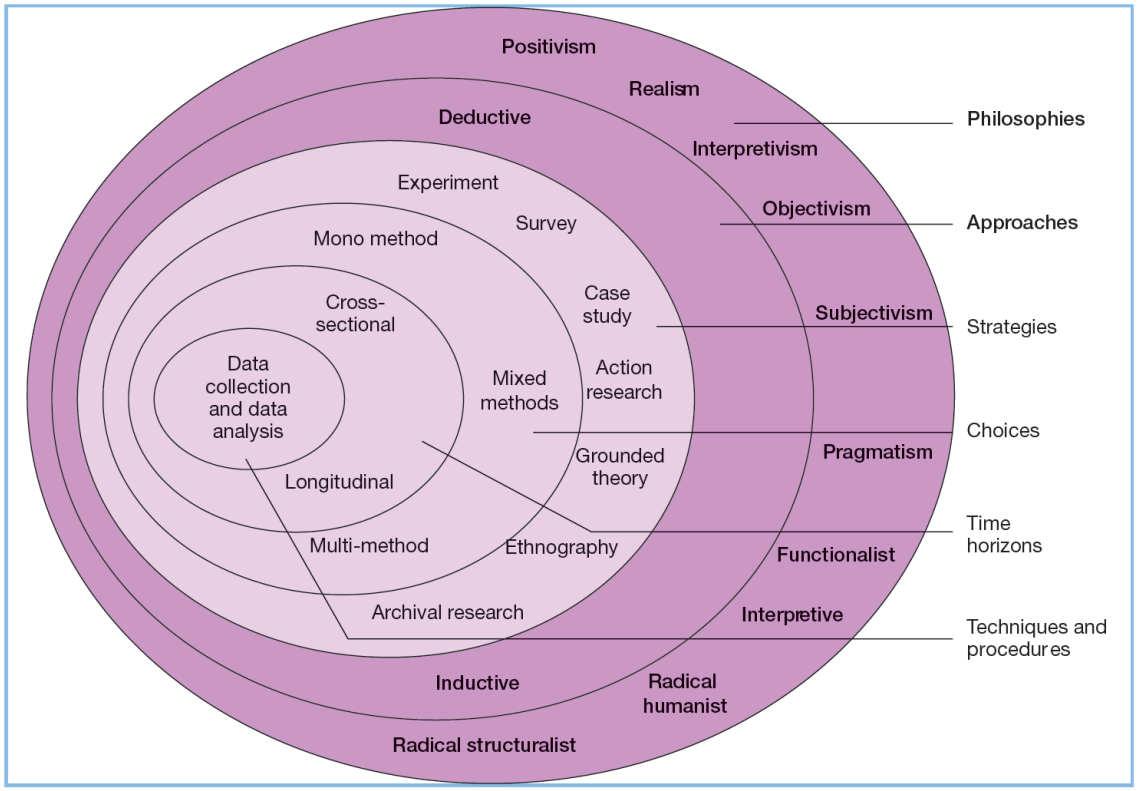


Figure 18 The research onion (Saunders et al., 2007)

This thesis was done from the Finnish perspective as this made source data most easily available due to geographic proximity of the researcher to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Finland. Finland has seven long-term development cooperation partners and for this thesis I decided to choose a single country and build a case around it. In addition to the case study, six experts were interviewed. Finally, through the empirical research a new framework was built inductively and tested conceptually with the help of thesis seminars, but not tested empirically in the field. The four thesis seminars in which the contents of this thesis were presented were held on 24.9.2013, 1.10.2013, 12.11.2013 and 3.12.2013 at the Entrepreneurship department of Aalto University School of Business.

4.2 CASE STUDY

Bruns and William (1989) from Harvard University wrote a review on Robert K. Yin's (1989) book on case study research methodology. A case study is defined as "an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life

context, when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used." The unique strengths of case studies are argued to be "its ability to deal with a full variety of evidence, including documents, artifacts, interviews, observations and even participant observation". (Bruns & William, 1989)

The empirical section of this thesis involves a case study of Mozambique. Mozambique was chosen as the case country as it is one of Finland's long-term development cooperation partners. It was also chosen as it is a least developed country I have most knowledge and experience of. Amongst other things I lived there from 1992 to 1995 in relation to a Finnish development cooperation project that aimed at developing the agricultural education system in Boane near the Mozambican capital Maputo. I also speak fluent Portuguese which is the official language of Mozambique. My previous M.Sc. (Tech) degree from Helsinki University of Technology and several years of management consulting experience also gave me leverage and expertise in researching this topic.

The case study also included observations during a field research phase of an evaluation assignment of a Finnish development cooperation project in Northern Mozambique as well as studying project documents at the archive of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland.

4.2.1 FIELD OBSERVATIONS

Personal field observations of development cooperation activities in Mozambique were collected during a midterm evaluation assignment of a MFA financed agricultural development cooperation programme in Zambezia in April-May of 2013. The field trip allowed for the collection of some observations, but could not be used for testing of the later proposed framework of this thesis as the field assignment was not directly related to this thesis. Field work was performed in the capital Maputo as well as Quelimane, Mocuba and Maganja da Costa in the Northern Province of Zambezia. Field experience was gained of local public sector and NGO activities as well as Finnish embassy and programme staff activities.

4.2.2 ARCHIVE OF THE MFA

The archive of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland was used as a source for research material for the empirical section of this thesis. As Mozambique was chosen as the case country, the research of archive material was narrowed down to Finnish development cooperation activities in Mozambique. The archival research was a longitudinal study of MFA development cooperation activities in Mozambique.

The Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland was asked for a list of programme documentation on development cooperation activities in Mozambique from 1975 to 2013. A search was run through the archive database to list the entries matching the search criteria. The query resulted in listings of MFA development cooperation activities in Mozambique in four separate time frames: 1975-1981, 1982-1987, 1988-2000 and 2001-2013. The resulting lists of the query are presented in Appendices 3-6.

As the programme documents are in paper format and not digital, the archive staff had to order the requested documents from the related department to be examinable in the archive. The total number of entries summed to 146. Due to the large amount of paper material contained and logistical and time constraints a sample set of 68 entries of programme documents were eventually studied in this research. The sample set was sufficient as some development cooperation programmes were divided into several entries and not all were required to be studied for the scope of this thesis. In addition, some entries did not involve development cooperation programmes and were not required for the purpose of this study.

The programme documents were read through at the archive to study programme and project contents. One of the objectives of this exercise was to find historical patterns in development cooperation activities and create a simplified categorisation of activities. A special objective was to search for Finnish development cooperation projects that have specifically supported sustainable entrepreneurship in accordance with the theoretical framework built in the literature review of this thesis.

4.3 EXPERT INTERVIEWS

Expert interviews were carried out in the Autumn of 2013. The open-ended interviews did not include standardised questionnaires, but were used for gaining feedback during the research process of this thesis. The interviews also served to gain insight from the previous experiences of other experts. Experts interviewed for this thesis included:

Table 3 Expert interviews for empirical section of thesis

Date	Name	Position
12.9.2013	Juhani Koponen	Docent, Development Studies, University of Helsinki
17.9.2013	Teija Lehtonen	Director, Aalto Global Impact, Aalto University
30.9.2013	Markku Kanninen	Professor, VITRI – Tropical Resources Institute, University of Helsinki
9-10/2013 (email)	Teemu Seppälä	Senior Expert, STIFIMO
1.11.2013	Juha-Erkki Mäntyniemi	Innovation Director, World Vision Finland
4.12.2013	Aape Pohjavirta	Entrepreneur, Inclusion

4.4 BUILDING A NEW FRAMEWORK

The aim of this thesis was to build a new framework for development cooperation project design, monitoring and evaluation utilising the insights gained from the literature review, personal field observations, programme documentation and expert interviews. The aim was to create a management tool similar to the LFA so as to be easily understandable and usable by development aid agencies. The basis for the new framework was therefore the LFA. As the LFA was determined to be based on causal logic and begin from the goal setting an effectual framework would instead begin from means. Also, sustainability would need to be integrated somehow to the framework as

the objective of development cooperation and sustainable entrepreneurship is supporting sustainable development.

The framework was conceptually built and then presented for evaluation at the thesis seminars. The conceptual framework was then modified utilising additional knowledge gained from feedback. The framework could not be tested in the field due to lack of funding for this thesis.

5 CASE STUDY OF MOZAMBIQUE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Mozambique is a coastal nation in South-Eastern Africa. It was ranked 185 out of 187 countries on the Human Development Index in 2012 with a HDI value of 0.327, making it one of the world's least developed countries (UNDP, 2013). A former colony of Portugal, Mozambique gained its independence in 1975, but then faced civil unrest and a civil war that lasted from 1975 to 1992. From 1975 Mozambique has been and continues to be one of Finland's long-term development cooperation partners.

Figure 19 Location of Mozambique on world map (Wikimedia, 2013)

5.2 COUNTRY ANALYSIS

The World Bank collects micro and macroeconomic data as well as international trade statistics on countries. A profile of Mozambique will be presented next based on the data collected by the World Bank.

5.2.1 DEMOGRAPHICS

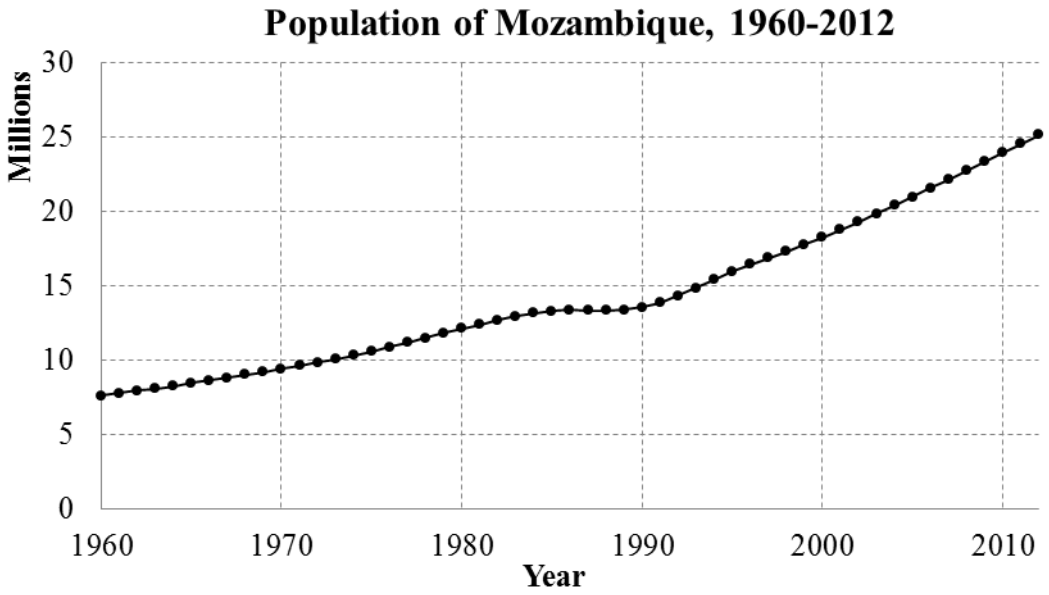


Figure 20 Population of Mozambique, 1960-2012 (World Bank, 2013)

The population of Mozambique has experienced significant growth in the past 50 years. In 2012 the population of Mozambique was 25,2 million according to the World Bank. With the growth rate of the past 20 years the population of Mozambique would reach 34 million by 2030. Strong population growth generates a growing economy with increasing demand for products and services. It can be beneficial for entrepreneurial activities, but it also increases pressure on the environment and the society.

The HDI is made up of life expectancy, education and income level. Historical values for these indicators for Mozambique will be presented next. They will present a more in-depth view of the human development level of Mozambique. The question whether these indicators are appropriate for measuring human development is another topic.

