

**PARTICIPATION OF RURAL COMMUNITY MEMBERS IN RURAL  
DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA**

**by**

**JUMANNE RASHID FHIKA**

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## **DECLARATION**

I, JUMANNE RASHID FHIKA (Student number: 480 714 98), hereby declare that the thesis entitled: **PARTICIPATION OF RURAL COMMUNITY MEMBERS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA** is the result of my own investigation and research and that it has not been submitted in part or in full for any other degree or to any other University.

Signature: .....

Date: 28<sup>th</sup> January, 2015.

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to the memory of my parents,

My dad, Rashid Fhika

and

My mom, Zainabu R. Fhika.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to give thanks to God Almighty for the grace, strength, wisdom and courage to go on with this study and complete it.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Tanzania is ranked among the world's poorest nations despite her enormous natural resource base, enviable tropical climate and geographic location as the gateway into several landlocked African countries. This abject poverty is particularly pronounced in the rural areas where almost ninety per cent of the population live.

In this study, the researcher sought to unravel the complexity of participation with regard to Tanzania's rural community development and thereby provide insight into possible policy guidelines that will result in more effective and sustainable community development.

Since independence, grandiose government policies, political manifestos, different socio-political ideologies, astronomical budgets of national and donor funding as well as bona fide efforts have made little difference in the eradication of poverty in Tanzania's rural communities. The researcher opines that Tanzania's failure to meet its development goals and its dismal economic performance are a result of the rural communities' lack of participation in development projects. Social inclusion as a concept and the game theory of participation were explored as dynamic and innovative analytical tools to understand the participatory process in community development. The framework was tested against the analysis of participation in multiple health, education and water projects in rural Tanzania.

The key findings of this study indicate that the community members' lack of participation has hindered development efforts but there are mitigating circumstances. The community members

are, for the most part, willing to participate in development projects. However, they find themselves socially excluded by variables which include government policies, bureaucratic obstacles, conflicts arising from political alliances and deeply-entrenched corruption. Based on the findings and conclusion of this study, this study makes recommendations for the implementation of more meaningful community participation in rural Tanzania includes having more women and youth representatives at every leadership level especially at the grassroots level and giving local government autonomy. The researcher concluded that, for participation to be effective, it has to be accompanied by well-structured empowerment programmes. Wherever possible, participation by beneficiaries should be solicited from the initial stages of a project. Participation is therefore synonymous with the inclusion of all groups. The researcher's conclusive thesis is that, should the government adopt this participatory approach, the stalled growth will gain traction and pull the nation from its position among the world's poorest countries and place it on the path towards sustainable progress.

**KEYWORDS:** Participation, rural communities, rural development, sustainable development, participation.

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## **ABBREVIATIONS**

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AU	African Union
BSI	Basic Industries Strategy
CMC	Community Management Committee
EAC	East African Community
ERP	Economic Recovery Programme
ESAF	Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility
ESAP	Economic and Social Action Plan
ESRF	Economic and Social Research Foundation
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HRDS	Human Resource Development Survey
ICT	Information Communication Technology
ILO	International Labor Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IDA	International Development Agency
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDRF	Multilateral Debt Relief Forum

MRDI	Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NESP	National Economic Survival Programme
NPV	Net Present Value
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OAU	Organization of African Union
ODA	Overseas Development Assistance
OECD	Organization of Economic Development
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
PD	Participatory Development
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
PRGF	Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSAP	Priority Social Action Plan
PSI	Policy Support Instrument
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADCC	Southern African Development Community Conference
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme of the World Bank
TASAF	Tanzania Social Action Fund
WB	World Bank

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Viable development is a key concern to all nations in the world today because it promotes the quality of life of their people. Many nations have embraced measures geared towards ensuring the adequate development of all sectors of their countries. As a result, laws have been enacted, policies have been formulated and schemes implemented towards the enhancement of the wellbeing of their citizenry. Nevertheless, the level of participation of all potential beneficiaries in the design, operation, monitoring, and appraisal of development projects is ultimately what determines their success. Participation is, indeed, seen as a vital component in the success of any developmental project globally.

The focus of most of the developmental initiatives in the majority of the Sub-Sahara African countries is on rural development. Chambers (1983) describes rural development as a strategy to empower an explicit group of people, more specifically, poor rural women and men, to attain the most basic human needs. The researcher has chosen Tanzania as the focus of this study, a nation that has advocated for rural development as part of its national development agenda. The researcher opines that rural development in Tanzania stands to succeed in achieving its goals if potential beneficiaries of rural development projects are involved in the design phase of such projects.

This chapter therefore provides an overview of the problem under investigation. The chapter

begins by giving a background to the study in which rural development planning is contextualized in order to provide an understanding of how development planning is systematized in rural communities in Tanzania. The research problem and related research questions are also indicated in this chapter. The objectives, delimitation, and significance of the study are captured in this chapter. The various terms used in the study are explained in line with the focus of the study.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

The ability of any country to achieve its set goals and to meet the needs of its citizens is, to a large extent, dependent on the quality of the decision making process. The planning process, if well-articulated, has the tendency to identify the different methods involved in the achievement of national goals, on the one hand, and the time frame for effecting the tasks, on the other. Just as important is the choice of persons given the responsibility to ensure their success. Planning is thought to be the most important task in the process of accomplishing organizational targets. It is undeniable that well-thought out plans tend to yield great and predictable results. By the same token, poor plans, not surprisingly, yield undesirable and unpredictable results. As such, it follows that worthy developmental plans only lead to successful outcomes where the needs of the beneficiaries have been considered. Effectual needs analysis could very well be considered the vital component in setting developmental goals of any nation. In light of the foregoing, it would therefore be an exercise in futility to make an assumption as to what the needs of a people are, set up a project accordingly, only to find out that the assumption was incorrect.

Nations the world over share a common goal in wanting to attain sustained enhancement in the

quality of the lives of their citizenry. They can only accomplish this by methodical development planning. To that end, the majority of nations have designated specific establishments and have framed and executed many plans and policies to ensure those desired outcomes. The United Nations (UN) has formulated some universal development goals that should be achieved by all member nations in pursuit of development. These goals are referred to as the Millennium Development Goals (MDG). The MDGs uphold eight (8) international goals that all developing UN member states as well as at least 23 international organizations consented to realize by 2015.

The United Nations Secretary-General commissioned the Millennium Project in 2002. The primary goal of this extremely ambitious project was to create a tangible plan of action for the world to accomplish the MDGs and to stem the abject poverty, malnutrition and disease affecting billions of people. The following is the international criteria for development: to eliminate poverty; to attain universal primary schooling; to advance gender equality and to empower women; to lessen child mortality; to enhance reproductive health; to control HIV and AIDS, malaria and other diseases; to guard against environmental degradation; and above all, to develop worldwide cooperation for development. Therefore, once a nation achieves all the goals set out above, it is deemed to be developed. Some countries made a commitment to this development agenda and attained an enviable level within the MDG framework. However, several nations are yet to attain any appreciable level of development within that framework.

As Amedzro (2005:38) points out, immediately upon gaining political freedom, many developing countries endeavored to develop their communities by embarking upon large scale programmes of

industrialization. It was hoped that this would help to meet the citizens' dire need for basic amenities and facilities. Amedzro notes that,

[o]ne would have thought that the under-development inherited by developing countries would have been solved sooner or later due to the initial enthusiasm for development in rural areas.

Tanzania, the subject nation of this study, is a good example of a country that initially made a philosophical commitment to enhance its development. According to Kulaba (1989), the government took noteworthy measures to embrace capitalism and boost both foreign and domestic private investments.

Right after independence in 1961, the new president, Mwalimu Nyerere, categorized three development impediments to development, namely, poverty, disease and ignorance. Subsequently, the Development Plan for Tanganyika 1961/62-1963/64 was geared towards creating an enabling environment for rural development that would combat these problems. According to the Government of Tanganyika (1964), the result of the government's adherence to the implementation of its national development plans was an appreciable economic and infrastructural growth in the period after 1961. Further, in order to combat the severe economic crisis that hit the nation in the 1970s, the government boldly signed an agreement with the World Bank and the IMF in 1986. Figure 1 shows Tanzania Map 2014.



**Figure 1: Map of Tanzania, 2014**  
(Source: Googlemaps.com 2014)

The recurring theme in Tanzania's development agenda since independence has been economic growth and poverty alleviation. The ultimate goal has been the provision of a better quality of life for its citizens. To that end, the government's approach has been the formulation and implementation of long term and medium term development plans since independence. The first of these, the 1961-1964 Development Plan, was geared towards eliminating illiteracy, alleviating poverty and improving health.

The second development plan drew on the experience of the first one and preferred creating a people-centered approach to development on a wider and longer term basis, hence a twenty-year

Long Term Perspective Plan which was adopted for the period from 1964 to 1983). As a manifesto, the Arusha Declaration (1967) which encompassed the Long Term Perspective Plan boldly stated the way forward, pushing for a more participatory approach to development.

In 1981, the Government announced the Second Long Term Perspective Plan (1981-2000) to be implemented in four similar medium term development plans. Once again, implementation of the Long Term Plan failed to materialize. It was forestalled by an economic crisis of unparalleled depth and intensity that befell the country during the mid-1970s due to drought and oil price shocks. The government resolved to implement a short-term National Economic Survival Programme (NESP) (1981-1982) as an emergency programme rather than pursuing a medium term development plan to complete the Long Term Perspective Plan (1964-1980) as originally planned.

Nonetheless, the crisis persisted and intensified due to further oil price shocks, prolonged adverse weather conditions and the war with neighboring Uganda. In response thereto and at the urging of its development partners, the Tanzanian Government began to implement a series of three-year programmes known as the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). It soon came to light that the organizational structure inherited at independence was not compatible with these programmes. One of the challenges was the lack of synchronization between the four organizational systems, specifically, the ministries, local government, the, then, only political party, TANU, and the planning structure. The latter two systems played dominant roles in the development process. The result was that the ministries and the local governments were consistently saddled with policies and plans that could not be executed because of a lack of manpower, funds, equipment,

organization and decision-making powers.

Poor management within individual systems, particularly with regard to government administration and planning, only served to compound the problems. In fact, the autonomous approach of the line ministries responsible for the economic and social sectors, resulted in creating three challenges:

- Firstly, planning and implementing projects involving more than one ministry was practically impossible. For instance, there would be agricultural projects without transport or marketing facilities, settlement schemes without extension staff or social services.
- Secondly, there was very little harmonization between different projects in the same area. In other words, there was no regionally integrated development planning.
- Thirdly, this sectorial rather than spatial approach to development resulted in relatively little attention being given to regional differences in resource endowments, population size and needs. Not surprising, the result is evident in imbalanced regional development and the continuation of regional inequalities.

The Republic of Tanzania was formed from the unification of mainland Tanganyika and the island of Zanzibar. Tanzania has a physical area of 945,00 sq. km. It is bordered by Kenya and Uganda to the north; to the west it is bordered by Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of the Congo; while Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique lie to the south. The Indian Ocean presents Tanzania with an eastern shoreline.

Tanzania, with a current population of more than 44 million people, is an interesting case study particularly given its dalliance in a variety of political theories. The effects of these theories are evident in the social, economic and political spheres. Indeed, those in the low-income strata, women, the young, the disabled and the old were hardest hit by the unfavorable economic trends. This was even more so in the case of those living in the rural areas of Tanzania who had little power against broader economic forces. More recently, the government's long-term development plan is articulated in the Tanzania Development Vision 2025. The Vision 2025 projects a growth of 8% of the economy per annum by 2025.

### **1.3 AN OVERVIEW OF RURAL DEVELOPMENTAL IN TANZANIA**

Beginning in 1961, right after independence, the government pursued a participatory economic planning approach. Fung (2006) opines that the initial period (1961–1966), characterized by the Independence Vision, was aimed at a better quality of life by combating illiteracy, poverty and disease. Citizens were called upon to get more engaged in the development process. The catchphrase “UHURU NA KAZI”, which translates to “independence and work”, was used to inspire the people into action. This was the rallying call of the nation's founding president, Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere, who summarized it thus: “It can be done, play your part” (Mushi, 1981). Consequently, the chiefdoms prevalent until then were eliminated country-wide and the authority to make decisions in development endeavors was vested in the people.

According to Macintosh (2008), the second period (1967-1992) was underscored by the Arusha

Declaration which expressed the philosophy of socio-economic liberation, based on socialism and self-reliance as a long-term national development goal. The Arusha Declaration advocated vesting the decision-making power in the citizenry. This led to the abolition of the Local Government Authorities of the colonial administration being abolished in 1972 and thus paved the way for the introduction of Regional Decentralization by the Regional Decentralization Act of 1972. Under this new regime, Village Governments, District Development Committees and Regional Development Committees were established to facilitate greater participation in decision-making.

Further, in order to enhance the decentralization process by devolution, Act No.7-10 of 1982 re-established the Local Government Authorities. These Acts were in keeping with the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977, which, in Articles No.145 and 146, provided for the establishment of Local Government Authorities to allow for the transfer of authority to the people. The Local Government Authorities have the authority to participate and to engage the people in the design and execution of development programmes within their jurisdictions and generally throughout the country. Cooksey (2003) argues that the years between 1992 and 2002 were characterized by reforms in the public sector. The Government of the United Republic of Tanzania undertook the reforms in order to increase efficiency and the capacity of the public sector to deliver quality services.

## **1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Since her independence, Tanzania has, in a sense, experimented with an elaborate array of economic policies and economic crises-intervention programmes, all of which have led to an appalling failure of economic development. This failure is evident in the abject poverty of the majority of its people, in particular, the majority of its population who live in the rural areas. The paradox of a nation richly endowed with natural resources which includes several commercially-viable minerals, fresh water lakes, fertile soils and climatic conditions favorable for agriculture, a deep-sea harbor, and tourist attractions, such as the snow-capped Mount Kilimanjaro, the highest mountain on the continent, on the one hand, and extreme poverty that qualifies it among the world's poorest nations, goes to the very heart of this study. Added to that is the fact that its economic partners have, over the years since independence, poured billions of US dollars into the government's coffers. Centralization of planning and implementation of economic policies, through succeeding decades, with a very brief period of decentralization, gives credence to the researcher's argument, basically, that economic development is commensurate with the active participation of its beneficiaries who, in the case of Tanzania must, of necessity, include the majority of the people living in the rural communities.

The researcher opines that the widespread failure of development in Tanzania's rural areas is a direct result of the lack of participation by rural communities in the needs analysis, the identification of viable projects, the planning and execution of the policies that would alleviate and/or eradicate poverty as well as ensure the sustainability of projects once completed.

In light of the above premise, this study seeks to answer the question:

**To what extent do community members participate in rural development planning in Tanzania?**

## **1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The main objective of this study was to identify the extent to which rural dwellers participate in rural development planning in Tanzania. The study is, however, designed to achieve the following specific objectives:

- To determine the extent to which community members participated with regard to:
  - the needs analysis
  - identifying viable projects to meet those needs;
- To ascertain what projects were carried out with and without the participation of rural community members;
- To conduct a comparative analysis of several rural development projects, those that succeeded and those that have failed in order to prove the researcher's basic argument that active participation by the rural community members in planning and implementation is critical to the success of economic development.

## **1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In order to seek achieve the objectives of the study, the following questions were posed:

- To what extent are communities participating in identifying their development needs in Tanzania?
- To what extent do community members participate in the identifying viable developmental projects to satisfy their needs?
- What projects have the community been involved in?

## **1.7 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY**

The reduction of investment in essential infrastructure has greatly inhibited rural development. Continued increase in the rural population has only served to compound the prevailing poverty crisis. The appropriate development policy and institutional intervention are the keys to arresting the situation and turning it around. The research results show that there have been considerable efforts made by the Tanzanian planners to obtain reliable statistics on rural communities and development planning process.

Massive sums of money have been invested in Tanzania, policies have been articulated and implemented, and development theories instituted and yet the majority of its people remain among the most impoverished in the world. A study that seeks to illuminate the reasons for the failure of the desired development would be an important contribution to the national discourse.

The study is therefore significant primarily because:

- It will help raise critical questions that draw attention to the paradox facing the nation;
- It offers a fresh look at key theoretical and practical questions with regard to the participation of rural community members as a precursor to Tanzania's development;
- It will contribute positively to the academic discourse on the nation's development, and it makes a case for responsiveness to beneficiary demand as an alternative approach to local development.

## **1.8 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS**

The thesis is divided into six chapters. Chapter One presents the introduction, objectives, justification and background. Chapter Two includes the theoretical framework and literature review. The research study methodology is outlined in Chapter Three while in Chapter Four the research findings are discussed. Chapter Five gives a detailed account of rural community participation in Tanzania and Chapter Six offers the researcher's conclusions and recommendations.

## **1.9 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

In order to investigate whether, indeed, the lack of development in Tanzania can be attributed to a lack of participation by members of local communities, one must start with the historical background. The various political ideologies form a backdrop against which economic development has been pitched with very little success. This is notwithstanding the millions of US dollars in donor aid.

The researcher endeavors, in this study, to unravel the myths, previously discussed theories and misconceptions about participatory development in Tanzania in order to assist in policy formulation that will lead to the alleviation of poverty, particularly in rural Tanzania. Many studies have been done on participatory development in Tanzania. However, the researcher justifies this study because all those studies have not solved the problem of abject poverty.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The literature review presents the argument that membership and issues of rural communities are of particular relevance in the context of Tanzania's economy. Fortitude and self-restraint in the design and execution are the key components necessary for the nation to flourish economically, socially, politically and culturally. This has been acknowledged in the Development Vision 2025 of Tanzania. It is apparent that, globally, involving rural communities in development planning, has been a precursor to successful and sustainable development.

The researcher highlights a brief survey of the literature on the theory and practice of participation in rural development planning. This involves the understanding of the real concepts of participation, and participatory development as an active and dynamic process by giving the evaluation and conclusive discussion to effective participation.

The section is divided into two sections. The first section covers the theoretical framework under which the study is considered. The second section deals with reviewed literature on the following sub-themes:

- the concept of participation;
- the concept of development;
- rural development planning;

- participation of the rural community in development planning.

## **2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Theories are formulated to explain, to predict, and to understand phenomena. In many cases, a theory is adopted to challenge and to extend existing knowledge within the limits of critical bounding assumptions. The theoretical framework is the edifice that can embrace or back a theory of a research study. It presents and defines the concept that elucidates the research problem under study. The study was reinforced by the Game Theory of Participation which highlights the common deed behind individual decision-making in a communal exploit, causative to the shared good (Dorsner, 2004).

Game Theory is a multi-player theory where the choices of each player affect the payoffs of other players and the players take this into account in their choice of behavior. The researcher applied this theory to the rural communities under study in Tanzania in a bid to understand the behavior of individuals engaged in strategic interaction. In this respect, the Game Theory can help in understanding how participation or non-participation in rural development planning occurs, with particular reference to the rural population. This is pertinent since this study is concerned with the participation of rural population in the process of development planning in rural areas in Tanzania.

The theory lists a number of possible factors that explain patterns of participation or exclusion. The list, which is known as the social exclusion filter, is meant to analyze participation in community projects, so that there will be increased awareness of all potential factors that can influence participation. Some of the variables on the social exclusion filter are economic,

educational, institutional as well as social factors Dorsner (2004). Table 2 provides the social exclusion filter.

**Table 1: Social Exclusion Filter**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Exclusion or integration at the community level</b>	<b>Exclusion or integration at the individual level</b>
Economic	Level of economic development, level of inequalities, employment patterns, and distribution of living standards	Income/consumption, assets, employment, status and time availability
Social	Social roles and network fragmentations, traditional system of decision making	Position in society, social roles, personal rivalries, isolation
Human	Skills and knowledge of the community, capacity and intellectual resources	Educational level, management and leadership styles, type of skills available, gender
Organizational	Presence and impact of external bodies, institutional and vulnerability context and inflow	Relationship with NGO staff, past experience with similar projects, access to information
Political	Level of politicization and risk of political hijacking, political fragmentation, influence and power of interest groups.	Political stance/belief, level of political power, civic engagement
Educational	Form of education being offered, agencies to education	Level of educational attainment, perceived benefits of the educational programme

(Source: Adapted by Researcher from Lipton in (de Haan et al, 1998))

One or a combination of the variables in Table 2 above either inspires or disheartens individuals,

particularly rural community members, to participate in rural development planning. Rural community members will seriously consider their economic status, social roles, as well as educational levels before they make a choice to either participate or be excluded from developmental planning, and implementation of such projects.

People in rural communities will take part in projects only if they feel that the benefits of the project will accrue to them. Likewise, rural communities will only be supportive of the process of development planning if they believe that those projects will be beneficial to their communities. The Game Theory incorporates the concept of social exclusion into a systematic and dynamic framework that can easily be used to identify individuals and groups that are likely to either participate or not participate in rural development planning.

The social exclusion variables, according to Dorsner (2004), give shape to the Game Theory and ensure a more comprehensive analysis of participation. According to the theory, the community members' decision to participate in communal projects will be dependent upon the rational calculus of benefits that will accrue as against the pursuit of common good. This calculus depends on the multiple characteristics of the community members.

Table 3 provides the actions of the first player from the rows and the actions of the second player from the columns of the matrix of social exclusion. The entries in the matrix are two numbers representing that to be gained by player number one and by player number two respectively.

**Table 2: Social Exclusion Matrix**

Group 1 Group 2	Included	Excluded
Included	Gain X    Gain Y	Gain Z    Gain 0
Excluded	Gain 0    Gain Z	Gain Y    Gain Y

(Source: Adopted by the Researcher from Dorsner (2004) . Group 1 = right- hand figures inside each cell. Group 2 = left-hand figures inside each cell)

The two groups in the above table represent the various categories of people in any given community. The first and second players (groups one and two respectively) will participate when it is anticipated that gains (x, x) will be made. Group one will again be included when a greater gain (o) is received or anticipated. However, persons of that same group will, at a point, be excluded from an activity when it is realized that gain (y) will be made. Naturally, the group will be excluded when it anticipates that it is going to lose or gain nothing (z) from a communal activity. The second player benefits a lot (o) when the first player decides not to participate and will therefore be included. Group two will however, be excluded when no gains (z) are made; interestingly, it is at this point that the first player decides to fully participate, since it will gain a lot (o).

Rural community members will therefore, choose to participate in development planning activities aimed at bringing about development in the community, if they believe that their effort will result in gains. The construction of a toilet facility in a community, for instance, may be perceived as a gain and, as such, may draw the participation of community members. The villages would be cooperative communities in which people would work together, not as individual family units, but

in a collectivized system of production for the good of all. Chapter Tree will discuss research study methodology.

### **2.3 THE CONCEPT OF PARTICIPATION**

Schuftan (1996:260-264) argues that participation, a highly fashionable term, is simply a process of being involved in multi-faceted spheres of societal life, more specifically, the political, economic, cultural and social. The argument expounds the fact that empowerment and participation are actually intertwined. In fact, these dual concepts in social policy are inseparable because empowering people means enabling and supporting opportunities for their involvement, while participation entails enabling people to facilitate their exercise of this human right.

Burkley's (1993 cited in Mokwena, 2003) opinion is that participation is an essential part of human growth. It is the development of self-confidence, pride, initiative, creativity, responsibility and cooperation whereby people learn to take charge of their lives and solve their own problems. Participation is a dynamic, multi-faceted right that should not be denied or withheld from anyone, including the youth. Cornwall's (2002) theory shares a view of participation defined in space or forums, influence and dissimilarities. In her opinion, participatory forums could be formed in order to facilitate the interactions between people and enables them to discuss and review matters that are meaningful to them as well as to accomplish communal duties. These spaces or forums can vary depending on time and context. The theory explains that this could be achieved by formulating new sets of laws or amending the previous laws or simply by engaging people in communal meetings and events. Nevertheless, influence, perceptions and attitudes among community

members may facilitate or hinder actual involvement. This might be explained by the fact that participatory forums tend to attract persons from diverse backgrounds and with different identities.

Cornwall's Theory of Participation will be used to examine the forums that have been created by various community projects and the ways they have impacted on women's participation. It will also shed light on the manner in which power and dissimilarities within the community have contributed to women's participation in project planning and execution.

Oakley and Marsden (1984) are of the opinion that local participation is a prerequisite for meaningful and sustainable development. They further assert that, if local people are actively involved in any community project, they will commit themselves to supporting the project for its success and sustainability. A critical part of community development is participation because it allows the engagement of people in the different levels of decision-making (Aref, & Ma'rof 2008b). Active community participation, a prerequisite to planning, is undeniably vital to the development process. Richard (1966 cited in Addae, 2010) places great emphasis on the definition of participation as involvement. In his view, it is the extent to which a person is involved with, or interacts with important components or processes in the development programme. The World Bank (1966) identifies factors which are the reasons for community participation. These are:

- Local people have a great amount of experience and insight into what works, what does not work and why;
- Involving local people in planning projects can increase their commitment to the project;
- Involving local people can help them to develop technical and managerial skills and thereby

increase their opportunities for employment;

- Involving local people helps to increase the resources available for the programme;
- Involving local people is a way to bring about “social learning” for both planners and beneficiaries. “Social learning” means the development of partnerships between professionals and local people in which the groups learn from each other.

In the same vein, Burns et al (2004) gives the following reasons for community participation:

- Active participation of local residents is essential to improved democratic and service accountability. It enhances social cohesion because communities recognize the value of working in partnership with each other and with statutory agencies;
- It enhances effectiveness as communities bring understanding, knowledge and experience essential to the regeneration process. Community definitions of need, problems and solutions may be different from those put forward by service planners and providers;
- It enables policy to be relevant to local communities. It adds economic value both through the mobilization of voluntary contributions to deliver regeneration and through skills development, which enhances the opportunities for employment and increases community wealth;
- It gives residents the opportunity to develop the skills and networks that are needed to address social exclusion;
- It promotes sustainability because community members have ownership of their communities and can develop the confidence and skills to sustain developments once the

“extra” resources have gone.

Pateman (1990 cited in Addae, 2010) raises the point that participation is frequently used with an inaccurate definition to include just about any circumstance, whereby nominal interaction occurs. He argues that this definition omits those circumstances in which a person simply takes part in a group activity, is physically in the forum where decisions affecting them are discussed with no engagement whatsoever, or is present without exerting any influence at all. Meaningful participation, on the other hand, entails greater involvement which results in greater efficacy, additional answerability and transparency, greater ownership and authority. Participation is the driving force that empowers the rural poor to take control and create meaningful and sustainable development (Chambers, in Nelson and Wright, 1995).

In literature, growth, progress and transformation of a situation are related to the activities and collective involvement of the communities (Moser, 1989:81). Participatory attempts are often done in a top-down manner, however, there are instances of “participatory experiences from self-reliant grassroots organizations” (Gasto, 1997) which differentiate between “strong” and “weak” analyses of participation. The strong analysis advocates a fresh approach to development, which is fundamentally participatory. In this case, land reform, redistribution of assets and other conditions seen as prerequisites, present opportunities for the rural poor to take control of their own development. This is more often than not done through grassroots organizations.

On the other hand, the “weak” analysis of participatory development is usually prompted by the bilateral and multilateral aid organizations. This view describes participation as a process that is

limited and formalized, lacking the political volatility of direct widespread association. There was a time when the term “self-help” was used in development literature which, though not always expressed as such, participation meant cheap labor. Table 6 provides typology of participation.

**Table 3: Typology of Participation**

<b>LEVEL</b>	<b>Characteristics of Each Type</b>
Passive participation	People participate by being told what is going to happen or has happened. It is a unilateral announcement by leaders without listening to people’s responses or opinions.
Participation in information giving	People participate by answering questions posed by extractive researchers, using questionnaire or similar approaches. People do not have the opportunity to influence proceedings, as the findings of the research are neither shared nor checked for accuracy.
Participation by consultation	People participate by being consulted and external people listen to views. These external professional define both problems and solutions, and may modify these in light of the people’s responses. Such a consultative process does not concede any share in decision making and professionals are under no obligation to take on board people’s views.
Participation for material incentives	People participate by giving resources, for example labour, in return for food, cash or other material incentive.
Functional participation	People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project, which can involve the development of externally initiated social organization. Such involvement does not tend to occur at the early stages of project cycles or planning, but rather after major decisions have been made.
Interactive participation	People participate in joint analysis which leads to action plans and the formation of new local institutions. Participation tends to involve interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systematic learning processes.
Self-mobilization	People participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions to change systems. They develop contacts with external

	institutions for resources and technical advice they need, but retain control over resources.
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(Source: Adapted from Pretty (1995, p.1252) and Kumar (2002, pp. 24-25))

### **2.3.1 Participation as a Means or as an End**

Most researchers provide a distinction between “participation as a means and participation as an end” (Burkey, 1993; Dalay-Clayton et al., 2003; Kumar, 2002; Nelson, & Wright, 1995; Oakley, 1991). It is a means of tapping into the physical as well as the social and economic resources of the people in the rural communities in order to attain the goals of the development projects in a way that is more efficient, effective or inexpensive (Burkey, Nelson, & Wright, 1995; Oakley, 1991). Participation as an end becomes a dynamic, vibrant and genuine process which takes place over a period of time and which is aimed at developing and strengthening the capabilities of rural communities to get more directly involved in developmental initiatives (Oakley, 1991).

Greater self-reliance, being the empowerment of individuals and communities through the culmination of attaining skills, knowledge and experience, summarizes participation as a means (Burkey, 1993; Karl, 2000). The advocates of this point of view believe that, until and unless, the poor control the process, development cannot be attained because it is not possible to attain it on their behalf. This is the crux of participation. According to Burkey (1993), meaningful development can only take place where a process of actual participation has been put in place.

The views above represent diverse purposes and methods in support of participatory development planning. Interestingly, many development agencies apportion equal credence to both views, but some choose one over the other. Burkey (1993) points out the fact that, until recently, the concept

of “participation as a means” was prevalent in development practice. However, despite acknowledging that some economic development resulted from this approach, he also presents the argument that only a few development projects attained meaningful participation in planning by community members. In his opinion, this approach has not yielded meaningful participation by the rural poor. Nelson and Wright (1995) are of the view that the empowerment of the local population and therefore their participation is more limited in “participation as means” than it is “participation as an end”.

### **2.3.2 Participation as Empowerment/Contribution in the Development Process**

According to Oakley (1991) and Dale (2004), participation may be expressed in two concepts. These are participation as “contribution” and as “empowerment”. Participation is, to a large extent, related to the procedure and upkeep of facilities which are already in existence. It may be done completely on a voluntary basis, contributions by way of ideas, funds, supplies, free or modestly paid labor (Dale 2004).

According to Bretty (2003, p.5), participation is an empowering process in which,

people, in partnership with each other and those able to assist them, identify problems and needs, mobilize resources and assume responsibility to plan, manage, control and assess the individual and collective actions which they decide upon.

Furthermore, (Oakley 1991, p. 9) opines that, as a process of empowerment,

participation is concerned with development of skills and abilities to enable the rural people

manage better, have a say in or organize with existing development systems.

In other opinions expressed by Eade and Rowlands (2003), powerlessness is said to be a central element of poverty. Kabeer (2001a, p. 19) expresses empowerment with regard to women as

the expansion of people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where that ability was previously denied to them.

According to Kabeer, means, support and accomplishment are three interconnected features that can impact women's empowerment agenda. From this premise, Kabeer presents the argument that means such as human capital and material assets could expand people's participation in development projects. However, the willingness of the people to do so individually or as a community is the ultimate key. She adds that this can happen if people are made aware of the prevailing circumstances and communal systems are created. Nevertheless, the current standards and ideals as well as scarcities can hamper the process of empowerment. Empowerment can, though, cause misunderstandings within families or members of the same community.

This framework will assist in the identification of the processes of empowerment that were used by TASAF projects and among the communities that backed the participation by women in project activities and those that hampered women's participation. The researcher will examine the TASAF project implementation procedures and practices. Also of interest in understanding this framework are the responsibilities of the local government and community for the duration of the project design and operation. Within this exercise, it becomes apparent whether there is a correlation between the availability of resources and the participation of women in rural development.

Before independence, powers of decision-making were over-centralized within political, planning and ministerial organizations. The authority to make decisions was centrally retained within the political and administrative entities. Immediately following independence, there was a tendency to over-centralize power at the ministry level in Dar es Salaam. This hindered the design and execution of rural community projects and, in fact, served to disaffect the citizenry from the process (Kamuzora, 2002).

## **2.4 DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

In this study, development is defined as the capacity of a state to increase its human resources with the aim of achieving higher outcome of production for the satisfaction of the basic needs of the majority of its citizens and empowering them to make demands on the government. Therefore, public participation is a political principle or practice that is recognized as a right. The term “public participation” in this research study is used interchangeably with the concept of “stakeholder’s engagement” and/or “popular participation”.

Public participation seeks out and facilitates the involvement of those potentially affected by or interested in a decision. The principle of public participation means that those who are affected by a decision have a right to be involved in the decision-making process. Public participation implies that the public’s contribution will influence the decision. Public participation may also be regarded as a way of empowerment, as a vital part of democratic governance and as accountability to enhance communities.

The desire to increase public participation in humanitarian aid and development has led to the

establishment of numerous context-specific, formal methodologies, matrices, pedagogies and ad hoc approaches. These include conscientization and praxis. There are different definitions and types of participation applied in different projects (Guimaraes, 2009).

Furthermore, participation refers to a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them (World Bank, 1994 as cited in Guimaraes, 2009:6). In relation to the definitions of participation, a literature review has identified forms of participation in accordance with their applicability, such as utilization, contributions and consultation, interactive forms of participation, and passive participation (Pimbert, & Pretty, 1994 as cited in Guimaraes, 2009; Smith 1998).