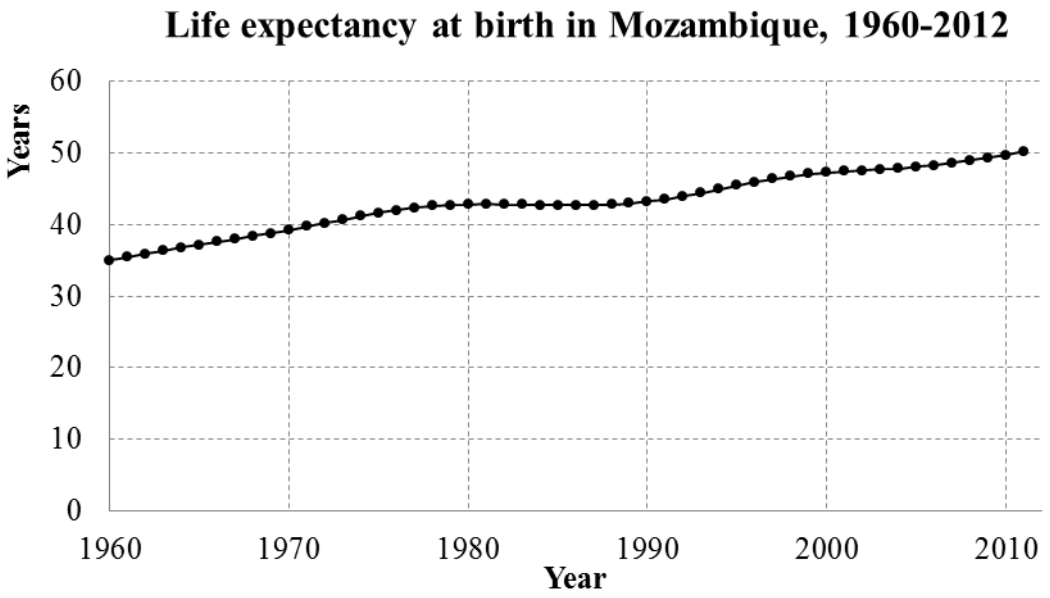


Figure 21 Life expectancy at birth in Mozambique, 1960-2012 (World Bank, 2013)

Even though life expectancy at birth in Mozambique has risen to 50.2 years in 2011 from being 35 years in 1960, it is still very low compared to industrialised countries. Finland for instance had a life expectancy at birth of 80.6 years in 2012 (OECD, 2013).

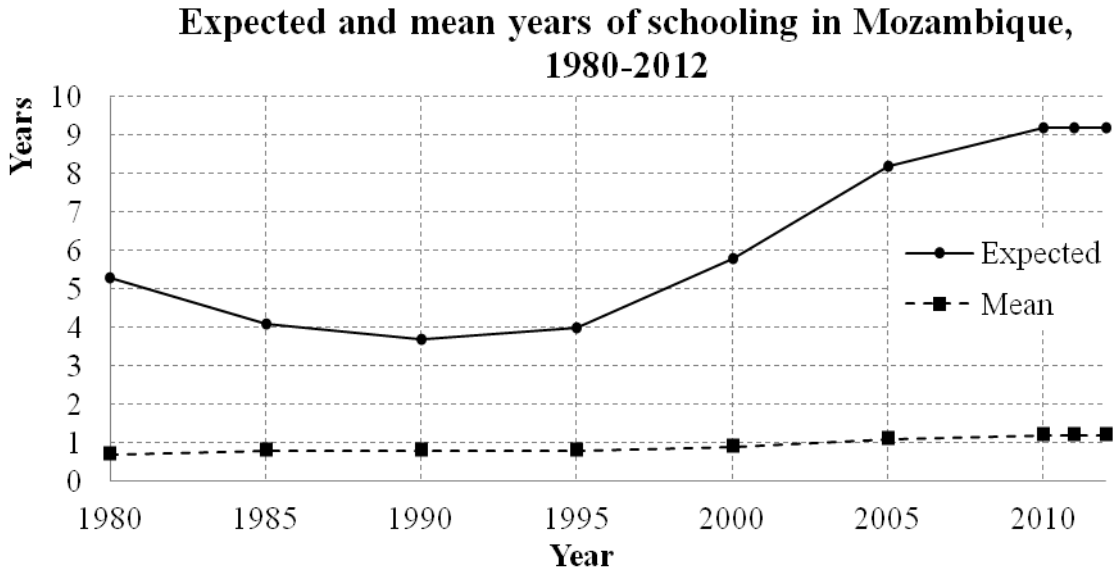


Figure 22 Expected and mean years of schooling in Mozambique, 1980-2012 (World Bank, 2013)

The expected years of schooling was 9.2 years in 2012. Mean years of schooling for adults was 1.2 years in 2012 (UNDP, 2013). These figures show the extremely low level of education of the vast majority of people in Mozambique. Even though the expected year of schooling has risen due to increased efforts for education, the actual mean years of schooling remains alarmingly low.

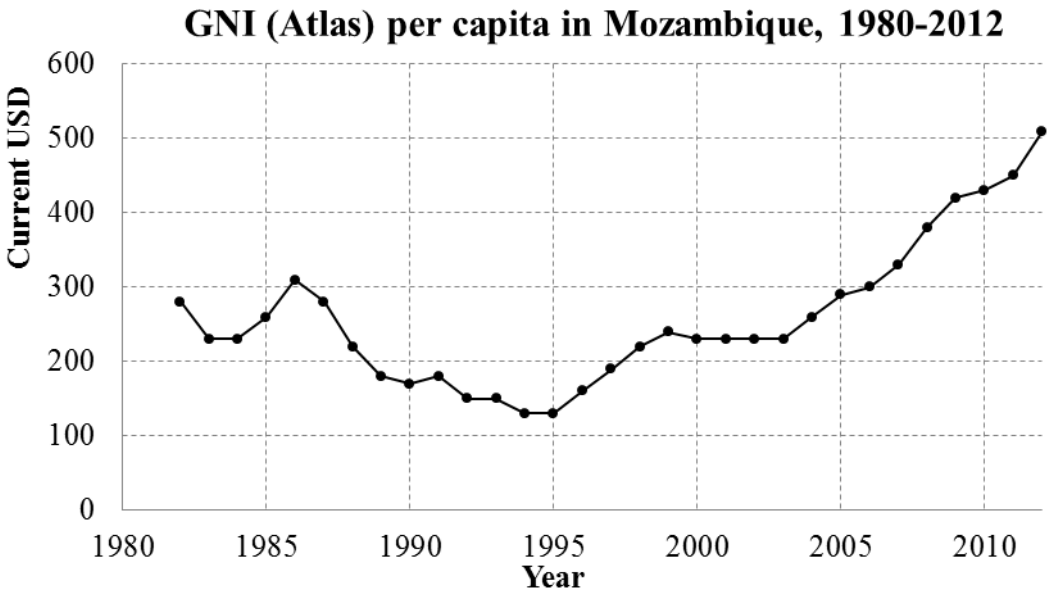


Figure 23 GNI (Atlas) per capita in Mozambique, 1980-2012 (World Bank, 2013)

The per capita gross national income in Mozambique reached 510 USD in 2012 having been only 120 USD in 1995. The World Bank definition for extreme poverty can also be considered as living with under 456.25 USD per year (1.25 USD * 365 days). As the gross national income average (which is a statistical value) barely surpasses the extreme poverty line, it demonstrates that a large share of Mozambicans live under the extreme poverty line.

The trend since 1995 after the civil war has been positive with relatively strong GNI growth. Once again, the growing purchasing power of Mozambicans can present numerous opportunities for entrepreneurs.

The trend since 1995 after the civil war has been positive with relatively strong GNI growth. Once again, the growing purchasing power of Mozambicans can present numerous opportunities for entrepreneurs.

Although the purchasing power of Mozambicans has been growing the environmental impact of Mozambicans is far from Western nations. The greenhouse has emission of Mozambicans can be taken as an example of environmental impact. Other indicators such as water and energy consumption as well as rate of extinction of species could also be used to present environmental impact of Mozambicans, but are not included in the scope of this thesis.

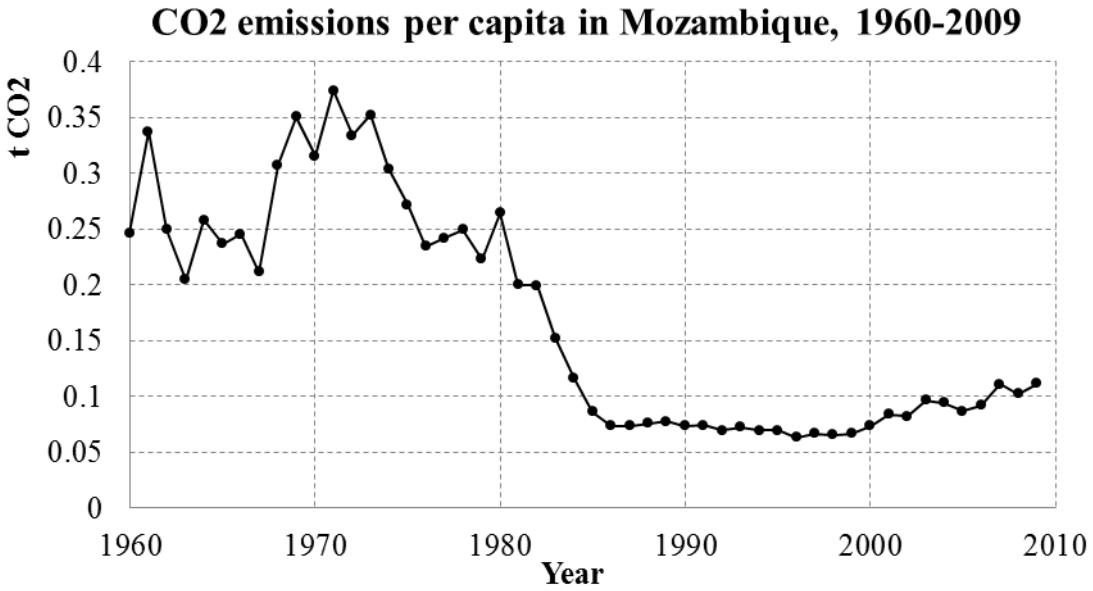


Figure 24 Carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions per capita in Mozambique 1960-2009 (World Bank, 2013)

The carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions per capita in Mozambique are very low at approximately 0.1 tonnes per capita compared to the world average of 4.7 tonnes per capita in 2009 (World Bank, 2013). From the climate change perspective Mozambique has not been a major influencer. However, growing fossil fuel use in Mozambique could alter this in the future unless low carbon energy production gains foothold.

This first section looked at demographic statistics of Mozambique. The low HDI ranking and low climate impact levels of Mozambique are typical of a least developed

country. Some macroeconomic indicators will be presented next to look at the Mozambican national economy in more detail.

5.2.2 MACROECONOMY

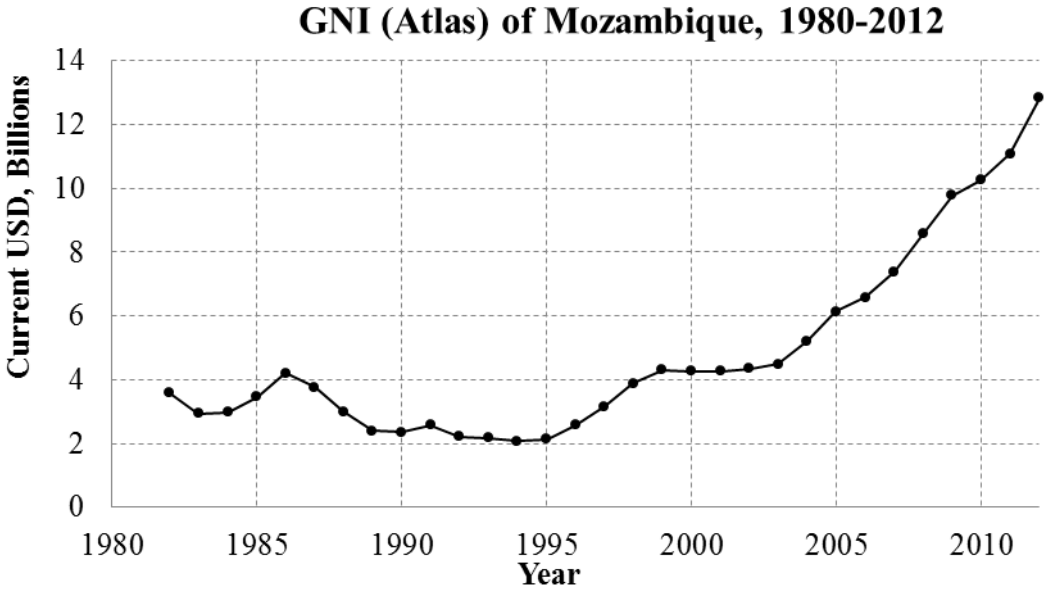


Figure 25 GNI (Atlas) of Mozambique, 1980-2012 (World Bank, 2013)

The gross national income (GNI) of Mozambique has experienced strong growth in the past decade from 4.4 Billion USD in 2002 to 12.8 Billion USD in 2012 in current values. Mozambique is rich in natural resources. Large industrial projects called "Mega projects" explain for a large of GNI growth. Some of these projects include the aluminium smelter in Maputo, the Cahora Bassa hydropower plant in Tete, Moatize and Rovuma coal basins in Tete and Cabo Delgado and natural gas fields in Inhambane. While the economic development of a country such as Mozambique is warmly welcomed, the benefits for local entrepreneurial development through these kinds of foreign direct investment (FDI) based mega-projects can be questioned.

Moran, Graham and Blomström (2005) edited a book on whether FDI development or not. Their conclusions suggested there is no universal result as FDO can have dramatically differing impacts, both positive and negative. They argued that in competitive conditions multinational corporations can increase efficiency of economic activities or sometimes even bring completely new activities. In protected markets the

inefficient use of resources leads to loss of economic welfare. However, they did not integrate the role of sustainability or entrepreneurship in their arguments. (Moran et al., 2005)

Lehtovaara (2010) also researched FDI effects on development in developing countries in her Master's Thesis. Her findings showed mixed results being in line with previous literature. She also touched on the topic of utilising development aid funds for supporting FDI investments in developing countries, but did not come up with definitive conclusions for either way.

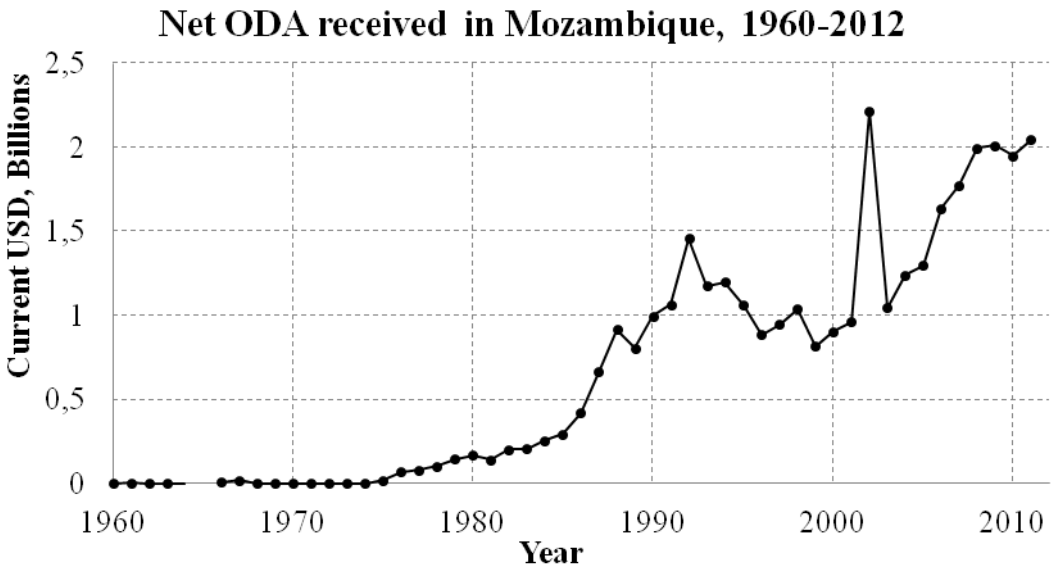


Figure 26 Net ODA received by Mozambique, 1960-2012

In 2011 Mozambique received a little over 2 billion USD in ODA. The amount of received ODA grew strongly from almost none during independence year 1975 to around 1.5 billion USD in 1992. Then amounts decreased quite radically to under 1 billion USD in the turn of the millennium. Since then ODA grew quickly to current level with an exceptional year in 2002 when a large amount of Mozambican debt was pardoned.

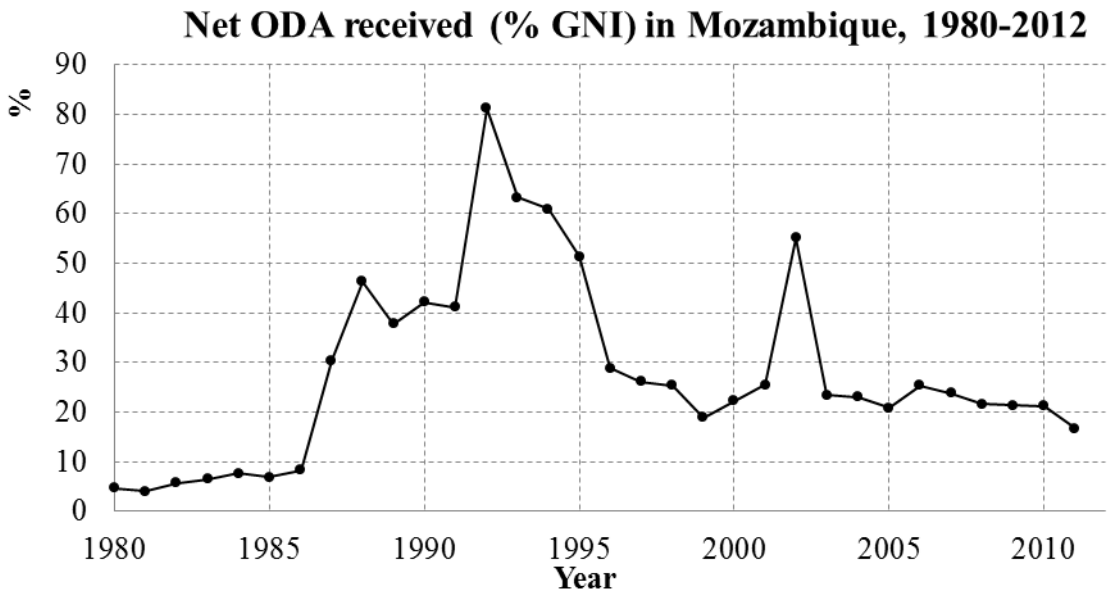


Figure 27 Net ODA received as percentage of GNI in Mozambique, 1980-2012 (World Bank, 2013)

The share of net official development aid received by Mozambique compared to its gross national income has dropped to a relatively moderate level of 16.7% in 2011 compared to peak levels of 81.3% in 1992 and 55.1% in 2002. Nonetheless, the country is still dependent on financial foreign aid. The trend has been decreasing and if the trend continues Mozambique could eventually become independent in terms of official development assistance.

5.2.3 TRADE

International trade is important as it allows a country to exchange goods and services with other countries and focus on economic activities in which it is most efficient. Most of Mozambican international trade consists of aluminium, energy, marine and agricultural product export and import of vehicles, machinery, petroleum and chemicals (Trading Economics, 2013).

Figure 28 Imports and exports of goods and services in Mozambique, 1980-2012 (World Bank, 2013)

International trade in Mozambique started to grow strongly in the late 1990s. The global financial crisis affected also Mozambique with a slump in international trade in 2008-2010. Since 2010 trade has picked up pace and returned to its previous growth path. Imports stood at 6.6 Billion USD in 2012 whereas exports were 4.2 Billion USD in the same year.

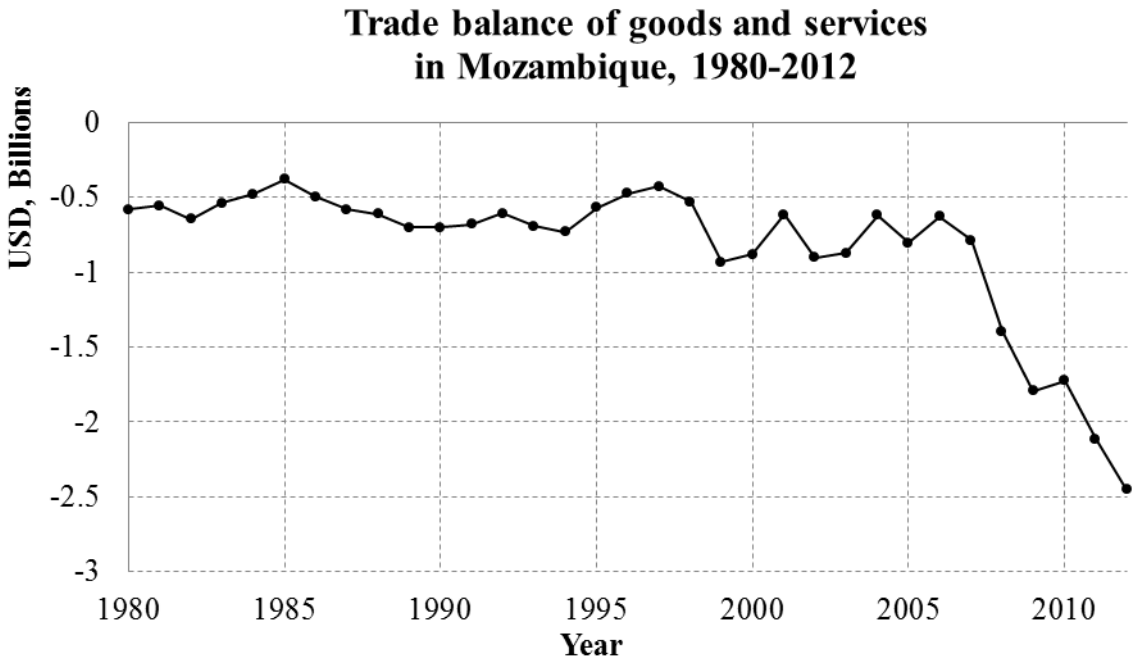


Figure 29 Trade balance of goods and services in Mozambique, 1980-2012 (World Bank, 2013)

Mozambique has been a net importer of goods and services since at least the 1980s. In 2012 the trade balance of Mozambique was negative 2.5 Billion USD. The gap has been growing since 2006 due to stronger growth in imports compared to exports. The growing negative trade balance gap generates increasing pressure for Mozambique to create export oriented activities. This pressure also presents opportunities for entrepreneurs.

5.3 ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN MOZAMBIQUE AND ELSEWERE IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

Goncalves and Fumo (2011) studied different barriers faced by small and medium-size enterprises in Mozambique. They point out that 98.6 percent of Mozambican enterprises in 2009 fell in to the segment of smaller enterprises consisting of less than 10 employees. They employed 46.9 percent of the country's work force. The main barriers found out in their study included: lack of funding, unfair competition, institutional corruption and unfair taxation.

Micro-entrepreneurship in urban Mozambique was studied by Dalglish (2008). She interviewed a sample of four Mozambican micro-enterprises. She found out that the entrepreneurs who were interviewed were survival entrepreneurs, but had plans to move beyond this stage. The identified barriers for expansion included lack of knowledge and finance. Dalglish also pointed out that there is a gap in the general understanding of enterprise development in developing countries. (Dalglish, 2008)

Ahwireng-Obeng and Ncube (2007) showcased the entrepreneurship development activities of South African Breweries (SAB), a South African beer and beverage company that implemented a programmed called SAB KickStart. The programme's purpose was to support local black entrepreneurs that could assist SAB in their procurement, distribution and other activities. Through this program SAB intended to link entrepreneurship with poverty alleviation by favouring disadvantaged individuals.

Entrepreneurship education in East Africa has been studied by Nafukho and Helen (2009) as well as Kaijage and Wheeler (2013). Although Mozambique was not one of their case countries, the studies do give some insight to entrepreneurship education in the region. Nafukho and Helene present a literature review of entrepreneurship related research on Africa. They take entrepreneurship education in the USA as reference and attempt to present methods for implementing similar programmes in Kenya. They argue that lifelong learning of entrepreneurship is critical for the growth and development of Kenya. They also point out the importance of the role of the government in promoting entrepreneurial spirit. (Nafukho & Helen, 2009)

Kaijage and Wheeler researched entrepreneurship education and training through case studies of Kenya, Tanzania and South Sudan. The study included performing semi-structured interviews with 61 stakeholders and surveys of 420 stakeholders to explore perceptions of entrepreneurship in the case study countries. Finally they arranged a workshop to refine insights. They found out that there is a large gap between formal business education and the needs of entrepreneurs and that a more socially and economically grounded entrepreneurship education should be developed. One of their recommendations was that better knowledge sharing and conceptual frameworks for entrepreneurship education should be developed. (Kaijage & Wheeler, 2013)

In relation to sustainability and sustainable entrepreneurship in Mozambique, the interdependencies of climate change, growth and infrastructure investment in Mozambique were studied by Arndt's research team. They built four scenarios which reach until 2050 using a climate-infrastructure model based on stressor-response relationships to estimate road damages from climate change impacts. They point out that climate change is very likely to have severe impacts to Mozambique's economic growth and development through damaged road infrastructure from extreme weather conditions such as flooding. (Arndt et al., 2012)

Another earlier study performed by Arndt included a general equilibrium analysis of biofuels, poverty and growth in Mozambique. Their research showed that increased investments into biofuels production through outgrower schemes reduced poverty by increasing income of smallholder farmers. The researcher pointed out however that biofuels policy must be designed and managed carefully to prevent negative effects to food crops production. (Arndt et al., 2009)

Conventional biofuels ethanol and biodiesel are produced from sugar, starch and oil crops which are also common food crops. Advanced liquid biofuels on the other hand are produced from agricultural and forest residues and other industrial waste streams and therefore pose a decreased threat to land-use change and competition to food production. (Hartikainen, 2008)

A review of the energy situation in Mozambique was performed and published in the Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews journal. The research article also points out the great potential of renewable energy development activities in Mozambique. The major household energy source in Mozambique is firewood, with around 285 PJ used in 2006. The largest potential for energy production from agricultural residues was in sugar cane (59 PJ) and maize (47 PJ) residues in 2006. The percentage of population with access to electricity was 10.5% for the country in 2008. Large geographical differences do exist as the figure was 41.8 % for the capital Maputo in the South, whilst being 5.7% average for the Central provinces and 6% average for the Northern provinces. (Cuvilas et al., 2010)

Entrepreneurship literature on Mozambique is quite scarce, but a few research articles have been written on the subject in the past few years. Market barriers for entrepreneurs in Mozambique include lack of funding, unfair competition, corrupt institutions and unfair taxation. One specific sector for entrepreneurial opportunities lies in the renewable energy sector. Still, entrepreneurship education needs to be strengthened to develop the required skills for local entrepreneurs.