## **2.5 SOCIO-ECONOMIC DIMENSIONS OF DEVELOPMENT**

Development, according to Gibbon (1993), is defined as the capacity of a state to increase its human resources with the aim of achieving higher outcomes of production for the satisfaction of the basic needs of the majority of its citizens and empowering them to make demands on the government. The economic dimension equates development with economic growth and measures it with economic indicators such as the GDP and the GNP, while the social dimension looks at development through improvements in the lifestyles of people, health, education, empowerment, mortality rates and a host of other indicators. Sustainable development meets the needs of the present without comprising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs.

The decades since the end of World War II have witnessed an unrivalled drive for economic and social development by the majority of the world's nations. In that time, development has been

synonymous with economic, social, and political change in the countries of Africa.

The inception of the world economic system in the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries enforced equitable domination on the countries of the periphery through means such as conquest, threat, market restrictions and industrial protection. These tactics caused the rise of today's industrialized nations and their consolidated influence over the third world. The kowtowing of the third world to these pressures from the first world has led to the weakening of its institutions and eventually affected their inability to develop.

Historically, there is evidence to prove the West's contribution to the underdevelopment of the African countries. This exploitation is clearly seen in accounts of merchant capitalism, colonialism and neo-colonialism. Merchant capitalism refers to the accumulation of capital through trade and plunder, as exemplified by the transatlantic slave trade. Rodney (1973) argues that it is likely that the trade had a serious impact on the growth of the African population. Colonialism is exploitation by a stronger country of weaker one and the use of the weaker country's resources to strengthen and enrich the stronger country.

Colonialism ensured underdevelopment. The reason is that it introduced programmes and policies which served the colonialists' interests and undermined the interests of the colonies. Neo-colonialism means a new form of colonialism which is a form of socio-economic domination from outside that does not rely on direct political control. Neo-colonialism brought with it established international laws and regulations covering prices, currency dealing and banking systems. This effort was to standardize trade to the advantage of the capitalist states.

As noted above, some scholars have seen development in terms of economic progress especially the two decades right after the independence of many of African countries. After independence, questions like: “How can countries expand their opportunities for their populations particularly those in the rural areas?” were asked. In the 1950s through the 1960s, economists dominated the development debates and saw industrialization and productivity as prerequisites for development. In order to ensure this, there was the need to stimulate the fledgling industrial sector and to mobilize the traditional sector of the economy to the task of industrialization (Bryant, & White, 1982). The reasoning was that the poorest people living in rural areas were a potential and badly needed labor force. One proponent for this dimension of development is Dzorbo (2004) who defined economic development as the quantitative expansion of goods and services, or the wealth of society which is often measured by the Gross National Product (GNP) and the Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

## **2.6 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

Rural development is a strategy to enable a specific group of people, particularly poor rural women and men, to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need. It involves helping the poorest who seek a livelihood in the rural areas to demand and control more of the benefits of development (Chambers, 1983, p. 147). To Chambers, therefore, development refers to all efforts to offer welfare programmes, aid and resources towards alleviating poverty,

transforming rural areas, and providing the basic needs of the poor to ensure their survival.

The definition of public or community participation extends the emphasis of public participation beyond the development of policy, to decision-making and implementation. This is elaborated by Harvey (1989) who points out the different levels of community participation. For example, a distinction is drawn between “cynical” and “genuine” consultation, and between “entrusted” and “independent” citizen control. This essentially treats community participation as a marketing exercise in which the desired end result is “sold” to the community.

With reference to this research study, the above definitions and types of participation (with the exception of passive participation) aim to ensure community participation in development processes as a strategy to fulfil majority interests and needs. In this study, both definitions and four types of participation are discussed. They include: contribution, consultation, utilization and interactive participation. These will be applied with respect to community participation within the current study because the definitions and types of participation I have chosen have the element of empowerment as one of the key principles. Passive participation is, to my mind, redundant because, according to program objectives, community empowerment has to be promoted through people’s involvement in decision-making and project implementation which is contrary to passive forms of participation.

Participation in development projects includes community involvement in project work, provision of a labor force, as well as engaging in planning processes. The planning processes may include project identification, prioritization, and preparation of project budget and work plan. This is partly

done in village meetings and in community management committees where consensus for what is to be done, when, how, where and by whom are made. In this way people have the option of being independent and creative in response to performing their activities to achieve community goals which, in turn, leads to ownership of the projects and ultimately responsibility and therefore sustainability.

Definitions of participation and types of participation will identify types of participation employed in specific projects in the survey areas and their influence on women's participation as well as examining the concept of community participation and how it affects project activities by both women and the community. For instance, interactive forms of participation can help people to make decisions on matters of concern but not all people will have a chance to give their views due to existing social classes like marital status, gender, ethnicity and community standing. Also, failure to understand the importance of community participation could reduce people's willingness to participate in village meetings and project work.

Citizen participation research has progressed significantly over the last two decades. Some of the sample studies in the area include Thomas (1993), Cooper, Thomas and Meek (2006) and Yang and Callahan (2005). Researchers and practitioners have emphasized citizen participation in public administration as a means of collaborating with citizens to promote democratic values such as transparency and accountability (Thomas, 1993; Cooper, Thomas, & Meek, 2006; Irvin, & Stansbury, 2004; Fung, 2006; King, Feltey, & Susel, 1998; Nelson, & Wright, 1995; Weeks 2000).

Cooper et al. (2006) argue that purposeful and collective action strategies of civic engagement are

the most promising ways of involving the public and centering public management around the citizen. Several scholars also emphasize that government efforts to provide more opportunities for citizen participation and input in government performance, evaluation and policy decision-making, is an important strategy for improving trust in government (Citrin, & Muste 1999; Kim, 2010; Kweit, & Kweit, 2007).

A growing body of literature also focuses on government efforts to utilize new technologies to enable greater citizen participation in policy formation and evaluation and to create greater information exchanges between citizens and government (Macintosh, & Whyte, 2008; Norris, 1999; OECD, 2003). Many governments have adopted various forms of electronic participation (e-participation) applications, including online forums, virtual discussion rooms, electronic juries or electronic polls (OECD, 2003).

The literature, however, has left noteworthy gaps in the understanding of how to quantify the outcomes of citizen participation programs. Indeed, limited attention has been paid to the evaluation of citizen participation programs in local governments. Local governments continuously face the challenge of improving the quality of public service and the capacity to implement adequate policies and practices that respond to the challenges of economic and social development. The demands of economic and social development also influence citizens' expectations of local government responsiveness, transparency and accountability. Citizens and community organizations have also expressed their interest in a more participatory approach to the decision-making processes, transparency and accountability from the local government

(Hambleton, & Gross, 2007).

This study argues that one of the core values of citizen participation programs are related to enhancing transparency in government. Scholars and practitioners believe that transparency is an essential democratic value which undergirds a trustworthy, high performing and accountable government (Transparency International and the United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004). In response to the demands of transparency in local governance, Kim (2009) argues that local governments can enhance the level of transparency with their commitment to three core components of transparency, comprising openness, integrity and citizen empowerment.

A high degree of openness by public officials and agencies regarding all the decisions and actions that they take may reduce the information gaps between government and citizens and enhance the level of transparency in local governance. Other components of openness could include the degree of information and knowledge sharing between sectors and among agencies and various methods for communicating government work and functions to citizens and the local community. Kim (2009) argues that another important dimension of transparency in local governance is integrity which is defined as incorruptibility and requires that holders of public office avoid placing themselves under financial or other obligations to outside individuals or organizations that may influence them in the performance of their official duties (Cheema 2003; Pope, 2005).

Finally, citizens' perceived empowerment through fair and increased opportunities to participate in policy decision-making process could be another indicator assessing the degree of transparency in local government (Kim 2009).

The findings of Kim (2009) drew the researcher of the current study to empirically examine the relationship between citizens' engagement in participation programs and their assessment of government transparency. Deeply entrenched corruption was cited over and over in the forum discussion groups as discouraging community members from participating in community projects. To measure citizens' assessment of transparency in local government, the study focuses on citizens' perceptions of openness, corruption, two-way communication with citizens, and fair and increased opportunities to participate in the decision making process in the local government that provides various participation programs (Kim 2009).

The concept of development connotes several definitions, however, for the purpose of this study, development will be seen in the light of activities or projects that enhance the quality of life of people. In the wake of the above, the definition of development by Akinpelu (1990:19) will be stated. Akinpelu (1990) suggests that development is an all-encompassing concept that should be seen as

the generation of more wealth within a nation; more equitable distribution of such wealth or at least more equitable distribution of the opportunity for access to that wealth and the existence of political structures relevant to the promotion of the above values.

From the definition above, it can be said that Akinpelu sees development mainly from the economic angle, and argues that a nation's capacity to create wealth should lead to an equal distribution of such wealth, which will, in turn, enhance the quality of life of the people. This definition loses sight of the fact that people can play an active role in enhancing their quality of

life.

Youngman (2000:5) sees development as the idea that deliberate action can be taken to change society in chosen directions which are considered desirable. Development can be seen as the sustained improvement in the quality of life of individuals who have acquired knowledge, skills, and attitudes and hence are able to solve the problems that confront them (Addae, 2010). Sarumi (2007) agrees with Addae (2010) when he opines that literacy is highly synonymous with development, that is, development cannot occur except where the populace can read and write. The definitions given by Addae and Sarumi place greater emphasis on education and literacy. In fact, desired infrastructural, social, human, and economic changes can occur in many areas. This means that development is an all-encompassing concept that promotes qualitative changes in all sectors of a society.

Maliyamkono and Bagachwa (1990) found that the greatly hyped “solution” to many of the problems facing the rural poor is that community self-help projects should be encouraged, in order to “empower” people and improve their environment. Undoubtedly, these projects are usually very valuable, and may, indeed, be the best short-term means of overcoming acute service problems, but they often assume that women have spare time. It is quite likely, in fact, that such activities impose an extra, and damaging, drain on women’s time.

The World Commission on the Social Dimension of Globalization (2004) found that growth can, and should, play a greater role in addressing issues such as democratic participation, respect for basic rights, education, social security and poverty reduction – in essence, the social dimension.

Kulaba (1989) reported that it is important for Tanzania to implement development strategies that focus on human beings. It must strive to improve the welfare of the majority of people who live in rural areas. Without this, Tanzania will be “draining the pond in order to catch the fish”. Welbourn (1991) suggests that participatory development means the equal inclusion of all sections of a typical, stratified community, women, men, older, younger, better off and worse off.

URT (2001) stipulates that development of the rural areas is a major concern of social and economic development policy in Tanzania. The term “rural development” is often used interchangeably with “community development” to mean a group of people in a community reaching a decision to initiate a social action process (i.e. planned intervention) to change their economic, social, cultural or environmental situation (Christenson, & Robinson, 1980 cited in Addae, 2010). Kumar (1979:213) sees community development as a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community, with the active participation and initiative of the community. Both writers recognize the significant role played by the community in the initiation and implementation of community development projects.

The African Union (2004) expressed a deep concern about the high incidence of poverty, unemployment and underemployment, especially in the urban informal economy, as well as in the rural areas, where more than 60% of the poor live and work. Lugalla (1995) gives examples from Tanzania, showing that SAPs have exacerbated hardships and are therefore enhancing poverty rather than alleviating it. They emphasized the need to reduce government expenditure in unproductive sectors of the economy in order to reverse the continued waste of resources with no

gains in the eradication of poverty.

The World Bank (2001) reported that, despite a high rate of economic growth in recent years, poverty is still pervasive in rural Tanzania. The 2007 Household Budget Survey shows that the incidence of monetary poverty has declined only marginally on the mainland from 35.7% in 2001 to 33.6% in 2007. Given the rapid population growth rate (about 2.8 %), the absolute number of poor people is estimated to have increased by 1.3 million. Bagachwa (1994) asserts that the erosion of democratic institutions such as local councils and cooperatives denied the participation of the people in the management of the economy and, in the process, their contribution to development activities was marginalized. Even with the re-introduction of the local government and cooperative societies, lack of capacity and the inappropriate set up of the cooperatives limited their contribution to development efforts.

Tanzania Development Vision (1999-2025) found that, on the whole, planning in Tanzania has remained top-down, contrary to government aspirations. One of the strategies for enabling rural communities to plan, implement and manage poverty alleviation on a sustainable basis, using local resources and their culture is empowerment. Community empowerment is a process of enabling people to understand the reality of their environment, reflect on factors shaping it and taking steps to effect changes to improve the situation. It is a process that encompasses people, deciding where they are now, where they want to go, as well as developing and implementing plans to reach their goals, based on self-reliance and the sharing of power.

## **2.7 PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

Participatory development seeks to engage local populations in development projects. Participatory development (PD) has taken a variety of forms since it emerged in the 1970s, when it was introduced as an important part of the “basic needs approach” to development. Most manifestations of PD seek “to give the poor a part in initiatives designed for their benefit” in the hopes that development projects will be more sustainable and successful if local populations are engaged in the development process. PD has become an increasingly accepted method of development practice and is employed by a variety of government institutions and organizations. It is often presented as an alternative to mainstream “top-down” development.

Advocates of PD emphasize a difference between participation as “an end in itself”, and participatory development as a “process of empowerment” for marginalized populations. This has also been described as the contrast between valuing participation for intrinsic rather than purely instrumental reasons. In the former manifestation, participants may be asked to give opinions without any assurance that these opinions will have an effect or may be informed of decisions only after they have been made. In the latter form, proponents assert that PD tries to “foster and enhance people’s capability to have a role in their society’s development”.

### **2.7.1 Participation in Development Planning: A Basic Human Right**

Research conducted by several development agencies (World Bank, CIDA and IRDP) suggests that there are many benefits to be gained through the use of PD. These studies suggest that, while PD projects may have high start-up costs, they will be less expensive and more sustainable in the

long run. These studies also found that PD projects are better at addressing local needs and are generally more relevant to local populations than traditional development projects. Community participation is also thought to increase the efficiency of development projects. Participation can also contribute towards more equitable outcomes as long as elite capture of participatory mechanisms is avoided.

At the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD-Rome, 1979), it was declared that participation of rural people in designing policies and programs that affect their lives should be “a basic human right”. In response to that, many development agencies, international organizations, NGOs, donors and governments were obliged to adapt participatory approaches in order to ensure effectiveness and sustainability of development activities (Guimaraes, 2009).

Between 2005 and 2009, the government of Tanzania introduced TASAF as an intervention to poverty. The main objective of the TASAF program was to empower communities to access opportunities linked to the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) adopted in 2000 and set to be achieved in 2015. This was also a strategy to attain indicators targeted in the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) that was set to be achieved in 2005-2010 (TASAF 11 Operational Manual, 2005).

Among TASAF’s development components there is a specific one that targets and supports the development of infrastructure in the sectors of education, health and water. It focuses on the construction of primary school buildings, health facilities and potable water supplies in villages that do not have these services, cannot access them in nearby areas or where available services are

inadequate. Activities under the Targeted Infrastructure Development Component are as follows:

- Construction/rehabilitation of Primary and Secondary Schools' classrooms, teachers' houses, toilets, water points, teachers' offices, libraries, laboratories and dormitories;
- Construction/rehabilitation of Health Facilities (including outpatient dispensaries, maternal child health centers, staff houses, toilets, incinerators and water points);
- Development of potable water supplies.

The TASAF development programs adopted participatory methods to ensure grassroots level involvement in project planning and implementation processes. This strategy was geared towards strengthening community ownership of development projects as well as meeting the needs of marginalized people in the society. This approach, it was hoped, would allow community members to identify their problems as well as give them the means to solve those problems in more interactive and supportive ways.

The Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) method was one community participation method used during problem identification and prioritization of projects. In village meetings, men and women were provided opportunities to participate in project identification and prioritization and thereafter to select a Community Management Committee (CMC) from among community members to monitor day-to-day project activities during the implementation phase. According to the TASAF project guidelines, 50% of CMC members have to be women; this was to ensure involvement of women in leadership positions where women's voices could be heard and considered. The Community Management Committee was responsible for the procurement of project materials,

consultation with the project coordinator and other technical staff at the district level, store keeping, and day-to-day management of project activities (TASAF 11 Project Implementation Guideline 2005).

Target groups for this project included the communities with poor or no basic social services, food insecure households and vulnerable groups such as orphans, people with disabilities, elderly, widows/widowers and HIV/AIDS infected persons. Through TASAF programs, more than 500 projects have been implemented in the case study area. The implemented projects vary from one village to another depending on the priorities of each community.

These projects include road and bridge constructions, classroom constructions, the construction of houses for teachers and nurses, construction of laboratories, construction of wards, construction of dispensary buildings and construction of deep wells. TASAF encourages community contributions, particularly the provision of the labor force. Cash donations were also encouraged in order to expand people's knowledge and experience in implementation and maintenance of development projects (TASAF 11 Project Implementation Guideline 2005).

TASAF has made moderate gains where many other programs failed because it focused on community involvement and control of the projects. Involvement in this context includes participation in the decision-making as well as in the implementation and maintenance phases of the development project. Table 4 provides control system.

**Table 4: Control System**

<b>CITIZEN CONTROL</b>
<b>12. Independent control</b>
11. Entrusted control
<b>CITIZEN PARTICIPATION</b>
10. Delegated control
9. Partnership
8. Limited decentralized decision-making
7. Effective advisory boards
6. Genuine consultation
5. High quality information
<b>CITIZEN NON-PARTICIPATION</b>
4. Customer care
3. Poor information
2. Cynical consultation
1. Civic hype

(Source: Researcher 2014)

The role of involvement in development of a community depends on how the community is involved in decision-making (Wilcox, 1999). Table 5 shows five interconnected levels of community participation in Tanzania.

**Table 5: Interconnected Levels of Community Participation**

INFORMATION
CONSULTATION
DECISION MAKER
ACTING TOGETHER
SUPPORTING INDIVIDUAL COMMUNITY INITIATIVES

(Source: Researcher 2014)

Wilcox points out different “levels” of participation, which are acceptable in differing context and settings; this progression recognizes that power is not always transferred in apparently participative processes, but that the processes still have value. This is in opposition to the interpretation of Arnstein (1969) who believes that it is only acceptable to be striving towards citizen control. The above frameworks provide useful insights into the scope of experiences associated with community participation. By their nature, however, they represent simplifications of a more complex reality.

Strategic level decisions are policy level decisions on a long term basis (Hart et al., 1997). Operational level decisions are service level decisions on a day-to-day basis. Strategic power is the power the stakeholder has in determining the aims and objectives of an organization in the setting of performance criteria and in evaluating that performance. Operational power is the power the stakeholder has to determine what services to provide, the allocation of limited resources and how services should be provided.

### **2.7.1.1 Levels of Participation in the Development Planning and Process**

There are different degrees, spaces, dimensions and levels of participation which are distinguished by researchers and agencies. The typology of participation (Table 4), which positions participation on a seven-step ladder, is useful in analyzing these degrees (Bretty, 2003; Kumar, 2002; Pretty, 1995; Wilcox, 1994). From the table, it can be shown that the first four levels on the ladder can be interpreted as “participation as means”, while the last three levels fall under “participation as an end”. Some suggest that the “manipulation”, which appears on types one to four, implies that they should be seen as types of no participation (Pretty, 1995).

Bretty (2003, p.5) conceptualizes these levels in terms of “weak and strong participation”. According to his view, weak participation involves “informing and consulting” while strong participation means “partnership and control”.

Wilcox (1994) cautions that information giving and consultation are often presented as participation, leading to disillusionment among community interests. Levels of participation imply coherence, when most development organizations operate simultaneously in a wide range of participatory modes (Mosse, 1996). One level of the continuum is not necessarily better than any other as different levels are appropriate at different times and contexts to meet the expectations and interests of different stakeholders (Wilcox, 1994).

### **2.7.1.2 Participation as Involvement in the Development Planning and Process**

A more radical interpretation of popular participation, as distinct from involvement, is found in the literature on empowerment. In some experiences, involvement is seen as a result of training or

education or, as in apartheid South Africa, the creation of a climate susceptible to community development. Once the correct climate is created, it is argued, people will realize the benefits of involvement. In Thailand, for instance, at village meetings, selection criteria were explained and discussed with people interested in becoming part of the project, and field staff of an NGO provided coordination, management and technical services (Hafner, 1987:89-90). Villagers were thus selected to become involved in a project identified by an NGO.

The study on the participation of rural folk in rural development planning is particularly pertinent considering the massive financial commitments made by many developing countries to ensure parity in development initiatives in both rural and urban areas. In most African countries there can be seen a lopsided development, whereby urban areas are, in most cases, more highly developed than their rural counterparts. It is the belief of the researcher that the participation of rural community dwellers in rural development planning can encourage sustainable developmental projects.

### **2.7.2 Barriers to Effective Participation in the Development Process**

Many factors have been identified as obstacles to effective participation in development programmes. Oakley (1991) discusses three major obstacles to people's participation which are: (a) structural, (b) administrative and (c) social barriers. Structural obstacles form part of the complex and centralized organizational systems that control decision-making, resource allocation and information, and are not oriented towards peoples' participation. This is a typical example of a "top down" development approach. Administrative obstacles relate to bureaucratic procedures

operated by a set of guidelines and adopt a blue print approach, providing little space for people to make their own decisions or control their own development processes. The social impediments include the mentality of dependence, culture of silence, domination of the local elite, gender inequality, low levels of education and of exposure to non-local information. Dale (2004) identifies other barriers such as power structures within local communities, rigid professional attitudes among programme and project staff, little awareness and an emphasis on qualitative achievements of participation.

## **2.8 THE CONCEPT OF GENDER-BASED PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

As stated above, community participation can act as a catalyst to sustainable development planning and policies. This is largely because participation helps people to interact and share knowledge and experiences related to different problems and challenges encountered. Thus, sustainable solutions that meet the needs of the individual, the community and the environment can be developed through community participation and discussion (Chambers 1992).

Efforts to promote participation in projects, programs and policy consultation would appear to offer the prospect of giving everyone who has a stake a voice and a choice. But community-driven development, participatory planning and other fine-sounding initiatives that make claims of “full participation” and “empowerment” can turn out to be driven by particular gendered interests, leaving the least powerful without a voice or much in the way of choice. Bringing a gender perspective to bear on the practice of participation in development may assist in identifying strategies for amplifying voice and access to decision making of those who tend to be marginalized

or excluded by mainstream development initiatives.

The government of the Republic of Tanzania made a commitment, along with other United Nations member states, pursuant to signing the Beijing Platform for Action (UN, 1995), which requires all UN member states

to generate (through census, research, surveys, etc.), disseminate and use gender-disaggregated data in policy, planning and programming so that gender needs and interests of both men and women are taken into account, to ensure equal opportunities and access to decision-making, to economic resources (land, credit, etc.) and social services (e.g., education, health, etc.).

This is notwithstanding the government initiatives which span, at regional level, Tanzania's signing and/or ratification of the following instruments:

- African Union Charter and its Protocol on Human and Peoples' Rights;
- Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003);
- Southern African Development Community (SADC) Gender Declaration (1997) and its Addendum on the Prevention of Violence against Women and Children of Southern Africa (1998); and
- SADC Protocol on Gender and Development (2008).

The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania guarantees equality between men and women and supports their full participation in social, economic and political life. Key components of the policy framework include:

- The Tanzanian Development Vision 2025;
- National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty 2005-2010 (MKUKUTA);
- National Women and Gender Development Policy 2000; and
- The associated National Strategy for Gender Development (NSGD) 2005.

By encouraging community participation, the government has, through TASAF, created participatory spaces for women to engage in decision making and planning. Village meetings and the CMC (which comprises 50% women) give chances for women's voices to be heard. However, despite all the efforts made to promote women's participation, they were far more visible in doing project activities rather than attending village meetings or participating in problem solving discussions. If this is not taken care of, women's needs originally envisaged at the initiation of the project may not be realized in the long run.

In Tanzania, women form the majority of the population. The 2002 population census shows that women form 52% of the population (2002). Therefore, the non-existent or limited participation of women in decision making and planning will, undoubtedly, lead to a failure to fulfill the majority of their needs. Bearing in mind that the care industry mainly comprises women, their needs and interests therefore represent the majority needs. In the researcher's personal experience, women perform almost all domestic activities in the household. Such activities include taking care of children, the sick, elderly, handicapped people and fetching water. For these reasons, women's needs and interests markedly differ from the needs and interests of men. It therefore follows that the absence of women's participation at meetings could result in their needs not being addressed

in discussions and planning.

Therefore, women's relative silence in development projects requires effective measures to ensure their voices are heard. The problem remains and no study has been put forth to find out why women's participation in Tanzania is so low. Part of this research aims to find out why women's participation is remains low despite initial planning efforts to ensure women's participation. The findings will help the development actors in the country to look for proper ways to enable effective participation of women in project implementation. The researcher hopes to contribute knowledge and understanding related to the factors affecting the rural community members' participation, of which women are the majority, in project planning and implementation.

### **2.8.1 Gender as Analytical Concept in Planning**

Gender is among the important analytical concepts that can be used to analyze factors affecting women's participation in project planning and implementation in rural Tanzania. In her work, Pearson (1992) argues that gender, as an analytical concept, helps to analyze social relations and organizations in a particular social context. For such reasons, development planners and policy makers can understand the effects of gender issues on development activities, leading to the identification of more appropriate ways to deal with those issues in order to achieve successful development planning and implementation. She explains that gender relations describe social responsibilities and expectations among members of the society, hence the gendered division of labor, power relations and people's behavior are determined with consideration to gender.

She added that gender roles in particular societies determine accessibility and distribution of

resources and opportunities among community members, hence, if not taken into consideration, development projects can favor one group over another (male or female groups) and this can lead to a failure to achieve the expected goals.

The understanding of gender as an analytical concept in relation to Pearson's ideas will help in the analysis of this research by considering the effects of social organizations among peoples in Tanzania and ultimately, their influence on women's participation in project planning and implementation. This will be based on gender power relations, gender roles and people's expectations of women in terms of their behavior and contributions to and/or role in the family and community.

### **2.8.2 Process in Gender Development Planning**

Gender planning is based on the concept that the needs of men and women are influenced by gender roles within a particular society. Consequently, planning and identification of development programs within communities should consider gender in order to understand different social needs among community members. These could be practical or strategic gender need as Molyneux (1985 as cited in Moser, 1989:5) explains:

Strategic gender needs are those needs which are formulated from the analysis of women's subordination to men, such as abolition of the sexual division of labour, the removal of institutionalized forms of discrimination, adoption of adequate measures against male violence and control over women and so forth; while practical gender needs are those needs which are formulated from the concrete conditions women experience, in their engendered position

within the sexual division of labour including requirements of housing and basic needs like food, shelter and water, income-earning activities, and so forth.

Gender planning in this paper will show the importance of women's participation in project planning to keep in mind that men cannot always represent women's views in needs identification. Moreover, gender planning as a concept can help to examine the ways in which strategic and practical gender needs can influence or discourage women's participation in project planning and implementation. For instance, construction of a maternity ward could encourage women's participation in project activities because, after completion of the project, women will have a direct benefit from it. On the other hand, construction of a playground could discourage women's participation because, in many cases, rural women in Tanzania have no time to engage in games due to their workload. Thus a playground has either a negative or no direct benefit which can demotivate their participation.

### **2.8.3 Intersectionality**

Intersectionality is a useful concept that can be used to analyze women's participation. Intersectionality, as an analytical tool, stresses that the system of gender, social class, sex, ethnicity, race, nationality and age are intertwined to influence social relations and organizations in a given society. These categories have different priorities and may change according to time and space (Yuval-Davis 2006).

In this study, intersectionality will help provide understanding into the varied identities that shape and determine women's behavior as well as the opportunities that influence their participation in

project activities, particularly in the case of Tanzania. For example, a woman who knows how to read and write would stand a chance of being elected a member of the CMC in the community projects. Unfortunately, at the same time, being a wife and mother can hinder a woman's freedom to participate in project activities. In another case, a young unmarried woman who has no children could have free time to participate in project activities, but normative behavior that defines young unmarried women as inexperienced in social life, could hinder her chances of contributing in decision making or to being elected to the CMC. Thus, intersectionality should help to examine existing social identities like gender, marital status, education and others as they intersect and contribute to inclusion or exclusion of women in project activities.

Figure 2 shows Tanzanian women meeting on community development



**Figure 2: Women participating in a community meeting**

## **2.9 STRUCTURAL ADJUSTMENT PROGRAMME OF THE WORLD BANK: THE CASE OF TANZANIA**

The Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was introduced for the purpose of balancing the economies of developing countries in relation to government expenditure and people's needs. According to neo-liberal policies, the government monopoly of trade activities and the provision of subsidies in agriculture and other social services consume much of government expenditure and hinder the effective distribution of resources among community members. This, in turn, decreases economic growth and negatively affects people's well-being and production.

Since the 1980s, developing countries were encouraged to adopt structural adjustment programs in order to boost their economy and people's well-being through trade liberalization, cost sharing, removal of subsidies, privatization amongst others. The World Bank and the International

Monetary Fund adopted SAP policies and made them obligatory conditions for developing countries interested in accessing loans and grants to boost economic growth (Elson, 1994:34; Meertens, 2000).

Evidence from the literature shows that SAP policies are not positive for poor people in developing countries because of the increase in life expenses caused by price fluctuation in the global market and the government's failure to pay for social and basic services like water, health and education and others that lead to hardships and worsened living conditions. In order to fulfill family needs, men and women have to engage in extra work, especially in the informal sector, in order to increase family income. Social protection burdens have moved from the state to the household level where women are responsible for family care (Sparr, 1994).

A look at the effects of the structural adjustment policies will help provide understanding into women's experiences in the process of economic reform and how those experiences have influenced their participation in project activities. Table 7 provides the Tanzanian experience of a structural adjustment programme (SAP) of the World Bank.

**Table 6: Tanzanian Experience of a Structural Adjustment Programme**

1	Tanzania, for a long time, was reluctant to carry out structural adjustment under the stringent conditions of the IMF and the World Bank, not only out of nationalist pride but it has often been argued that those conditions do not take into account country-specific peculiarities of economic development and the management of the national economies.
2	The biggest argument has been that the rapidity and magnitude of the reforms produced very serious and perverse effects on the populations of the respective countries. Such effects include loss of jobs and increasing unemployment, decrease in real wages, increased pauperization and the marginalization of significant segments of the population from the national economy.
3	It has been also argued that structural adjustment as a short-term measure does not produce the intended impact of stimulating economic growth, especially in the underdeveloped countries like Tanzania, as most of the economic distortions symbolize the low-level development of markets, poor socio-economic infrastructures and often limited national skills in entrepreneurship and economic management. What is therefore required is not short-term adjustment but long-term economic development programmes which can address all these shortfalls and spearhead economic growth.
4	It is not easy to establish if Tanzania would have succumbed to the IMF/World Bank-sponsored structural adjustment programmes if it had not been facing a serious economic crisis, which had set in at the end of the 1970s. By the mid-1980s, the crisis threatened to cause a complete collapse of the socio-economic infrastructure which had been the pride of Tanzania in the post-independence days.
5	On the other hand, the acceptance of the structural adjustment programme of the IMF/World Bank also meant the abandonment of the cherished Ujamaa (socialist) policy, the grand vision on which the whole political structure had modeled itself.
6	By 1985, Tanzania had to accept the terms and conditions of the IMF and the World Bank. Two Structural Adjustment Programmes were designed and implemented between 1986 and 1992.

	<p>They had the following elements:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Economic liberalization which embraces free trade and divestiture of state ownership and control of public enterprises;</li> <li>• Promotion of private sector investment by both local and foreign entrepreneurs;</li> <li>• Review of financial regulations and institutions;</li> <li>• Civil service reforms;</li> <li>• Political liberalization i.e. the introduction of multi-partism in order to increase greater democratic participation and transparency.</li> </ul>
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(Source: Tonya S.S. Socio Economic Effects on Structural Adjustment in Tanzania. International Industrial Relations Association (IIRA) 2<sup>nd</sup> African Regional Congress Harare 29-31 October 1997)

## **2.10 DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA**

Beginning in 1986, the Government of Tanzania embarked on an adjustment program to dismantle the socialist (Ujamaa) economic controls and encourage more active participation of the private sector in the economy. Gibbon (1993) said that the program included a comprehensive package of policies which reduced the budget deficit and improved monetary control, substantially depreciated the overvalued exchange rate, liberalized the trade regime, removed most price controls, eased restrictions on the marketing of food crops, freed interest rates, and initiated a restructuring of the financial sector. According to Sanyal (1988), GDP per capita of Tanzania grew more than 40% between 1998 and 2007. In May 2009, the International Monetary Fund approved an Exogenous Shock Facility (ESF) for Tanzania to help the country cope with the global economic crisis.

According to Bagachwa (1994), Tanzania is also engaged in a Policy Support Instrument (PSI) with the International Monetary Fund, which commenced in February 2007 after Tanzania

completed its second 3-year Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF), the first having been completed in August 2003. He pointed out that the PRGF was the successor program to the Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility (ESAF), which Tanzania also participated in from 1996 to 1999. The IMF's PSI program provides policy support and signaling to participating low-income countries and is intended for countries that have usually achieved a reasonable growth performance, low underlying inflation, an adequate level of official international reserves, and have begun to establish external and net domestic debt sustainability (Temu, 2000).

Wangwe (1997) explained that Tanzania also embarked on a major restructuring of state-owned enterprises. The program has so far divested 335 out of some 425 parastatal entities. Overall, real economic growth has averaged about 4% a year, much better than the previous 20 years, but not enough to improve the lives of average Tanzanians. Wangwe (1997) points out that the economy remains overwhelmingly donor-dependent. Moreover, Tanzania has an external debt of \$7.9 billion. The servicing of this debt absorbs about 40% of total government expenditure. Tanzania has qualified for debt relief under the enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative. Debts worth over \$6 billion were cancelled following implementation of the Paris Club 7 Agreement.