One of Finland's target in its development cooperation activities has been to enhance Mozambique's trade capabilities (MFA, 2013). Finnish development cooperation activities in Mozambique will be studied in more detail in the next section.

5.4 FINNISH DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION IN MOZAMBIQUE

Finnish bilateral aid to Mozambique amounted to 28.6 million Euros in 2012. Compared to the 2 billion USD Mozambique received in ODA in 2011 Finnish bilateral aid makes up a relatively small share. Still, the amount is sizeable for running a few bilateral programs. Bilateral aid has been preliminarily budgeted until 2016 with bilateral aid remaining at 20-25 million euros. In addition to bilateral aid Finland gives development assistance to Mozambique through various multilateral organisations such as the EU.

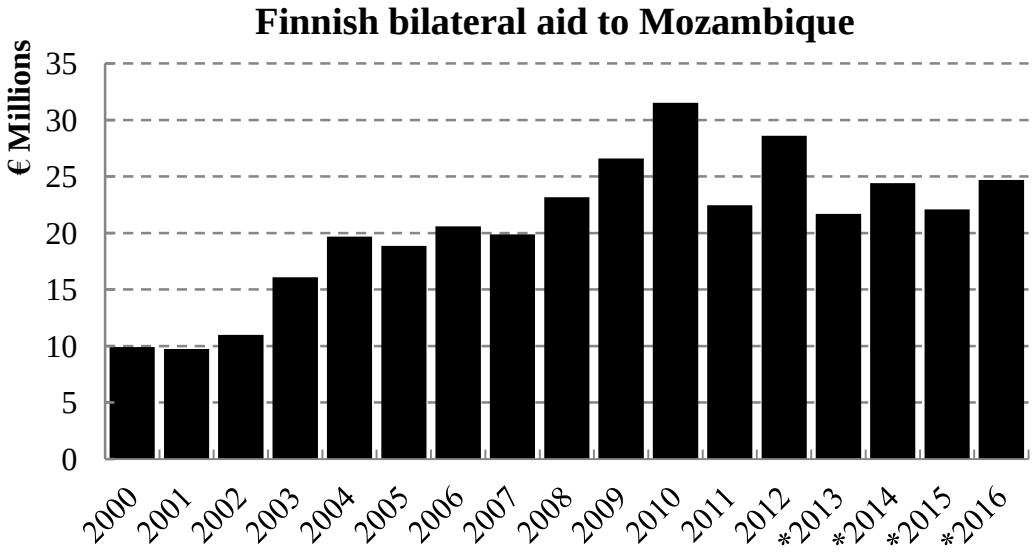


Figure 30 Finnish bilateral aid to Mozambique 2000-2016, (*current estimates) (MFA, 2013)

Finnish development cooperation activities started in Mozambique in 1975 with shipments of agricultural products for hunger relief. Finland also donated paper for Mozambique's national newspaper during the same year. The archive of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland lists 149 entries of development cooperation activities they have financed between 1975-2013. These entries are listed in appendices 3-6.

Two current Finnish development cooperation programmes in Mozambique are presented in more detailed. The field research observations were gathered during the mid-term evaluation of the PRODEZA II development cooperation programme. Some entrepreneurship development related activities are done in the STIFIMO development cooperation programme.

5.4.1 PRODEZA II

PRODEZA II is a agricultural development cooperation programme which is implemented in Zambezia in Northern Mozambique. The total Finnish budget for the programme is 7 million € and the five-year programme was scheduled for 2010-2014. The programme is a continuation to PRODEZA, an earlier Finnish funded agricultural development cooperation programme in Zambezia.

The programme consists of three components with the following defined objectives (Finnish Consulting Group, 2011):

"Component 1 - Agriculture and Agribusiness development

To minimise the constraints in identified value chain creating an attractive business environment and increasing income of smallholder producers- both women and men – and profits of value chain related businesses

Component 2 - Support to food security and development

Secure adequate quantity and quality food throughout the year for farming households, through increase productivity, crop diversification and improved storage facilities.

Component 3 - Good Governance and Decentralisation

This component has also two immediate objectives (i) to improve the quality of the district planning process and (ii) to facilitate good governance processes around value chains and forestry benefits."

5.4.2 STIFIMO

STIFIMO, which stands for Programme of Cooperation in Science, Technology and Innovation between Finland and Mozambique, is a development cooperation programme which aims to strengthen the capabilities of the Mozambican Ministry of Science and Technology. The total Finnish budget for the programme is 22 million € and the five-year programme was scheduled for 2010-2014. The Senior Expert in STI services for SME in the STIFIMO programme, Teemu Seppälä, was one of the experts interviewed for this thesis.

The STFIMO programme consists of three components with the following defined objectives (MFA, 2011):

"Component 1 STI Sector Development - *aims to strengthen innovation sub-systems in strategic areas of importance, each of which is dealt with through a sector-focused project:*

1) Information and Communication Technology (ICT), 2) water, 3) biotechnology, 4) ethnobotany and 5) technology transfer for rural development. This component will

focus on strengthening key institutions, building networks, 'learning by doing through collaborative projects', and improving critical infrastructure in the target sectors, working through MCT and related institutions with a coordination mandate. These institutions in particular will benefit from capacity building and human resource development.

Component 2 - STI Services for SMEs - *aims to promote science and technology-based innovation in SMEs through targeted funding mechanisms and support services and to build the capacity of MCT, FNI and partner institutions to promote innovation among SMEs.*

Component 3 - STI System and Institutional Development - *aims to contribute significantly to stronger, more effective STI institutions and a better-functioning STI system through capacity building, institutional development, policy support and human resource development.*"

6 FINDINGS

6.1 CATEGORISATION OF DEVELOPMENT AID

The programme documents of Finnish development cooperation activities in Mozambique between 1975 and 2013 were read through at the archive of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to better understand the targets and activities of the programmes and look for patterns. Some general patterns in development aid were observed by analysing the data.

Finnish development cooperation activities in Mozambique in the 1970s and 1980s focused strongly on developing the basic infrastructure of Mozambique in addition to some humanitarian aid activities. Three main targets for support were agriculture, coal mining and Nacala harbour infrastructure. Education was a target of Finnish development cooperation support especially in the late 1980s and early 1990s. Sustainability and trade development can be seen as emerging themes from the late 1990s and early 2000s. Entrepreneurship development has been one of the targets of support of the Finnish-Mozambican STIFIMO programme which started in 2010.

Due to the apparent pattern of development cooperation activities (excl. humanitarian aid) related first to infrastructure then to trade and then to entrepreneurship a categorisation of development cooperation activities was attempted. The archive entries of MFA development cooperation activities in Mozambique were used as raw data for developing the categorisation.

The 146 entries of MFA development cooperation activities in Mozambique were examined to categorise them according to their theme. Five categories were created: humanitarian aid, Aid for infrastructure development, Aid for Trade, Aid for Entrepreneurship and “other”. Some entries included elements of several categories and were credited to each category.

Similar to Aid for Trade (AfT), this thesis intends to introduce the concept of Aid for Entrepreneurship (AfE). AfT activities intend to promote the development of trade activities, but mainly by supporting existing companies through development of existing

value chains. Aid for Entrepreneurship on the other hand, aims to promote the creation of new ventures and markets.

There were 10 project entries that contained some form of humanitarian aid. These activities included food shipments from Finland, landmine removal activities in Mozambique and donations of school books. Humanitarian aid in this context in considered as aid in response to a catastrophe and is therefore categorised separate from aid for infrastructure development which is not targeted at any specific event or disaster. Activities may however contain elements of both categories.

There were 107 entries that involved aid for infrastructure development related activities. These activities included Nacala harbour development, railroads development, sewage system development, mining infrastructure development

There were 10 entries that could be recognized to involve Aid for Trade activities. These included agricultural production and trade related projects such as PRODEZA, coal mining projects, forest inventories and Mozambique's economic programme analysis.

There were 2 entries that could be recognized to involve Aid for Entrepreneurship activities. These were the ongoing STIFIMO programme as well as an industrial SME development study in Sofala in 1989. However, apparently the industrial SME development study performed in 1989 did not turn into a larger scale programme itself.

The category "other" included 34 entries. It included activities that could not be defined as well as entries such as special evaluations, ministerial meetings, travels, housing for experts.

A proposed categorisation of development cooperation activities was formed from these findings. The categorisation is presented in the table below:

Table 4 Proposed simplified categorisation of development cooperation activities (excl. humanitarian aid)

	Aid for infrastructure development	**Aid for Trade (AfT)**	**Aid for Entrepreneurship (AfE)**
Targets for support	Basic infrastructure, health, education, capacity building	Value chains of existing private sector	Creation of new ventures and markets
Market-based approach	Low	High	High
Top-down approach	High	Medium	Low
Main sector of economic interactions	Public	Private	Public-private
Focus on new jobs creation	Low to Medium	Low to Medium	High

The majority of development cooperation activities performed by MFA in Mozambique have historically been related to aid for infrastructure type of activities. For these types of activities, the LFA can be understood to be very relevant. The building of bridges, roads and harbours can be most efficiently done using causal logic. On the other hand, if the type of development cooperation activities is oriented more are Aid for Entrepreneurship type of activities, it can be argued that the LFA is not a sufficient framework. Next, this thesis attempts to propose an effectual framework that can be used for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship in a development cooperation context.

6.2 EFFECTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR SUPPORTING SUSTAINABLE ENTREPRENEURSHIP WITH DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

Through feedback from interviews with Juhani Koponen and entrepreneurship researchers at the Entrepreneurship department of Aalto University School of Business I decided to try to develop a new framework for better supporting entrepreneurship with development cooperation. I chose to approach it by applying effectuation reasoning to an existing development cooperation project management tool, the Logical Framework Approach, which is widely used by development aid agencies. I also wanted to integrate a sustainability approach to the framework as sustainable development is an overall objective of development cooperation. The proposed name for this framework then became the Sustainable Effectuation Framework Approach (SEFA).

The overall objective for SEFA is the creation of sustainable value by supporting ventures that create holistic value, in other words environmental, social and economic value. I have created a conceptual model to describe how sustainable value is created through the creation of holistic value. The model is based on the "strong sustainability" view presented in the literature review, where environmental, social and economic value is not considered to be interchangeable and the environment forms the outer constraint to sustainability.

6.2.1 CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR HOLISTIC VALUE CREATION

A conceptual model for holistic value creation will be presented next. Holistic value is created when in the long-term a business creates positive net environmental, social and economic value. The concept of long-term as opposed to short-term was studied by Alfred Marshall in his book Principles of Economics (Marshall, 1920). Marshall argues that when divisions between short and long term are made a special interpretation must be added. In this context long-term value creation refers to the cumulated value created during the lifetime of a project or venture.

One way to think of long-term net positive value creation is to imagine a classical business case where a certain amount of resources are invested and the net present value of future profits surpasses the original investment value. The proposed holistic value

creation model includes long-term net positive environmental and social value creation as prerequisites for long-term net positive economic value creation. The objective of a sustainable venture is thus to create holistic value, long-term net positive environmental, social and economic value.

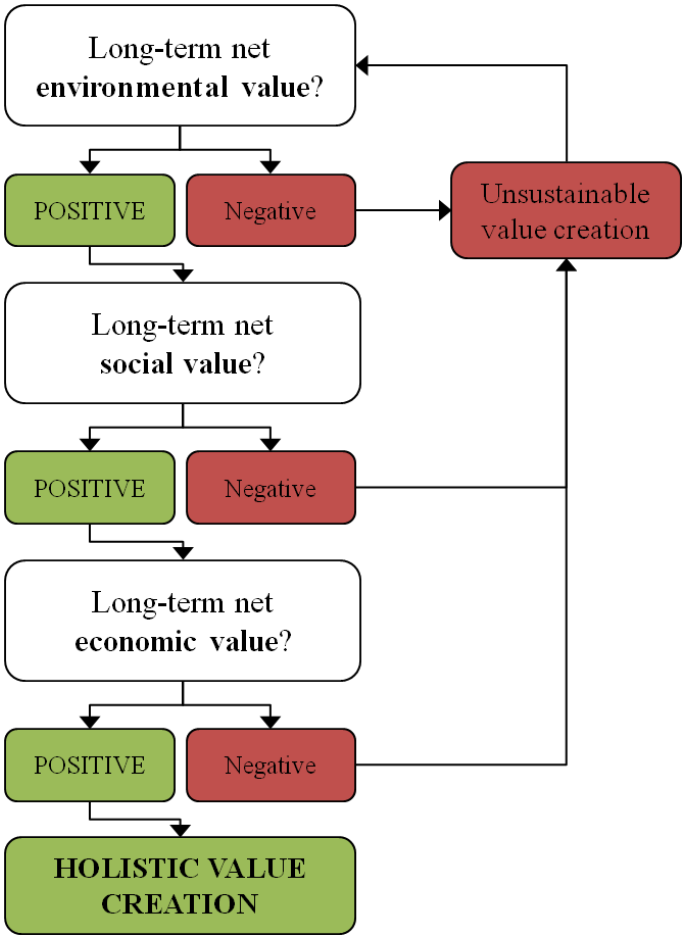


Figure 31 Proposed conceptual model for holistic value creation

6.2.2 SUSTAINABLE EFFECTUATION FRAMEWORK APPROACH (SEFA)

The overall objective of a development cooperation project following the sustainable effectuation framework approach (SEFA) is to support ventures that create sustainable value.

The next phase of SEFA is to look at what means a venture has and lists the different opportunities that these means present. Once opportunities have been defined, the

potential for holistic value creation from opportunities can be evaluated. From the chosen opportunities ventures then define goals that fall into their affordable loss.

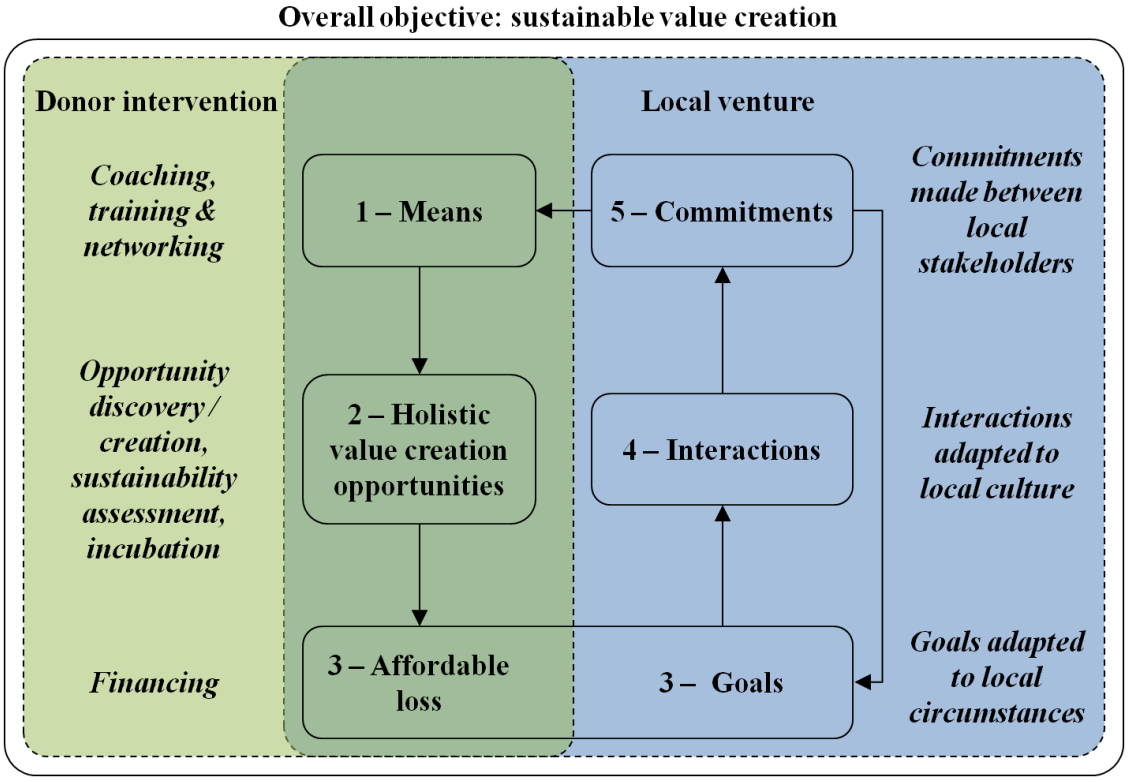


Figure 32 Proposed sustainable effectuation framework approach (SEFA)

The SEFA proposes that commitments should be made between local stakeholders. This argument was especially formed from an email interview with STIFIMO project staff member who mentioned the difficulties that arise when development cooperation projects interfere with local politics. Having local ventures take responsibility for commitments could help avoid difficulties related to local politics.

6.2.3 THE SE-FRAME

Similarly to the logframe used in the LFA, the SE-frame is a document for use as a tool when designing development cooperation using the SEFA. Table 4 presents an example of an SE-frame that could be used for a development cooperation programme or project.

Table 5 Proposed SE-frame example

	Intervention logic	**Objectively Verifiable Indicators**	**Sources and Means of Verification**	**Assumptions and Testing**
Overall objective	Supporting local ventures that create sustainable value	Key indicators for measuring sustainable value creation	Information sources and monitoring methods for verifying indicators	
1 - Means	Increase human capital through coaching, training and networking	Education level, professional skills, broadness of networks, financial capital	CVs, certificates	Skills testing, interviews, drafts of business plans
2 - Holistic value creation opportunities	Opportunity discovery / creation, sustainability assessment, incubation	Indicators for holistic value creation potential	Expert reviews	Benchmarks, business model development
3 - Affordable loss	Pre-seed and seed financing. Relative loss for donors small in case of default.	ODA budget, programme budget, equity, loans, grants	Donor organisations, angel investors, VCs	Pilot projects
3 - Goals	Goals created by local ventures are adapted to local circumstances	Economic, social and environmental goals	Strategy, business plans	Benchmarks, peer reviews
4 - Interactions	Local entrepreneurs have better knowledge of local culture	Stakeholder interactions, meetings, phone calls, emails	CRM tools	Marketing activities and follow-up
5 - Commitments	Commitments made between local stakeholders (ownership)	Partners, contracts	Top management	Deliverables and achievements

The overall objective defined in the SE-frame of the example programme is supporting local ventures in Mozambique that create sustainable value. The development cooperation programme would therefore support those ventures that create a positive impact environmentally, socially and economically.

The first phase, which is supporting the means of entrepreneurs, is achieved by increasing the human capital of potential entrepreneurs in Mozambique through coaching, training and networking. These could include coaching by experienced entrepreneurs, courses for new entrepreneurs and various networking events.

The second phase would be discovering or creating opportunities for holistic value creation. The opportunities could be an initiative of potential entrepreneurs or discovered and created together with advisors. The sustainability of opportunities and potential ventures would then be assessed by experts and benchmarks. Suitable opportunities with suitable entrepreneurs could then enter an incubation programme where the ventures would be assisted in business model development.

The third phase would consist of the entrepreneurs defining goals that are adapted to local circumstances and fall within their affordable loss. The affordable loss would not only consist of their personal funds, but would also consist of pre-seed and seed funding organised by the development cooperation programme. The funding could be a mix of grants, loans and equity from donors, angel investors or even venture capitalists.

The fourth phase would see the role of the donor intervention diminish as the ventures would be responsible for interacting in their markets with potential customers, partners and other stakeholders. The ventures would then create their own networks that are not reliant on the development cooperation programme.

In the fifth phase ventures create commitments by stakeholders within their own networks. These commitments include partnerships with other organisations and customer contracts. Through commitments ventures quickly test the demand for their services or products so they can transform their venture accordingly to better suit demand. Through local commitments ventures create new donor independent means and new locally adapted goals. These also translate to local ownership of activities and development.

7 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 DISCUSSION

Chapter 2 provided an overview of how sustainable development activities in least developed countries are implemented through development cooperation. The funding for development cooperation activities has been growing in the past decade and last year around 126 billion USD was used for ODA. In Finland ODA expenditures amounted to slightly over 1 billion Euros (currently approximately 1.3 billion USD). Finland therefore forms around 1% of global development aid funding. Still, neither Finland (0.53 % in 2013) nor the OECD-DAC (0.29 % in 2012) reach the UN set target of 0.7% of GDP/GNI for ODA. There is pressure to increase ODA funding by the decisions made in the UN, but as funding increases there is also increased pressure on justifying the expenditures. Therefore new more effective methodologies for implementing development cooperation activities are called for.

Development cooperation activities can be implemented through development programmes and projects within programmes. The Programme Based Approach presented by the MFA (2013) is a framework for defining the design and implementation process of development programmes. Development cooperation projects can be designed and managed using the project cycle model. Although the project management methodologies are very valid for both general projects and development cooperation projects, the development cooperation context brings with it several uncertainties which traditional project management tools do not take well into consideration. Also, entrepreneurship in itself is full of uncertainties, so supporting entrepreneurship in a development cooperation context can be expected to be even more uncertain. Traditional project management tools are therefore not sufficient to tackle these challenges.

Sustainability, sustainable development and entrepreneurship are all very complex and difficult topics. For instance, there still remains a lot of controversy on what is meant with sustainable development and how it can be achieved (Morris, 2012). The time scale of sustainability is problematic as Brundtland's "future generations" would imply an infinite time scale. Development on the other hand is a very subjective concept. In

the literature review I attempted to present the current understanding of what sustainability and sustainable development are. I especially pointed out the difference between the concepts of "strong sustainability" and "weak sustainability". The distinction is important in that the belief of interchangeability of environmental, social and economic value have a profound effect on what we can consider sustainable activity. If we consider that ecological degradation can be compensated with high enough economic returns then it can argued that business can mainly focus on creating enough economic returns to cover externalities. On the other hand, if ecological degradation cannot be simply compensated with economic returns then sustainable business can be argued to require a positive return from each environmental, social and economic dimension.

I looked at how sustainable development could be achieved through sustainable entrepreneurship. There is still relatively little research done on sustainable entrepreneurship. This is also shown by the fact that the term has not been completely defined yet. Similar terms to sustainable entrepreneurship also show up in academic literature, including terms such as social entrepreneurship, environmental entrepreneurship, ecopreneurship, sustainopreneurship and entrepreneurship for sustainable development.

As sustainable development is a global issue, it has been the UN that has been the highest authority covering the topic. But since the UN is made up of individual nations with very different political and ethnic backgrounds, it has not been possible to create a globally binding system or structure for carrying out sustainable development activities. It has therefore fallen on the hands of voluntary activity of individual organisations to drive sustainable development. That is how the concept of development cooperation arose.

Overall when self-evaluating this thesis I would point out the strengths of this study to be in the multidisciplinary approach to very broad and complex subjects of sustainable development, entrepreneurship and development cooperation. The thesis was able to narrow down on the issue of how sustainable entrepreneurship could be supported in a development cooperation context in practice. A few of the weaknesses of the thesis were related to the lack of academic argumentation for the validity of the newly

developed framework due to the lack of extensive testing. As the field of sustainable entrepreneurship is relatively new, the existing academic literature base is relatively narrow. The topic is also highly political, so many of the concepts covered in this thesis lack scientific proof and are based on societal consensus rather than scientific argumentation.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS

7.2.1 MAIN FINDINGS AND THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION

The main finding of this research has been that development cooperation activities continue to have a very strong project-based approach or continue to use tools designed for project management even if the scope for development cooperation activities has broadened outside supporting infrastructure projects. This project-based approach of development cooperation is problematic from a sustainability perspective. The fundamentals of development cooperation should be based on a continuous approach if it is to be sustainable from a temporal perspective. Projects are in themselves designed to have a beginning and an end and do not therefore fulfill the criteria of sustainability. Supporting the development of holistic value creating companies as well as governmental and non-governmental organisations in developing countries that are themselves designed for continuous activity would arguably be more sustainable. This social paradigm shift could be required to make development cooperation more effective.