This research study argues that the NGOs/donor aided programs do reduce some of the worst forms of poverty. A modest achievement can be very significant for poor people. Globally, development assistance has increased but lacks the ability to reach out to the poor in a sustainable way. Concerns have been voiced about the impact of donor funding to NGOs. Their funding has increased

enormously, their visibility with the general public has never been higher yet their legitimacy and their relationship with funding agencies is in question. There is increasing debate that NGOs have become implementers of donor policies and that their relationship with donors compromises the work of Civil Society Organizations (Gilles et al, 2006). An NGO is only accountable to its particular funding organizations or its members (Steinberg, 2003). Schneider (1985 quoted in Fowler, & James, 1994) says that “NGOs play a unique and largely a successful role in assisting and strengthening local groups and associations”.

According to Mdoe and Mishili (2002), a chart of the trends of gross domestic product of Tanzania at market prices, estimated by the International Monetary Fund with figures in millions of Tanzanian Shillings, shows that the Tanzanian economy depends heavily on agriculture, which accounts for more than 25% of GDP, provides 85% of exports and employs 80% of the work force. They report that the topography and climatic conditions, however, limit cultivated crops to only 4% of the land area. Cash crops, including coffee (its largest export), tea, cotton, cashews, sisal, cloves and pyrethrum, account for the vast majority of export earnings. The volume of all major crops, both cash and goods, which have been marketed through official channels, has increased over the past few years, but large amounts of produce never reach the market. Poor pricing and unreliable cash flow to farmers continue to frustrate the agricultural sector.

According to the Economic and Social Research Foundation (ESRF) (2003), several studies have justified the need to pay attention to gender dimensions in rural livelihoods as an entry point to address gender differentiated opportunities in developments towards alleviating poverty. Poverty

is universally considered to be unacceptable. It represents a major failure of development. Despite improvements in economic growth worldwide, the number of people living in absolute poverty has increased in developing and developed regions alike (Kabeer, 1994). In Tanzania, about 50 per cent of the population lives below the *basic needs* poverty line (Tanzania, 2000; World Bank, 2000). Like most other developing countries, Tanzanian poverty is concentrated in rural areas. The Human Resource Development Survey (HRDS) data (World Bank, 2000) shows that the incidence of poverty is twice as high in rural areas as in urban areas. Furthermore, the depth and severity of poverty are around three times as great in rural areas compared to urban areas. Poverty is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon and its causes are also complex, and vary from one culture to another. It is also a fact that poverty has a decisive gender bias against women. In general, the incidence of poverty is much higher in female-headed than male-headed households (Todaro, 1992; FSG/SUA, 1992).

Poverty has an overall destabilizing effect; it brings changes in the reproductive and productive roles of women and men. Economic crisis, structural adjustment, commoditization and the development of cash economies are facets of the global crisis impoverishing homes (Mosse, 1993). Adjustments usually call for cuts in consumption and government spending, particularly on imports and social services, but little or no effort is made to safeguard the interests of the very poor.

Successive administrations in Tanzania have prioritized infrastructural and socio-economic development in rural areas. In all fairness, some of the development programmes initiated in

Tanzania have yielded some achievements. It can be said that there has been marked improvement in the quality of life of people living in urban areas in terms of the standard of living, education, health, and transportation. The development of Tanzania is a typical example of a lopsided development process because, while urban areas have seen massive developmental projects, most of these accomplishments have been achieved at the expense of the rural population. Decisions regarding development are taken at the national level and implemented at the local level.

Todaro (1992) contends that, for the developmental aspirations of any country to be actualized, the process of planning must incorporate individuals who will, directly or indirectly, be affected by such actions. Participation of rural community members is critical in facilitating rural development. The involvement of the rural population and especially its community leaders must be sought in areas of needs identification and also the possible ways of addressing such needs. Rural community leaders represent the mouth-pieces of their people and can stimulate participation of community members when it comes to actual implementation of development projects. In the same treatise, Todaro (1992) says that there are many instances where developmental projects in some rural areas in Tanzania could not be effectively sustained because the beneficiaries were not consulted in terms of their needs.

Community leaders constitute an important avenue for effective planning and sustainable community projects. As has been noted by Addae (2010:1), the ability of a group to meet its objectives and satisfy the needs of its members depends, to a large extent, on a few individuals who direct and coordinate the activities of the group. Rural community members have a great deal

of respect for their leaders and will as such, be instrumental to the success of effective development planning, and ultimately successful community projects. Since they serve as representatives of rural communities, they are informed about the needs of their people, and are able to represent them sufficiently. In the process of carrying out this study, many questions about the involvement of rural community members/beneficiaries in development planning will be answered and the identified gaps will be addressed by the researcher's recommendations.

Successive governments in Tanzania have prioritized infrastructural and socio-economic development in rural areas. It is fair to note that some of the development programmes initiated in the country have yielded some successes. It can be said that there has been marked improvement in the quality of life of people living in the urban areas in terms of standard of living, education, health and transportation. All this success has, however, caused the neglect of the rural population.

For the developmental aspirations of any country to be actualized, the process of planning must incorporate the individuals who will directly or indirectly be affected by such actions.

### **2.10.1 Rural development in Tanzania**

The development of Tanzania will happen when there are practical programmes and workable partnerships with the developed economies. Since Tanzania is rich in agricultural, mineral and other raw materials, this comparative advantage must be used to develop the country's economies and to benefit people, particularly those live and work in the rural areas. The UNDP/UNICEF 2002

takes stock of the implementation status of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) around the world. The MDGs are the first universal time-bound benchmarks against which to hold governments accountable. For Tanzania, which is of the world's poorest countries, the picture is bleak and 2015 is beginning to look more and more like a mirage.

Achieving MDGs in Tanzania could bring about dramatic changes to the lives of millions of people now living below the poverty line, and would be a big step in the country's strategy for total poverty eradication as envisioned in its Vision 2025 United Republic of Tanzania 2006. In 2008, Tanzania received the world's largest Millennium Challenge Compact grant worth \$698 million. The government used fiscal stimulus and loosened monetary policy to ease the impact of the global recession (CIA Fact Book, 2012).

Tanzania's ability to achieve its set goals and to satisfy the needs of its citizens depends, to a large extent, on the effectiveness of its plans. Effective plans have a tendency to identify the various processes involved in the realization of national goals, as well as the time frame for executing the tasks, and the persons responsible. Planning is considered an extremely vital factor in the process of achieving organizational goals. Good plans tend to yield good and expected results, whereas poor plans yield negative results, which adversely impact the nation as a whole. A well-articulated needs analysis should be considered a key ingredient in setting developmental goals for Tanzania. If the said analysis is done at arm's length and/or based on assumptions, it is likely that it will end up giving focus to issues that are not paramount for the recipients.

It is evident from the foregoing discussions that Tanzania has, since independence, endeavored to

achieve a sustained improvement in the quality of life of its citizens. Succeeding Presidents and their administrations have established many institutions, formulated and implemented countless policies and strategies to bring about the desired results.

Tanzania must gauge her development against the terms of development that the United Nations (UN) has spelt out in the universal development goals that must be achieved by all member nations. These goals, known as the MDGs, highlight eight international goals that all 193 UN member states, as well as at least 23 international organizations have, by consensus agreed to achieve by 2015. The Millennium Project was commissioned by the UN Secretary-General in 2002 to develop a concrete action plan for the world to achieve the MDGs and to reverse the grinding poverty, hunger and disease affecting billions of people. The goals seek to eradicate poverty, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV and AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability, and develop a global partnership for development. These goals essentially serve as the international criteria for development, and for any country to claim to be developed, it must have achieved all the set goals by 2015 according to MDGs criteria.

The World Bank (2003) highlighted the fact that the impact of MDGs to development in Tanzania will depend on how the planning process at the country level has been carried out. The important aspect still remains with the question of the level of participation of community members in identifying their community development needs. The distribution of project support will always comply with the identified development needs, in this case, any oversight taking place during a

project's identification stage will limit its achievement of sustainable development.

In this study, the researcher is looking critically at the influence of donors' espoused development goals for Tanzania, as well as policies set out for their achievement in order to assess their suitability in the Tanzanian context. The researcher raises the question whether the donors, by their policies, encourage or discourage the community members' participation in their funded projects. It has been argued that donor aid has led to dependence rather than development. Donors have done all their planning for Tanzania largely from remote distances without involving local communities. It is no wonder that the more aid has been poured into Tanzania, the lower the standard of living achieved. It is no secret either, that, with regard to Tanzania, foreign aid has, over the years, endorsed ill-advised policies and sustained corrupt and bloated state bureaucracies. Has Western Aid, in the case of Tanzania, been an impediment rather than a catalyst for development?

It is the researcher's submission that, in the absence of participation by rural community members in the planning phase, the delivery of policies and the implementation thereof are unlikely to promote development in Tanzania.

### **2.10.2 Economic Analysis**

Since early 2007, macroeconomic management has been guided by the IMF's Policy Support Instrument (PSI). The current PSI, approved in June 2010, aims to maintain macroeconomic stability and support accelerated growth in line with the national development strategy. GDP growth was driven by private consumption (growing population), exports (due to favorable gold

prices) and gross fixed capital (mainly public investment). Private investment is expected to lead growth in the short and medium term. In terms of dynamic sectors, tourism and mining continue to experience high growth rates even if agriculture remains the largest sector.

Tanzania faces major socio-economic and political challenges in accelerating growth, reducing poverty, combating corruption, building up its human resources, and creating an environment that encourages the development of all sectors of the economy for balanced growth. Countries are no longer economically self-sufficient. All must engage in international economic transactions, including trade in goods, services and financial resources. Rich or poor, capitalist or socialist, all nations are linked in a global economic web. In this global economy, no single nation currently can determine its domestic economic policies without considering international trends. Economic growth is crucial to the creation of opportunities in Tanzania. Growth in gross domestic product (GDP) is positively correlated with various dimensions of poverty reduction.

Macro-economic stability, adequate structural and regulatory policies, and good management of public expenditures all contribute to creating a sound basis for private investment which, in turn, can spur the creation of gainful and productive employment. Growth alone is not enough. However, the poor and vulnerable may not be able to benefit. For example, they may lack the good health and the skills required to find gainful employment, the areas in which they live may be cut off because of poor infrastructure, or there may be structural weaknesses in asset distribution.

Tanzania is a resource-rich country. The real GDP has recorded an average growth rate of 6.9% over the period of 2001 to 2011. Growth slowed down in 2009 to 6.0%, lower than 7.4% recorded

in 2008, on account of the negative impacts of the global financial and economic crisis. However, the growth in real GDP bounced back to 7.0% in 2010 and slowed down again in 2011 to 6.4 % following the impact of erratic power supply which affected particularly manufacturing and trade sub-sectors as well as the spillover of the Euro Zone debt crisis. The economy is, however, expected to pick up in the medium term following government initiatives to stabilize power supply and implement development projects as outlined in the five year development plan of Tanzania.

The main drivers of Tanzania's rapid economic growth continue to be a small number of fast growing, capital intensive sectors, particularly the communications, financial services, construction, manufacturing and retail trade sectors. The service sector, driven by the expansion of transport, communications, retail trade and financial services, recorded the highest rate of annual growth in 2012, at 8.0%. By contrast, labor intensive sectors, particularly the agricultural sector, in which approximately 80% of households are primarily engaged, recorded an average annual growth rate of only 4.2%. Similar trends, with higher rates of growth recorded by the less labor intensive sectors, were observed across the board during the first two quarters of 2013.

Over the past decade, Tanzania's economy has become significantly open. The trade-to-GDP ratio has increased from 13.5% in 2000 to more than 30% in 2011, the highest rate among the East African Community countries, with the value of Tanzania's merchandise exports multiplying by a factor of five over this period. The largest contributors to the export basket continue to be primary commodities, particularly gold, coffee, tea, cashew nuts and cotton. At the same time, the volume of manufactured exports has surged in recent years, with the lion's share of these exports going to

markets within the region.

The inflation rate continued to decline in 2013, reaching 6.3% by October 2013. At the end of 2011, the inflation rate had reached almost 20%. This steady and significant decline has been the result of a combination of the implementation of stricter monetary policy and a decline in food and energy prices. As a result, Tanzania's rate of inflation is now roughly equivalent to that of neighboring Uganda and Kenya. The decline has also contributed to the stabilization of the real exchange rate, which appreciated by almost 20% in 2011/12 as the result of the large inflation differential between Tanzania and its trade partners. This stabilization of the real exchange rate also has positive implications for exporters.

Tanzania's notable economic expansion in recent years has been facilitated by open-market policies related to global commerce. The financial sector and the investment framework are relatively well developed for the region. Nevertheless, Tanzania appears to lack any strong commitment to the further institutional reforms that are essential to the development of a strong private sector. Private property rights are weakly protected and poorly defined, deterring sustainable investment.

Figure 3 shows Tanzania with two capital cities: One Commercial Capital – Dar es Salaam and Political Capital Dodoma.



**Figure 3: Capital Cities of Tanzania**  
 (Source: Google maps 2014)

According to National Bureau of statistics, NBS 2012 indicates that the economy is heavily dependent on agriculture which accounts for 50% of GDP and provides 85% of exports and 80% of employment. Agricultural products are primarily coffee, cotton, tea, cashew nuts, sisal, and tobacco. Industry accounts for some 15% of the GDP, and is mainly limited to processing agricultural products and light consumer goods. The mining sector has great potential, but has yet to be fully developed. Tourism has tremendous potential and has become one of Tanzania’s most dynamic sectors, and has shown significant growth in recent years. The service and informal sectors are also growing rapidly and are increasingly becoming important sources of employment.

Figure 4 shows historical gross domestic product (GDP).



**Figure 4: Historical Gross Domestic Product (GDP)**  
 (Source: URT: Ministry of Energy and Minerals Power System Master Plan 2013)

URT (2011) argues that the current Government has maintained a strong focus and commitment to improving fiscal performance and instituting structural reforms to underpin both strong growth and poverty alleviation. These reforms have focused on increasing allocations to social/priority sectors through:

- Building administrative capacity for improving development management;
- Maintaining a stable fiscal position and using public resources more efficiently;
- Promoting the private sector by deregulating investments and divesting parastatals;
- Providing greater support for primary education and basic health care, and reducing allocations for low priority activities;
- Supporting the development of basic infrastructure, especially to give impetus for rural agricultural development; and
- Restructuring the financial sector to respond to the needs of the private sector.

According to the World Bank (2010), Tanzania has received considerable support for its economic, institutional strengthening, and poverty alleviation programmes from the international donor community which is particularly active in the social sectors, public sector capacity building and civil service reform and governance issues. Most significantly, in April 2000, IDA and the IMF reviewed Tanzania's Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) and approved its eligibility for interim debt relief under the HIPC initiative framework. In November 2001, Tanzania reached the HIPC completion point – and became the fourth country to do so, following Bolivia, Mozambique and Uganda.

According to the Bank of Tanzania (2012) Report, Tanzania's external debt stood at around US\$7 billion. As a result of the HIPC initiative, the net present value of Tanzania's external debt has been reduced by some 54%, and debt service payments would be reduced by an average of 47% over time. Looking further at the HIPC benefits, prior to the initiative, about 20% of government revenue was spent in paying external debt while, after the Initiative, less than 8% of revenue would be spent on debt service during 2010. Under the HIPC, resources saved from debt service are allocated to key poverty alleviation programmes, including education, health and infrastructure, as outlined in Tanzania's Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. Notwithstanding Tanzania's positive economic performance under the 3rd Phase Government, a number of challenges remain.

Economic growth needs to accelerate beyond 6% p.a. to have any significant impact on poverty reduction – unemployment remains high, lack of adequate infrastructure continues to hamper growth, institutional capacity needs strengthening, and a constant environmental policy is needed

to encourage investors. The Economist Intelligence Unit (2013) pointed out that a major concern for donors in Tanzania, as elsewhere in the developing world, is the issue of accountability, transparency and institutional capacity to manage public services. Tanzania, together with the international community, is addressing these issues head on. Significant programmes are under way to turn the tide on corruption in Tanzania. Nevertheless, the international community also needs to acknowledge that culture, even one of impunity, does not change overnight. The on-going, nation-wide public sector reform process, together with poverty alleviation programmes to enhance the role of the public sector in Tanzania, provide a strong basis for assuming that Tanzania will be successful. This outlook is firmly underpinned by Tanzania's long-standing political stability and democratic traditions.

Bot (2010) stipulates that the Tanzanian economy is still heavily dependent on agriculture. Approximately 45.7% of the GDP and 76.5% of employment is generated from this sector. A combination of dependence on primary commodity exports, exposure to drought and weak economic management, meant that the Tanzanian economy is vulnerable to exogenous economic shocks. However, this has been mitigated in recent years by a steadily diversified export base and prudent macroeconomic management. Growth in the agricultural sector continues to decline and it is well understood that the rate of growth for this sector must improve if the rate of poverty is to be reduced. The overall assessment for 2010 showed continued economic stability, despite a severe drought, electricity shortage caused by adverse weather conditions and increased oil prices.

The government is committed to continuing with its pursuit of a prudent fiscal policy that focuses

on stronger expenditure management, improved tax administration, and the elimination of taxes that hinder private sector growth. The budget deficit to the GDP ratio was estimated at 11.5% (2009) but reduced to 5.5% after grants. Growth is grounded in solid macro-economic management. The transformation of Tanzania from a socialist to a market-oriented economy is well advanced, including the liberalization of prices and markets, the divestiture of government interests in commercial activities and the increased participation of the private sector in utilities, and improvements in the business environment. Grounded in sustained macro-economic stability, government is now targeting a further acceleration of economic growth through scaled up investments in infrastructure and continued improvements in the business environment.

Since the mid-90s, Tanzania has successfully pursued macro-economic stability through a combination of prudent fiscal and monetary policies, supported by policy lending by the World Bank and 13 other Development Partners in a series of Poverty Reduction Growth Facilities (PRGFs). International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2013) argues that the domestic savings increased to almost 10% of the GDP compared to -5% of the GDP in early 2012, real interest rate on savings became positive, and international reserves increased to about five months of import coverage. Use of the cash budget and commitment control system has buttressed achievement of fiscal balance and aggregate fiscal discipline. Revenue performance has steadily improved, and now stands at about 14% of the GDP. Also, Tanzania received HIPC debt relief in 2001; and the recent debt sustainability analysis shows the country's debt burden to be within the indicative thresholds (Debt service is 7% of exports, while Net Present Value -NPV of external debt is 20% of the GDP and 120% of exports).

However, EAC 2011 underscores the fact that despite the impressive achievement in macroeconomic aggregates, progress in poverty reduction was very slow compared to the efforts invested in improving the macro economy. Tanzania subscribes fully to the global efforts of eradicating poverty and alleviating the social conditions of the poor in terms of health, education, good governance, gender balance, environmental preservation and other aspects. Recent reforms have helped in increasing private-sector growth and investment, and the government has increased spending on agriculture to 7% of its budget. Continued donor assistance and solid macroeconomic policies supported a positive growth rate, despite the world recession.

### **2.10.3 Planning projection in Tanzania**

Planning (also called forethought) is the process of thinking about and organizing the activities required to achieve a desired goal in any country (World Bank 2003). Planning involves the creation and maintenance of a plan. As such, planning is a fundamental property of intelligent behavior. This thought process is essential to the creation and refinement of a plan, or integration of it with other plans, that is, it combines forecasting of developments with the preparation of scenarios of how to react to them. Planning increases the efficiency of a country. It reduces the risks involved in modern government activities. It facilitates the available time and resources. The concept of planning is to identify what the country wants to do by using the four questions which are: Where are we today in terms of our development or strategy planning? Where are we going? Where do we want to go? How are we going to get there?

After independence many developing countries attempted to develop their communities by

embarking, first upon large scale industrialization programmes (Amedzro 2005:38). This was in response to the dire need to make basic amenities and facilities accessible to all their people. Amedzro notes that “one would have thought that the under-development inherited by developing countries would have been solved sooner or later due to the initial enthusiasm for development in all fields of activity; that a wider support for these programs would follow, especially in rural areas” (203-246). Tanzania, which is the focus of this study, is one such country that initially exhibited profound commitment to enhance her development. According to Kulaba (1989), significant measures have been taken to liberalize the Tanzanian economy along market lines and encourage both foreign and domestic private investment.

Before independence, the administration of the provinces/regions in Tanganyika was under “Native Authorities”. Immediately after independence, the Tanganyika government, under Mwalimu Nyerere, declared three development challenges, namely, poverty, disease and ignorance. There was a need for an effective planning system, which would allow the newly-independent nation to address these problems. As the majority of the people of Tanganyika resided in rural areas where land was the main source of income and the basis of their livelihood, the government thought it was necessary to establish a firm system of managing it well, which resulted in the nationalization of all the land.

The government also saw the necessity of having centralized planning and administration which required the provincial administrators to be appointed to work under the Area Commissioners. The duties and responsibilities of the Area Commissioners, who were politically appointed, were

stipulated in the “Regions and Regional Commissioners Act of 1962”. In 1963, the role and responsibilities of the traditional chiefs in administering local affairs was abolished. The traditional chiefs were replaced by the central government appointees. Around the same time, development committees were created at regional, district and village levels.

Using Tanganyika and donor resources, the Development Plan for Tanganyika 1961/62-1963/64 aimed at creating an enabling environment for rural development that would fight these problems. According to the Government of Tanganyika (1964), the country saw rapid economic and infrastructural growth since its independence in 1961. This massive growth was largely attributed to the implementation of several national development plans. In order to solve the persistent severe economic crisis, which had been confronting Tanzania since the late 1970s, Tanzania signed an agreement with the World Bank and the IMF in 1986. The various plans included the Economic Recovery Program One (ERP I) in 1986, Economic Recovery Program ERP II, Economic and Social Action Plan (ESAP) and the Priority Social Action Plan (PSAP) in 1989.

The thrust of Tanzania’s development agenda since independence has been on economic growth and poverty reduction; the prime objective being to ensure that the majority of Tanzanians enjoy the benefits of development. In an effort to spearhead the pace of achieving this thrust, Tanzania Mainland had a tradition of formulating and implementing medium and long-term development plans since it attained independence. The first was a three-year Development Plan, adopted for the period 1961 to 1964, within the context of fighting illiteracy, poverty and poor health.

In 1964, based on the experience of the three-year plan, and aiming to entrench a people-centered

development on a wider and longer term basis, a 20-year Long-Term Perspective Plan was adopted (for the period from 1964 to 1983). This Plan was to be executed through three 5 Year Development Plans, in order to ensure continuity and coherence, starting with the 1964-1969 Plan. The same plan was to be revised in 1967 when the Arusha Declaration was adopted. The Arusha Declaration coherently articulated the ideological and developmental vision for the country and publicized the subsequent plans. The Second Plan ran over 1969 to 1974.

Three major problems emerged during the period 1961-1971, due to the organizational structure that Tanzania had inherited at independence. These problems were as follows:

- Firstly, the lack of coordination between the four organizational systems, namely, the ministries, the local government, the then only political party, TANU, and the planning structure. Because of the overriding role in the development process of Tanzania played by the latter two systems (especially by the party), the ministries and the local governments were frequently confronted with policies and plans that could not be realistically implemented for lack of manpower, funds, equipment, organization and decision-making powers.
- Secondly, the lack of coordination within individual systems, especially those responsible for government administration and planning was a critical factor. Because of the more or less autonomous conduct of ministries responsible for the various economic and social sectors, three minor problems were created. One was that it was difficult to plan and implement projects which involved more than one ministry and so one found agricultural

projects without transport or marketing facilities, settlement schemes without extension staff or social services. In fact, there was very little coordination between different projects in the same area, that is to say, there was no regional integrated development planning. And also, because of the tendency to consider development in sectorial rather than in spatial terms, relatively little attention was given to regional differences in resource endowments and needs, resulting in imbalanced regional development and the accentuation of regional inequalities.

- Thirdly, Kamuzora (2002) urges that the powers of decision-making were over-centralized within political, planning and ministerial organizations. When the desire for national control and planning became prominent, especially after independence, the effects of over-centralization of power in ministerial headquarters in Dar es Salaam were the handicap of the planning and implementation of projects on the spot, and the alienation of the general public from the development process which resulted in The Third Plan, from 1975 to 1980, simply not being implemented.

In 1981, the Government prepared the Second Long-Term Perspective Plan (1981-2000) to be executed in four similar medium-term development plans. However, the Plans that were to operationalize the Long-Term Plan never took off. This is due to the economic crisis of unprecedented depth and intensity experienced during the mid-1970s, which emanated from drought and oil price shocks (URT 2012). Rather than putting in place a medium-term development plan to complete the Long-Term Perspective Plan (1964--1980) as was envisaged, the Government resorted to a short-term National Economic Survival Programme (NESP) (1981-

1982) as an emergency programme to contain the crisis. The one year deferral of the 1975-80 Plan and the abandonment of the three 5 Year Plans was blamed on the looming economic catastrophe. However, the problems persisted and the crisis intensified as a result of further oil price shocks, the war with Uganda and the prolonged adverse weather conditions.

From the mid-1980s, with support from its development partners, the government began to implement a series of three-year programmes, known as the Structural Adjustment Programme – SAP (URT, 2012).

The Villagization Policy took place as part of the third plan (1973-1982). According to a study done by Kwaako (2011) on long term effects of villagization in Tanzania, it is clear that there was a need to continue with part of the development planning system applied during the villagization era in Tanzania. He argues that during villagization in Tanzania, there was a Village Assembly, which comprised all adult residents in the village. The Assembly met once a year to discuss various aspects of their development and establish the priority policies, which should be implemented in the following financial year. This was done with the guidance of the Chairman and the CEO, who were elected by the Assembly. Each Village Council had five committees namely: Finance, Production, Education, Works and Defense.

Once a village was registered, it acquired a legal status, which enabled it to draw some resources such as loans necessary to implement its projects. It also enabled it to market its crops collectively. To a large extent, this enabled them to have a measure of control over the markets, particularly the pricing of their produce. Previously, there were Co-operatives which, to a large extent, had

dominated the crop marketing chain. However, following the establishment of the village councils, they were abolished and their role taken by the latter. It is worth noting here that, at that time, all the land was nationalized and the Village Council was empowered to allocate land among private cultivators.

The Village Council mobilized the local community to ensure that the provision and maintenance of the social infrastructure had its compliance and cooperation. Under these auspices, the villages were able to have control over the development planning from below. The plans, which were proposed at the village level, were forwarded to the district and regional administrators, where they were reviewed and implemented. There were about 4000 development managers in 1978 that were appointed and deployed to the registered villages. Their main responsibility was to assist the Village Councils to prepare the development plans.

The structure highlighted above did not last long because, in late 1980s, there was a shift towards a market economy in Tanzania. From 1986, the Government of Tanzania embarked on an adjustment programme to dismantle the socialist (*Ujamaa*) economic controls and encourage more active participation of the private sector in the economy. Gibbon (1993) said that the programme included a comprehensive package of policies, which reduced the budget deficit and improved monetary control, substantially depreciated the overvalued exchange rate, liberalized the trade regime, removed most price controls, eased restrictions on the marketing of food crops, freed interest rates, and initiated a restructuring of the financial sector.

#### **2.10.4 Factors affecting participation of women: Analytical frame**

According to the above discussed concepts and theories of participation, it has been argued that there are both pull and push factors that influence women's participation in project planning and implementation. Pull factors are those elements that enable or encourage women's participation while push factors are those elements that hinder women's participation. For instance, created and invited spaces like meetings, leadership positions and organization rules can provide opportunities for women's participation in development activities while power differences, on the other hand, can limit women's ability to participate in decision making and their attendance in project work.

Women's empowerment through the provision of skills, leadership positions and social interaction was expected to expand their ability to participate in different development programs and to influence positive social change in all spheres of influence. But at the same time, poverty, social cultural norms and values, lack of external support and willingness by women themselves to act upon available resources result in disempowerment and low participation. In addition, religion, culture and gender also intersect and influence women's participation. For instance, norms and values in religions and culture can hinder women's participation due to the emphasis on women's submissiveness and male dominance. Gender roles can also hinder or allow participation of women in project activities.

Gender planning can help project planners to introduce projects which can benefit both men and women, hence motivating women to participate in the implementation of those projects for the aim of fulfilling their needs. Moreover, gender planning can help increase understanding related to the

roles of men and women in a particular community. Hence, during the preparation of a work plan, proper strategies could be employed to ensure a balance of women for the purpose of creating participatory spaces for women's voices.

SAPs policies, on the one hand, have increased women's work loads and deprived women of chances to attend community/project activities. On the other hand, they serve as created spaces for developing countries to access funds which, it was hoped, would boost the economic growth and well-being of their people. Also cost sharing, as one of the SAP conditions, was meant to encourage community participation in development project implementation as a way which perpetuates community sharing of project costs with their governments. The tangible benefits of SAPs remain to be seen.

## **2.11 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

The literature review focused, in part, on the game theory, its application and relevance to the Tanzanian development landscape. There are different degrees, spaces, dimensions and levels of participation which are distinguished by researchers and agencies.

The current study sifts through discussions surrounding the social impediments to participatory development which include the mentality of dependence, culture of silence, domination of the local elite, gender inequality, low levels of education and of exposure to non- local information. It looks at views that highlight other barriers such as power structures within local communities, rigid professional attitudes among programme and project staff, little awareness and emphasis on qualitative achievements of participation.

Various development agencies, among them, the World Bank, have attempted to understand the rural communities and implement policies based on that understanding. Some of the factors taken into account are gender-based participation in development planning; participation as involvement as well as levels of participation in the development planning process. This has met with varying degrees of success with the Structural Adjustment Program being singled out for specific discussion.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This part of the study aims to explicate the qualitative and quantitative methods and procedures that were used to conduct the study. It presents the research design chosen which, the researcher believes, is appropriate to answer the research questions. The research design expounds on the unit of analysis, explains the purposive sampling characteristics, how and why certain settings were chosen, who was interviewed, what was observed and what documents were scrutinized. It presents the interview guide and the post-activity data management. It clarifies how the data analysis was carried out, and the way it was verified and presented.

The researcher used qualitative data collecting methods, involving semi-structured interviews, evaluation of documents and personal interpretations. The research design was chosen to serve as the methods and procedures for collecting primary and secondary data, from the rural communities. It determines the technique of analyzing this data. Research instruments, human participants, protocols and procedures are delineated and explained in detail.

#### **3.2 PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA**

Tanzania is comprised of the mainland, formerly known as Tanganyika and the island of Zanzibar. The study was conducted on the mainland, which is divided into 26 regions otherwise referred to as “*Mkoa*” in Swahili. The regions are then zoned into districts which are referred to as “*Wilaya*”. The districts are sub-divided into divisions and further into local wards. Wards are further

subdivided, for management purposes, into urban wards and further into streets, that is, “*Mitaa*” in Swahili or in the case of rural wards into villages “*Kijiji*” (singular) or “*Vijiji*” (plural) in Swahili.

Geographically, Tanzania covers a very large expanse of land. Therefore, for purposes of this study, the researcher divided the country into zones and chose three zones, namely, the Northern Zone, Coast Zone and Southern Zone. It is important to state here that these zones are not representative of the government’s administrative zoning. The selection of the zones was based on social-economic and cultural differences. For example, the Northern Zone of Tanzania is a dynamic and vibrant region economically. It is composed of four administrative regions, namely, Arusha, Kilimanjaro, Tanga and Manyara. The area has 25 administrative districts with 30 district councils. The study was conducted in two regions, namely, Manyara and Arusha. The community in this zone is highly educated, when compared to the other zones. The main activities include agriculture, livestock-keeping, tourism, mining, fishing, beekeeping and manufacturing. A range of lifestyle options support this economic diversity, including both rural and urban centers.

The Coastal Zone is considered the poorest part of the country. This zone includes the administrative regions of Morogoro, Pwani, Mtwara and Lindi. The study was conducted in Pwani and Morogoro because they are representative of the whole zone. The main activities are fishing, aquaculture, salt making and harvesting coastal forests and mangroves. The communities in these areas are poor and are said to resist change, due to the fact that they are uninformed, irrational, defeatist and outmoded. They have limited aspirations and are unable to defer today’s gratification to the future. The extremely high incidence of unemployment is among the key distinguishing

features of the zone. The economy cannot generate enough employment opportunities to meet the needs of the labor force.

The Southern Zone includes Mbeya, Iringa, Rukwa, Ruvuma and Katavi, all of which have very similar characteristics. For this study, the researcher selected Iringa and Mbeya. Most of the people in these regions are middle income earners. These regions have adequate rainfall and fertile soil. They are the largest producers of maize, rice, bananas, beans and wheat grain in the country. Dairy cattle farming is dominant in this region. Mbeya and Iringa stand out as the nation's top production areas of cash crops which include tea, coffee and many spices.

The researcher picked two regions from each of the three zones, making a total of six. These regions are administratively subdivided into district councils and sub-divided further into local wards. Wards are further subdivided into villages.

Mainland Tanzania has two administrative arms of local government, namely, rural and urban authorities. These are further broken down into smaller units for ease of governance.

### **3.2.1 Councilors and other appointed leaders**

The upper ranks of local government are administrated by elected officials, more particularly "councilors" representing each of the units referred to as "wards". These are complemented by employees who may be hired either by the councils or by central government.

The Councilors are elected in accordance with the local Authorities' election laws and regulations. Those who are members of parliament also double up as councilors of the councils in their

respective jurisdictions. In addition, there are three councilors appointed by the Minister responsible for local government. As provided for by the enabling legislation (Acts No. 7 and 8 of 1982) the councilors, who are representatives of the people, own the councils. As noted earlier, members of staff (hired by their respective councils through the Public Service Commission) offer technical support to the council and serve as secretaries of the various committees of the councils because of their professional and technical knowledge.