This thesis proposed a categorisation of development cooperation activities into Aid for infrastructure development, Aid for Trade (AfT) and Aid for Entrepreneurship (AfE). The proposed AfE category would involve the creation of completely new value chains and would therefore be different from the existing AfT activities, which aim to develop existing value chains.

This thesis also proposed a newly created a framework and management tool for supporting sustainable entrepreneurship with development cooperation. The overall objective for these development cooperation activities would be the creation of sustainable value. The newly proposed framework was named the Sustainable

Effectuation Framework Approach (SEFA) with the SE-frame serving as a management tool.

Mozambique continues to be one of Finland's long-term development cooperation partners with a yearly budgeted bilateral aid between 20-30 million euros until at least 2016. As an example, one of the main ongoing development cooperation programmes that could benefit from the findings of this thesis is the STIFIMO programme, which already aims at supporting innovation related activities in Mozambique.

The theoretical contribution of this thesis falls into the research fields of sustainable entrepreneurship and development studies. This thesis adds to the research of sustainable entrepreneurship in the context of a least developed country. There has been limited amount of sustainable entrepreneurship research specifically in this context as a large share of the academic research falls into either more general theory or within the context of developed economies. For the field of development studies this thesis brings some more insight into entrepreneurship theory specifically into the effectuation theory. The majority of economic development research is made on the macroeconomic level and often leaves out the role of entrepreneurship in the economy.

7.2.2 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The newly proposed SEFA can be used by development aid agencies for designing development cooperation programmes aimed at supporting sustainable entrepreneurship. However, the logic of thought in the newly proposed framework differs from traditional development cooperation activities as activities would be more involved with the private sector and adding equity as a form of development aid funding in addition to grants and loans has not been traditionally seen. It can therefore require some significant changes in operational processes of organisations involved in development cooperation. This can be challenging for some organisations and resistance to change can be expected.

Development cooperation through the support of sustainable entrepreneurship can however be extremely effective at promoting sustainable development. Host country ventures that are able to survive their start-up phases in themselves indicate sustainability and are not limited by the lifetime of a project. Donors can also benefit by

bringing expert services for training, networking and sustainability assessment and even make financial gains from equity investments which they can invest back into further development cooperation activities.

7.2.3 LIMITATIONS

The research methods used in thesis included a case study of Mozambique with field observations and historical project documentation research, expert interviews and framework building. As the amount of work was limited to a Master's Thesis, more in-depth field research could not be performed. The validation of the newly proposed SEFA framework would require empirical testing which could not be made within the scope of this study. Still, the research methods used in this thesis were sufficient for the requirements of a Master's Thesis on this subject and create a basis for more extensive empirical research.

Mozambique was a good and valid choice for a case study made for this thesis as it is one of Finland's long-term development cooperation partners. Still, Mozambique is not the only country hosting development cooperation activities and therefore more insights could be gained by studying other countries receiving development aid. The case study was also limited in scope to easily accessible data as a more in-depth case study would require more resources.

The newly proposed SEFA framework is built on a conceptual level and would require empirical testing to validate it. The validation of the framework was knowingly left outside the scope of this thesis as it would require resources to test the framework in practice in a development cooperation context in a least developed country such as Mozambique. Financial resources were not the only limiting factor as the robust testing of the framework would also require a time period sufficient enough to build a suggested sustainable entrepreneurship programme, have ventures go through the programme and follow the evolution of the ventures. This could require a process of several years if starting from scratch.

The case study of this Master's Thesis is geographically confined to Mozambique. It is therefore not possible to generalize results from the case study to other least developed countries with different circumstances. It is however possible to compare results

obtained from this research with similar research done in other geographic areas to see how the geographical location might affect how sustainable entrepreneurship is supported. Cultural issues also play a major role in entrepreneurial behaviour.

This thesis chose effectuation as a method to describe the entrepreneurial process. Other views of what entrepreneurship is also exist. This thesis is therefore based on one view of entrepreneurship theory, which can also limit the robustness of the arguments made in this thesis.

The effects of development cooperation projects can be difficult to attribute to specific actions. It can be difficult to conclusively determine which positive and negative consequences are caused by which actions. Therefore the success of ventures that would be assisted utilising the framework developed in this thesis could succeed or fail due to factors outside the influence of the development cooperation activities.

Even though this Master's Thesis is done as objectively as possible, the personal experiences of the researcher affect the approach for the implementation of the research. The results of the research are therefore dependent on the quality and extensiveness of the research work. As mentioned before, development cooperation activities are also highly influenced by national and international politics. In some cases activities might not be based on existing scientific proof but different development policies and in some cases scientific proof might be inexistent altogether.

7.2.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Sustainable entrepreneurship is a very interesting new research area with vast opportunities for making new discoveries. As the Western capitalist economic system is currently facing criticism due to unsustainable business practices, sustainable entrepreneurship is gaining momentum as a part of the potential solution to the inability of markets to direct economic activities to a more sustainable path. This thesis has attempted to provide a management tool that could be used by donor organisations to assist in creating a more equal and just global society. As the validation for the SEFA is still lacking, the next research phase could involve piloting and empirical testing. In addition, the geographic scope could be broadened to include other countries than

Mozambique as it is only one of several countries categorised as a least developed country. These countries might all have very different circumstances.

The conceptual model for holistic value creation would also require further research to create a robust set of indicators for each dimension of holistic value creation. This is a challenge that has been faced for a long time when attempting to define and measure the "triple bottom line". As our predominant socioeconomic system is based on financial capital, assigning and measuring the value for ecological and social welfare is challenging. This would suggest interesting fields for research to include alternative holistic value based socioeconomic systems to the predominant financial capital based socioeconomic systems.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1 INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AID AGENCIES

International development aid agencies
African Development Bank (AfDB)
Andean Development Corporation (CAF)
Asian Development Bank (ADB)
European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD)
European Investment Bank
Inter-American Development Bank (IADB)
International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD; part of the World Bank Group)
International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)
International Monetary Fund (IMF)
International Organization for Migration (IOM)
Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA, part of the World Bank Group)
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
United Nations (UN)
United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)
United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)
United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)
World Bank Group
World Food Programme (WFP)
World Health Organization (WHO)
World Trade Organization (WTO)

APPENDIX 2 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AID AGENCIES

National development aid agencies	
Name of organisation	**Country**
Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID)	Australia
Austrian Development Agency - ADA The Austrian Development Cooperation, Austria Wirtschaftsservice Gesellschaft (aws)	Austria
Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Foreign Trade and Development: Belgian Policy Plan for Development Cooperation, Belgian Technical Cooperation - BTCCTB	Belgium
Agência Brasileira de Cooperação	Brazil
Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and International Development Research Centre (IDRC)	Canada
Agencia de Cooperación Internacional de Chile (AGCI)	Chile
Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA)	Denmark
Egyptian Fund for Technical Cooperation with Africa (EFTCA) and Egyptian Fund For Technical Cooperation with the Commonwealth	Egypt
EuropeAid Development and Cooperation	European Union
Department for International Development Cooperation (FINIDA)	Finland
Department for International Cooperation and French Development Agency (AfD)	France
Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development, Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau (KfW), and Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ)	Germany
Ministry for Foreign Affairs	Greece
Organization for Investment, Economic, and Technical Assistance of Iran	Iran
Irish Aid	Ireland
Ministry for Foreign Affairs: MASHAV - Israel's Agency for International Development Cooperation	Israel
Ministry for Foreign Affairs: Italian Development Cooperation Programme	Italy
Ministry for Foreign Affairs: Official Development Assistance, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), and Japan Bank for International Cooperation (JBIC)	Japan
Korea International Cooperation Agency	Korea
Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development	Kuwait
Liechtensteinische Entwicklungsdienst	Liechtenstein
Lux-Development	Luxembourg
New Zealand Agency for International Development (NZAid)	New Zealand
Ministry of Development Cooperation	Netherlands

Ministry for Foreign Affairs: International Development Program and Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD)	Norway
Ministry for Foreign Affairs: The Development Co-operation Department	Poland
Instituto Português de Apoio ao Desenvolvimento	Portugal
International Cooperation and Development Fund (ICDF)	Republic of China (Taiwan)
Assistance for Development	Romania
Saudi Fund for Development	Saudi Arabia
Slovak Aid	Slovakia
Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation (AECID)	Spain
Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida)	Sweden
Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation(SDC), Helvetas	Switzerland
Turkish International Cooperation and Development Agency (TİKA)	Turkey
Department for International Development (DFID)	United Kingdom
United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the Inter-American Foundation (IAF), Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC), and the African Development Foundation (ADF)	United States

APPENDIX 3 MFA DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION ACTIVITIES IN MOZAMBIQUE 1975-1981

Aika1	Aika2	Title	Kuvailu	Tapahtumat	Toimija
1975	1981	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Apupyynnöt, tiedustelut, ehdotukset	Sisältää Nacalan satamaselvityksen ja lentokenttien valaistushankkeen alkuvaiheet.		
1977	1979	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Yhteistyö geologian ja kaivostoiminnan alalla	a) Asbestitutkimus b) Malmi- ja vuoriteollisuuden kokonaiskartoitus		Teknillinen korkeakoulu, Nieminen Kalervo; Outokumpu Oy, Wetzell Lars ja Villarreal Antonio
1975	1981	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Yleistä		FRELIMO valtuuskunta 20-23.4.1975; Kehitysyhteistyöneuvottelut Maputossa 12-17.4.1976; Mosambikin metsäteollisuusdelegaatio 11-14-12.1977; Mosambikin elintarvikeapuvaltuuskunta 5-6.2.1980	
1980	1981	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Yhteispohjoismainen kivihiilihanke	Vuonna 1980 aloitetun Ruotsin ja Mosambikin kehitysohjelmaan kuuluvan hankkeen puitteissa kartoitetaan Mosambikin hiilivarat ja suunnitellaan niiden hyödyntämistä Moatizen alueella.		

1975	1980	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Elintarvikeaputoimitukset	Elintarviketoimitukset lahja-apuna.		
1976	1976	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Selluloosa- ja paperitoimitukset.	Toimitukset lahja-apuna.		Suomen Paperitehtaiden yhdistys FINNPAP; Suomen selluloosayhdistys FINNCELL
1976	1977	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Lokomon tiehöylien ja varaosien toimittaminen	Toimitus lahja-apuna.		Rauma-Repola Oy, Lokomon tehtaat; Metex
1980	1981	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Murskaamokoulutus.	Rauma-Repola Oy:n Lokomon tehtaiden toimittamien murskauslaitteiden koulutus ja tekninen neuvonta.		Rauma-Repola Oy
1977	1980	Mosambik – Pohjoismaat kehitysyhteistyö. Maatalousohjelma MONAP. Sopimukset	Ohjelman päämääränä on tukea Mosambikin maanviljelyä ja sitä kautta avustaa maaseudun kehittämispyrkimyksiä. Ohjelman hallinnoinnista vastasi Ruotsin kehitysaputoimisto SIDA.	Sopimukset 7.11.1977 ja 26.11.1980	

1975		Mosambik – Pohjoismaat kehitysyhteistyö. Maatalousohjelma MONAP. Yleistä		FAO:n ja pohjoismaiden yhteinen suunnitteluvaltuuk unta Mosambikiin v. 1976; Pohjoismaiden suunnittelumatka v. 1977; Hallituksen periaattepäätös Suomen osallistumisesta 29.6.1977; Suomen vuosittaiset maksuosuudet	
1976	1981	Mosambik – Pohjoismaat kehitysyhteistyö. Maatalousohjelma MONAP. Kokoukset	Pohjoismainen työryhmä (insatsgrupp)		
1980	1980	Mosambik – Pohjoismaat kehitysyhteistyö. Maatalousohjelma MONAP. Evaluointi			
1980	1981	Mosambik – Pohjoismaat kehitysyhteistyö. Maatalousohjelma MONAP. Metsävarojen inventointi			Thomesto Oy
1976	1981	Mosambik – Pohjoismaat kehitysyhteistyö. Maatalousohjelma MONAP. Asiantuntijat	Asiantuntijoiden rekrytointi (ml. Chilen pakolaisten rekrytointi hankkeeseen), rekrytointiryhmän kokoukset (rekryterarmöte); asiantuntijoiden olot asemamaassa		