### **3.2.2 Village Council and Village Assembly**

There are two major organs of governance at the village level, village assembly (VA) and Village Council (VC). The village assembly is composed of all adult members resident in the village. The village assembly elects Village Councils of not less than 15 and not more than 25 members headed by an elected chairperson. All chairmen of Village Councils are ex-officio. The Village Assembly is theoretically the supreme body at the village level but, in practice, its only major function is to elect the council every five years. The reason is that neither in the law nor in practice does the Village Assembly have ultimate legislative and executive powers, which are vested in the Village Council.

### **3.2.3 The Ward Development Committee (WDC)**

The WDC membership includes all chairpersons of Village Governments in the ward and all VEOs. The Councilor of the Ward chairs the WDC and the WEO is the Secretary. The WDC is just a committee responsible for coordinating development activities and planning in the ward and linking with the district



was absolute and therefore neutral. As this study was primarily based on data collected from rural community members investigating the extent to which rural development planning is reflective of the rural population, much of the data was non-numerical. The study acquired results that are personal opinions of respondents, which may also be evoked by emotions. Qualitative methodology was used so as to accommodate the non-statistical data that was inevitably part of the study.

### **3.4 RESEARCH PARADIGM**

The researcher applied the qualitative approach, which essentially is known for the use of methods that investigate prevalent qualities, features and wherewithal of the objects under enquiry. This method is interpretative by its very nature and is dependent on the language used to interpret the opinions or answers given by those interviewed. The method entailed close contact with the interviewees and a more imaginative process of theory development instead of testing (Walliman, 2006; Grix, 2004). As a result, the researcher used three ways to collect data: questionnaires, evaluation of documents and dialogues. These will be expounded upon further in the study. In this part of the study, the researcher has compiled important research interactions in methodology. By so doing, the researcher accentuated the effect of research questions on the research strategy and the manner in which the two have interplayed to control the direction of the study (Clough, & Nutbrown, 2006).

The qualitative approach was preferred to examine the research problem because it was found to be the more suitable method to probe and produce the type of research material needed to answer

the research questions. The other advantages of this method are:

- The ability to solve more complex social issues;
- Permits the researcher more participation in the research process; and
- Reveals the researcher's and participants' respective roles clearly.

Several specific descriptive quantitative fundamentals performed a helpful role within this qualitative framework. The purpose was to produce a full, forceful and all-inclusive description and comprehension of the processes and proceedings that occurred during the period the study was carried out. The qualitative approach was interactive and flexible. Rubin and Rubin (1995) argue that each time a researcher goes through the basic process of qualitative data-gathering, he/she comes closer to a more precise phenomenon being studied. In addition, the qualitative methodology enabled the researcher to interact with the respondents, in fact, this method enabled the researcher to determine the general direction of the information gathered while, at the same time, affording the respondents an opportunity to raise particular issues. This method:

- Is concerned with subjective meanings;
- Permits exploration of issues too complex for qualitative analysis; and
- Encourages researchers to acknowledge their own role in research process.

During such interactions, an insightful understanding was gained of what respondents said. At the same time, the observations of events proved valuable. In this way, data gathered revealed the perspectives of the people being interviewed and observed, as well as the communities' concerns.

The study used mixed methodology, that is, both qualitative and quantitative. In the qualitative method, the study also used field surveys which were conducted in three Councils, namely, Ujiji Council, Kigoma Council and Kasulu Council. The councils were selected on the basis of variations in their resource bases, their level of participation in the LGRP, the composition of political parties and the report of the Auditor General of 2012/2013 which found the irregularities and mismanagement fund. The primary goal of these surveys was to ascertain the level of involvement of the rural community members in the course of development design as it pertains to development needs analysis.

### **3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The researcher chose to use the descriptive survey research method. According to Kumekpor (2002), social assessment can be termed as the course where quantitative details are collected about social facets of a community's organization and its undertakings. He further contends that this approach entails the gathering of data to respond to questions about the prevailing status of the subject matter under study or to test hypotheses. The researcher preferred this particular method for his research because it enabled him to provide a methodical narrative that is accurate about the extent to which development planning in rural areas in Tanzania reflects the needs of the rural populace.

### **3.6 POPULATION**

The most recent population census was carried out in 2012 and reported that there are 44,928,923 people living in the country out of whom 1.3 million live on the islands of Zanzibar. This amounts

to a populace density of 47.5 persons per square kilometer (123.1 people per square mile). Tanzania's population growth rate continues unabated at 3.0% annually.

The population is currently estimated to be over 51 million, given the fact that Tanzania has one of the highest birth rates in the world with more than 44% of the population below the age of 15. Furthermore, the population is very unevenly distributed. In the arid regions, population density is as low as 1 person per square kilometer, an estimated 53 persons per square kilometer in the water-rich mainland highlands and approximately 134 people per square kilometer in Zanzibar's capital city. Approximately 80% of the population resides in rural areas.

### **3.6.1 Sample**

The study sample involved 400 adult rural community members aged 18 years and over. This sample was chosen due to the fact that the researcher deemed it appropriate to provide the requisite data to complete the study. Lenth (2001) expresses the opinion that in determining the sample size in a research study, the problem should be distinctively defined and carried out. Lastly, the sample was adequate in size, in keeping with expected outcomes of the study.

### **3.6.2 Sampling Method**

In Tanzania, rural communities are found all over the countryside. In order to obtain a sample that is reflective of all the rural communities in the country, the multi-stage sampling technique was adopted for the research. Kumeckpor (2002) suggests that a key value of the multi-stage sampling practice is that, at each stage, units are omitted, thereby making the final sample more succinct and less scattered than in an ordinary one stage sampling. The procedure for using the multi-stage

sampling technique was to initially group all the 21 regions that make up Tanzania into three zones (A, B, and C) with seven in each.

In each zone, the names of regions were compiled and labeled on pieces of paper and put in a small vessel. They were then shuffled and a arbitrary choice was made in each zone to get the sampled regions. In this instance, the simple random sampling technique was used because it gives each component an identical opportunity of being picked. The researcher then chose three regions arbitrarily, one from each zone. In each region, the study was conducted in two districts (*Wilaya*). The 189 district councils yielded four local wards. The study was then subdivided into eight villages (*Kijiji*), such that the study was conducted in 16 villages for each region, and making it a total of 48 villages for the three regions.

A list of all the rural communities was created for each of the allotted communities. The researcher then arbitrarily chose three communities in each region. In all, nine rural communities were selected for the research. In each of the communities chosen, the researcher compiled a list of available adults who are 18 years and older to form the sampling frame. The proportional random sampling technique was then used to select the final sample for the study. The population in a particular rural community was informed of the number of participants required from that community. The following formula was used for selecting the sample used: **Number of adults in a community x Sample size:** Number of Adults in the nine selected rural communities. With the help of this formula, the number of adult rural community members in each community was identified. The simple random sampling technique was again utilized to choose a total of 400 adult

members of the community for the study.

In picking three vastly different regions, both in terms of development and culture, the researcher is of the opinion that the study and its outcome would be representative of the whole country.

### **3.7 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS**

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative approach, because of its contextual nature, allows collection of data and other relevant information in the participants' own environment (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative information, like number of toilets, classrooms and staff houses constructed was obtained from wards and school documents. The use of qualitative techniques enabled the researcher to freely discuss with the respondents who expressed their feelings and experiences (Bond, 2006). The section begins by giving an overview of the study area followed by a presentation of the results from the field. Three methods of data collection were used: (a) secondary data from local contact persons in the six district councils; (b) primary data through in-depth semi-structured interviews; and (c) citizens' surveys. The main instruments used in order to prompt information from the respondents were:

- the focus group discussion;
- interviews, and
- surveys.

#### **3.7.1 Questionnaires**

Fox and Bayat (2007) describe a survey as a list of questions on a specific topic compiled by the

researcher, and to which answers and information are required. It is a data collecting instrument, which is mostly used in community research. Ary and Jacobs (1989) indicate that, due to the confidential nature of a questionnaire, respondents will give more truthful responses. Most of the information is sought from the research respondents, as most of the practical data are obtained from them.

### **3.7.2 Focus Group Discussions**

Focus groups are characterized by in-depth discussions in which groups of participants talk about the topics pertinent to a particular set of research points (Nachmias, & Nachmias, 1981). During the research study, the focus group method was used with LGAs, VFCs, VFJAs and members at the community level – VC members, CMC members and other community people. The researcher visited a total of nine sub-projects, three in each LGA. Data were also gathered from published sources such as text books, legislation, policies, previous research papers, and unpublished sources such as dissertations, reports and written materials about community participation. This information was accessed from different sources such as the UNISA library, the Internet and the local authority reports.

## **3.8 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE**

### **3.8.1 Questionnaires**

The questionnaires were distributed through the council members so that each rural community member could read, understand and fill in the form and thereafter return them to the researcher

using the address provided. Finally, the interpreted data was reported and displayed by means of narrative texts, graphs and figures to clarify the main direction of the analysis.

### **3.8.2 Interviews**

In order for the researcher to collect accurate data on the topic under study, the researcher employed the semi-structured interview methodology. Face-to-face interviews allow the researcher to collect data from a much larger percentage of those sampled than is usually possible with self-administered questionnaires. Subjects tend to be more responsive when the researcher contacts them personally than when they receive a formal letter and questionnaire (Gray et al., 2007:128). The interview method also affords the researcher an opportunity to meet personally with the respondents and be in a position to take note of some non-verbal clues.

The interview schedule was designed in line with the stated objectives in four major sections. The first section of the interview schedule looked at the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The second section considered the level of participation of the rural community members in development planning in their communities with regards to developmental needs identification and the prioritizing of these needs. The third section of the interview schedule delved into the relationship between the demographic characteristics such as the level of education, gender, and occupation, and the level of participation of rural community members. The last section looked at ways of enhancing community members' participation in rural development planning in their communities.

In order to gain access to the respondents, a letter of consent was sent to the leadership of the

various communities, asking for permission to undertake such a study. After approval was given, the researcher visited the various communities that were selected for the study. After the sample for the study was clearly identified, the researcher visited the respondents in their homes and places of work and carefully explained the purpose of the study to them, after which they were asked to respond to the questions in the interview schedule. The researcher made concerted efforts to ensure that he obtained consent of the respondents and that this was an informed consent.

### **3.8.3 Respondent Briefing**

Prior to conducting the interview, the researcher provided each respondent with detailed information pertaining to the issues of participation in community development planning. Questions were piloted prior to the research to ensure that the questions were clear and the objective of each question was well understood. This exercise was undertaken to ensure that a common understanding of the issues raised in the survey prevailed. Informed consent was obtained from the respondents in writing. Chapter Four will discuss the validity and reliability of the data collected instrument.

## **3.9 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT**

### **3.9.1 Validity**

Validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure and performs as it is designed to perform. It is rare, if nearly impossible, that an instrument is 100% valid, so

validity is generally measured in degrees. As a process, validation involves collecting and analyzing data to assess the accuracy of an instrument. Babbie (1998) describes validity as the extent to which an empirical measure reflects the factual meaning of the notion under deliberation. Cavan et al. (2001) points out that, in fact, there are four types of validity, namely, face, criterion-related, and content and paradigm validity.

The interview schedule was pre-tested on 40 arbitrarily nominated rural community members who were 18 years and above from the several rural communities in the three regions. The pre-testing enabled the researcher to review the phrasing and order of the questions, the duration of the interview schedule, the clarity of directives, as well as the efficacy of the cover letter. This gave the researcher the opportunity to correct any discrepancies (unreliability) and errors (invalidity) in the instrument that was used in the actual survey. Furthermore, very simple language was used in phrasing the questions to ensure easy understanding by respondents. This warranted that the instrument prompted responses that measured variables that it intended to measure. To further augment the validity of the instrument, the items on the interview schedule were framed based on the research objectives. Furthermore, the interview schedule was critically evaluated by a colleague of the researcher who is a PhD student and also by the researcher's supervisor. Their comments assisted substantially to correct the inconsistencies in the instrument.

### **3.9.2 Reliability**

In general, reliability can be thought of as consistency. Does the instrument consistently measure what it is intended to measure? It is not possible to calculate reliability. According to Babbie (1992:

132), “reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same results each time”.

Four types of reliability exist:

- Test-retest reliability: When a questionnaire containing some items is directed to a set of respondents now and presented to the same group of respondents six months later, then the connection between the scores obtained at two different times from the identical set of respondents is called “Test-retest coefficient” (Cavan, 2001);
- Parallel-form reliability: When respondents on two analogous sets of measures tapping the same paradigm, are highly interrelated, there is corresponding form reliability;
- Inter-item reliability: This is a test of consistency of responses to all the items in a survey (Cavan, 2001);
- Split-half reliability: Replicates the parallels between two halves of an instrument. Its assessments vary contingent upon how the items in the measure are split into halves (Cavan, 2001).

The dependability of the outcomes was guaranteed by subjecting the field data to detailed editing to remove inconsistencies, mistakes and discrepancies before evaluation. All these were employed for the dependability and precision of the instrument used in the study, hence, its reliability and validity. This was done through piloting the research instruments with a few of the sample respondents.

### **3.10 DATA INTERPRETATION**

Data were interpreted after recording and reviewing the interviews, reading through the interviews to ascertain categories of responses, testing the categories by classifying them immediately after interviews, coding and tallying the results. The rural community members formed the largest number of respondents in the four groups, it was, therefore, not possible to interview each one of them face to face.

#### **3.10.1 Village Participation**

The extent to which community members took part in activities was scrutinized using semi-structured interviews. The District Executive Officers were some of the respondents interviewed.

A total of 25 interviews were conducted around the following themes:

- The types of development projects;
- The involvement of the rural community members;
- Success and/or failure of the abovementioned projects.

The questions were open-ended in order to allow for subjective answers.

#### **3.10.2 Interview of the Local Town Councils' staff**

The Local Town Councils were observed using focus group interviews. With regard to interviewing the staff of the town councils, the researcher secured offices with the Town Council for ease of the exercise. Times were pre-set to ensure that the business of the council was not disrupted. Interviews were recorded to ensure accuracy. The variation in the numbers was

determined by the size of the Council. Some of the communities are served by offices with fewer members of staff than others.

The themes revolved around rural participation and the factors that hinder greater involvement in community activities as well as local government and its support or lack thereof.

The researcher used his judgment and concluded that, in some cases, one-on-one interviews sufficed. At all times, the researcher had his research assistants take notes for ease of reference, and also to eliminate distractions caused by his taking notes.

The researcher kept his focus on his claim that the basis of the community participatory approach to development is the social unit through which people organize, either traditionally or voluntarily, to make and act upon collective decisions. For the researcher, therefore, Tanzania represents an interesting case of an on-going and thus incomplete transition from a failed centralized approach to the development towards an integrated local development approach, with several simultaneous initiatives for local sectorial approaches, local government approaches (decentralization by devolution) and community support approaches.

His conclusive thesis is that, should the government adopt this participatory approach, the otherwise stalled growth will gain traction and pull the nation from its position among the world's poorest countries and place it on the path towards sustainable progress. Chapter Five will discuss study areas and data analysis.

### **3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

One of the considerations in the collection of primary data concerns ethical considerations. In order to prevent harm to the subjects and to obviate bias, the researcher abided by the ethical guidelines that seek to avoid harm or embarrassment to the respondents or to the organizations. Neuman (2006) points out that ethics in research is a set of doctrines that provide guidance as to what is, or is not, acceptable in research practice. To that end, the researcher asked for permission in writing to undertake this study from the respective local Authorities. The overall aim of the study was explained to the target population and their consent was sought for participation in the research project. All participants were assured that any sensitive data would be kept confidential and that their identities would remain anonymous since this study was for academic purposes only. Participants were also assured that the study was not commissioned by the government. Development planning refers to the strategic measurable goals that a person, organization or community plans to meet within a certain amount of time. Usually the development plan includes time-based benchmarks. It generally also includes the criteria that will be used to evaluate whether or not the goals were actually met in the rural communities and its members.

### **3.12 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

In this chapter, the researcher describes the research methodology, explaining why he found it necessary to use qualitative and quantitative methodology in tandem. He discusses the validity and reliability of the data collection instruments and also touches on the data analysis. Tanzania, as a country, covers a very expansive area which is divided into administrative regions. The researcher picked out three zones, namely, the Northern, the Coastal and the Southern zones because these

three are representative of the whole country.

# **CHAPTER FOUR**

## **PRESENTATION OF RESULTS: RURAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT: MAIN SURVEY FINDINGS**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the outcomes of the study. It has been noted from the previous chapter that three main data collection tools (semi-structured interviews, document analyses and direct observations) were employed for the study. In Tanzania, agriculture is the primary industry in almost all the rural areas. Most people live or work on farms. Rural community development covers a spectrum of methods and actions that aim to better the welfare and livelihoods of the inhabitants of rural areas. As a division of community development, these approaches address social issues, more particularly, organizing the community. This differs from other forms of rural development that focus on public works, e.g. rural roads and schools, and irrigation schemes, and technology, e.g. tools and techniques for improving agricultural production.

In Tanzania, the government is committed to the improvement of the lives of rural communities. To that end, the government has put emphasis on the creation of jobs and poverty eradication. Land is a catalyst for the alleviation of poverty, job creation, food security and entrepreneurship. It is envisioned that this intervention by the government will guarantee production discipline, as

well as contribute to the creation of jobs and national food security.

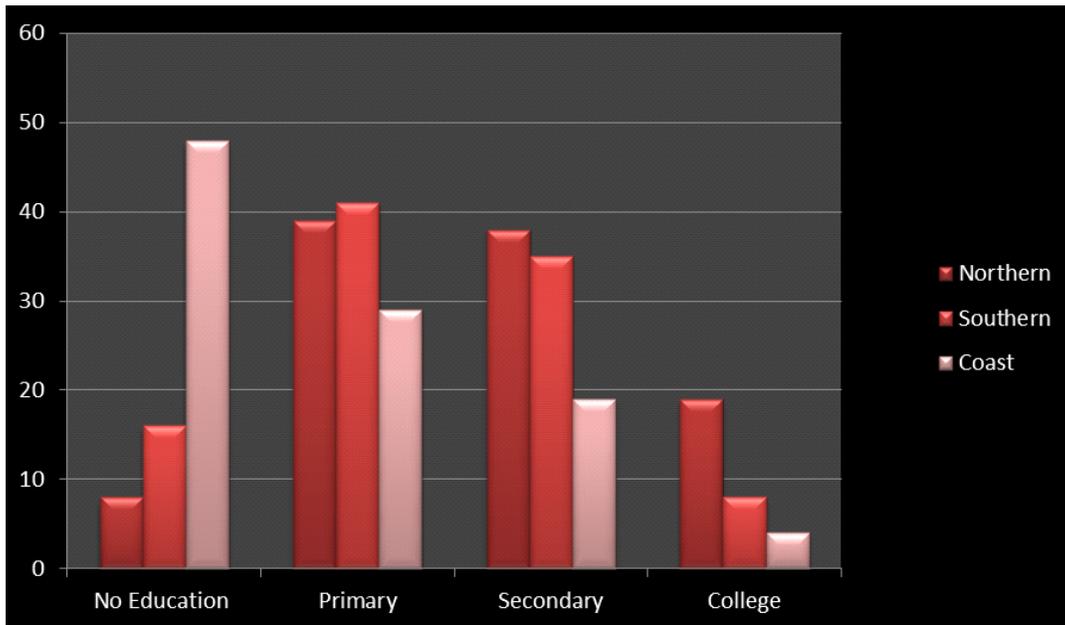
Rural community development is particularly important in Tanzania where a large part of the population is involved in farming. Most of the efforts to promote rural community development are led by “experts” from outside the community such as government officials, staff of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and foreign advisers. This has led to a protracted argument about the subject of participation, in which queries have been made about the sustainability of these efforts and the extent to which rural people are or are not being empowered to become the decision makers accountable for their own destinies.

## **4.2 PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS**

The researcher found that it was critical to understand the respondents’ backgrounds and profiles so as to draw trends from their participation. Therefore, using their answers, the respondents were grouped into categories and emergent trends. These categories and the corresponding trends are illustrated below.

### **4.2.1 Distribution of Respondents According to Educational Qualification**

Figure 5 shows the comparative distribution of respondents in the three regions on the basis of their educational levels.



**Figure 6: Comparative Distribution of Respondents**

(Source: Researcher 2014)

The graph illustrates what was gathered from the Respondents from the questionnaires, as well as the focus groups. The researcher will draw inferences from the data to determine whether, in fact, the level of education of the respondents determines their participation in community development projects. As is evident from the above graph, a higher percentage of the respondents from the Coastal zone have no education, and those that do, only have basic primary education. It therefore follows that, as explained above, the community members are socially excluded from participating in development projects by virtue of their illiteracy. Fewer of them have secondary or college education. The Northern zone has the highest percentage of educated respondents and many of them have advanced education. Likewise, it is among this group that the researcher found the greatest involvement in development projects.

#### **4.2.2 Distribution of Respondents' Participation in Community Development Projects**

The apparent inference from this graph is that the respondents from the Northern zone participated more in the various levels of the development process than those from the other two regions. The inference drawn in respect hereof, is that the more educated the respondents are, the more they tend to participate in community development projects.

The researcher also draws the conclusion that the respondents from the Northern zone, being more educated, and with more of them in gainful employment, have more disposable income to make a financial contribution to community development projects. Further, in response to the allegation that local leaders do not adequately train the respondents on the projects and/or the processes, it appears that the levels of education compound this problem. In the Northern zone, the respondents are more educated, and contribute more financially and therefore demand more by way of feedback, a fact that would encourage them to participate.

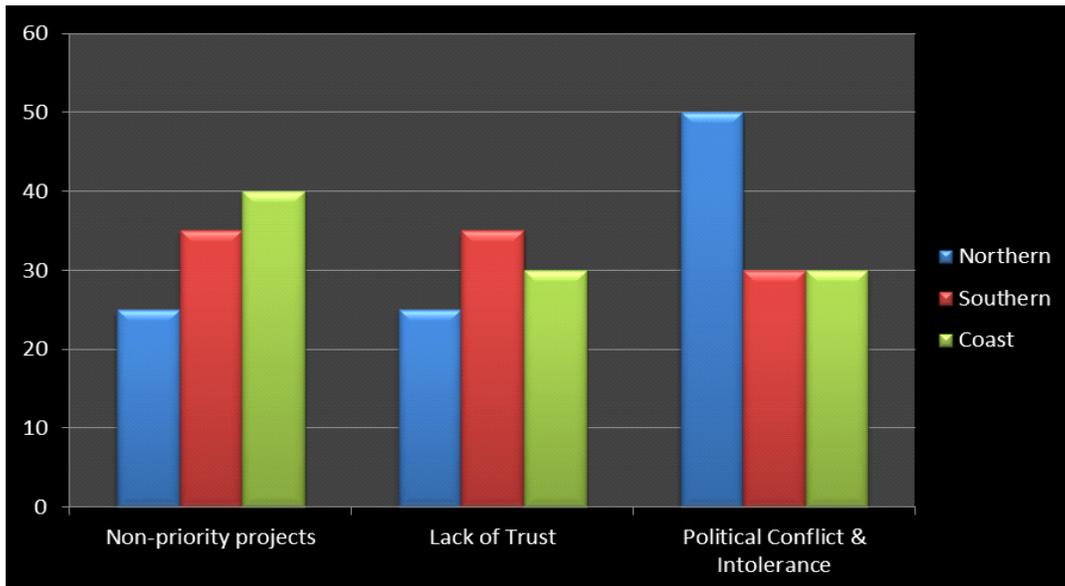
Supported by data collected and under review, it appears that poverty is a contributing factor to the lack of participation in community development projects. Those community members who are not gainfully employed, do not have the income to support their families, let alone contribute to the development projects. Further, their lack of education also means that most of them do not have the skills to offer in lieu of financial contributions.

### **4.2.3 Distribution of Respondents by Reasons Given for Non-Participation**

During the focus group discussions, participants were encouraged to speak freely, to express their views and to also to make suggestions on how best to improve participation of community members in community development projects. In most of the communities visited, it was observed that community members were satisfied with the planning process (E-PRA process). Communities were informed on the issue of community contribution and their role in the implementation of their sub-projects.

It was also observed that, during the planning process, one of the most important aspects was to confirm community members' commitment towards the implementation of the sub-project within the stated time frame and confirm the willingness and readiness to contribute both in terms of labour and materials. The respondents indicated their lack of satisfaction with the management of community development projects. The reasons they gave included the following:

- (a) Non-priority nature of projects;
- (b) Poor Leadership;
- (c) Lack of trust of leaders; and
- (d) Political conflict and political intolerance.



**Figure 7: Reasons for Lack of Participation in the Community Projects**  
 (Source: Researcher 2014)

Figure 8 illustrates the main reasons the respondents stated for their lack of participation in community development projects. A comparative analysis of the three regions is, once again, applied here. Given the fact that the vertical axis indicates the percentage to which respondents attribute a particular reason that interferes with the development process, it is clear that political conflict and intolerance among the leadership and the corresponding intimidation of community members, the non-priority of projects and the lack of trust, greatly impact the community projects.

#### 4.2.3.1 Non-Priority Nature of Projects

The researcher also found that, to some extent (40% in the case of one community), the respondents

did not believe the projects initiated by government addressed their priorities. This hampered development. Community leaders who participated in the focus group explained to the researcher that, in many cases, the government, synonymous with the ruling political party, prioritized projects that would give the party political mileage in the next elections. These projects were chosen and pursued notwithstanding the fact that they might not be priority for the community. This led the community to tacitly reject the projects, hence their lack of participation in its implementation was simply an expression of their rejection.

#### **4.2.3.2 Lack of Trust of Leaders**

Many of the projects that the researcher visited and discussed with community leaders had stalled despite large amounts of money being spent on them. The constant statement by the respondents was that development funds had been misappropriated and therefore, they did not trust their leaders.

The demands of economic and social development also influence citizens' expectations of local government responsiveness, transparency and accountability. Citizens and community organizations have also expressed their interest in a more participatory approach to the decision-making processes, transparency and accountability from the local government (Hambleton, & Gross, 2007).

This study argues that one of the core values of citizen participation programs is related to

enhancing transparency in government. Scholars and practitioners express the view that transparency is an essential democratic value which undergirds a trustworthy, high performing and accountable government (Transparency International and the United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 2004).

In response to the demands of transparency in local governance, Kim (2009) argues that local governments can enhance the level of transparency with their commitment to the three core components of transparency: openness, integrity, and citizen empowerment. A high degree of openness by public officials and agencies regarding all the decisions and actions that they take may reduce the information gaps between government and citizens and enhance the level of transparency in local governance. Other components of openness include the degree of information and knowledge sharing between sectors and among agencies and various methods for communicating government work and functions to citizens and the local community.

Kim (2009) also contends that another important dimension of transparency in local governance is integrity. Integrity is defined as incorruptibility and it requires that holders of public office avoid placing themselves under financial or other obligation to outside individuals or organizations that may influence them in the performance of their official duties (Cheema, 2003; Pope, 2005). Finally, citizens' perceived empowerment through fair and increased opportunities to participate in policy decision-making processes could be another indicator assessing the degree of transparency in local government (Kim, 2009).

Scholars in the field of citizen participation are persuaded that, when the populace receives

considered feedback through interaction with the staff of the government agencies, it feels encouraged. It is then more likely to embrace and therefore gain useful policy information which ultimately leads to a better understanding of government agencies and community issues (Sabatier, 1988; Yankelovich, 1991; Blackburn, & Bruce, 1995).

This study argues that citizen engagement in participation programs is positively associated with the participants' assessment of transparency in the government that provides the participation programs. The participants, who engage in various participation programs, may learn more about community issues from various participation program experiences than citizens who have not engaged in the participation programs. The citizens engaged in the participation programs also are likely to perceive that the government agencies offering the participation program are capable of improving transparency, two-way communication with citizens and participatory governance. Accordingly, this study proposes that community members' participation in development programs can be positively associated with the members' assessment of transparency in local government that provided the participation programs.

The study finding indicates that citizen engagement in participation programs can facilitate citizens' positive assessment of transparency in local government. This finding confirms prior literature emphasizing the traditional role of citizen participation in monitoring government activities (Roberts, 2004; Box, 2007; Yang, & Holzer, 2006; Kweit, & Kweit, 2007) and in enhancing transparency (Robbins, Simonsen, & Feldman, 2008; Tolbert, & McNeal, 2003; Bertot, Jaeger, & Grimes, 2010; Phillips, & Abey, 2007). For instance, Yang and Holzer (2006) address

the fact that participation introduces citizen monitoring, which increases the likelihood of detecting deception and ensures the government's commitment to openness and honesty. Scholars indicate that government efforts to provide more opportunities for citizen participation and input in government performance evaluation and policy decision-making can be an important strategy for improving transparency and trust in government (Kweit, & Kweit, 2007).

However, in order to understand the theoretical and practical implications of the association between citizen participation and transparency, scholars need to pay more attention to how different types of participation programs facilitate citizens' assessment of transparency in local government. For example, the degree of citizens' participation can be classified into two dimensions: consultation and active participation (OECD, 2001). Consultation emphasizes that a citizen acts as a consultant for government activities in the process of citizen participation. For consultation, "government asks for and receives citizens' feedback on policy-making" (OECD, 2001. p.15). Active participation highlights "citizens' engagement in decision-making and policy-making" (OECD, 2001. p.17).

The issue of transparency was consistently raised in the study. Those interviewed felt that it is important that the community have trust in the CMCs and VCs. This trust could be built partly through feedback to community members (physical and financial) on the progress of implementation of community projects. It was observed in three sub-projects visited that the CMCs neither keep proper records nor prepared monthly progress reports which they were supposed to submit to MCs/ VCs. As such, it was difficult for meaningful reports to be made on the

implementation progress to community members during the Assembly mandated for that purpose.

Further, although in other cases the CMCs presented progress implementation reports to MCs/VCs, the Mtaa/Village leaders did not give feedback to community members. This situation discouraged the participation of community members in the implementation of the sub-projects, and caused community members to distrust the CMC/VC/MC members which fueled the belief that community funds were being or had been misused.

Moreover, the bottom-up planning which is supposed to start at the village level was not well practiced. Few citizens at the grassroots levels had participated in the planning process. Many had not even heard about the local government reform programme. Furthermore, most of the councils visited had no long term planning, i.e. no clear council plans to meet the future challenges that may face their councils in the developmental process. This might have been due to limited fiscal autonomy in most of the councils. Planning requires adequate financial resources, which were inadequate for all the case councils.

Furthermore, corruption in local government authorities is perceived to be a serious problem. The decentralization process geared through the local government reform programme has not yet managed to integrate the line ministries at the local levels. One of the major objectives of the LGR is to integrate all sector ministries' departments under the co-ordination of the directors of the councils and the full councils. This form of integration would allow each head of department to be the technical head of his or her department. In all the local councils surveyed, the only sector which had achieved almost full integration into the council management was the health sector. On the

contrary, the education sector still appeared to be run by the central line ministry.

The current local government reform has many good provisions for self-governance that are yet to be fully integrated and operational in the village, ward and council levels. Nevertheless, the researcher was made aware that citizens' trust in the council authorities was not very high, perhaps because they have not yet seen the positive outcomes promised under the LGR programme.

#### **4.2.3.3 Political Conflict and Intolerance**

The researcher found that the information gleaned from the questionnaires with regard to political conflict and intolerance was supported by what he learned in the face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions. For instance, during the interviews in some of sub-projects in Kasulu DC and Kigoma DC, the researcher learnt that there were influential followers of the ruling party (CCM) and opposition parties. These two groups opposed each other politically which unfortunately led to conflict between community members. The opposition party was cited as trying to convince its followers to boycott participation in development activities.

Opposition leaders also convinced their followers that the funds from different donors were adequate to implement their projects and, therefore, there was no need for community contribution. The result was incomplete projects, continued lack of trust among community members, reduced participation and, in some cases, total abandonment of community development projects.

The researcher further learned from the focus group discussions that, although the MCs and VCs were oriented on their roles and responsibilities in the implementation of the community sub-

projects, they did not play their role of mobilizing the communities to participate in the implementation of sub-project activities, such as bringing the materials to the site, instead they left all the responsibilities to the CMC members.

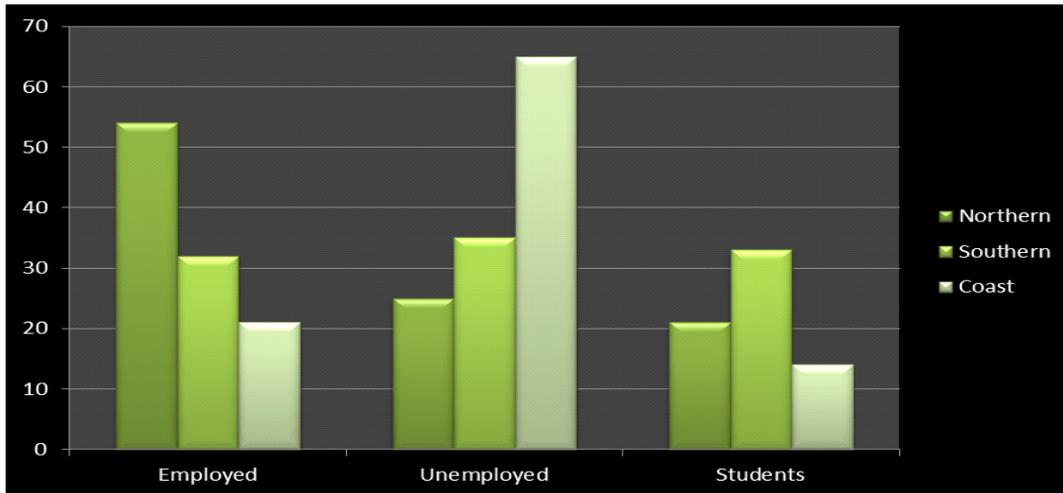
It also came to light that, in some areas, the MCs and VCs, especially the Mtaa/Village leaders, have conflict with other members of MCs/VCs because leaders are not accepted because of their behavior, poor cooperation between the leaders and their lack of responsibility. Therefore when they planned for the mobilization of community people to participate in the sub-project activities, the sub-villages' leaders, who are also members of VC, were not willing to do so which resulted in few community members participating in development activities. This situation discouraged those who willingly participated in community activities. The effect of poor leadership caused the community members to lose confidence in their leaders which led to their refusal to contribute and participate in the implementation of their sub-projects. The eventual spin off of these problems was a lack of participation in community development projects.

#### **4.2.3.4 Willingness to Participate**

Of notable interest is that most of the respondents indicated on the questionnaires that they were willing to participate in community projects. Most of them also stated that they had concerns about the leadership at the community level but that, if this concern was addressed, they would be willing to be a part of the community projects. There was also an indication that, although many of them were willing to participate, they did not have the requisite skills to participate meaningfully.

#### 4.2.3.5 Distribution of Respondents by Occupation

Figure 8 provides shows the comparative analysis of the Respondents' occupation.



**Figure 8: Comparative Analysis of the Respondents Occupation**

(Source: Researcher 2014)

The researcher deduced that community members' occupations may influence their participation in community development projects. The data, when reviewed on that basis, indicated the following:

- The Northern zone had the largest number of employed respondents followed by the Southern and trailed by the Coastal region;
- Read together with the graph illustrating the community members' participation, the Northern Zone which has the larger number of educated respondents in gainful employment also enjoys greater participation at each level of the community project's development process than the other two zones.

#### 4.2.3.6 Local Government Officials' Response

The researcher records the findings from direct questions to the local government officials as to the community member's participation:

**Table 7: Responses to Questionnaires**

<b>Question to Officials</b>	<b>Northern Zone</b>	<b>Southern Zone</b>	<b>Coastal Zone</b>
How many projects have you initiated in the last five years?	More than 120	More than 120	90
Do you have policy guidelines to encourage participation?	Yes	Yes	Yes
Are they useful?	Yes	Somewhat	No
Are community members enthusiastic about participating?	Yes	Yes	No
What factors hinder greater participation by the community?	(i) Discouragement from incomplete projects (ii) Political conflict (iii) Not their priority (iv) Lack of trust	(v) Lack of skills (vi) Incomplete projects (vii) Political conflict (viii) Not their priority	(ix) Lack of skills (x) Apathy (xi) Political conflict (xii) Poverty

(Source: Researcher 2014)

The data analysis has been done based on the four forms of participation as shown in Chapter Two which are: contributions, utilization, interaction and consultation. Other social concepts such as

gender, gender planning, women's empowerment, intersectionality and Structural Adjustment Policies have been used to examine the factors affecting women's participation in the development programs and projects in the survey areas, and to understand community perceptions on the issue of women and community participation.

In this chapter, the researcher's field-work experience in combination with information from written documents will be analyzed. Based on research findings, several factors such as social norms and values, gender issues, the transformation of the political and socio economic systems, ineffective communication networks, individual and collective support, inadequate community awareness on community development strategies and insufficient capacity building among community leaders, have been pointed out as some of the factors affecting women's participation in project planning and implementation processes.

#### **4.2.3.7 Contributions as a Form of Community Participation**

In the majority of projects, community participation was understood in different ways:

- The provision of labour through performing project activities or by paying money that could help to buy services or goods;
- The provision of work tools such as buckets, hoes, carts and so on for use during the project work.

The findings revealed that women's participation in project activities has expanded familiarity among women themselves and has improved their skills and knowledge in leadership and technical

activities. Like their male counterparts, CMC female members engaged in store keeping and supervision of day-to-day project activities. They were responsible for ensuring the availability of technical support and of identifying and managing all the materials needed for the project.

Women have also pointed out that their engagement in project activities has improved their positions in the community. This is because they now perform so-called “men’s work” which was not commonly done by them previously. CMC female members have managed to supervise both men and women in conducting project activities as well as giving their opinion and setting strategies for successful project implementation. Project implementation handbooks and training for project management were admitted to build confidence and to expand knowledge among women and men CMC members (FGDs women and CMC members July/August 2010).

#### **4.2.3.8 The Inference of Culture on Participation**

Culture among the people of Tanzania is very strong. In his discussions with the focus groups, the researcher frequently heard leaders and respondents make reference to culture and cultural practices. He found the Coastal people to be very informal, as one of the leaders said to him, “If you call for a meeting for a development project they do not show up, but if you call them for a traditional dance they will all be there” (Source: Field Data).

Eighty (80%) of those who participated in the questionnaires said that they are interested in participating in the community development projects. However, an even higher percentage indicated dissatisfaction with the leadership with regard to the development projects.

Undeniably, there have been some positive experiences with regard to women's involvement in project work but they have also encountered some daunting challenges. Among these are negative perceptions by family and other community members.

With respect to the different forms of participation, the division of labour based on gender roles, long established by culture and tradition, was evident. Men and women were assigned different work during project implementation. For instance, fetching water for the project use was always assigned to women while cutting building logs and timber was the responsibility of men. In some cases, project work was done jointly by men and women and this was applied during project area clearance, carrying building materials to the project site and so on. The CMC members pointed out that when they assigned project work in a gender neutral manner, male attendance decreased while the number of women increased. This was said to be a result of men avoiding project work who sent their female counterparts to represent them in project work while they did paid work or other informal work to earn money for their families. In this situation, married women were mainly representing their husbands while unmarried women had no choice. They had to attend thereby tripling women's roles. Typically, women engaged in project activities as voluntary community work, informal sector work as a way to earn income for their families and domestic work in the form of caring for the household and the family.

In addition to that, one District Coordinator in the Arusha region asserted that voluntary work in many communities is divided according to gender roles and since the task of fetching water is continuous, women spend more time than men on the project, which puts a lot of pressure on their

time. Fetching water for the project is done in addition to the routine household and community activities socially assigned to women (interview with TASAF coordinator Ujiji district. 2010).

Moreover, Structural Adjustment Programs were identified to be among the factors affecting women's participation in project activities. The removal of subsidies, for example, was mentioned as one factor that led to low production and low quality of cash and food crops in the agricultural sector. A chairperson in a village in Bonde pointed out:

The increase in the price of agricultural incentives and the fall of prices for cash crops, specifically cashew nuts, has affected peoples' lives. The income from agriculture is no longer enough to fulfill family needs and, for such reasons, all family members, men, women and children, are forced to engage in informal sector work in order to increase family income (Source: Field Data).

These findings show that the price of cashew nuts per kilo ranged from 350/= Tshs to 480/= Tshs for the last three years (2007-2009) while the price for insecticides varied from 17,500 to 23,000/= Tshs in the same three years (Rufiji district annual reports for department of commerce and agriculture, 2007-2009). On top of that, cost sharing and privatization of social services have also been identified as increasing hardship in families. More income is needed to pay for children's school fees (20,000/= Tshs for day government secondary schools and 75,000/= Tshs for boarding government secondary schools) not including books, uniforms or pocket money. Health services cost sharing for government hospitals and health centers has also increased from 500/= Tshs to 1000/= as registration fee per patient, not including medicine and other service costs (Health and

Education Departments Ujiji District, August 2013).

It was also pointed out that, in order to adjust to the existing socioeconomic conditions, women have engaged in informal sector work in order to increase family income. These include small businesses like selling vegetables, firewood, fried fish, and doing restaurant activities. This, in turn, has led to an increase in women's workload because they have to engage in domestic work, production work and community work.

For these reasons, women's participation in project activities and meetings was not regular and others did not participate at all because their participation was affected by poverty related to the increase in the total work burden. In relation to this, Spar (1994) asserts that SAPs have had a negative effect on women's lives and that this is related to their social responsibilities in the care industry. Social protection burdens have moved from the state to the household level where women are in charge of family care. For that matter, not only has women's work-load increased but it serves to deprive them of the opportunity to participate in other community activities.

The men's group in Mlangarini Village claimed that the transformation of political and economic systems in Tanzania also affected people's expectations and ideas about community participation. They pointed out that, during the socialist system (1967/85), communal ownership of resources and community wealth built a sense of togetherness and trust among citizens. Voluntary work was done with the perception of national building and all people were willing to participate. The provision of social services was for free hence life expenses were not high. The current system of capitalism and the effects of globalization have changed human life and the privatization of social

services and low agriculture production have led to increased hardships due to a decrease in family income and an increase in life expenses.

Individualism and private production for the purpose of profit making has interfered with the distribution of benefits among community members. This has also disrupted ideas of communal ownership of resources. Under the capitalist system of economy, almost all people work for themselves rather than to benefit the majority. Voluntary work is perceived as a waste of time or even exploitation of labour power rather than collective action aimed to fulfil community goals.

One married man pointed out that:

#### **4.2.3.9 Interactive Participation: Village Meetings and Planning Process**

In this type of participation, women were expected to participate in village meetings in order to discuss and share experiences on issues of their concern as well as to plan for their development. In the TASAF projects, village and the CMC meetings were intended for community members to identify their problems and to decide on priority problems to be addressed. They also had to confirm the activities to be done by community members as part of their contribution to project costs.

The findings revealed that women's participation in PRA meetings is below 50% of overall attendance in both the villages of Seela and Eworendeke. The PRA report in Rukwa shows that women's attendance in PRA meetings constituted 20% of all participants at the meetings, while in Iringa, 41% of women attended the meetings. Apart from their participation in village meetings, experiences show that women's involvement in discussions was limited compared to that of men

(PRA Report for Seela and Mlangarini villages 2006). Various reasons have been identified as factors affecting women's involvement in village meeting discussions.

Women, like other community members, have recognized the importance of community participation in meetings. They have pointed out that, by attending meetings, they have access to different information related to community development including health care, agriculture, the village budget report among others. For instance, in Iringa, women pointed out that, during the TASAF PRA meeting, they successfully identified water as one of the problems they encountered. They said that although water only had a few votes during the decision making for a priority problem list, they managed to draw people's attention to the issue. Two years later, community members agreed to implement a water project under the World Bank Development fund. Apart from the above-mentioned success, a number of factors remain that have been identified as challenges to women's participation including culture, gender issues, leadership problems and poor communication networks.

Gendered relations of power were admitted to interfere with women's empowerment process at the project planning stage. Apart from created and invited participatory spaces designed by TASAF, women have no freedom to decide whether to participate or not in decision-making at the community level. This is because men in Ujiji continue to occupy leadership and decision-making positions at home and at the community level (chiefs, sheikhs, husbands, fathers and brothers). For such reasons, men continue to dominate village meeting discussions and, as a result, their views are given first priority. Moreover, some men control their wives' and daughters' movements, they

expect them to stay at home and look after children rather than going to meetings. This gender stereotyping affects women's involvement in decision-making hence men continue to be representatives of women in the planning process. Women in FGDs pointed out that woman's triple roles are almost never considered during the distribution of project work.

This is in part because women do not have the confidence to negotiate on these matters and men, who are the main speakers, do not consider women's difficulties during the planning process. Women also protested about the increase in their workload and the poverty of time they experience. Working at home and in the community from early morning until sunset ultimately means that they have no time to rest. Moser, in her work *Gender Planning in Third World* (1989), argues that development planning should consider gender issues which could identify gender roles in a particular society. This will identify women's triple roles in relation to their needs.

Gender-blind plans create difficulties for women in balancing their working timetable in order to accommodate all their assigned responsibilities at home and in the community. Moser (1989) also emphasized women's participation in the planning process so that their voices can raise people's consciousness to consider women's practical and strategic gender needs.

Social norms and values have also been identified as among the factors affecting women's participation in meetings and discussions. Women in the focus group discussions asserted that, according to their culture, women are expected to be submissive in public spaces and specifically in front of men. They are not expected to argue against males in public discussions because this is a sign of bad behavior. It is shameful to their relatives and specifically to their husbands and

parents. They are trained to talk politely and privately with their male counterparts. These teachings are done through “unyago” which is informal education provided to girls aged 15 years and above as a transition to adulthood. The teachings start even earlier during childhood through the process of socialization and, for such reasons, women and other community members consider these practices acceptable. Women should seek advice from men and submit to their decisions. In addition, the chair person in the Iringa Village pointed out that only a few women can raise their hands and talk during meetings which makes it difficult for them to defend their points in the presence of male criticism.

A lack of capacity building among community leaders has also been claimed to reduce the efficiency in organization and management of community activities. In almost all conducted interviews, people claimed that there was generally poor organization and management of village activities by village leaders. The failure to match village meeting time with a normal community time-table was identified as among the leadership problems affecting women’s participation in meetings. For instance, women in the Rukwa Village pointed out that it is familiar to village leaders and all other community members that by 12:30pm women must be at home preparing lunch for family members even though meeting hours are prolonged until 1 or 2 pm. The prolonged discussions in meetings collided with women’s gender roles and, for such reasons, women have to discontinue participating at meetings in order to perform their duties at home. Nursing mothers are more prone to this situation because, when lunch time approaches, children must be fed so they return home to feed them. All these situations deprive women of the opportunity to participate fully in village meetings and project planning hence they are unable to point out their needs.

Poor record-keeping also affected participation, especially in the provision of labour to the project. Consequently, some people were being assigned activities more often than others, resulting in resistance to attend to tasks by the aggrieved community members.

Age and social class, such as marital status, have also been identified as affecting women's participation in decision-making. Women of 45 years of age and above (married and unmarried) have a greater chance of participating in family and community discussions because they are expected to have more life experience hence they could make reasonable decisions on community issues. Women below 40 years are considered to still be in the learning process, their experiences seemed not to be mature enough to tackle serious matters in the community. In this category (18 to 40 years), married women seem to be more acceptable compared to unmarried women. The perception is that a married woman is strong enough to face life's challenges while an unmarried woman is not because of her lack of experience as a married woman to interact with people such as husbands, relatives and friends. This attitude is even more severe toward divorced women. Mosse (1994:513) has suggested that, in order to ensure women's participation in decision-making, people should not take women as a single group because of the multiple identities of women because "class, age, marital status, religion and residence (natal village or village of marriage) can affect their participation in PRA meetings". Moreover, Yuval-Davis in her work, *Intersectionality and Feminist Politics* (2006), argues that women's multiple identities that affect their social privileges are based on social categories of gender, religion, culture, age and others.

Silence is used as a defensive mechanism by both married and unmarried women because the

expectation of unmarried women to marry forces them to be submissive in public so that people can count them as respectable and they will be accepted by men and their relatives in case of the possibility of marriage. Silence may also help to reduce conflict and misunderstanding within the family and in the community because a misbehaving woman (talkative and rude) is shameful and unacceptable within the community. Based on Kabeer's (2001a) view, women's exposure to the outside world can expand their knowledge and give them confidence to speak their views which can lead to conflict and an increase in male violence in the community and at family levels.

In addition to the lack of awareness and self-esteem among women, it was also reported that this affects women's ability to make decisions and to negotiate for their rights in the household and at the community level. This is due to inefficient community mobilization and a lack of awareness to raise issues of gender and community participation. The community development office admitted to have made limited awareness raising meetings within villages in Ujiji. Only 15 gender seminars for 41 women's groups were reportedly conducted between 2006 and 2010. More awareness meetings have been reported to have been conducted by several development projects that were implemented in the district between 2004 and 2009. The emphasis has been on making gender and community participation a priority issue. Education was provided only to project beneficiaries in specific villages and therefore not all community members accessed such education.

The researcher also gathered from the FDGs that awareness-raising seminars and meetings have helped to expand people's understanding of the importance of community participation and gender

equity thereby increasing women's ability to claim their rights and to increase men's willingness to support women's empowerment. This also reduces the lack of trust of village leaders and other committee members because those who do not understand the aim of community participation claim that voluntary work is encouraged to compensate for project funds misused by government leaders.

Kabeer (2001a) stresses that successful women's empowerment should include all spheres of influence and that men and women should be educated in order to enhance social networking in the development process. Failure to integrate the existing social structures into awareness raising efforts can delay or hinder the empowerment processes. Furthermore, the limited use of participatory techniques by PRA facilitators during the project planning process has been reported to be among the problems hindering women's participation in village meeting discussions. This was caused by limited capacity building on the use of diverse PRA techniques and, for such reason,s only public meetings were used in this process. During discussions, the PRA team members said that cultural factors and a lack of self-esteem among women hindered their ability to speak in public spaces like in village meetings, although they tried to ask women to share their views in the discussion.

Cornwall's (2002) Theory of Participation asserts that power and social differences in created participatory spaces can hinder participation of disadvantaged groups due to fear of powerful people in the meetings. In addition to this, Mosse (1994) suggests that the use of more decentralized participatory techniques like group discussions can help to involve people of specific

age groups, gender and social classes in discussions rather than public meetings which allow people of different statuses to participate in discussion. This, in turn, hinders the possibility for disadvantaged groups to express their views. Furthermore, Chambers (1994) suggests that participatory methodologies should consider changes within the social environment because not all methods can fit with all social environments. Other participatory techniques like “resource mapping and modelling, Venn and chapatti diagramming” should be employed to ensure effective community participation.

Lack of effective communication networks also affected the transfer of information within and outside villages. For instance, the lack of reliable transport in the delta area affects the flow of information from the district level to the village and from one location to another within the village. Villagers and leaders in the district and at village levels have admitted that many PRA meetings in the delta areas were not successful due to the delay of information. They said letters from the district could take one week before getting to the respective village, and for such reasons, the facilitation team went to the meeting without people’s awareness. In these circumstances, village leaders called persons who were around meeting places which were mainly business men at market places and those in nearby houses. For this reason, it was rare to find women at such meetings.

The use of “Kigoma” as a way of communication has also been identified as insufficient for the purpose of the transfer of information. In the FGDs, people pointed out that the available population and settlement patterns in the villages needed advanced methods of communication because the population had increased and settlements were scattered. The chairperson in Rukwa

village admitted that communication problems are much bigger in the delta areas because a village can be formed by three different islands and all the people in these islands have to get information. If the information comes late, it is difficult for the informer to pass through all islands to announce the meeting. In such cases, some people did not get information and hence there was a failure of community members to come to the meetings.

Moreover, women have been identified to be more disadvantaged in this context because they do not visit public places where information can be obtained. In Pearson's work, *Gender Matters In Development* (1992), she asserts that gender organization in a particular society determines people's accessibility to life chances and for gender roles specifically. Domestic work isolates women from interacting with other people thereby limiting their access to important information. This situation denies women the chance to participate in development processes.

#### **4.2.3.10 Consultations as a Form of Participation**

According to the TASAF procedures, consultative forms of participation were a two way street, from community members to government officials and from government officials to community members. In this form of participation, the emphasis was put on the interaction between government officials and the community. If the community plans matched with TASAF rules, then they would get approval for funding and, if not, they would have to get advice from government officials for proper steps to address the problem in order to act within country policies and to achieve expected results (TASAF Implementation Guideline, 2005).

For instance, according to sector norms under the ministry of health, the provision of health

facilities depends on population size in a particular locality. The construction of a dispensary is allowed in a population of 1000 people and above, 5000 people for a health centre and 10,000 people and above for a hospital. For such reasons, if the required criteria have not been met in a particular community, the project could be rejected (Department of Health Rufiji District August 2010). In relation to this issue, the TASAF district coordinator in Rufiji pointed out that technical staff from the district had been in touch with community members, specifically, village leaders and CMC members, in all villages in order to get information about project implementation progress and to give advice if necessary.

Moreover, CMC members and village leaders pointed out that, as community representatives in respective villages and day-to-day supervisors of project activities, they had to consult with government staff and other development partners within and out of the villages to get services and support for implementation of their project. For example, CMC members travelled to other villages that had implemented the same project to share experiences on ways to solve common problems encountered and also to seek advice from government officials on how to proceed with the other stages of implementation. This process mostly involved the movement of people from one place to another, as well as discussions to gain understanding on what should be done and how to do it in a proper way. Good communication networks, readiness and the willingness of government leaders and other development partners to give out support were needed for successful project implementation.

Good project plans and proper ways of solving problems was identified to be among the

advantages of social networking in decision-making and project implementation processes. Community members and other development partners managed to support each other for successful project implementation. Community members managed to identify desirable activities which could be shared by both men and women during project implementation and hence to enable women and men to participate in project activities.

The identified activities claimed to be manageable and also corresponded to the particular environment, for instance, fetching water, cutting timber, building poles, clearing the project area, making building blocks and other manageable work. They also added that this system has helped to expand their knowledge and experience not only for project implementation under TASAF, but also for their future lives. The CMC members also admitted that the expansion of the stakeholder base like the government officials, businessmen, technicians and banking industry, has helped, not only to establish a strong social networking linkages, but also improved service delivery. This system of communication claimed to bring positive changes to both men and women in the community (FGDs with CMC members and chair persons in Rukwa and Iringa December 2013).

Apart from the importance of the consultation form of participation, the findings revealed some challenges encountered by women during the project implementation process. Gender issues, insufficient transportation systems and bureaucracy in government and non-government institutions were among them. According to the TASAF guidelines, female CMC members and their male counterparts were given leadership positions in order to build their confidence and to utilize and expand their knowledge in decision-making and implementing of development

programs. Interaction within and outside the village was encouraged in order for people to share knowledge and experience they with people of diverse backgrounds.

Being responsible for care activities and transport hardships have been identified as discouraging CMC female members from participating in some project activities like procurement and contacting different service providers at nearby villages and at the district level. For instance, more use of time on project activities rather than domestic work for women seemed to be problematic for family members. It was estimated that travelling from the delta and other remote village areas to seek services in the district and other towns could consume more than 12 hours. Women were not ready to stay away and nor did their husbands allow their wives to stay away from home for such a long period of time (FGDs December, 2013).

Based on Kabeer's (2001b) ideas of women's empowerment, minimal or a complete lack of chances for women to interact with other people has deprived women of opportunities to learn from the outside world and hence has increased their exclusion from the development processes. In addition, bureaucracy in legal institutions like government offices, banks and TASAF procedures, have been identified as among the factors affecting women's participation in project activities. For example, in order for CMC and village council members to have access to project funds from the bank, they have to ask the coordinator for approval. This is to make sure that the amount of money that is needed is also equivalent to the identified activity being implemented. This process forces CMC members and village leaders to travel from their villages to the district and to the bank.

The problems identified with this include long waiting times to get the required services from service providers due to their absence from their offices when needed, long queues and sometimes the need to contact more than one office in order to solve a single issue. This situation was claimed to result in the postponement of appointments and was time wasting. Women CMC members pointed out that this situation was untenable for nursing mothers because children started crying which created uncomfortable situations for their mothers. For such reasons, women decided to perform other project responsibilities within the village and let men make follow up trips for outside services (FGDs with CMC members July/August, 2010).

#### **4.2.3.11 Utilization Form of Participation**

According to the government's objectives, it is expected that implementation of varied development projects within communities will improve people's livelihoods and the national development in general. One way to achieve this is through their utilization upon completion of a funded project. For instance, construction of maternity wards and dispensaries would greatly improve people's health and, in turn, reduce the utilization of resources in health services. Even further, this would increase the number of strong and healthy people which would, in turn, increase economic productivity.

In accordance with TASAF expectations, people's need for social services was an incentive for women's participation in project activities. For instance, in all the villages in the study, women showed an interest in implemented projects due to the expected relevance to them. Women FGDs admitted that the market projects accorded them more secure premises to conduct their businesses

since there was a lower incidence of harassment in public places. The improvement of roads drew interest among the community members. The researcher found that their expectation of how much the expected services from implemented projects would ease their problems, had an influence on their willingness to participate in the project activities. Based on strategic and practical gender needs as stipulated by Molyneux (1985 as cited in Moser, 1989) on the issue of gender planning in development matters, it is apparent that people's participation in development projects is influenced by their perceived benefit. By the same token, that failure to fulfil people's expectations due to the deficiency of service providers and resources will discourage people's efforts to participate in the implementation of various development programs.

#### **4.2.3.12 Individual and Collective Action: Factors Facilitating Women's Participation**

Apart from the above discussed challenges to women's participation, community members in researched villages admitted to employing measures that influence women's participation in project activities. This support claimed to come from family members, neighbors, government leaders as well as the women themselves. Those measures have been divided into collective and individual actions whereby individual actions are about efforts made by women themselves (individually) to find alternatives to participating directly in project activities, while collective action is about community willingness to support women's participation by giving assistance to them.

Kabeer (2001a), in her framework of women's empowerment, asserts that women's empowerment can help women with their ability to negotiate to access available resources and life opportunities.

While resources in themselves are important for women's empowerment, they are not adequate unless accompanied by willingness and support from other social networks such as family and institutional frameworks.

In terms of individual action, women were prepared to organize their daily routines in order to accommodate domestic work, informal paid work and project activities. Among the women respondents there were those who were willing and who understood the importance of development projects; they therefore made every effort to physically participate in development projects unless they were sick, pregnant or looking after sick people at home.

Community members were also willing to help women by doing some of women's work in order to give the women time to participate in project activities and to rest before proceeding with their duties. For instance, older children and other family members at home took on some of the informal and domestic work just to help their mothers, aunts and sisters so that they could attend village meetings or participate in project work. From the researcher's personal experience, few men in the village would engage in domestic work like fetching water and collecting firewood when women are tied up with their duties.

The research findings show that some villages and districts demonstrated considerable support for women's participation in project activities. There were instances whereby women were accorded the first opportunity to speak in meetings and the meeting facilitator ensured that the men did not interrupt women or disregard their opinions. By enforcing ground rules which included respect for other people's opinions, women were saved the otherwise contemptuous attitude to their

opinions that is prevalent at these meetings. This is an attitude that causes many women to shy away from expressing themselves or from attending these meetings altogether.

#### **4.2.3.13 Research Study Observations**

Through primary and secondary data collection, the researcher came across language and instances that appear to have either a direct or indirect effect on women's participation in the project planning and implementation processes. The researcher learned first-hand that the term "wahuni" or "muhuni" (singular and plural nouns) was used in reference to unmarried women. Over time, the same word has been used in reference to a deviant person.

The current use or understanding of the word "muhuni" seems to disrupt people's perception about unmarried men and women because they are considered to be people are lacking in good moral conduct and therefore cannot be expected to give a reasonable opinion in matters of community interest. They are stigmatized and socially excluded from what are perceived to be the good membership of society.

This statement clearly shows society's stand. Unmarried men and women are unlikely to be given the opportunity to express their views or to take leadership positions in the community. The researcher found that, on the rare occasion he held discussions with women in the absence of men, the women, married and unmarried alike, were much more confident and willing to express their opinions. Indeed, these women took a very active part in the discussions unlike in the presence of men.

Apart from common practical gender needs, women also identified strategic gender needs like eliminating all forms of women's subordination which deprives them of their rights to express their views and to have choices for their life style. Similarly, women thought men should appreciate and consider women's triple roles and see the importance of helping them perform some of their duties at home in order to reduce their working time.

In discussion, women admitted that women's emancipation can help to improve conditions for women and allow their participation in development activities. The willingness of FGD participants to organize open discussions in addition to the formal discussions we had, has shown their interest in education in development matters. Most of participants, especially men who were the majority in the discussions (16 men and 10 women participants), were curious to know how patriarchal systems perpetuate women's subordination and the ways in which it delays development processes.

Through discussion, they identified the preference of male children in families as one of the characteristics of a patriarchal system. They admitted that the tendency to consider males as the heads of families and patrilineal inheritance of family properties, deprives women of control over family properties and removes any authority by women to make decisions in family matters. One of the participants, Box 13, gave an example of an incident which occurred due to male control of wealth.

They also said that a patriarchal system makes people ignore women's opinions in family and community matters. Moreover, men admitted that there has been an increase in women's work

loads due to the gender division of labor and the economic condition in their families. They said that other activities, like collecting fire wood and washing clothes, can be done even by men; they promised to discuss those issues with fellow men in order to look for strategies to support women's empowerment. They asked a village chairperson (who was among the participants at the open discussion) to invite a community development officer from the ward level to conduct awareness meetings at least twice per year. They also admitted that a lack of information affects people's understanding of different issues in the society and this, in turn, leads to women's disempowerment and underdevelopment.

The above findings have shown that women's participation under the interactive form of participation (involvement in decision-making) is low when compared to other forms of participation. Women's participation seems to be high in the contribution form of participation (provision of labour force). This might partly be due to the fact that women's duties in construction activities are continuous. One example of this is fetching water whereas men's duties might include digging foundation ditches or cutting building poles, both of which are occasional.

#### **4.2.3.14 Consultation Form of Participation**

This refers to the communication between government officials and the community. It was evident that it was applied more by CMC members and leaders rather than other community members. In this form, women who are members of CMC have more influence in participation because of their positions as elected representatives of the communities. Apart from the challenges they got in participating in external consultation, CMC women members still had the opportunity to do so

within village boundaries (to contact village leaders and other influential people for advice).

#### **4.2.3.15 Utilization Form of Participation**

This has more influence on those who have expectations of benefitting from a particular project rather than those who could not access such services, although every project has direct and indirect importance to community members within a particular area.

Also, community understanding of participation is more affected by inadequate education on the issue of gender and community participation. For this reason, leaders and community members should be provided with such education to expand their knowledge in development matters. Moreover availability and accessibility of social network support from family members and other institutions within and outside the village is important to boost women's participation in project activities.

#### **4.2.3.16 Rural Development Planning: Ujamaa**

In 1967, President Nyerere published his development blueprint, which was titled *The Arusha Declaration*, in which Nyerere pointed out the need for an African model of development which formed the basis of African Socialism. Ujamaa comes from the Swahili word for “extended family” and is distinguished by several key characteristics, namely, that a person becomes a person through other people or the community.

Rural development generally refers to the process of improving the quality of lives and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas. Rural development

has traditionally centered on the exploitation of land-intensive natural resources such as agriculture and forestry. However, changes in global production networks and increased urbanization have changed the character of rural areas. Increasingly tourism, niche manufacturers, and recreation have replaced resource extraction and agriculture as dominant economic drivers.

Figure 9 shows what Ujamaa in Tanzania is.



**Figure 9: Ujamaa in Tanzania**  
(Source: [www.google.co.bw/search?q=ujamaa](http://www.google.co.bw/search?q=ujamaa))

The need for rural communities to approach development from a wider perspective has created more focus on a broad range of development goals rather than merely creating incentive for agricultural or resource based businesses. Education, entrepreneurship, physical infrastructure, and social infrastructure all play a role in developing rural regions. Rural development is also characterized by its emphasis on locally produced economic development strategies. In contrast to

urban regions, which have many similarities, rural areas are highly distinctive from one another. For this reason, there is a large variety of rural development approaches used globally.

Rural development actions are mainly for the social and economic development of the rural areas and their communities. Rural development programmes in Tanzania are usually top-down from the local or district authorities, regional development agencies, NGOs, national governments or international development organizations. Local populations can also bring about endogenous initiatives for development. The term is not limited to the issues for developing economies. In fact, many of the developed economies have very active rural development programmes. The main aim of the rural government policy is to develop the underdeveloped villages. This was designed by Mwalimu Nyerere under Ujamaa-African Socialism.

Rural development aims at finding the ways to improve the lives of rural people with their participation to meet their needs. An outsider may not understand the setting, culture, language and other things prevalent in the local area therefore the local people must participate in sustainable rural development projects. In Tanzania, integrated development approaches are being implemented. Many approaches and ideas have been developed and followed up, for instance, the bottom-up approach, PRA-Participatory Rural Appraisal, RRA-Rapid Rural Appraisal among others.

The idea for collective agriculture was sound – it was possible to provide equipment, facilities, and materials for a rural population if they were brought together in “nucleated” settlements, each of around 250 families. It made the distribution of fertilizer and seed easier, and it was possible to

provide a good level of education to the population. Villagization also overcame the problems of “tribalization” which beset other newly independent African countries.

Nyerere’s socialist outlook required Tanzania’s leaders to reject capitalism and all its trimmings, showing restraint over salary and perks. But it was rejected by a significant portion of the population. When the main foundation of Ujamaa, villagization, failed, productivity was thought to increase through collectivization, instead it fell to less than 50% of what was achieved on independent farms. Towards the end of Nyerere’s rule, Tanzania had become one of Africa’s poorest countries, dependent on international aid.

#### **4.2.3.17 Participation Of Rural Communities in the Development Process**

Development in Tanzania has mainly catered for urban areas to the neglect of rural communities. This is evident in the inadequate, or in some cases, complete lack of state provision of health, education, and other social amenities which has, in effect, led to a situation where rural people lack the basic necessities of life. This can mainly be attributed to the fact that development projects in rural communities are often imposed on the communities by external agencies (governmental and non-governmental).

Rural development initiatives are aimed at bringing about sustained improvement in the quality of life of rural dwellers. However, they may not achieve the desired outcomes if the beneficiaries are not included in the various stages. Flo and Smith (1999), in support of this view, opine that “failure to involve a cross-section of community members and interests will weaken the community development effort”. To be effective, all sectors of the community must be involved in the decision

making process. Therefore, in order for the rural developmental agenda of Tanzania to be realized, the participation of rural community members should be sought. Rural community members should be part of the decision-making process with regard to their developmental needs. Such developmental needs must serve as the guiding principle for any developmental projects. When people participate in any activity, it enables them to come to terms with their present situation, which, in turn, enables them to take action to change such a situation.

In order for all community members and leaders to be part of the development efforts of their communities, there is a need to create a platform for leaders and members to be part of such efforts. Community meetings, which will serve this purpose, will create the avenue for community leaders and members to plan and implement development activities. Rubin and Rubin (2008:213) assert that meetings are about expanding collective involvement in social change work. Information shared at meetings increases the competence of people to act. More specialized meetings build capacity by presenting knowledge on techniques. At decision-making meetings, members of the organizations and leaders come together to work out action strategies.

Community leaders play a significant role in the ability of communities to plan effectively for developmental initiatives. Leaders in rural communities are an embodiment of respect and can be a source of motivation to community members in contributing to the development process. In identifying the essence of leadership in the community development process, Kirk and Kraft (2004) say that community leadership emphasizes a collaborative, on-going, influential process, based on the relationships between people for development processes.