1976		Mosambik – Pohjoismaat kehitysyhteistyö. Maatalousohjelma MONAP. Hankintapalvelut ja maatalousalan tavaratoimitukset	Hankintojen organisointi, hankintaryhmän kokoukset (inköparmöte), vuosittaiset hankintaohjelmat, suomalaiset tavarantoimittajat		
1981	1981	Mosambik – Pohjoismaat kehitysyhteistyö. Maatalousohjelma MONAP. Oppikirjapainatus			Sävypaino Oy
1976	1977	Mosambik - Suomi kehitysyhteistyö. Kehitysluotto		Valtioneuvoston päätös 19.2.1976; Kehitysyhteistyöneuvottelut Maputossa 12-17.4.1976; Luoton muuttaminen lahjaksi v.1977	

APPENDIX 4 MFA DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION ACTIVITIES IN MOZAMBIQUE 1982-1987

Asia: A1982/2082 S93-MBI-2 DOK/LOPETETTU J1984/4098 V: KYO-3 ASIA: Yhteispohjoismainen Mosambikin maatalousohjelma MONAP KehD-12/686-78 Bi Projekti Mosambik Maatalous

Asia: A1982/2192 S93-MBI-2 DOK/LOPETETTU J1984/4083 V: KYO-3 ASIA: Nacala satamaselvitys KehD-5/115-80 Bi Projekti Mosambik Kuljetusala

Asia: A1982/2371 S93-MBI-8 JATKO V: KYO-1 ASIA: Mosambik Suunnitteluministeri Machungo vierailu Suomeen toukokuussa 1982 Bi

Asia: A1982/4765 S93-MBI-3 DOK/LOPETETTU J1984/4067 V: KYO-1 ASIA: Mosambik Kehitysluotto KehD-7/22-76 Kehrahoitus Bi

Asia: A1982/2432 S93-MBI-1 V: KYO-3 ASIA: Kehtyö Suomi MOSAMBIK BI

Asia: A1982/YL S93-MBI-0 A1983/YL V: KYO-1 ASIA: Mosambik Apupyynnöt,tiedustelut ja ehdotukset Bi

Asia: A1982/YL S93-MBI-5 A1985/YL A1986/yl V: KYO-3 KYO-5 ASIA: Mosambik Asiantuntijaolot

Asia: A1982/2238 S93-MBI-2 JATKO V: KYO-3 ASIA: Mosambik Kivihiilitutkimukset Coal Mining Bi Projekti Energia

Asia: A1982/4919 S93-MBI-2 V: KYO-3 ASIA: Mosambik Lentokenttien valaistushanke Bi Projekti Kuljetusala KehD-5/115-80

Asia: A1982/4932 S93-MBI-8 V: KYO-1 / KYOASIA: MOSAMBIK KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖN MATKAT JA VIERAILUT KEHTYÖ MATKA VIERAILU

Asia: A1982/YL S90-7-MBI A1983/YL A1984/YL A1985/YL A1986/YL V: KYO-1 / KYOASIA: MOSAMBIK KEHMAA

Asia: A1982/4759 S93-MBI-2 DOK/LOPETETTU J1984/4488 V: KYO-3 ASIA: Mosambik MURSKAUSLAITOSTOIMITUKSET BI PROJEKTI TIERAKENNUS MURSKAAMOT KEHLUOTTO

Asia: A1984/4067 S93-MBI-3 TAMMIKUU/84 DOK/JATKOA E1982/4765 V: KYO-3 ASIA: KEHLUOTTO MOSAMBIK KEHRAHOITUS

Asia: A1984/4083 S93-MBI-2 TAMMIKUU/84 DOK/JATKOA E1982/2192 V: KYO-3 ASIA: NACALA SATAMASELVITYS MOSAMBIK BI PROJEKTI KULJETUSALA

Asia: A1984/4098 S93-MBI-2 TAMMIKUU/84 DOK/JATKOA E1982/2082 V: KYO-3 ASIA: YHTEISPOHJOISMAINEN MOSAMBIKIN MAATALOUSOHJELMA MONAP BI PROJEKTI MOSAMBIK MAATALOUS

Asia: A1984/4488 S93-MBI-2 KESÄKUU/84 DOK/JATKOA E1982/4759 V: KYO-3 ASIA: Mosambik Murskauslaitetoimitukset Suomi Kehtyö Bi Projekti Tienrakennus Murskaamot Kehluotto

Asia: A1985/4211 S96-5-IDA-g V: KYO-2 / KYO-42 ASIA: IDA INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION KANSAINVÄLINEN KEHITYSJÄRJESTÖ MOSAMBIK LAINAT IBRD KEHPANKKI KEHRAHOITUS KEHRAHOITUSLAITOS LAINAPOLITIIKKA

Asia: A1985/4345 S93-MBI-2 V: KYO-3 ASIA: MOSAMBIK Maputon satamaprojekti BI Projekti Satama Kehittäminen

Asia: A1986/4033 S95-4 V: KYO-3 / KYO-23 ASIA: SADCC BEIRA CORRIDOR BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ KEHITTÄMISSUUNNITELMA KEHTYÖ BI PROJEKTI MALAWI MOSAMBIK ZIMBABWE SATCC < vrt. v. 1985 = 1985/4030/95-4 Huom. diaari jaettu arkistossa

Asia: A1986/4059 S93-MBI-2 DOK/JATKOA E1985/4078 V: KYO-3 KYO-23 ASIA: MOSAMBIK NACALA SATAMAHANKE Suomi Kehtyö Bi Projekti Kuljetusala

Asia: A1986/4054 S93-MBI-3 DOK/JATKOA E1985/4022 V: KYO-3 / KYO-27 KYOASIA: MOSAMBIK KEHITYSLUOTTO KEHITYSRAHOITUS Bi Kehluotto Kehrahoitus Suomi

Asia: A1986/4076 S93-MBI-2 V: KYO-3 ASIA: MOSAMBIK OPPIMATERIAALITOIMITUKSET Suomi Kehtyö Bi Projekti Opetusala

Asia: A1986/4118 S93-MBI-2 V: KYO-3 ASIA: MOSAMBIK OPPIKIRJOJEN UUSPAINATUS Suomi Kehtyö Bi Projekti Opetusala

Asia: A1986/4119 S93-MBI-2 V: KYO-3 ASIA: MOSAMBIK BEIRAN KOULUVIHKOTEHTAAN UUDISTUSPROJEKTI Suomi Kehtyö Bi Projekti Opetusala

Asia: A1986/4154 S93-MBI-2 V: KYO-23 ASIA: MOSAMBIK NACALA - CUAMBA RAUTATIEHANKE II VAIHE Suomi Kehtyö Bi Projekti Kuljetusala

Asia: A1986/4216 S95-4 V: KYO-23 ASIA: SADCC HARARE / MUTARE / MOSAMBIK - TIE JA MUTAREN OHIKULKUTIE SADCC BI PROJEKTI HARARE MUTARE MOSAMBIK ZIMBABWE SAMBIA KEHTYÖ TIERAKENNUS

Asia: A1986/4291 S95-4 V: KYO-21 (Laamanen M) ASIA: SADCC BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ KEHITTÄMISSUUNNITELMA KYLMÄVARASTO Cold Store PROJEKTI P-CE-5 < (siirretty kohdasta 1986/4033) KEHTYÖ BI PROJEKTI MALAWI MOSAMBIK ZIMBABWE SATCC

Asia: A1986/4292 S95-4 V: KYO-23 ASIA: SADCC BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ KEHITTÄMISSUUNNITELMA Tuki Beira Corridor Authority 'lle (BCA) Projekti PR-M-4 < (siirretty kohdasta 1986/4033) KEHTYÖ BI PROJEKTI MALAWI MOSAMBIK ZIMBABWE SATCC

Asia: A1986/4293 S95-4 V: KYO-23 ASIA: SADCC BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ KEHITTÄMISSUUNNITELMA KONTTISATAMA (CONTAINER TERMINAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECT) Kontinkäsittelylaitteet (Container Handling Equipment) P-ME-1 < (siirretty kohdasta 1986/4033) KEHTYÖ BI PROJEKTI SUOMI MALAWI MOSAMBIK ZIMBABWE SATCC

Asia: A1986/4294 S95-4 V: KYO-23 ASIA: SADCC BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ KEHITTÄMISSUUNNITELMA TUTKIMUS BEIRAN KAUPUNGIN INFRASTRUKTUURIN KEHITTÄMISEKSI Beira Town General Study PR-M-3 KEHTYÖ SUOMI BI PROJEKTI MALAWI MOSAMBIK ZIMBABWE

Asia: A1986/YL S93-MBI-7 V: KYO-27 ASIA: MOSAMBIK KONSULTATIIVIRYHMÄ IBRD

Asia: A1986/4476 S95-4 V: KYO-23 ASIA: SADCC BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ KEHITTÄMISSUUNNITELMA Asiantuntijoiden talojen rakentaminen (asuntojen tuotanto) (Expatriate Housing Project in Beira) KEHTYÖ SUOMI BI PROJEKTI MALAWI MOSAMBIK ZIMBABWE

Asia: A1986/4477 S95-4 V: KYO-23 ASIA: SADCC BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ KEHITTÄMISSUUNNITELMA Rautatienosturi (Rescue Crane and Rerailing Equipment) Projekti R-ME-7 KEHTYÖ SUOMI BI PROJEKTI MALAWI MOSAMBIK ZIMBABWE

Asia: A1986/4524 S95-4 V: KYO-22 ASIA: SADCC BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ KEHITTÄMISSUUNNITELMA Vesihuoltoprojekti (Beira Water Supply Network) KEHTYÖ SUOMI BI PROJEKTI MOSAMBIK VESIHUOLTO

Asia: A1986/4530 S96-5-IBRD-g V: KYO-42 ASIA: IBRD INTERNATIONAL BANK FOR RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT MAAILMANPANKKI MOSAMBIK LAINAT KEHTYÖ MULTI KEHPANKKI KEHRAHOITUS KEHRAHOITUSLAITOS

APPENDIX 5 MFA DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION ACTIVITIES IN MOZAMBIQUE 1988-2001

1 MOSAMBIK - SUOMI, KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖTÄ KOSKEVAT APUPYYNNÖT, TIEDUSTELUT JA, EHDOTUKSET (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 675
Signum: 93.00

2 KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖ MOSAMBIK, YLEISTÄ (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 722
Signum: 90.50

3 MOSAMBIK, KEHITYSLUOTOT YLEISTÄ (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 874
Signum: 93.30

4 MOSAMBIK, I KEHITYSLUOTTO (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 877
Signum: 93.30

5 MOSAMBIK, II KEHITYSLUOTTO (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 879
Signum: 93.30

6 MOSAMBIK, MONAP YHTEISPOHJOISMAINEN MOSAMBIKIN MAATALOUSOHJELMA
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 967
Signum: 93.20

7 MOSAMBIK, BEIRA VESIHUOLTOPROJEKTI, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25901002-1 JA 25901001-4
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 1309
Signum: 93.20

8 MOSAMBIK, NACALA SATAMA VAIHE 2, projektikoodi: 25900601-5
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 1385

Signum: 93.20

9 MOSAMBIK, NACALA - CUAMBA -RAUTATIE (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 1386
Signum: 93.20

10 MOSAMBIK, BEIRA KOULUVIHKOTEHDAS, projektikoodi: 25901402-3 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 1388
Signum: 93.20

11 SADC (SADCC), BEIRA KONTTISATAMA, ASIANTUNTIJOIDEN ASUNNOT, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25900301-6 (vaihe 1), PROJEKTIKOODI: 25900302-3 (vaihe 2)
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 1905
Signum: 95.20

12 SADC (SADCC), BEIRA KONTTISATAMA / KONTINKÄSITTELYLAITTEET, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25900703-2 (vaihe 2), PROJEKTIKOODI:
25900704-9 (vaihe 3, vaihe 4), PROJEKTIKOODI: 25900705-6 (AFDB:n konsulttipalvelut)
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 1944
Signum: 95.20

13 SADC (SADCC), TUKI BEIRA CORRIDOR AUTHORITY'LLE (BCA) PCU, PROJEKTIKOODI:
25900402-6 (vaihe 2), PROJEKTIKOODI: 25900403-3 (vaihe 3) (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 2004
Signum: 95.20

14 UNDP; MOSAMBIK: SOTILAIDEN REINTEGRAATIO JA DEMOBILISAATIO, - OHJELMA, REINTEGRATION SUPPORT SCHEME, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25908701 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1995
Asianumero: 2081
Signum: 95.20