Many development projects undertaken in rural communities in Tanzania did not involve rural communities in the various stages from planning, implementing, and monitoring to evaluation. As has been argued, planning is crucial to the success of development projects. The participation of community members must be sought in the various stages of planning development projects. Rural communities are characterized by a strong commitment to community values and their values must be incorporated in the planning and design of development projects in their communities.

The government of Tanzania plays the leading role in development initiatives, with some support from foreign donors. Notable amongst development projects undertaken by the government with support from foreign donors are the rural electrification projects, embarked on nationwide, and the sinking of boreholes to make water available to all rural communities in the country. Even though development projects in the country are more often than not the initiative of the government, some communities have also undertaken some self-help developmental projects.

When compared with traditional forms of development, PD is sometimes criticized for being costly and slow. A project may take longer if one has to engage, work and come to a consensus with local communities, than if one did not have to do these things. PD may also have higher startup costs than traditional development. In addition, PD is criticized for reaching a smaller population than traditional development. Community dialogue and augmentation may initially involve only a few individuals, whereas dropped food aid reaches hundreds of people.

More radical development thinkers have criticized PD projects for treating communities as if they were all similar. This issue has been raised particularly with regard to gender. Critics suggest that,

while many organizations' acknowledge the importance of including women in PD projects, the history of success has been limited. This may be because PD projects seek to address women's immediate needs without addressing underlying aspects of gender subordination such as the unequal division of reproductive labour, restrictions on female mobility, domestic violence and women's lack of autonomy. This view suggests that organizations only include local voices to improve their image, without really seeking to engage the population with which they are working.

Research survey findings identified four forms of participatory development based on Ujamaa principles.

- **Passive participation** is the least participatory of the four approaches. Primary stakeholders of a project participate by being informed about what is going to happen or has already happened. People's feedback is minimal or non-existent, and their participation is assessed through methods like head counting and contribution to the discussion (sometimes referred to as participation by information).
- **Participation by consultation** is an extractive process, whereby communities provide answers to questions posed by outside researchers or experts. Input is not limited to meetings but can be provided at different times. In the final analysis, however, this consultative process keeps all the decision-making power in the hands of external professionals who are under no obligation to incorporate communities' inputs.
- **Participation by collaboration** forms groups of primary communities to participate in the discussion and analysis of predetermined objectives set by the project. This level of

participation does not usually result in dramatic changes of what should be accomplished, which may already have been determined. It does, however, require an active involvement in the decision-making process about how to achieve it. This incorporates a component of horizontal communication and capacity building among all stakeholders – a joint collaborative effort. Even if initially dependent on outside facilitators and experts, with time, collaborative participation has the potential to evolve into an independent form of participation.

- **Empowerment participation** is where primary communities are capable and willing to initiate the process and take part in the analysis. This leads to joint decision making about what should be achieved and how. While outsiders are equal partners in the development effort, the primary stakeholders are *primus inter pares*, i.e. they are equal partners with a significant say in decisions concerning their lives. Dialogue identifies and analyzes critical issues, and an exchange of knowledge and experiences leads to solutions. Ownership and control of the process rest in the hands of the primary communities.

Participation is a two way process which requires that the beneficiaries and the government, as well as NGOs, interact regularly at each stage of the development process. Community participation is an essential prerequisite in facilitating successful development initiatives that will ultimately enhance the quality of life of rural people. For participation to be effective, it has to be accompanied by well-structured empowerment programmes. These will enable participants to make informed decisions as to whether or not to participate in a given project.

Wherever possible, participation by beneficiaries should be solicited from the initial stages of a given project. Planning is at the core of all development endeavors. Socio-economic development planning, conducted in a multi-stakeholder and participatory manner gives communities the opportunity to determine their destinies. In this case, *participatory* refers to the inclusion of all groups. In Tanzania, rural communities comprise groups that represent the majority of the population.

Participation must extend beyond the initial stages, through the decision-making, implementation and maintenance upon completion. Failure to follow through on this has led to a sustainability crisis with regard to water projects in Tanzania.

Sustainability of rural water supplies is a major challenge in Tanzania. Water Point Mapping (WPM) surveys conducted in 51 districts found that only 54% of all public improved water points are functional. Even very new water points have a problem. The same surveys found that just two years after project completion, a quarter of water point are no longer functioning.

Assuming similar functionality rates apply nationwide, there are around 30,000 non-functioning rural water points in Tanzania. This number would be enough to provide access to clean and safe water to 7.5 million people in rural Tanzania (assuming 250 people are served by each water point).

The Water Sector Development Programme (WSDP) is a major step forward for the sector. It increased funding for the rural water supply from TZS19bn in 2005 to TZS93bn in 2008/9 and made funding available nationwide for the first time. However, if functionality rates remain the as

they are, then around half of this money will end up being wasted.

In order to improve the sustainability records, there must be provision made at the planning stage. Sustainability of rural water supplies depends on a wide range of factors such as durability of the hardware involved and the reliability of the water source. However, even with the most durable hardware, there is wear, tear and eventual breakdown. There must be provision made from the outset as to what happens when the hardware breaks down; it must be established who will be responsible for the repairs; there must be funds set aside for spare parts and labor and it must be known who will provide the technical skills required for the maintenance of the water points.

Further, responsibilities must be clearly defined to avoid conflicts of interest as well as shifting blame when things go wrong. It is critical that participation by the community members include a sense of ownership to facilitate sustainability of community projects.

Here are some lessons learned from Tanzania's water point sustainability crisis:

- Balance participation and decision-making that support sustainability;
- Improve monitoring and regulatory mechanisms at the village and district level;
- Improve services offered by the district water departments;
- Propose practical ideas for the district water departments to come to grips with sustainability.

The researcher found that more than 60% of the houses for teachers and nurses, toilets and classrooms as well as dispensaries were incomplete two or more years after the project had been initiated. This was notwithstanding the fact that millions of US dollars had already been expended

and there was no clarity as to when the projects would be completed.

#### **4.2.3.18 Rural Community And Members Sustainable Development Approach**

The term “sustainable development” came into popular use after the 1987 report of the World Commission on Environment and Development, popularly known as the Brundtland Report and the Brundtland Commission, respectively. The report was largely a response to the growing international environmental and ecological lobby. It defined “sustainable development” as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED 1987, p. 43). According to Donald Brooks (1990), the paradigm, or worldview, emerging around this concept recognized the need to ensure and facilitate the integration of conservation and development, maintenance of ecological integrity, satisfaction of basic human needs, achievement of equity and social justice and provision of social self-determination and cultural diversity.

#### **4.2.3.19 What is Sustainable Development in the Rural Community?**

What is required to attain the ideal sustainable development that lies at the heart of national economic aspirations? It is clear that it is connected with increasing the net worth of the nation through expanding the stocks of capital that are put into societal development. The capital required for sustainable development comprises the natural resources, the social framework and the human capital available to a country. I argue that well-accepted systems of good governance, a widely and highly regarded independent judiciary, free media, and functioning educational and health systems are as important for development as the reserves of iron ore, the fertility of farm land, the

number of computers and mobile phones per capita.

Increasing use is now being made of the various indexes, such as those constructed by Transparency International that rate individual countries in terms of how free or unfree their economic systems are. These indexes include measures of corruption, press freedom, commitment to human rights as well as the standard criteria used to judge between free and controlled markets. There is now considerable evidence that, in planning Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), companies use such indexes to form their perceptions of where it is best to locate their businesses. High on the index is the capital assets of countries.

For development to be sustainable in the rural communities, each generation must leave the next a stock of productive capacity, in the form of materials, socio-technological and human assets, that is capable of sustaining and improving the level and growth of well-being per capita enjoyed by the current generation or, at the very least, is equal to that enjoyed by the current generation. In other words, sustainable development requires that the stock of natural, man-made, social and human capital should not decline. This has come to be known as the “Sustainable Constant Capital Rule” (CCR), another concept at the heart of my research findings. Globalization appears to be a threat to the creation of conditions for Sustainable Development. Globalization describes the increasing integration of economies in terms not only of goods and services, but also of ideas, information and technology.

#### **4.2.3.20 Projects and Sub-Projects Research Survey Findings**

Research survey findings show that one of the most important prerequisites to increase investment in the rural community is the creation of conducive conditions through demonstrated political stability, sound economic and financial management and the establishment of legal systems that have clear rules and effective enforcement of contracts. Macro-economic stability, competitive markets, and adequate public investment in the physical and social infrastructure are generally agreed to be requirements for sustained economic growth. It is widely accepted that economic growth is necessary but not sufficient for poverty reduction.

Research survey findings suggests that if rural communities put incentive structures and complementary investments in place to ensure better education and health that lead to higher incomes, the poor will benefit doubly through increased current consumption and higher future incomes. Growth contributes to poverty reduction when it expands employment, productivity, and wages of poor people, and when public resources are spent on human development and physical infrastructure. Growth obviously does not help poverty reduction when a high proportion of the GDP is spent on servicing the public debt and maintaining a large civilian and military system. With this background information, the first question to be addressed then is the finding on the projects and sub-project in different locations, as described below.

##### ***4.2.3.20.1 Construction of 3 Classrooms at Kimotorok Primary School***

The community initiated the sub-project yet, a year later, it was still incomplete. The sub-project received its first tranche on 15th December 2008 amounting to Tshs 24,869,000. There was no

additional funding on this sub-project and its status at time of the visit for this study in December 2013 are as follows:

- All of the three classrooms had been roofed;
- Plastering inside and outside was not yet done;
- Windows and doors had not been fitted yet and the blackboard had not been placed on the wall;
- Community's contribution was 8,384,500/= TSH but the community had not yet contributed the amount to facilitate the completion of the sub-project. Therefore the subproject without community contribution is worth Tshs 24,869,000/= instead of Tshs 32,764,600/= as shown in the report.

#### ***4.2.3.20.2 Monduli District Council: Construction of a Teacher's House at Nanja Secondary School (Mti Mmoja)***

A total of 28 sub-projects started on 12/12/2007 when the sub-projects received the first tranche of Tsh.10, 344,290/= followed by second tranche of tsh.10, 344,290/= on 20/06/2008. The sub-projects received additional funds of Tsh.9, 913,200/= on 28/07/2011 as EV for completion to functionality as follows:-

**Subproject implementation status:** Implementation is stagnant and the remaining bank balance of Tsh.2,007,000/= as at 30th September 2012 is not sufficient to accomplish the outstanding activities. Completion rate is 65%. Outstanding activities are: plastering and blundering in some parts, doors and window frames and tops, flooring corridor, open spaces and wiring.

#### ***4.2.3.20.3 Research Study Issues Observed***

**Micro planning:** The micro planning and field appraisal was not properly done to convince the community to contribute their part. There was inadequate technical support from the LGA to CMC during implementation. There was neither a site instruction book nor written instructions by LGA technical expert/Technician/Engineer on the site. Conflict between VC and CMC due to uninformed roles and responsibilities and procurement plans and budget was not adhered to and no work plan was in place.

Some building materials purchased by TASAF funds were stolen, namely, sand 2 trips, boulders 4 trips, iron sheets G28 2mt (6pcs), iron bar 20mm (8pcs), iron bar 12mm (10pcs), wire mesh (4pcs), timber 2” X6” (15pcs), timber 1” X8” (20pcs) and cement bricks 6” (200pcs).

Laborers were paid using TASAF funds instead of community contributions, procurement of goods was done through cash instead of cheque and materials were bought in bulk which caused the theft of materials.

The same applied to the construction of roads and bridges for which the government had sought community participation. Where projects were complete, there did not appear to be any provision for maintenance and therefore these were likely to deteriorate over time. This lack of planning for the long-term life of the project leads to disinterest among the community members which came out in the FGD as they felt that there is lack of transparency and, undoubtedly, a great deal of corruption.

#### ***4.2.3.20.4 Construction of Dining Hall at Ketumbeine Secondary School***

This subproject was initiated on 12/12/2007 when it received the first tranche of Tsh.16, 063,492.50 followed by a second tranche of Tsh.16, 063,492.50 on 25/06/2008. Additional funds in the amount of Tsh.33, 420,640.00 were granted by TMU for completion and functionality. This was further followed by yet more funds in the sum of Tsh.59, 458,740.00 in May 2012.

Subproject implementation status: (i) The building is roofed. (ii) The additional funding of Tsh.59,458,740.00 was not yet utilized and (iii) Outstanding activities included installation of the ceiling boards, plastering, painting, installation of window and door frames.

#### ***4.2.3.20.5 Research Study Issues Observed***

Preparation of work plan for utilization of additional funds for completion to functionality was needed. The original sub-project was under budgeted and delays in transferring additional funds from LGA NVF account (May, 2012) to sub-project account (October, 2012).

#### ***4.2.3.20.6 Ngorongoro District Council***

Ololosokwan: Construction of dining hall at Soitsambu Secondary School received an approved budget of Tsh.34,040,138/= from TMU in December 2007; it received Tsh.16,146,600/= in June 2009 and on 06/06/2011 received additional funds of Tsh.26,915,451.82.

LGA contributed Tsh.20,000,000/=. However, at the time of visiting the sub-project in December 2013, the sub-project was only 80% completed, notwithstanding the amount of money and the length of time allocated to it.

#### ***4.2.3.20.7 Research Study Issues Observed***

(i) The micro planning and field appraisal was not properly done to authenticate the willing of the community to contribute; (ii) There was inadequate technical support from the LGA to CMC during implementation; (iii) Conflict between VC and CMC; (iv) Procurement plan and budget was not adhered to; (v) There is no work plan; (vi) The dining hall has no ceiling board, plaster, window glass, tiles and is not painted; and (vi) The kitchen has no windows, ceiling boards and the plastering and painting of the solar installation is not yet done.

The council contributed Tsh.20 million shillings. The community also contributed cash in an undisclosed amount but the money was stolen.

**Subprojects progress and financial reports are not prepared by CMCs:** These are supposed to be prepared and submitted to VC for presentation to the community after each three months and discussed with the community in a Village assembly meeting. For example, at Ololosokwani Village, where the building of a dining hall at Soitsambu secondary school is taking place, the financial reports were not prepared and submitted to VC for discussion in the Village assembly. As a result, the money contributed by the community was lost. Also at Baraa, the previous CMCs did hand over the financial reports to newly elected CMCs.

**CMCs were not properly trained and they failed to accomplish their duties:** At Ololosokwan Village, the CMCs do not understand their duties and they asked to be retrained. The VC also emphasized the retraining of CMCs and promised to use the Village fund to pay the trainers.

**Poor management of building materials:** At Ololosokwan where the construction of Soitsambu secondary school is taking place, CMC purchased and handed all the building materials to the builder but no CMC member went to the site to supervise the builder. As a result, the builder stole 50 packets of cement.

#### ***4.2.3.20.8 Environmental Conservation: Tree Planting at Esilalei***

This sub-project was initiated with an approved budget of Tsh.28, 613,300/= on 30/06/2011 when the sub-project received the first tranche of Tsh.14, 306,650/= followed by a second tranche of tsh.14, 306,650/= on 20/09/2011.

**Subproject implementation status:** Only 300 trees planted out of 7,200 trees purchased.

#### ***4.2.3.20.9 Research Study Issues Observed***

(i) Only 300 trees planted out of 7200 trees purchased by TASAF funds; (ii) The implementation was done without site supervisor; (iii) Neither the VC, the CMC members nor the community members were found at site; and (iv) Inadequate technical supervision even though supervision funds were paid to LGA sector experts. Furthermore, there was neither a site instruction book nor written instructions by LGA technical expert/Technician/Engineer on the site; there was no access to sub-project documents and records, payments to beneficiaries were made without the use of interim certificates which shows that the task rates, total budget, amount requested and cumulative amount paid.

**Total planned quantity, quantity this time and cumulative quantity:** (i) There is no value for

money on this sub-project; the actual value of sub-project is 20% of sub-project fund while the actual expenditure incurred is 80% of sub-project fund; (ii) Remaining bank balance of 7m vs outstanding activities and Sura-Road Rehabilitation 3.5km.

The sub-project implementation started on 21/4/2011 when the sub-project received the first tranche of Tsh.14, 884,728.57 followed by a second tranche of tsh.14, 884,728.57 on 09/10/2012.

**Research Study Sub-project implementation status:** The 3.5 km Road Rehabilitation and construction of culverts was expected to be completed by 31st October, 2012. To that end:

- Training of CMC was properly done for 3 days. Monthly progress and financial reports prepared by CMC submitted to VC and presented to community in village assembly meeting for discussion;
- Transfer of second tranche Tsh.14, 884,728.57 by was made by the LGA on 09/10/2012 to sub-project bank account prior to justification of first tranche satisfactory utilization;
- The culverts are not yet constructed;
- Payments to beneficiaries were made without the use of interim certificates which shows the task rates, total budget, amount requested this time, cumulative amount paid, total planned quantity, quantity this time and cumulative quantity.

#### ***4.2.3.20.10 Seela Water System at Seela Village***

This sub-project was implemented in November 2011 when the sub-project received the first

tranche of Tsh.14, 975,071/= followed by a second tranche of Tsh.14, 975,071/=.

**Sub-project implementation status:** Implementation is waiting consent from NEMC Arusha Zone for installation of water pipes from the source (Sindi Forest). Consent had already been obtained from ANAPA (Arusha National Park) and TANAPA (Tanzania National Parks).

#### ***4.2.3.20.11 Research Study Issues Observed***

- The micro planning and field appraisal was not properly done to ensure availability of land acquisition letter prior to submission of SPAF to TMU;
- Despite funds being allocated in 2011, by December 2013, the project was yet to start. There was no clear indication, either, as to when the requisite land acquisition letter would be available.

#### ***4.2.3.20.12 Longido District Council: Eworendeke: Matiani 9km Road Rehabilitation***

This sub-project was initiated on 04/03/2011 when it received the first tranche of Tsh.16, 316,845/= followed by a second tranche of tsh.16, 316,845/= on 16/02/2012. The total subproject budget was Tsh.35, 897,059.00 including 10% for monitoring and supervision.

**Subproject implementation status:** Construction of 2 drift out of planned 7 drift and construction of road 7.2km out of planned 9km.

#### ***4.2.3.20.13 Research Study Issues Observed***

- The micro-planning and field appraisal was not properly done therefore the intended beneficiaries walk a distance of 10kms from their homes to the sub-project site;

- The wrong beneficiaries selected for the tasks, with the result that women were the main labor contributors yet they were not physically strong enough to undertake the hard physical labor synonymous with road construction;
- The bank balance was Tsh.1,500,000/= whilst the unpaid wages to beneficiaries is in excess of Tsh. 2m;
- Payments to beneficiaries were made without following the task rates (task rates paid were below normal task rates);
- Payments to beneficiaries were made without use of interim certificates which show the task rates, total budget, amount requested, cumulative amount paid, Total planned quantity, Quantity this time and cumulative quantity;
- There was no site supervisor (LSP) to assign proper/planned task rates, instead, the CMC chairperson and secretary were doing that work without any technical knowledge;
- Most of the checks were signed by two male members contrary to the regulations.;
- Minutes of CMC meetings for all payments were not endorsed by VC;
- Payment was made to supplier for 60 bags of cement which were never delivered;
- Sub-project Progress and Financial reports were not prepared by CMC and submitted to VC to be presented to Community through Village Assembly meeting.

#### ***4.2.3.20.14 Construction of 4 Classrooms at Baraa Secondary School***

This sub-project initiated more than a year ago (19 months) and is still not completed. The sub-project received approved funds of Tsh.28, 214,988.00 from TMU on 26/02/2007 for the

construction of 4 classrooms. The additional amount of Tshs. 39,472,620/= which is the sum of Tsh.38, 454,120/= received between May and June 2011 and Tsh.1, 018,500/= for the cabinets in additional to the previous amount of Tsh.800, 000/= for completion and functionality of the sub-project.

**Subproject status:-**

- The 4 classrooms were constructed and put into use;
- 180 students' tables were delivered but not put into use;
- 85 students' chairs delivered but the 95 chairs and 4 cabinets not delivered;
- 4 Teachers' tables and 4 teachers' chairs delivered and put to use;
- 4 notice boards were fixed;
- 8 holes for students' toilets were not constructed, instead, the funds were re-allocated for the construction of 4 holes for teachers' toilets by extending the building from the staff room. CMC and LGA technician were told verbally by VFC that the available balance of Tsh.19, 000,000/= was for construction of 4 holes for teachers' toilets. This is a diversion of funds from intended purposes and therefore it is ineligible expenditure.

***4.2.3.20.15 Research Study Issues Observed***

- Reallocation of funds in construction of 4 holes for teachers' toilets instead of 8 holes for students' toilets without approval from TMU;
- 95 Students' chairs and 4 cabinets were not delivered to the site;

- The CMC was changed three times due to conflict between CMC members and Mtaa Council leadership and Ward Council (WDC);
- The new elected 6 CMC members were trained by LGA facilitators for 3 days and started implementation on May, 2012;
- Inadequate technical support by LGA to CMC during implementation;
- Procurement of goods and services was mostly facilitated by VFC instead of Sector expert/ Technician;
- Lack of transparency from LGA and CMC to Mtaa committee (the CMC had no official subproject drawings, budget and work plan);
- No proper record keeping as the subprojects documents were not handed over to new CMC;
- CMCs were not provided with sub-projects' management handbooks which could guide them during implementation of sub-projects;
- Poor reporting system and feedback at the community level. Presentation of quarterly progress reports to Village Assembly for discussion by VC Management;
- Conflicts between CMC and Ward Development Committee (WDC). There was a long-drawn out conflict at Baraa village between the CMC and WDC about who should manage the TASAF funds. The conflict caused delays in the implementation of the sub-project.

Figure 10 shows construction of four holes for teachers' toilets at Baraa secondary school.



**Figure 10: Construction of 4 Holes for Teachers' Toilets at Baraa Secondary School**

Figure 11 shows incomplete classrooms.



**Figure 11: Incomplete construction of classrooms at Kimotorok Primary School.**

***4.2.3.20.16 Arusha District Council: Construction of 3 Classrooms at Marurani Primary School***

There was a two year delay in the completion of this sub-project (August 2009 to August 2012). The sub-project was initiated in August 2009 when it received the first tranche of Tsh.14, 968,291.00 followed by the second one of Tsh.14, 968,291/= in December, 2010. The sub-project received additional funds of Tsh.32, 704,430/= between May 2012 for completion to functionality.

**Subproject implementation status:**

- The construction of 3 classrooms is at finishing stage;
- 69 students' desks not yet delivered;
- 6 holes for students' toilets are under construction;
- Community contribution is Tshs. 2,950,000/=;

- CMC prepare monthly progress and financial reports and submit to VC, who presented to the community after every three months and discussed with community in Village assembly meeting;
- Proper subproject record keeping/bookkeeping by CMC members;
- Procurement of materials done by all CMC members on rotation basis and with transparency;
- Training of CMC members was conducted by LGA facilitators for three days;
- There is collaboration between CMC and VC, CMC and Community in implementing the sub-project.

**Research Study Issues Observed:** (i) Micro planning was not properly conducted as actual cost of foundation was higher than planned hence incomplete sub-project as well as burden to community; (ii) Delay in transfer of funds from LGA NVF account to sub-project account; and (iii) inadequate technical support by LGA to CMC during implementation.

#### ***4.2.3.20.17 Rehabilitation of Irrigation Canal (250mt) at Mlangarini Village***

This sub-project was initiated in April 2011 when it received the first tranche of Tsh.15, 896,509.91 followed by second tranche of Tsh.15, 896,509.91 on 6/08/2012. Table 8 shows the implementation activities of the sub-project fund.

**Table 8: Subproject Funds for Implementation Activities**

Sub-Project Description	Value/cost in Tshs
Rehabilitation of Irrigation Canal (250 meters)	31,793,019.82
Monitoring and Supervision @ 10%	3,179,282.18
Grand Total	34,972,302.00

(Source: Researcher 2014)

**Subproject implementation status:**

- The construction of irrigation canal constructed up to 250mt;
- Outstanding activities are: fixing 3 gates, construction of 1 line culvert and completion of 25mts.

***4.2.3.20.18 Research Study Issues Observed***

- E-PRA was not properly done which resulted wrong targeted of beneficiaries i.e. PLWHIV were selected as beneficiaries instead of able bodied families who are food insecure;
- Training of CMC was not properly conducted VFJA and Supplies officer were not involved;
- Inadequate technical support from LGA to CMC during implementation, there was no LSP hired to supervise the subproject implementation;
- Culvert not yet constructed;
- Lack of transparency from LGA and CMC to Village council which lead to conflicts between

CMC member Vs Village council;

- The conflict and lack of transparency resulted delays of implementation. Transfer of second tranche by LGA to sub-project bank account prior to justification of first tranche;
- Payments to beneficiaries were made without use of interim certificates which shows the task rates, total budget, amount requested at the time, cumulative amount paid, Total planned quantity, Quantity this time and cumulative quantity. As a result, 50% cash transfer to unskilled labour has not been attained. Instead, only 33.47% has been transferred;
- All payments to beneficiaries were made by CMC without supervision of VFJA;
- Poor record keeping resulted from lack of training in financial management and procurement procedures by VFJA & supplies officer;
- Monthly progress and financial reports were not prepared by CMC and submitted to VC to be presented to the community in Village assembly for discussion;
- Procurement plan and budget were not adhered to;
- Inadequate technical support from the LGA to CMC during implementation. The civil engineer technician did little to support the sub-project on the grounds that he lacked transport. This is something that could have been addressed and any cost met in light of the value his technical support would have given the sub-project.

#### ***4.2.3.20.19 Water Distribution Sub-project at Terrat***

The community has implemented the sub-project for more than a year and still the sub-project is uncompleted. The sub-project received the first tranche on 19th November 2009 amounting to

Tshs 27,525,000 followed by a second tranche in 2010 amounting to Tshs 34,536,000.

**Sub-project status:**

- Implementation process is still underway, however, the tanks have been put in place and the community has got water, and also the area has been fenced;
- Initially it was planned to connect water about 7kms from the source but later on another donor (Energy and Water Co.) drilled deep boreholes close to the community (about 900mts away) so the LGA decided to change the direction;
- Outstanding activities are: Distribution of water through the pipes, construction of sewage and roller.

***4.2.3.20.20 Research Study Issues Observed***

- (i) Conflict among the CMC members over the misuse of project's fund during the first quotation caused ineffectiveness in participation on implementation of the sub-project by CMC committee;
- (ii) Materials bought in bulk only to find out that much of it was not needed and what was needed was not purchased;
- (iii) Low community participation resulted in incompleteness of the sub-projects. For instance, with regard to water distribution, Terrat community members were not at all willing to construct a sewage system.

### **Poor reporting system and feedback at the community level**

(i) There were no quarterly progress reports presented to village council leaders in for instance Terrat Water distribution; (ii) Poor collaboration between CMC, VC and LGA for instance in Terrat Water distribution and construction of Hostel-Emboret; (iii) There was no work plan for the entire sub-project; (iv) Inadequate training provided by VFJA and VFC to CMC members for one day in Terrat Water distribution, and Construction of 3 classrooms at Kimotorok resulted in incompetence and ineffective CMC team which failed to provide the right information to the community. In Kimotorok, for the construction of 3 classrooms, community members understood that they were supposed to fetch water and sand only, as they had been directed by the CMC, while community contribution included water, sand, bricks and labour; and (v) There was no site ledger for recording technical advice, therefore it was provided verbally to the community.

#### **4.2.3.21 Challenges Facing Local Councils In Tanzania**

Tanzania is currently implementing reforms that are aimed at enhancing local autonomy in policy formulation and decision making. The question of local autonomy raises a number of issues with regard to measurement and validity.

It may appear inappropriate to talk of local autonomy in a polity in which parliamentary sovereignty is the main pillar of the constitution and, as a result, the status of the local government is determined by laws passed by parliament. Hence, local authorities have no powers except such as defined by the statute, that is, local governments are perceived to operate under laws made by the central government. The legal status of local governments in Tanzania, as it is stated in the

constitution, implies a highly pervasive influence by central government.

Local governments have general powers which indicate that they, in principle, are allowed to do “anything”, unless this is forbidden through legislation or reserved for the central government. Central government approves most of the deliberations of the local governments through their representative bodies such as the office of the District Commissioner (DC), the Regional Commissioner (RC), and later passed to the ministry responsible for local government. The Policy Paper on Local Government Reform (1998) elaborates further that the local government is based on political devolution and decentralization of functions and finances within the framework of a unitary state.

Information from six case councils indicates that local authorities do not yet have sufficient capacity to effectively perform their functions and discharge their obligations. There are still a number of policy and legal requirements that prevent local Authorities from becoming accountable to local people, for example, most councilors and council staff interviewed responded that there is a considerable control over local government decision making through such mechanisms. This is because the fiscal grant system, which sets minimum national standards, requires local authorities to frame their budgets in accordance with guidelines and procedures spelt out by central government. This applies across all the case councils.

#### ***4.2.3.21.1 Powers of Local Councils***

The power of the local councils to hire and fire senior staff is also limited. Vacancies for senior positions must be advertised through the Local Government Service Commission which conducts

the interviews and carries out the selection process on behalf of the councils (Goldsmith, & Edward, 1987, p. 71). The Local Government Reform Agenda (1996) mentions that local autonomy will require the presence of strong and effective institutions through sufficient numbers of qualified and motivated staff recruited and promoted on the basis of merit. However, it does not stipulate clearly the powers of the local authorities. Furthermore, according to the councilors interviewed, they still have limited powers to discipline heads of departments, as they were not recruited by the councilors. The only thing they can do is to air their dissatisfaction about their performances. But the final decision making power comes from the central government, which may decide to transfer a head of department to another council.

Government authorities, especially the district councils, are often accused of misusing public funds. Approximately 60% of the district councils make improper use of the development funds. In 2013, the Parliamentary Local Authorities Accounts Committee (LAAC) instructed the Karagwe district council to submit the CAG documents on expenditure of over 2bn/-, which was yet to be accounted for. The council failed to contribute some 566m/- (10%) to the women and youth fund, as well as 52.7m/- (20%) in village development fund for three consecutive years (2010/11, 2011/12 and 2012/13).

Many local authorities, as well as private and third sector partners, are already exploring new methods to make services more efficient and responsive to the needs of the local people. Increasingly, community participation is becoming the guiding principle in the future development and provision of services as authorities seek to maximize efficiencies, reduce costs and improve

the quality of the services they provide.

This shift in emphasis provides a catalyst for change and encourages local residents to become more actively involved in their communities, and affords them greater opportunities to have their opinions heard. The study has shown that the council, through its waste improvement plan, is a good example of the progressive and proactive approach in practice. The innovative steps being taken will see local residents become much more engaged in the environmental issues within their communities.

This programme represents a concerted effort to maximize community involvement in helping the council to double its level of recycling within the first five years of the partnership and reduce the amount of waste sent to landfills to around 10% by 2020. The so-called “space saver” initiative is a good example of this innovative approach. Although regular refuse collections will be maintained, residents will have choice and flexibility around bin sizes to reflect their own needs. Not only does it foster a greater sense of pride and personal responsibility in the local environment and the provision of local services, it also helps to drive service standards, improve the authority’s accessibility, and encourage greater appreciation of the services being rendered.

There is also a host of challenges that face local governments in the 21st century: rendering services, lack of finance and managing staff, engaging citizens, forming new partnerships, and rapidly evolving technologies and socio-economic demographics. So where will we be in 2020? Will we continue to see an erosion of council authority, capacity and service delivery? Will markets prove capable of filling the gaps? Or, will we see a reassertion of the importance of local

government, with new models for regional integration, public finance and services that emphasize a public role?

The Local Government in Tanzania was established with the Native Authorities Ordinance in 1926 (Othman, & Liviga, 2002). The Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) aims to transfer duties and financial resources from central to local government levels. Local government authorities are thought to be in a better position to identify people's needs by encouraging citizens' participation in democratic governance, and thus supply the appropriate form and level of public services. In 1972, the Local Government was abolished and replaced with a direct central government rule. The council was reintroduced in the beginning of the 1980s, when the rural councils and rural authorities were re-established.

The first Local Government Elections was held in 1983 and that was beginning of functioning local councils. Beall (2005) argues that, in 1995, the first multi-party elections taking place following the liberalization of the political field, was a major public sector reform, which included a Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP). The LGRP covered four areas: political decentralization, financial decentralization, administrative decentralization and changed central-local relations, with the mainland government having over-riding powers within the framework of the Constitution.

UN-Habitat (2002) explains that the Local Government Amendment Act No. 6 of 1999 in Tanzania was enacted by Parliament in February 1999. The amendment was aimed at improving the quality and access to public services provided through or facilitated by local councils. The reform results

were expected to affect the political, financial and administrative autonomy of the councils. Local government authorities in Tanzania were divided into two groups. The first one consists of councilors who are elected through a democratic process. The councilors have been given the power to take key decisions on issues pertaining to the management of the councils. They serve in office for five years. The second group consists of public officials who implement the decisions made by the councilors. These are the permanent public officials of the council.

#### ***4.2.3.21.2 Local Government Authorities***

The local government authorities (LGAs) work as a team with Permanent Public Councils to perform their duties effectively and efficiently. They try to forge an alliance geared towards creating more collaborative arrangements and supporting each other in their initiatives for the LGA's development. The local council chairman is the head of the council in the ward. He/she is also chairperson of the ward development committee (WDC) that exists in each ward. Also, she/he reports to her/his constituency on council decisions and policies. Permanent Public Officials consist of technicians and professionals from various fields. They play an advisory role to the councilors in order to enable the latter to make sound decisions. At the district level, the Permanent Public Council is governed by District Executive Officer who is appointed by the President of the United Republic of Tanzania. He/she reports to the minister responsible for Local Government.

Most councils have a full council responsible for policy and decision-making. It is a gathering that involves all councilors and is chaired by the council chairperson elected from among the councilors by the councilors. The councils have various committees which assist with daily activities. These

committees include the standing committee, the committee for finance and planning, the committee for administration and establishment, the committee for social services, the committee for educational affairs, the committee for economic services and the committee for human resources development.

#### ***4.2.3.21.3 The Structure of Councils***

The structure of the council consists of a director who is the chief executive officer and head of the permanent public officials. He/she is head of overall daily activities. The next is the Ward Executive Officer (WEO) who is head of the ward development committee (WDC). She/he reports to the council director. The next is a the village council who is head of village at the village level He/she is the top administrative organ in each registered village in Tanzania, and it is chaired by the village chairperson who is elected by the residents of the village. The village chairperson reports to the WEO who supervises the conduct of the villages in discharging development activities.

As pointed earlier in the research methodology, the researcher used mixed methodologies, namely, both qualitative and quantitative. In the qualitative method, the researcher also used field surveys. The field surveys were conducted at three councils, namely, Ujiji District Council, Kigoma District Council and Kasulu Council. The councils were selected on the basis of variations in resource bases, rural-urban variations, their degree of inclusion in the LGRP, the composition of political parties and the report of the Auditor General of 2012/2013 which found major irregularities and mismanagement of funds. The primary goal of this survey was to identify the level of participation

of the rural community members in the process of development planning with regards to development needs identification and decisions on development projects.

In some communities, focus group discussions (FGD) were conducted, while in other communities, only plenary participatory discussions were held in a formal village assembly. The method applied depended on the situation found in the community and the number of people who attended the meeting. The method applied served to give the community groups room for free discussion, clearly focused their implementation process and made them able to come up with ideas on the best ways decision-makers within government and other development agencies take action in enhancing participation of rural communities in rural development planning.

The researcher also observed that almost all the communities raised the same problems and challenges. It was witnessed that most of the projects initiated by the local council were not fully implemented. It was also evident that, although the MCs and VCs were oriented on their roles and responsibilities in the implementation of the community projects, they do not mobilize the communities to participate in the implementation of project activities. As pointed out during the research study, the MCs and VCs, especially the Mtaa/Village leaders, conflict with other members of MCs/VCs. Therefore, whenever they planned for the mobilization of community people to participate in the project activities, the village leaders, who are also members of VC, were not willing to do so, which resulted in few community members participating in development activities, hence the situation discouraged those who willingly participated in community activities.

The effect of poor leadership caused the community members to lose confidence in their leaders and hence they refused to contribute and participate in the implementation of their sub-projects. The issue of transparency on project funding was also raised and the progress of project activities planned. This build the community's trust on CMCs and VCs. There was no feedback to community members (physical and financial) on the progress of implementation of the projects. It was further observed that projects visited neither kept proper records nor prepared monthly progress reports.

Poor collaboration within CMCs and between CMCs and Village/Mtaa leader was observed at Kigoma Council and Kasulu Council. It was observed that the conflict between CMC members resulted in other members being dropped or resigning from the committee which resulted in poor supervision and management of projects and poor relationships with village leadership. Hence, nobody was committed to the project activities.

The issue of political conflict has also been a major problem. It was pointed out that, in some areas, there were strong followers of the ruling party (CCM) and opposition parties. These two groups opposed each other, leading to conflict between community members. The opposition group convinced their followers to protest against participating in development activities. The opposition leaders also convinced their followers that the funds from NGOs are enough to implement their project and that there was no need for community contributions. This also resulted in poor community participation and contribution.

The multiple planning, budgeting and reporting systems have placed a lot of pressure on the

already limited capacity of the councils. The councils' management teams, especially the treasurers and planning officers, allocated a substantial share of their time to planning, budgeting and reporting, while the actual implementation of (realistic) plans and priorities suffered. This also applied to officials at the ward and village levels. Village plans for many rural types of council were "shopping lists" which could not be implemented because of financial and other constraints. The study found that, in some districts, bottom-up planning was in practice as an ad hoc exercise, with the actual planning carried out by the council management team. Local government is incapable of holding its representatives accountable for their actions and councilors held limited powers to remove non-performing or corrupt council officers. There were also no effective instruments and procedures in place for ordinary people to use when they want to hold council officials accountable.

#### **4.4 RESEARCH STUDY RECOMMENDATIONS**

The field survey has found that there is a low level of awareness by the political leaders. Nevertheless, there are examples from our case councils where people have forced leaders to resign due to misconduct, even though it was a very cumbersome process which included many compromises with the district leadership. There were some complaints from the community members and some local politicians that council employees were not fired because of corruption, they were often simply transferred to another council without making public the reasons for the

transfer. These provide a potentially good avenue for combating corruption in project implementation and to be assured that the community adhered to Local Government procedures.

The following are some of the recommendations:

- CMCs, before engaging themselves in contract with local contractors, the VFC should be informed to avoid corruption in the process of making contracts;
- VFCs are to have a copy of implementation reports for the sub-projects;
- The issue of O&M should be part and parcel of the planning process for the sustainability of implemented sub-projects. LGA (VFC and VFJA) are to work very closely with the community development extension officers, who have skills on the issues of community participation and work with communities. They are in a better position to sensitize communities which is a continuous process. CMCs are supposed to prepare sub-project monthly progress reports which are submitted to VC. VC is responsible for organizing quarterly village assemblies, where the presentation of community sub-project quarterly progress reports to the community people is on the agenda and these should be discussed and agreed.
- Whenever the LGA team follow-up on the community sub-projects, they should also discuss this with VC members, and make sure they play their role in the implementation of the community sub-project with issues such as feedback on the progress of sub-projects, organizing community members to participate in the implementation of their sub-projects and VC members to pay visits to the sub-project sites.

## **4.5 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER**

The research findings are discussed in this chapter. The study found that reasons given for non-participation in development projects ranged from the low-priority nature of the projects as perceived by the local members of the communities, distrust of local leaders, political conflict and intolerance perpetrated by the leaders to the additional burden of participatory activities put on women.

The study gives a detailed account of the responses and discusses the inference of culture as well as gender as it found that these play a critical role in the participation of local members in development projects. Ujamaa, an ideology dating back to independence, is discussed because it is still a major influence in the participation in development projects by local members. The study also discusses the various issues that surround multiple development projects such as the construction of school facilities and health units.

The sustainability crisis is highlighted in this chapter because it goes to the very heart of development and the researcher's premise that lack of ownership by the local community leads to short-term success of projects. One of the objectives of local government reform is to increase citizens' participation in the planning and implementation of development activities. This is based on the assumption that local government authorities are more responsive to local needs than the central government.

The current local government reform has not been in operation long enough to promote local autonomy at the grassroots level. Thus, for most of the case councils, participation in local matters

beyond the village level had not been well established. It is therefore not surprising that the accountability of the local government was fairly low. This was exacerbated by the continued inability of the councils to hire and fire council staff, including senior employees. Therefore, councilors who represented citizens in their localities still lacked the authority to instill discipline and productivity among senior council bureaucrats. The most they could do is to complain and request authority from the central government to remove non-performing or corrupt officers.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides insight into rural participation patterns in Tanzania as gathered from the respondents who took part in the research survey. The research questionnaires were designed to engage the respondents on their participation in community projects, their interest in so doing and also on the factors that might discourage their participation. It also highlights the tenets of Game Theory which state that persons will only participate in those projects that benefit them.

#### **5.2 NEED FOR COMMUNITY PROJECTS**

The researcher sought to find out whether the respondents felt there was a need for community projects, which are the subject of this study. This was in response to specific objectives to determine whether the participation of the rural community members was taken into account from the point of needs analysis. The response as to whether there were enough primary and secondary schools respectively, was invariably in the negative.

In addition, the majority of the respondents in all three zones stated that they were not satisfied with the development projects initiated by the government in their communities. This finding was not surprising as it underlined the researcher's hypothesis that the failure or success of development projects is attributable to rural community members being involved in the needs assessment, implementation and monitoring thereafter. Otherwise they tended to have the attitude that these were projects imposed upon them by the government. Lack of ownership of projects

ultimately led to non-participation in them. They all agreed that there were, indeed, projects they would like to see in health, education and water. To give credibility to the study, the researcher sought to ensure that the respondents actually resided in the local communities. To the question whether they had lived in their respective communities for at least five years, every single one responded in the affirmative.

### **5.3 PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING AND DECISION-MAKING**

During the focus interview and survey, the researcher met with district and ward leaders. He deduced the fact that, even though community members were encouraged to participate, the government did not acknowledge their suggestions, recommendations or even their initiatives. It was also observed that, during the planning process, one of the most important aspects was to confirm the community members' commitment towards participation in decision-making. It was observed that, although the MCs and VCs were oriented in their roles and responsibilities in the implementation of the community projects, they did not play the roles of mobilizing the communities to participate in the implementation of project activities.

With regard to the questionnaires and in response to the question whether the respondents had participated in making the decisions as to which projects should be undertaken, many of them responded that they had, but that the government then initiated different projects. This discouraged them from taking part in future decision-making.

## **5.4 COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP**

It was observed that, in some areas, the MCs and VCs, especially the *Mtaa*/Village leaders, conflict with other members of the MCs/VCs. Leaders are not accepted because of their behavior, poor cooperation between the leaders and irresponsibility therefore, whenever they planned for the mobilization of community people to participate in the project activities, the village leaders, who are also members of VC, were not willing to do so, which resulted in very few community members participating in development activities – hence those who willingly participate in community activities are discouraged.

This finding was supported by the answers obtained in the questionnaires. The respondents' responses indicated, categorically, that they were not satisfied with the way the local government officials and community leaders carried out their duties and obligations with regard to the projects. Question number 18 asks whether, in their opinion, the local government officials show effective leadership and cooperation with the community members. The candid response was that the local government officials did not show effective leadership and definitely did not cooperate with the community members. If anything, it appeared that the said officials hampered the community members' efforts to participate in the development projects.

## **5.5 GENDER IMPLICATIONS IN PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT**

According to the 1998 census, women constitute nearly 51% of the total population. Agriculture is the backbone of Tanzania's economy. About 90% of the able-bodied populace is engaged in agriculture thus making women a critical component in the national economy. Nonetheless, the

status of women is still extremely low, both economically and socially. In spite of efforts by the government to encourage their participation, it remains a fact that very few women participate in decision-making.

Some impressive steps taken by the government in promoting women include:

- Introducing universal primary and adult education;
- Strengthening social services such as health and water;
- Implementing international agreements that safeguard the rights of women. For example, Tanzania has ratified the UN Convention on the eradication of all forms of discrimination against women;
- Introducing a new system of education which is geared towards the enrolment of more girls and the establishment of co-educational secondary schools to reduce the disparity between the number of girls and that of boys in secondary schools and institutions of higher learning.

In spite of all these efforts by the government, the situation of the majority of women is still unsatisfactory. This state of affairs is a result of several factors which include the following:

- Customs and traditions which discriminate against women;
- Lack of a correct interpretation of the concept of women development;
- Lack of guidelines on the planning and development of women in general;
- Inadequate incorporation of women's issues in the planning process at all levels – village, district, regional and national;

- Unfair distribution of resources;
- The government's imposition of projects from which the women do not see a direct benefit to themselves which gives credence to the Game Theory.

The concept of women in development is a process of empowering women so that they realize their full potential. This entails:

- Recognizing their potential in society;
- Recognizing their ability to make decisions that affect their lives and those of their families;
- Utilizing the resources and products of their labour;
- Eradicating all obstacles hindering women from having access to education and training opportunities.

Full participation will only be realized if:

- A procedure is established to ensure a fair ratio of female representatives in all executive and management bodies;
- Special vacancies are left open for women in appointed posts and elected ones at the village, district, regional and national level;
- There is provision for training and consultancy supports to enable the women manage their enterprises, such as the water projects, profitably;
- Women's workload is reduced by availing equipment that ensures their time is more efficiently utilized. Examples of these are:

- Piped water at home which reduces the physical labour and time walking long distances to fetch water;
- Electric or gas stoves, improved wood and biogas stoves which reduce the time spent looking for firewood, carrying it and lighting it.

## **5.6 THE IMPLEMENTATION PHASE**

It was observed during the survey that inadequate reporting systems (poor feedback to the community) as well as issues of transparency were raised repeatedly. This is important to any community because reporting makes the community trust the CMCs and VCs. Feedback to community members (physical and financial) on the progress of implementation is important for the smooth implementation of community sub-projects. It was observed that CMCs neither kept proper records nor prepared monthly progress reports, which they are supposed to submit to MCs/VCs. It has been difficult for the *Mtaa*/ Village to report on the implementation progress to community members during the Village/*Mtaa* assembly. In some cases, the CMCs present progress implementation reports to MCs/VCs, but the *Mtaa*/Village leaders do not give feedback to community members. This situation discouraged participation by community members in the implementation of their projects and, in fact, caused the community to distrust the CMC/VC/MC members because it had a perception that community funds were misused.

It was observed during the survey that there was poor collaboration within CMCs and CMCs and Village/*Mtaa* leaders. The Iringa DC also revealed that the conflict between CMC members arose because the cashier and the secretary, who deal with procurement issues, did not want anybody

else from their committee to ask about issues of the procurement of equipment. This situation resulted in conflict between CMC members and other members resigned from the committee. This also resulted in the poor supervision and management of sub-projects as well as poor relations with the Village leadership – hence nobody is committed to the project activities.

Once again, the answers given by the respondents indicated that the majority of them were discouraged in their efforts to participate in sub-projects by the local government officials (Question No. 17). This sentiment was expressed over and over, and yet the answer to a follow up question (No. 20), as to whether they would be willing to participate in community projects, was in the affirmative.

## **5.7 IMPEDIMENT TO PARTICIPATION**

The study singles out political conflict as a major contributing factor to community members' lack of participation in community development projects. The researcher gathered, during the discussion relating to some of the projects in Arusha DC and Kibaha DC, that both the ruling party (CCM) and the opposition party had influential followers. This led to conflict and the opposition convinced its followers not to participate in development activities. Opposition leaders also convinced their followers that funding from different donors was enough to implement the projects, and that there was no need for the community to contribute further. The researcher also observed that there was no proper facilitation, supervision, follow-up and advice, especially in Iringa DC and Arusha DC, where all important issues were being discussed during the planning process.

Respondents in all the three zones were also of the opinion that there was no cooperation between the local government and the local community. It is not surprising that community members felt alienated from participating in community development projects.

## **5.8 MANAGEMENT OF THE PROJECTS**

One of the biggest impediments to community development projects was that the projects, as well as the funding, were handled by different government ministries. The ministries did not coordinate the projects well, and this resulted in disjointed efforts at the community level. For instance, the Ministry of Agriculture had its own personnel at local government who did not necessarily coordinate the project with the representative from the Ministry of Water, and yet the same community members were invited to participate and contribute to both projects. This became burdensome and cumbersome to the community members and yielded little results.

Projects were also greatly affected by price fluctuations. Many projects assigned the work of construction and procurement to a contractor, which is against Government procedures. As a result, the funds allocated ran out way before the projects were completed. Furthermore, most participants in the focus groups stated that they felt there was a great deal of corruption in the allocation of contracts and that contractors who did not perform were not held accountable. The failed projects caused apathy when community members were called to participate in new projects.

## **5.9 MANAGEMENT OF THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS: THE SUSTAINABILITY CRISIS**

This study would be incomplete if the researcher did not include a treatise on what he learned with

regard to the completed water projects, referred to as water points. This is critical in ascertaining whether these water projects were carried out with or without the participation of rural community members. This is part of the research that sought to find out whether the rural community members acknowledged ownership of these projects notwithstanding that they benefited from them while they remained functional. The researcher found that:

- Apparently, about half of the financial investment in rural water supply is effectively wasted, because in Dar Es Salaam alone almost half of the water is wasted due to old water pipes.
- Tanzania has many rivers and surrounded by many lakes like lake Victoria, lake Nyasa and Lake Rukwa but the water quality remains a big challenge.

The challenge to development is that about 7.5 million people living in rural Tanzania lack access to clean and safe water due to functionality problems. This is indeed incredulous in a country that boasts a reliable rainfall and several major rivers from which permanent water supply could be harnessed.

Another factor is appropriate technology. There are the obvious technological factors, such as the durability of the hardware involved and the reliability of the water source. However, even with the most durable hardware and most reliable source, it will break down at some point. What happens after it breaks down is absolutely critical for sustainability. Does anyone take responsibility for the repairs? Are there funds available for this? Can the right spare parts be found? Does anyone have the technical skills needed? These are management questions, looking at how rural water supply schemes are owned and managed after installation and at how the planning and installation process

is conducted.

These are not new questions and anyone working in rural water supply will be familiar with all these issues. It is worth starting with the most common answers to these questions, while not forgetting the data that tells us that these answers have not solved the problem.

Two aspects of management and governance are widely seen as the keys to sustainability:

- Firstly, community participation during project selection;
- Participation and ownership of the projects must be balanced with good decision making.

Sustainability depends on community participation in decision making as well as on good decisions being made. As stated earlier, the low literacy levels among the majority of the community members pose a challenge to the effective participation in planning. Their inability to effectively participate in technical and management options puts them and their development at a distinct disadvantage. It means that their projects will continue to be managed by those they hold in disdain and sustainability is gravely compromised.

## **5.10 APPLICATION OF THE GAME THEORY ON THE FINDINGS**

As discussed at the beginning of this study, Game Theory is a multi-player theory where the choices of each player have a direct bearing on the benefits of other players who, in turn, take this into account in their choices.

The researcher used a number of possible factors to explain the patterns of participation or exclusion. These factors which make up what is known as the “social exclusion filter” further helped in the analysis of the participation in community projects.

The researcher found that the conduct of the community members, and more so the women, is completely compatible with the Game Theory. The responses to the questionnaires are indicative of the fact that the community members do not see the benefit to themselves where the projects are initiated by the central government without their input as to their viability. This has led to a lack of ownership of the projects as seen in poor participation during implementation and certainly in the lack of maintenance once completed. The results are evident in stalled projects and projects that collapse and are non-functional barely two years after completion.

The social exclusion factors include the following:

- **Gender:** whereby women’s participation is hindered by the cultural norms that requires so much from them domestically leaving little room for involvement in activities outside the home; tradition that does not allow single women to speak and certainly not to differ with the menfolk in open forum. The lack of gender equity is evident in the few women in leadership. This disparity has dogged the efforts to meaningfully address the issues that concern the women and therefore society as a whole.
- **Economic:** the results of the SAPs as discussed earlier put an additional financial burden on the community members. This burden is ultimately borne, to a large extent, by the women who must ensure their families are provided for. The fact that they do not have much money

means their monetary contributions to any project will be miniscule. Secondly, their physical participation is reduced because they must use the time they would have been engaged in projects in activities aimed at adding to their meager income.

- **Educational:** Most of the women are not educated because culturally the education of young girls is not given priority. The drawback is that the leadership positions within the central and local government as well as at the project level all demand educational qualifications. This leaves out the women physically as well as their voices as the men who are more educated and therefore take up the leadership are not able to adequately articulate their needs and perspectives.
- **Institutional:** Women are further excluded from institutions that govern and manage the community projects because of their gender directly and also indirectly because of the conditions laid down for the participation such as higher education than most have and time availability. These conditions include educational qualifications mentioned above as well as experience which they clearly do not have.

Other elements of social exclusion:

- **Disability:** Persons with physical disabilities in a nation where something as simple as lack of a wheel chair can render a person completely dependent on others, limits their mobility and therefore ability to participate meaningfully in any community activities. This is notwithstanding the fact that a person may have physical disability and an extremely high IQ thereby making them an asset to the community.

- **Youth:** The youth have been, inadvertently, disregarded when it comes to community project participation. Cultural norms are, for the most part, the culprit responsible for this sad state of affairs. It is believed that young people are to be seen and not heard. Because they feel that they have no direct benefit accruing to them, they are not particularly interested in getting involved in community projects. This is unfortunate because they have the physical vigour and fewer domestic responsibilities and would therefore have been a target group for participation in these community projects.

### **5.10.1 A Brief Comparative Analysis of Tanzania's Development efforts and the Participatory Development Approaches in Burkina Faso, Kenya and Mozambique**

From his findings, the researcher demonstrates that the community members, though they, for the most part, indicated that they were interested in participating in development projects in their local areas, were hampered by many factors. These exclusionary factors are discussed below as falling within the ambit of the Game Theory's social exclusion filter.

Further, in order to clearly illustrate his thesis that Tanzania's development efforts have been hindered by the lack of participation of community members in local projects where participation must start at the point of planning, the researcher presents case studies from Burkina Faso, Kenya and Mozambique.

#### **5.10.1.1 The Burkina Faso Case Study**

In this case study in Burkina Faso, an agroforestry project by ADESSI, an NGO, received funding from UNDP for a two-year program. The initial phase took on a non-participatory method. Its

objectives included the protection of the local environment and ecosystem as well as resource conservation, training of the local community members and improvement of the socio-economic conditions of the local populace as well as facilitation of educational exchanges and interactions between villages.

The program coordinators sought to implement the program in partnership with the Ministry of Environment and Tourism. However, it precluded the participation of the local community members making it essentially non-participatory. At the end of the two years, it was found that less than one per cent of the projected outcomes were achieved. In fact, following the expiry of the nursery workers' contracts, the nurseries fell into abject disrepair. Perhaps if the local community members had had ownership of the project, they would have maintained and sustained the project.

In this "top-down" approach, a few discussions were held in which the community members were instructed as to what they should do but there was little involvement in the project as the workers were paid by the NGO. In fact, in the two villages in which the three nurseries were initiated, there were intense conflicts over "ownership" of the project. Likewise, there were cases of materials for the communal project being used for private use thereby creating additional conflicts.

In the second phase, a rehabilitation of the failed nurseries was attempted with funding from Diakonia (a Swedish donor). This time around, a participatory approach was employed which allowed and encouraged the local community members to articulate their needs, wants, problems and proposed solutions. It was accepted that there were different groups which included women,

men and the youth, all of whom had different interests. It was acknowledged that the participatory approach was critical in determining organizational and project management.

The community included diverse and ethnic social backgrounds which, in turn, offered a range of different issues. Not surprisingly, it was clear that project victory would involve more than improved technologies. The social process of compromise, dialogue and conflict resolution went to the very core of the success of this project among the locals. It was acknowledged that, in order to comprehend local production strategies, there had to be an appreciation of local, social and cultural systems. This appreciation was achieved through a process of participatory evaluation and intense and lengthy dialogue between the extension workers and the local communities. The result was that thirteen village nurseries were set up as compared to three nurseries in two villages in the initial phase. With greater involvement of the villagers, the objective of increasing the agricultural production through the integration of agroforestry techniques in the local farming systems was achieved and the nutritional status of local communities was also improved. Likewise, undue pressure was removed from the local forest resources through the controlling of planted woodlots for fuel, medicinal herbs, construction poles and foodstuff ([www.barefootresearch.org.uk](http://www.barefootresearch.org.uk)).

#### **5.10.1.2 The Kenyan Case study**

In Kenya, the Kenya Woodfuel Development Programme (KWDP) thereafter referred to as Kenya Woodfuel and Agroforestry Programme (KWAP), was set up in 1983 and was introduced through ETC (Kenya) Consultants, a private company. It was intended to deal with projected future fuel shortages especially within the densely inhabited highlands of Kenya. It ran in two areas with the

objective of attaining self-sufficiency in wood fuel at the household level via agroforestry and extension techniques. Additionally, prevailing government agencies and NGOs were to be supported and an evaluation system established.

In KWDP's ideology, participation was a core component and part of its dictate was to involve the community from the very beginning that is, from the identification and analysis of the problems related to wood fuel. Prior to field activities commencing, the first steps for KWDP were the development of a thorough understanding of the local community, their challenges, coping mechanisms and socio-cultural aspects.

Only with such initial information can local challenges be fully comprehended and local participation take place. In addition, a two-way concept was developed in extension activities in order to further facilitate participation. This two-way concept can be described as a two-way undertaking in which both parties are stakeholders and play complementary roles. It follows an appreciation of the fact that the local people are resourceful in their own right, have local experience and can contribute positively to the development process.

Practical and sustainable solutions must come from those who are affected because they are the ones who can appreciate the scope of the challenges. Extension was deemed a means of increasing people's ability to solve their own problems and address their own challenges.

In this approach, the extension agent sees himself as an "expert" coming to the farmer to "impart" knowledge and give instructions but as a partner in the learning process where there is a mutual

exchange of information.

This approach is a farmer-centered approach in which his participation is encouraged from the onset. This is not only about the sharing of information but also of the authority and responsibility. Both parties are responsible for the decision-making and implementation of activities. This is in contrast to the non-participatory approach which tends to be message-centered and in which the extension worker takes on the role of an expert coming to teach the client in a “top-down” relationship in which the former takes no responsibility and has no authority.

This programme was very successful and it is undoubtedly because of the participatory approach ([www.barefootresearch.org.uk](http://www.barefootresearch.org.uk)).

#### **5.10.1.3 The Mozambique Case Study**

Another successful project which involved people’s participation was in Mozambique. In 1997, the African Development Bank (ADB) funded a five year project through the Natural Resources Department of the Ministry of Agriculture & Fisheries. An integral part of the project was to involve working with the local communities in order to obtain information and implementation plans formulated with the community’s perspective taken into consideration. The research was designed to engage community participation to its maximum. Throughout the fieldwork stage, the research team presumed the role of student rather than the expert, learning from the community which, in turn, identified and considered the various difficulties within the area. These difficulties were broad, with some concerning the overall economic development of the nation while some were particular to the community and could be resolved with technical assistance. The community

voted to establish a central board for the administration and implementation of the projects. These projects are still in the design and planning phase but they will ultimately be carried out by the local community supported by the technical team. It is envisioned that the projects will therefore empower the locals to meet their basic needs without degrading the resource base illegally or unsustainably. Further, the funding and organizational framework will be accessible for the locals to identify and implement other development initiatives within the area thereby leading to self-mobilization ([www.barefootresearch.org.uk](http://www.barefootresearch.org.uk)).

## **5.11 SUMMARY**

In this chapter, the researcher sought to investigate in detail the participation of community members in rural projects. He therefore looked at their interests, their degree of participation and the phases of the development process in which they were engaged. Furthermore, he sought to find out whether the Game Theory to which he subscribes, was indeed applicable. He set out to find out whether the factors that make up the social exclusion filter were relevant here in as far as they were responsible for discouraging or excluding their community members' participation in community projects.

One of the things complained about by the community members, for instance, is the corruption of government officials and a lack of accountability of the leaders. The community members felt that the rules should allow them to pass a vote of no confidence and therefore remove ineffective leaders. Instead, they will stay for the duration of their terms, their corruptive nature and ineffectiveness notwithstanding. It is, therefore, not surprising that this lack of integrity among the

leadership is a factor that leads to the community members choosing to exclude themselves from further and or any participation in community projects.

The relationship between the community members and their local leaders as well as the local government officials speaks to the exclusion of the former by reason of bureaucracy. The researcher emphasized the relationship between community members and their local leaders as well as with local government officials and its effect on their participation. Also in this chapter were gender implications in the community participation in development projects.

The impediment to participation by reason of what the researcher affirms are factors that are better known as the social exclusion filter; the management of projects and the sustainability of development projects are all subjects of this chapter.

The researcher did a comparative analysis of projects undertaken in Burkina Faso, Kenya and Mozambique in light of his research in the Tanzanian context analysis and highlighted the disparity between the projects in the aforementioned countries and Tanzania.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides the conclusion to the entire work. The chapter begins by providing a summary to the text after which the major findings are identified. Based on the findings, the researcher makes recommendations.

#### **6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

##### **6.2.1 Educational Projects in Coastal, Southern and Northern Regions**

The Government launched 2025 Vision seven years back with the aim of raising the quality of education which would enable poverty reduction. Education was a big challenge in the coastal areas particularly Pwani region and Morogoro. Similarly in Iringa and Mbeya regions had education constrains. Results showed that lack of teachers, laboratories, books and low morale among teachers contributed to the failure rates and general illiteracy in rural Tanzania. The role of low literacy rates had significant implications for the rural community projects. Results showed that a higher percentage of the respondents from the Coastal zone had no education, and those that did only had basic primary education. It was on the basis of their lack of education that community members were socially excluded from participating in development projects by virtue of their illiteracy. The Northern zone has the highest percentage of educated respondents and many of them have advanced education. It is not surprising that among this group, the researcher found the greatest involvement in development projects.

## **6.2.2 The Role of Community Members in the On-going Construction of Ward-Based Secondary Schools**

The community contribution to the development projects occurred in different ways such as contributions in kind (Sand, hoes and shovels). Their willingness to participate was a positive attribute. The major issue underlying rural participation was that, although community participation was government policy, and people were only called for meetings to “window dress”. When it came to the actual implementation, the government had their own priorities. In essence, people did not participate in any decision making.

## **6.2.3 Community Participation in Decision Making**

The bottom-up planning which is supposed to start at the village level was not well practiced. Few citizens at the grassroots levels had participated in the planning process. Many had not even heard about the local government reform programme. Furthermore, most of the councils visited had no long term planning. Most of the planning developments are driven from ruling party manifesto without being people driven. This resulted into failures of the projects because they were not owned by the people.

## **6.2.4 Factors Hindering Community Participation in Decision making**

### **6.2.4.1 Poverty: A Real Problem**

Many factors contributed to the poverty in rural Tanzania, among which are: the *Ujamaa* village concept, culture, Gender, religion and incomplete projects. Mwalimu Nyerere under *Ujamaa*-African Socialism had developed a good policy. However, the implementation of the policy was faced with challenges, mainly the lack of mobilization and engagement of the people. The people

misunderstood the concept of *Ujamaa* and currently has no followers to my knowledge.

#### *Role of culture in rural participation*

The findings in the coastal zone showed that people were willing to participate in traditional dancing rather than community development projects. They for example would dance *Tarab* the whole night. This culture influence resulted in the lack of development in the area.

#### *Gender dimension*

The findings revealed that women's participation in PRA meetings was below 50% of overall attendance in both the villages of Seela and Eworendeke. The PRA report in Rukwa shows that women's attendance in PRA meetings constituted 20% of all participants at the meetings, while in Iringa, 41% of women attended the meetings. Women in rural Tanzania remain home guardians looking after children, cooking, house cleaning and coking. For them to participate in rural projects is rare. In the Moslem religion, the majority of respondents revealed that women were not allowed to go to the public gatherings; only men were allowed. The result is that women are left out of economic activities. Above all, the money was kept by the men. Despite these challenges, women, like other community members, have recognized the importance of community participation in meetings. They have pointed out that, by attending meetings, they have access to different information related to community development including health care, agriculture, the village budget report among others.

Silence was used as a defensive mechanism by both married and unmarried women because the expectation of unmarried women to marry forces them to be submissive in public so that people can count them as respectable. This contributed to their lack of participation.

### *Incomplete projects*

Most of the projects were incomplete because of the funding problem. The funds did not only fail to come on time, but also changes in responsible ministries occurred in the middle of the project implementation phases leading to insufficient funding. Examples include the Classrooms at Kimotorok Primary School and the Monduli District Council: Construction of a Teacher's House at Nanja Secondary School (Mti Mmoja).

### *Local councils*

The Government gives local councils the power to supervise all the projects, but they are very inefficient in managing the projects. Many local authorities, as well as private and third sector partners, are already exploring new methods of improving efficiency. Increasingly, community participation is becoming the guiding principle in the future development and provision of services as authorities seek to maximize efficiencies, reduce costs and improve the quality of the services they provide.

In several of the focus group discussions, respondents explained, very candidly, that “one of the contributory factors to the low levels of community contribution is poverty”. It was argued that if the government could focus on activities that would help households to raise their income, then

the community contributions would no doubt increase and be given timely. During 2005/2006, the first three new classrooms were constructed in collaboration with the community. The following year another seven classes were finished making it a complete and functional school for all of its students. Additionally, the construction of two offices for the administration was overseen, as well as the installation of a rain water catchment system and water tank.

#### **6.2.4.2 Problem of Drought in Morogoro and Arusha**

With specific reference to regions designated the Morogoro and Arusha, the focus group interviews with Ward Executive Officers, Village Chairpersons and villagers revealed that drought had been a major stumbling block towards community involvement in classroom construction in their respective wards. According the villagers, “The rain doesn’t come in time, even sometimes it does not rain in the whole season”. Agriculture is the main activity of the people in this region, the sale of their produce is their only source of income. They spend time on small farms and, during drought, their time is wasted on gathering food. Therefore, they had little time left to participate in the community construction of classrooms, toilets and teachers’ houses. This is a clear example of drought-induced poverty in the communities being among factors.

#### **6.2.4.3 Lack of Transparency and Accountability**

The lack of trust also impacts negatively on the community projects. This lack of ownership greatly reduced the participation of members. One of the key principles for governance is transparency. This study argues that this core value of citizen participation programs could be related to enhancing transparency in government, which was clearly absent. The study finding

indicates that citizen engagement in participation programs can facilitate citizens' positive assessment of transparency in local government. The study finding indicates that citizen engagement in participation programs can facilitate citizens' positive assessment of transparency in local government.

#### **6.2.4.4 Political Affiliations**

Political conflict and intolerance among the leadership as well as the corresponding intimidation of community members was a major reason for not participation in rural development. Coupled with this was the lack of prioritizing projects that were beneficial to the local communities. In the villages there is conflict among village leaders particularly chairs of ruling party, opposition parties and village leaders. This strife leads to project failures.