15 MOSAMBIK - SUOMI, HUMANITAARINEN APU (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988

Asianumero: 2112
Signum: 97.10

16 MOSAMBIK - SUOMI, MAAOHJELMOINTI (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 3018
Signum: 93.10

17 MOSAMBIK -SUOMI, MENETTELYTAPASOPIMUS (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 3083
Signum: 93.10

18 SADC (SADCC), BEIRA (BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄ), YLEISTÄ (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 4063
Signum: 95.20

19 IBRD / IDA, MOSAMBIK LAINAT (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 4359
Signum: 96.06

20 MOSAMBIK, VIENTITAKUUKORVAUKSET (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 4609
Signum: 93.30

21 MOSAMBIK - SUOMI, KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖ YLEISTÄ (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 5040
Signum: 93.10

22 SADC (SADCC), BEIRA KONTTISATAMA, TYÖNTEKIJÖIDEN ASUNNOT, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25902701-2 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 5120
Signum: 95.20

23 MOSAMBIK, III KEHITYSLUOTTO (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 5292
Signum: 93.30

24 MOSAMBIK, SEMINAARI PAIKALLISHALLINNON VAHVISTAMISEKSI, MAPUTO 25.-30.9.1988 (scu_mapit)

Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 5640
Signum: 92.22

25 SADC (SADCC), BEIRA VARAOSAHANKINNAT BEIRAN KAUPUNGIN JULKISILLE, KULKUNEUVOILLE, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25902901-8 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 5823
Signum: 95.20

26 MOSAMBIK, PIENIMUOTOISET KULTTUURIHANKKEET, ML. KULTTUURIRAHASTO
PROJEKTIKOODI: 25910801 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1998
Asianumero: 6950
Signum: 93.20

27 MOSAMBIK, BOANE JA UMBELUZI MAATALOUSKOULUJEN TUKEMINEN, SATIM
Support to Agricultural Training in Mozambique, Projektikoodi: 25903801-2
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 7174
Signum: 93.20

28 SADC (SADCC), HARARE-MUTARE-MOSAMBIK -TIE JA MUTAREN OHIKULKUTIE, PROJEKTIKOODI: 28910601-5 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 7671
Signum: 95.20

29 MOSAMBIK, PROAGRI - MAATALOUSSEKTORIN INVESTOINTIOHJELMA YL.
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1996
Asianumero: 8204
Signum: 93.20

30 IBRD, SPA-ERITYISOHJELMA (SPECIAL PROGRAM OF ASSISTANCE), KEHITYSLUOTOT
TAI MUU VASTAAVA APU, - SPA I KEHITYSLUOTOT, - SPA II LAHJA-APU
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 8224
Signum: 95.20

31 KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖ MOSAMBIK, IBRD/KONSULTATIIVIRYHMÄ KOKOUKSET
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 8341
Signum: 90.50

32 UNDP; OHJELMA-APU MOSAMBIKILLE, TUKI VAALIPROSESSILLE, PROJEKTIKOODI:
25907501 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1993
Asianumero: 8828
Signum: 95.20

33 MOSAMBIK - SUOMI, MOSAMBIKILAISET KANSALAISJÄRJESTÖT
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1990
Asianumero: 9034
Signum: 93.30

34 MOSAMBIK OHJELMA-APU -TUTKIMUS, STUDY ON PROGRAMME ASSISTANCE TO
MOZAMBIQUE, PROJEKTIKOODI: 99833201-9 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1992
Asianumero: 9810
Signum: 93.20

35 MOSAMBIK, NACALA KAUPUNKI KEHITTÄMISHANKE, NACALA INTEGRATED
PROGRAMME (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 9900
Signum: 93.20

36 AFDB, MOSAMBIK LAINAT (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1989
Asianumero: 10776
Signum: 96.06

37 MOSAMBIK - SUOMI, KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖ YLEENSÄ; MAASTRATEGIA
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1991
Asianumero: 11426
Signum: 93.10

38 MOSAMBIK, NACALA SATAMA VAIHE 3, projektikoodi: 25900607-7
(scu_mapit)

Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1989
Asianumero: 11458
Signum: 93.20

39 MOSAMBIK, NACALA KAUPUNGIN JA SATAMAN RAKENNUSTEKNISTEN TÖIDEN, KEHITTÄMINEN, projektikoodi: 25903301-7, SATAMAN PILARIEN KORJAUS:
PROJEKTIKOODI 28916801-3 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1989
Asianumero: 11506
Signum: 93.20

40 SADC (SADCC), BEIRA: SATAMAN TRANSIT-HALLI, PROJEKTIKOODI: 28910401-9
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1989
Asianumero: 12234
Signum: 95.20

41 MOSAMBIK, SOFALAN MAAKUNNAN PIENTEOLLISUUDEN KEHITTÄMISSELVITYS
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1989
Asianumero: 13789
Signum: 93.20

42 MOSAMBIK; DEMOKRATIARAHASTO, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25910701
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1998
Asianumero: 13923
Signum: 93.20

43 MOSAMBIK; PERUSKOULUTUSTUKI, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25907401
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1993
Asianumero: 14348
Signum: 93.20

44 MOSAMBIK - SUOMI, KEHITYSJOUKOT (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1990
Asianumero: 14821
Signum: 92.42

45 KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖ MOSAMBIK, MOSAMBIKIN TALOUSOHJELMAN ANALYYSI
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1990

Asianumero: 15162
Signum: 90.50

46 MOSAMBIK, ASIANTUNTIJOIDEN OLOSUHTEET (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1990
Asianumero: 16413
Signum: 92.11

47 MOSAMBIK, METSÄVAROJEN INVENTOINTI, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25910601 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1996
Asianumero: 17054
Signum: 93.20

48 MOSAMBIK, MANICAN LÄÄNIN INTEGROITU TERVEYDENHUOLTO, MANICA
PROVINCE INTEGRATED HEALTH PROJECT, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25905701-3 VAIHE 2:
25906502 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1990
Asianumero: 17309
Signum: 93.20

49 MOSAMBIK, OPETUSALAN KARTOITUS, projektikoodi: 25906101-2 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1991
Asianumero: 18495
Signum: 93.20

50 MOSAMBIK, PROJEKTIKOULUTUKSEN ARVIOINTI, Assessment of project related
training, projektikoodi: 25906201-5 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1991
Asianumero: 18497
Signum: 93.20

51 SADC (SADCC), ALUEELLINEN KEINOSIEMENNYSPROJEKTI, BOTSWANA MOSAMBIK
SWASIMAA TANSANIA ZIMBABWE, NAMIBIA SAMBIA, PROJEKTIKOODI: 28915201-8
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1990
Asianumero: 19651
Signum: 95.20

52 MOSAMBIK, NACALA SATAMA VAIHE 4, projektikoodi: 25900608-4 (scu_mapit)

Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1991
Asianumero: 21450
Signum: 93.20

53 UNDP/UNESCO; MOSAMBIK, MEDIATUKI, STRENGTHENING DEMOCRACY AND
GOVERNANCE THROUGH DEVELOPMENT, OF THE MEDIA IN MOZAMBIQUE (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1995
Asianumero: 26970
Signum: 95.20

54 IBRD; VELKAKYSYMYS, (HIPC DEBT INITIATIVE TRUST FUND) (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1988
Asianumero: 30603
Signum: 96.06

55 SADCC; BEIRAN KÄYTÄVÄN POHJOISMAISEN AVUN EVALUOINTI, PROJEKTIKOODI:
25908201 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1994
Asianumero: 31723
Signum: 95.20

56 EUROPEAN PARLIAMENTARIANS FOR SOUTHERN AFRICA (AWEPA), KEHITYSYHTEISTYÖ (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1995
Asianumero: 32340
Signum: 96.70

58 SUOMALAISTEN KANSALAISJÄRJESTÖJEN HANKKEET MOSAMBIKISSA, PAIKALLISEVALUOINTI (TAKSVÄRKKI JA UFF FINLAND) (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1995
Asianumero: 34567
Signum: 92.61

59 YK/DHA; SUOMEN TUKI DHA:N MIINANRAIVAUSOHJELMILLE (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1995
Asianumero: 36675
Signum: 97.10

60 MOSAMBIK; CHIMOION MAA- JA METSÄTALOUSKOULUTUS, PROJEKTIKOODI:
25908801 (scu_mapit)

Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1996
Asianumero: 37022
Signum: 93.20

61 IBRD; SELVITYS MOSAMBIKIN UUDISTUSOHJELMASTA JA, NAISNÄKÖKULMASTA
CASHEW-PÄHKINÄ TUOTANNOSSA, (MOZAMBIQUE GENDER PILOT STUDY), PROJEKTIKOODI: 89810702 (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1996
Asianumero: 37099
Signum: 95.20

62 MOSAMBIK; TUKI YMPÄRISTÖKESKUKSELLE, CENTER FOR SUSTAINABLE
DEVELOPMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25909001
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1996
Asianumero: 37523
Signum: 93.20

63 MOSAMBIK; BUDJETTITUKI TERVEYSSEKTORILLE, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25908901
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1996
Asianumero: 37531
Signum: 93.20

64 UNDP; MOSAMBIK, MIINANRAIVAUSOHJELMA (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1996
Asianumero: 37552
Signum: 95.20

65 MOSAMBIK; SÄÄPALVELUJÄRJESTELMÄN TUKI, PROJEKTIKOODI: 25911901
(scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 2000
Asianumero: 38576
Signum: 93.20

66 IBRD; SPA-ERITYISOHJELMA EVALUOINTI, EVALUATION OF SPECIAL PROGRAMME
FOR AFRICA (TF NO. 021469) (scu_mapit)
Mapin aloitusvuosi: 1997
Asianumero: 39319
Signum: 95.20

APPENDIX 6 MFA DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION ACTIVITIES IN MOZAMBIQUE 2001-2013

Signum	Arkistotunnus	Asia
97.10 MBI	UM/5435	Humanitaarinen apu, Mosambik
93.10 MBI	UM/2016	Mosambik - Suomi, kehitysyhteistyö, yleistä
93.20 MBI	UM/2182	Mosambik - UNDP, UNESCO; mediatuki
93.30 MBI/IKI	UM/3762	Mosambik IKI
93.20 MBI	UM/1707	Mosambik; Demokratiamääräraha
93.20 MBI	UM/1708	Mosambik; Kulttuurimääräraha
93.20 MBI	UM/7246	Mosambik; AWEPA:n demokratiahanke Capacity building Programme for Democracy
93.20 MBI / budjetti	UM/10321	Mosambik; Budjettituki
93.20 MBI	UM/1710	Mosambik; Chimoio tuki ympäristökeskukselle
93.20 MBI	UM/1712	Mosambik; Chimoion maa- ja metsätalouskoulutushanke
93.20 MBI	UM/10444	Mosambik; Kansallinen kestävän kehityksen strategia
93.20	UM/1326	Mosambik; Kansallisen metsäohjelman tuki (25915201)
93.20 MBI/maaseutu	UM/23365	Mosambik; Maaseutukehityksen sektoriohjelma
93.20 MBI	UM/3439	Mosambik; Manica terveydenhuoltohanke
93.20 MBI	UM/3439-2	Mosambik; Manica terveydenhuoltohanke 2
93.20 MBI	UM/7502	Mosambik; Miinanraivaushankkeet
93.20 MBI	UM/6202-2	Mosambik; Opetusektorin sektoriohjelma FASE (25912401, 25912402)
93.20 MBI	UM/9358	Mosambik; Opetussektorin tuki (259 126 01), INDE:n tuki
93.20 MBI	UM/1714	Mosambik; PASE peruskoulutustuki
93.20	UM/1995	Mosambik; Sosiaalisen ja taloudellisen tutkimuksen laitoksen (IESE) tuki (25915601)
93.20 MBI	UM/1709	Mosambik; Sääpalvelujärjestelmän tuki
93.20 MBI	UM/1715	Mosambik; Terveyssektorin budjettituki
93.20 MBI	UM/9362	Mosambik; Terveyssektorin tuki v.2003-2005
93.20 MBI/STIFIMO	UM/2831	Mosambik; Tiede-, teknologia- ja innovaatioalan yhteistyöohjelma STIFIMO (25915701)
93.10 MBI	UM/6118	Mosambik; menettelytapasopimus
93.20 MBI	UM/1713	Mosambik; metsäinventaario
93.20 MBI	UM/13941	Mosambik; terveyssektori, yhteisrahasto
93.00 MBI	UM/6357	Projektiehdotukset, Mosambik