#### **6.2.5 Report on the comparative analysis of three case studies**

The researcher compared his findings on the study he carried out in Tanzania with those reported in three countries, namely, Burkina Faso, Kenya and Mozambique. He found that in all those three countries' projects the participatory approach had occasioned success in agricultural projects. In the project in Burkina Faso, the non-participatory method was first attempted resulting in dismal failure, which is uncannily similar to what is prevalent in Tanzania. The said project was reinstated soon thereafter, not only a different donor, but a change of approach to the participatory one with resounding success.

### **6.2.6 Limitations and Challenges of the Study**

The researcher's experience in the process of conducting the study was that although it was very interesting, it was also very challenging and, at times, frustrating. It was challenging in that some issues, particularly pertaining to the corruption of government officials, were very sensitive and therefore could not be thoroughly discussed. It was found that no changes thereto will be implemented any time soon.

Further frustrations came from encountering officials who made appointments and did not honor them. It also came from the indifference of some of the participants who obviously did not take the exercise seriously and gave contradictory answers. For instance, some participants stated that there were enough schools, and or health centers, then went on to say that they were dissatisfied with the initiatives the government had taken towards the development of those same services, citing inadequate schools and health centers.

One other challenge was the sheer number of villages and the large expanse of the area that was needed to be covered to ensure that the study was a legitimate representation of the country. Not only were distances long, the roads were, in many cases in very poor conditions. In one instance, the bridge had been washed away and the only way to get to the village was by another road that added almost twenty-six kilometers to the trip. Nevertheless, the researcher's personal and professional experience was enriching and enlightening. At the end of the study, the researcher was totally convinced that, indeed, his hypothesis has been proven to be true: that the lack of participation in community development projects has, in fact, hindered Tanzania's development.

The limitations of the study included the following:

- The time allocated for discussions was, at times, inadequate especially as some of the participants tended to ramble on about the politics surrounding development while the researcher did his best to guide the discussions in deference to culture and respect, particularly for the elderly participants who were given more time than deemed necessary;
- The researcher at times felt that some of the answers given, especially by women, were not a real reflection of their feelings. However, private discussions were not within the ambit of this research;
- The long distances between localities where interviews were conducted put a strain on the researcher thereby limiting the time that the researcher would have liked to spend visiting projects;
- Many participants were not convinced that this was not an exercise by the government and therefore tempered their responses.

### **6.3 CONCLUSION**

Many of the respondents had the desire to participate, but were frustrated primarily by government policy, either directly or indirectly, with government being synonymous with the ruling party which meant that the decision-making and planning were taken out of the communities' hands. In other words, they were socially excluded. The government/ruling party prioritized projects from which it would get the most political mileage even where they were not necessarily what the community needed. More so, they tended to drag out development projects over a long period of

time so as to be seen to have works in progress from one political term to the next.

The researcher acknowledged that the ruling party has been in power since independence and therefore, if some of the major hindrances to community development came from the government, then it was unlikely that there would be any changes. However, the researcher would like to emphasize the fact that, in the area he designated the coastal zone, the influence of a relaxed attitude, which stems from the culture in that area, is the greatest impediment to its community development.

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The researcher's conclusive thesis is that, should the government implement this participatory approach, so that the nation's development that has stalled will gain traction and pull the nation from its ranking among the poorest countries globally and place it on the path towards sustainable development.

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- Community members should actively be included in the planning of community projects. This can be achieved by empowering groups of community members (youth, women, disabled and men) to be able to contribute effectively to decision making.
- Local community leaders should be trained in the basics of project management and be supported in their leadership roles from the very beginning, i.e. problem-identification, project design, monitoring and evaluation, until the completion of the project.
- Women must be encouraged to take up leadership positions at the Village Council level as

well as at the grassroots level. This will ensure that the factors limiting women's participation in development projects will be reduced drastically.

- The various government ministries should work in unison and in partnership with community members in order to better manage resources especially where there are multiple projects in one community.
- Local committees should be involved in the decision-making and service delivery of each project at the national level wherein funding is designated in order to ensure greater participation.
- Older members of the various communities should be invited to occupy advisory positions where they can lend their expertise born of an understanding of the culture and developmental needs of their community.
- A “National Youth Service” should be instituted to train the youth in technical skills such as carpentry, welding, basic engineering and bookkeeping. The youth, given their physical strength, are a great human capital resource.
- Greater emphasis should be placed on the transparent management of development funds in order to ensure greater success of projects and thereby gaining the trust of community members that indeed projects are meant for their benefit.
- Accountability of the local government should be made higher than it currently is; that those who are found guilty of mismanagement or abuse of council resources be penalized. It is recommended further that mechanisms be put in place to hold their local leaders accountable.
- Periodic elections should be organized as a strategy to discipline local elected officers. Five

years between elections is a long period to tolerate unaccountable and sometimes incompetent local leaders. I believe the citizens should be given the power to recall non-performing representatives, thus correcting the gap that exists in the provisions in the local government system.

- In order to have real participatory planning at the local levels, the central government needs to devolve the decision-making power to the elected officials at the local level.

## **6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The researcher set out with the main objective being to identify specific projects and investigate whether their success or failure in contributing to the alleviation and/or eradication of poverty in Tanzania is, in fact, attributable to the participation or lack thereof of rural community members.

The researcher further sought to determine whether or not the community members participated, either actively or passively, with regard to the needs analysis, identifying viable projects to meet those needs and to ascertain what projects were carried out with and without the participation of rural community members. The researcher also had the objective of doing a comparative analysis of several rural development projects, those that succeeded and those that have failed, in order to prove his basic argument that active participation by the rural community members in planning and implementation is critical to the success of economic development.

The researcher's main argument was that Tanzania's lack of development and failure to reduce poverty, particularly in its rural areas, has been a direct result of the rural communities' lack of participation in development projects. Such lack of participation was evident in very many of the

projects that he investigated. However, having carried out this study the researcher is persuaded that, while this might be the case, there are, in fact, mitigating factors for the lack of such participation. These include cultural practices that designate some activities as being gender-related which, in turn, place a great burden on the womenfolk and political conflict and dominance by the ruling party which has been in power since independence. The poor governance that is characterized by corruption has led to apathy among the long-disillusioned rural community members.

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## APPENDICES AND PROTOCOLS

### Appendix 1: Research Questionnaires

Do you consider your community poor?	Yes	No
Are there any development projects in your community?	Yes	No
As a community leader did you participate by: Actively taking part in the planning discussions?	Yes	No
Only listening to the planning discussions?	Yes	No
Giving ideas during the planning phase?	Yes	No
If yes, were your ideas taken into account in the planning?	Yes	No
Managing the project while it was ongoing?	Yes	No
Did you participate in the projects that succeeded?	Yes	No
Did you take part in any of the projects that were unsuccessful?	Yes	No
Did your community members participate in the planning?	Yes	No

## **Appendix 2: Tanzania Economy Profile 2014**

Tanzania is identified by capitalist world as one of the world's poorest economies in terms of per capita income, however, it has achieved high overall growth rates based on gold production and tourism. Tanzania has largely completed its transition to a liberalized market economy, though the government retains a presence in sectors such as telecommunications, banking, energy, and mining. The economy depends on agriculture, which accounts for more than one-quarter of GDP, provides 85% of exports, and employs about 80% of the work force. The World Bank, the IMF, and bilateral donors have provided funds to rehabilitate Tanzania's aging economic infrastructure, including rail and port infrastructure that are important trade links for inland countries.

Recent banking reforms have helped increase private-sector growth and investment, and the government has increased spending on agriculture to 7% of its budget. The financial sector in Tanzania has expanded in recent years and foreign-owned banks account for about 48% of the banking industry's total assets. In 2008, Tanzania received the world's largest Millennium Challenge Compact grant, worth \$698 million, and in December 2012 the Millennium Challenge Corporation selected Tanzania for a second Compact. Dar es Salaam used fiscal stimulus and loosened monetary policy to ease the impact of the global recession. GDP growth in 2009-13 was a respectable 6-7% per year due to high gold prices and increased production.

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<b>GDP (Purchasing Power Parity)</b>	<b>\$79.29 billion (2013 est.)</b>
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**\$74.12 billion (2012 est.)**

**\$69.31 billion (2011 est.)**

**note: data are in 2013 US dollars**

**GDP (Official Exchange Rate)** \$31.94 billion (2013 est.)

**GDP - Real Growth Rate** 7% (2013 est.)

6.9% (2012 est.)

6.4% (2011 est.)

**GDP - per capita (PPP)** \$1,700 (2013 est.)

\$1,600 (2012 est.)

\$1,600 (2011 est.)

**note: data are in 2013 US dollars**

**Gross National Saving** 25.7% of GDP (2013 est.)

25.2% of GDP (2012 est.)

17.4% of GDP (2011 est.)

**GDP - composition, by end use** Hhouseholds consumption: 60.3%

government consumption: 17.2%

investment in fixed capital: 40.2%

investment in inventories: 0.6%

	exports of goods and services: 30.1%
	imports of goods and services: -48.5%
	(2013 est.)
<b>GDP - Composition by Sector</b>	Agriculture: 27.6%
	Industry: 25%
	Services: 47.4% (2013 est.)
<b>Population Below Poverty Line</b>	36% (2002 est.)
<b>Labor force</b>	25.59 million (2013 est.)
<b>Labor force - by occupation</b>	Agriculture: 80%
	industry and services: 20% (2002 est.)
<b>Unemployment Rate</b>	NA%
<b>Unemployment, youth ages 15-24</b>	total: 7.1% (2011)
<b>Household income or consumption by percentage share</b>	lowest 10%: 2.8%
	highest 10%: 29.6% (2007)
<b>Distribution of family income - Gini index</b>	37.6 (2007)
	34.6 (2000)
<b>Budget</b>	revenues: \$7.117 billion

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expenditures: \$8.917 billion (2013 est.)

**Taxes and other revenues** 22.3% of GDP (2013 est.)

**Budget Surplus (+) or deficit (-)** -5.6% of GDP (2013 est.)

**Public Debt** 42.7% of GDP (2013 est.)

41.7% of GDP (2012 est.)

**Inflation rate (consumer prices)** 7.8% (2013 est.)

16% (2012 est.)

**Central Bank Discount Rate** 8.25% (31 December 2010 est.)

3.7% (31 December 2009 est.)

**Commercial Bank Prime Lending** 13.6% (31 December 2013 est.)

**Rate** 15.46% (31 December 2012 est.)

**Stock of Narrow Money** \$4.594 billion (31 December 2013 est.)

\$4.16 billion (31 December 2012 est.)

**Stock of Broad Money** \$7.702 billion (31 December 2013 est.)

\$6.824 billion (31 December 2012 est.)

**Stock of Domestic Credit** \$7.326 billion (31 December 2013 est.)

\$7.061 billion (31 December 2012 est.)

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**Market Value of Publicly Traded** \$1.803 billion (31 December 2012 est.)

**Shares** \$1.539 billion (31 December 2011)

\$1.264 billion (31 December 2010 est.)

**Agriculture - Products** coffee, sisal, tea, cotton, pyrethrum (insecticide made from chrysanthemums), cashew nuts, tobacco, cloves, corn, wheat, cassava (manioc, tapioca), bananas, fruits, vegetables; cattle, sheep, goats

**Industries** agricultural processing (sugar, beer, cigarettes, sisal twine); mining (diamonds, gold, and iron), salt, soda ash; cement, oil refining, shoes, apparel, wood products, fertilizer

**Industrial Production Growth** 7.4% (2013 est.)

**rate**

**Current Account Balance** -\$4.857 billion (2013 est.)

-\$4.195 billion (2012 est.)

**Exports** \$5.92 billion (2013 est.)

\$5.912 billion (2012 est.)

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**Exports - Commodities** gold, coffee, cashew nuts, manufactures, cotton

**Exports - Partners** India 15.2%, China 11.1%, Japan 6.2%, Germany 5.1%, UAE 4.8% (2012)

**Imports** \$11.16 billion (2013 est.)  
\$10.32 billion (2012 est.)

**Imports - Partners** China 21.3%, India 16.3%, South Africa 6.4%, Kenya 6%, UAE 5% (2012)

**Reserves of foreign exchange and gold** \$4.343 billion (31 December 2013 est.)  
\$4.053 billion (31 December 2012 est.)  
note: excludes gold

**Debt - External** \$13.82 billion (31 December 2013 est.)  
\$11.82 billion (31 December 2012 est.)

**Stock of Direct Foreign** \$NA

**Investment - at home**

**Stock of Direct Foreign** \$NA

**Investment - Abroad**

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**Exchange Rates**

Tanzanian shillings (TZS) per US dollar -

1,609.2 (2013 est.)

1,583 (2012 est.)

1,409.3 (2010 est.)

1,320.3 (2009)

1,178.1 (2008)

**Fiscal year**

1 July - 30 June

**Source:** Index Mundi 2014

### Appendix 3: Summary Of Rural Community Development Planning For Sustainable Development in Tanzania

<b>The macro-economic framework policies</b>	
<b>Policy</b>	<b>Action</b>
The macro-economic policy	Should provide the basis to overcome the structural bottlenecks of Tanzania, lead ultimately to its transformation and contribute to the eradication of poverty in the country. Pursuit of such policies would be greatly assisted by efforts of the international community to encourage an international economic environment conducive to such change and to provide adequate external support to rural population.
Industrialized-economy countries	Major industrialized economy countries should continue to adopt coordinated policies to promote stable, sustainable, non-inflationary growth, enhance the positive impact on development of measures to deal with their mutual imbalances and strengthen mechanisms for the on-going process in Tanzania.
Establish linkages	Tanzanian government needs to pay particular attention to the linkages between different economic activities, as well as to the interaction of sectorial reform with broader macro-economic objectives in both rural and urban areas.
Monetary and fiscal policies in the region	Prudent monetary and fiscal policies contribute significantly to the level of saving and investment. These policies include financial deepening and fiscal incentives for the private sector to raise capital. The revenue needs of the government, in which the expenditures on physical and social infrastructure receive the most attention, should be met by a tax regime that is fair, efficient, and flexible.
A stable and realistic exchange rate	A stable and realistic exchange rate will support macro-economic objectives in the Tanzania and may contribute to balance in the external accounts of Tanzania. It will help to stimulate a vigorous and competitive export sector when combined with other appropriate policy initiatives to build sustainable development in the rural communities.
Subsidies	Subsidies and other such measures are useful in some circumstances but should

	be carefully examined.
<b>Stable political climate and institutional capacities policies</b>	
A stable political system	Resolving the country's conflicts without violence or a breakdown of the rule of law is one of the most important factors for sustained economic growth.
Institutional capacity	The government of Tanzania need to undertake policies and measures with technical and financial international support, aimed at strengthening the ability of their institutions to operate efficiently. These institutional capacities are vital for the formulation and management of macro-economic and sectorial policies, the design, management and evaluation of their development programmes as well as for the creation of an environment propitious to the development and sound management of the public and private sectors
Service sector	Tanzania should take full advantage of the special role of service sector in the development process, which permeates the entire economy and provides the necessary support for the proper functioning and efficiency of all economic sectors in the region. The development of all service sectors, must be emphasized, including infrastructure and producer services in rural community and members.
Scientific and technological base	The creation of an adequate scientific and technological base is consequently a necessary condition for medium and long-term transformation in Tanzania.
<b>Financing growth and development policies</b>	
Domestic resource	The mobilization and effective use of domestic savings is one of the imperative elements for sustained and equitable development. Tanzania should endeavor to develop an appropriate network for financial institutions and incentives to encourage private savings, ensure an optimal allocation of resources and strengthen the management of public expenditure, including that of public parastatals and implement a monetary policy conducive to price stability and confidence in both rural and urban communities.
External resources	Foreign assistance should serve to promote domestic growth and long-term economic development and transformation so, that eventually Tanzania can

	reduce their dependence on aid.
Public expenditure	Should concentrate on goods and services, especially basic education, health care, and physical infrastructure, to facilitate the development of human resources and to create opportunities for low-income and poor households, in the rural areas particularly to raise their incomes
High level of expenditure on defense	High levels of expenditure on defense service, repayment of domestic and foreign debt, and public sector enterprises or services deprive society of scarce resources needed for investment in productive activities and social services.
<b>Trade and investment policies</b>	
External trade	It is essential that Tanzania contribute to developing a more open, credible and durable multilateral trading system, recognizing that the result of this process will be a reflection, <b>inter alia</b> , of their respective weight in world trade. Such an improved system can effectively promote growth and development, particularly through improvement in market access. Important supportive measures in favor of Tanzania should be taken, <b>inter alia</b> , in such areas as duty-free treatment for their exports, exemption from quotas and ceilings and use of simplified and flexible rules. Export development policies need to be implemented in the country.
Diversification	A greater diversity of exports would strengthen the domestic economy, as well as provide greater stability and predictability in export earnings for the rural population.
Commodities	The international community could consider assistance and other forms of multilateral cooperation in the field of commodities and improve transparency and market access, reduce trade distortions and improved the dialogue on supply and demand conditions. In this regard, efforts to revitalize and improve the functioning of existing commodities arrangements, which are consistent with long-term market trends, should be supported.

Compensatory financing	In the long-term, it is crucial that Tanzania find the means to diversify their exports. In the short-term, however, the volatility of commodities prices means that there is a need for compensatory finance and appropriate producers' policies to help absorb the shock of sharp swings in export receipts.
Regulatory framework	The regulatory framework and policies should be aimed at reducing concentration in the marketplace of products and resources, opening up markets for domestic and foreign trade, and facilitating domestic and foreign investment in both rural and urban areas.
Price distortions	Government interventions sometimes misdirect resources and tend to discriminate against certain groups and sectors in the economy particularly rural population.
<b>The involvement of the actor's policies</b>	
NGOs role	The effectiveness of NGOs in promoting participatory development, which in recent years has been increasingly recognized, should be enhanced. Their specific role in formulating programmes in support of strategies, priorities and policies designed by national governments and aimed at improving the well-being of all citizens, should be encouraged.
Women participation	Appropriate measures should be taken by Government of Tanzania on fully to mobilize and involve women, both as agents and beneficiaries of the development process. Their role in development should be strengthened, <b>inter alia</b> , through better access to health care, including voluntary family planning, education and training, and to rural and urban credit.
Improved coordination	Improved coordination of multilateral and bilateral aids. Institutional building and human resource development should be integrated elements of all aid activities. Technical assistance should be provided in the context of an overall programme tailored to the needs and situation of the particular country and should aim to strengthen the capacity in Tanzania to formulate and implement

	policies, programmes and projects to address the structural rigidities of its economy and its people both in rural and urban areas.
<b>Enterprise development policies</b>	
Public enterprises	There is a need for pragmatic approaches to balance public and private sector involvement in the development of rural areas. Private enterprise, as well as industrial and rural co-operatives, can play a greater role in transforming Tanzania's economy.
Private enterprise	Specific programmes for private enterprise development should address promotion of domestic and foreign direct investment, management training, promotion of non-traditional exports, promotion of small-scale ventures and micro enterprises, including those within the informal sector, and the development of entrepreneurial skills in rural areas.
Protection to industries	Protection to industries and enterprises without gradual exposure to competition leads to an inefficient industrial structure that may also use more of the relatively scarce resources.
Capital and technical support	Capital and technical support for small-scale activities can be a particular effective way to benefit lower-income groups and contribute to poverty alleviation in both rural and urban areas.
<b>The strengthening of human capital policies</b>	
Population	High rate of population growth is a fundamental problem, adversely affecting Tanzania in their efforts to alleviate poverty, the allocation of economic resources and quality of the natural environment. Population policies should be considered an integral part of national development strategies under rural development framework. These policies must be linked to programmes on education, health (HIV/AIDS), child survival, housing and employment.

Education and training	Tanzania should make sustained efforts to improve their education systems, from primary to higher learning institutions. Special emphasis should to be given to improved access for girls and women to education facilities in rural areas.
Health and sanitation	Without profound improvements in the health standard prevailing in Tanzania, other measures of social and economic development will remain ineffective to large extent. The spread of HIV/AIDS and the resurgence of malaria and tuberculosis are major causes of death and devastation in rural Tanzania.

## **Appendix 4: Research Study Questionnaires**

**University Of South Africa**

**Department Of Development Studies**

### **Questionnaire for Adult Community Members Living In Rural Communities in Tanzania**

As part of my work towards fulfilling the requirement for the award of a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Development Studies, through the University of South Africa, I am undertaking a research on *Participation of Rural Community Members in Rural Development Planning in Tanzania*. Your answers to questions in the questionnaire will be used together with other information to determine the extent of community members' participation in the development planning in rural communities in the country.

Please, this research is solely for academic purpose therefore, you are encouraged to answer the questions as frankly as possible. Your responses would be held in strict confidence.

Thank you.

## SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

a) What is your gender? Tick the right box

a) Male [ ]

b) Female [ ]

c) Age ( )

2. What is your level of education? Tick the right box

a) No formal education [ ]

b) b) Primary Education [ ]

c) c) High School [ ]

d) College [ ]

e) d) Undergraduate [ ]

f) e) Post-graduate [ ]

3. What is your occupation? (a) Employed [ ]

(b) Unemployed [ ]

(c) Student [ ]

**SECTION B: LEVEL OF PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

Explain.....

**SECTION D: WAYS OF ENHANCING COMMUNITY MEMBERS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING**

24. What is your level of agreement to the following: (Please tick as applicable).

Factors	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Awareness creation on the developmental needs of the community					
Provision of rewards					
Involvement of all groups in the community					
High level of formal education					

No.	Question	Yes	No
1.	Have you lived in your community for at least five years?		

2.	Are you content with the development projects the government has initiated in your community with regard to health, education and water?		
3.	Are there any specific development projects such as those relating to health, education or water that you would like to see implemented in areas other than those the government has initiated?		
4.	Do you and or any of your community members take part in activities such as sharing your ideas and criticisms with the officials in local government administrative offices?		
5.	Are there enough primary schools in your community?		
6.	Are there enough secondary schools serving your community?		
7.	Are you involved in any community projects that help run or improve any of the schools?		
8.	Do you have teaching or administration skills that you would like to offer towards current and future development projects regarding education in your community?		
9.	Would you say there are adequate health clinics and or dispensaries serving your community?		
10.	Were you involved at all in the planning of these health facilities?		
11.	Have you participated in any way in the management or by giving feedback about the health services in your area?		
11.	Do you have skills that you could offer towards the planning or implementation or improvement of these health facilities?		

12.	Would you be interested in participating in planning for future or current development projects that might improve healthcare in for your community?		
13.	Are there any water projects serving your community?		
14.	Were you involved in planning or managing any of the water projects in your community?		
15.	Are there any specific community projects, such as those touching on health, water or education, which you have participated in in the last five years?		
16.	Have you ever expressed interest in participating in any projects and been discouraged from doing so by your local administrative officers?		
17.	Would you say there is strong local leadership to support community participation?		
18.	Do you think other community members are actively involved in these development projects?		
19.	Do you believe that if your community members were asked to participate even more actively in development projects regarding health, education and water they would?		
20.	In your opinion, is there a collaborative relationship between your local government office and the members of your community?		
21	Do you benefit with the projects in your community		

## **Appendix 5: Interview Questionnaire**

- b) How many development projects has your office administered in the last five years in the following categories:
  - c) Education
  - d) Health
  - e) Water
- f) Were the local community members involved in planning, implementation or management of the projects?
- g) Do you have policy guidelines as to how to involve the rural community members?
- h) Are these policy guidelines useful and relevant in their implementation?
- i) Are the community members enthusiastic about participating in the planning phase, implementation and management of the projects?
- j) What factors, in your experience, hinder greater participation by the community?
- k) Are there projects that have failed?
- l) Would you attribute the success or failure of any of these projects to the participation of the community members?

Translated Questionnaires (Kiswahili)

## UTAFITI JUU YA SHAHADA YA UZAMIVU

### UTAFITI KUHUSU USHIRIKLISHWAJI WA JAMII KATIKA MIPANGO YA MAENDELEO VIJIJINI

#### SEHEMU A: SIFA ZA WATU WANAOJIBU DODOSO

m) Je, wewe ni jinsia ipi? Weka alama ya (V) vema katika kisanduku kinachohusika.

n) me [ ]

o) ke [ ]

p) Umri [ ]

q) Unakiwango kipi cha elimu? Weka alama ya V katika kisanduku kinachohusika.

r) Sijasoma elimu ya darasani ( )

s) Elimu ya msingi ( )

t) Elimu ya sekondari ( )

u) Chuo ( )

v) Digrii/shahada ya mwanzo ( )

w) Masomo ya uzamili ( )

x) Unafanya shughuli/kazi gani?

y) Umejiriwa ( )

z) Huna kazi ( )

aa) Mwanafunzi ( )

Taja

matarajio

yako

.....  
.....

**SEHEMU B: KIWANGO CHA USHIRIKI KATIKA MIPANGO YA MAENDELEO**

Sehemu B (i) Kutambua mahitaji ya maendeleo

bb) Una kiwango gani cha ushiriki katika jamii yako?

Hatua	Sishiriki	Mara chache	Mara kwa mara	Kila mara
Mikutano ya jamii				

Majadiliano kuhusu mahitaji ya maendeleo				
Kutambua mahitaji				

Sehemu B (ii) Uamuzi kuhusu mahitaji ya maendeleo.

cc) Je, unashiriki katika kuamua mahitaji ya maendeleo?

Ndiyo ( )

Hapana ( )

6. Iwapo jibu ni ndiyo, ni katika maeneo gani ya jamii yako unakoshiriki?

dd) ya kijamii ( )

ee) ya kifedha ( )

Mengineyo

.....  
 .....

Fafanua

unavyoshiriki

.....

.....

**SEHEMU C: UHUSIANO KATI YA SIFA ZA WATU NA KIWANGO CHA USHIRIKI  
KATIKA MIPANGO YA MAENDELEO**

7. Je, jinsia yako imeathiri ushiriki wako katika mipango ya maendeleo katika jamii yako?

Ndiyo ( )

Hapana ( )

Majibu ya ndiyo/hapana hayatoi data halisi. Jinsia ni suala lisilo thabiti, kwa hiyo pendekeza kauli kadhaa na waruhusu kukubali (kipimo cha Linkert) jambo litakaloonyesha ushiriki wa mwanamke na wanaume.

Unaweza pia kutoa idadi ya wanaume/wanawake.

8. Ni kwa njia ipi jinsia yako huathiri ushiriki wako katika mipango ya maendeleo?

Kwa (a) kutoa uamuzi kuhusu wanawake ( )

(b) kutoa uamuzi kuhusu wanaume ( )

Mengineyo

.....

.....

9. Je, ni kweli kwamba kiwango chako cha elimu kimeathiri ushiriki wako katika mipango ya maendeleo katika jamii yako?

Ni kweli ( )

Si kweli ( )

Fafanua

.....  
.....

10. Je, shughuli /kazi yako imeathiri ushiriki wako katika mipango ya maendeleo katika jamii yako?

Ndiyo (...)

Hapana ( )

Fafanua

.....  
.....

11. Iwapo jibu ni ndiyo, ni kwa njia ipi kazi/shughuli huathiri ushiriki wako?

ff) Kama mwanajamii/mwananchi ( ) AU

gg) Kama kiongozi ( )

Fafanua

.....  
.....

12. (Ni marudio ya Na.11)

13. Mikakati ya kupunguza umasikini inachukuliwa na kutumika kama njia ya kunusuru masikini.

Je, wanajamii wanaelewa hivyo? (Weka alama ya V Katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

14. Je, viongozi wa vijijini/jamii wanatumika kama kichocheo cha ushiriki wa wanajamii katika mipango ya ya maendeleo ?

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

15. Katika baadhi ya jamii za vijijini, miradi ya maendeleo si endelevu. Je, hii inaweza kutokana na kutoshiriki kwa wanavijiji? (Weka alama ya  $\surd$  katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

16. Je, kuna msaada wowote kutoka kwenye jamii na viongozi wa serikali ya mitaa kwa ajili ya elimu ya wanafamilia wako? (Weka alama ya V katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

17. Je, kuna manufaa yoyote kutoka kwenye shughuli zinazowashirikisha wananchi wote ndani ya jamii? (Weka alama ya **V** katika kisaduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

18. Je, kiwango cha elimu cha chini kwa wanajamii waliowengi ndicho kinachoathiri mipango ya maendeleo? (Weka alama ya **V** katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

19. Je, ukosefu wa uwazi na uwajibikaji miongoni mwa viongozi wa jamii hasa kuhusu fedha zinazotolewa kwa ajili ya miradi ya maendeleo? (Weka alama ya **V** katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

20. Uongozi mbovu katika baadhi ya vijiji hautoi mweitiko kwa wanavijiji. (waka alama ya V katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

21. Je, miundombinu ya usafiri wa barabara mibovu inazuia wanajamii kwenda na kutoka kwenye ofisi za viongozi wao?

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

22. Je, kutowalipa wanajamii ambao ni wawakilishi katika mikutano, warsha wanaofanya kazi zisizo na ujuzi au kujihusisha na shughuli za AZISE (Asasi zisizo za serikali). (Weka alama ya **V** katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

23. Mivutano miongoni mwa wanajamii pale wanapohisi kuwa wananyonywa kwa kushiriki katika miradi isiyo na motisha. (Weka alama ya **V** katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

24. Baadhi ya makundi ya kijamii kama vile watoto, wanawake, walemavu na wazee hujiona kuwa hawawakilishwi vya kutosha. (Weka alama ya **V** katika kisanduku kinachohusika)

Nakubaliana kabisa ( )

Ninakubaliana ( )

Sina hakika ( )

Sikubaliani ( )

Sikubaliani kabisa ( )

**SEHEMU D: NJIA ZA KUIMARISHA USHIRIKI WA WANAJAMII KATIKA MIPANGO YA MAENDELEO VIJIJINI.**

25. Ni kipi kiwango chako cha kukubaliana na yafuatayo: (Tafadhali wekw alama ya ... panapohusika).

Vipengele	Nakubaliana kabisa	Nakubaliana	Sina hakika	sikubaliani	Sikubaliani kabisa
-----------	--------------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	--------------------

Kutambua mahitaji ya kimaendeleo ya jamii					
Kutoa tuzo					
Kuhusisha makundi yote katika jamii					
Kiwango cha juu cha elimu ya darasani					

**Protocol 1: General Information on Communication**

Village Executive Officer (VEO)

PO Box Kwahengwa Village

PO Box 12

Kondoa District

Dodoma

TANZANIA

J. R. FHIKA

147 Nicolette Street

Meyers park,

Pretoria 084

SOUTH AFRICA

25th July 2013

**Dear Sir,**

**RE: PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE A STUDY IN YOUR COMMUNITIES.**

As part of my work towards fulfilling the requirement for the award of a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree in Institute for African Renaissance Studies, through the University of South Africa, I am undertaking a research on *Participation of Rural Community Members in Rural Development Planning in Tanzania*.

I humbly request your permission to undertake a study in your community for the purpose of completing my research in Development Studies as part of my Doctor of Philosophy Degree (PhD). The research covers the participation of community members in rural development planning in Tanzania.

The research seeks to investigate the extent to which rural community members participate in rural development planning in Tanzania. The research will inform policy makers regarding ways of enhancing communities' participation in rural development planning in the country. Each participant would be a voluntary participant and letters affirming confidentiality and anonymity will be issued. They will also be issued with questionnaires to for them to respond to the various questions.

Kind regards

JUMANNE RASHID FHIKA

## **Protocol 2: Interview of Staff of Local Town Councils**

The Local Town councils were examined using focus group interviews. With regard to interviewing the staff of the town councils the author secured offices with the Town Council for ease of the exercise. Times were pre-set with to ensure that the business of the council was not disrupted.

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

**J. R. FHIKA**

147 Nicolette Street  
Meyers Park,  
Pretoria 084  
**SOUTH AFRICA**

**25<sup>th</sup> July, 2013**

**Dear/ Madam**

**RE: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADULT COMMUNITY MEMBERS LIVING IN RURAL COMMUNITIES IN TANZANIA**

As part of my work towards fulfilling the requirement for the award of a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Institute for African Renaissance Studies, through the University of South Africa, I am undertaking a research on *Participation of Rural Community Members in Rural Development Planning in Tanzania*. Your answers to questions in the questionnaire will be used together with other information to determine the extent of community members' participation in the development planning in rural communities in the country.

Please, this research is solely for academic purpose therefore, you are encouraged to answer the questions as frankly as possible. Your responses would be held in strict confidence.

Thank you.

JUMANNE. R FHIKA

### **Protocol 3: Permission to undertake FGDs**

**District Executive Development (DEO)**

P.O. Box Konda

Kondoa District

TANZANIA

**J. R. FHIKA**

147 Nicolette Street

Meyers park,

Pretoria 084

**SOUTH AFRICA**

**25<sup>th</sup> July, 2013**

Dear Sir/Madam

**RE: PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS**

As part of my work towards fulfilling the requirement for the award of a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Institute for African Renaissance Studies, through the University of South Africa, I am undertaking a research on *Participation of Rural Community Members in Rural Development Planning in Tanzania*.

I kindly requesting your permission to undertake a focus group discussion with your staffs for the purpose of completing my research in Development Studies as part of my Doctor of Philosophy Degree (PHD). The research covers the participation of community members in rural development planning in Tanzania.

The research seeks to investigate the extent to which rural community members participate in rural development planning in Tanzania. The research will inform policy makers regarding ways of enhancing communities' participation in rural development planning in the country. Each participant would be a voluntary participant and letters affirming confidentiality and anonymity will be issued.

Kind regards

JUMANNE RASHID FHIKA

## **Protocol 4: Permission to undertake Focus Group Interview**

**District Executive Development (DEO)**

P.O. Box Kondo

Kondo District

TANZANIA

**J. R. FHIKA**

147 Nicolette Street

Meyers park,

Pretoria 084

**SOUTH AFRICA**

**25<sup>th</sup> July, 2013**

Dear madam

### **RE: PERMISSION TO STAFF OF THE TOWN COUNCILS TO PARTICIPATE IN A FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW**

This is a research as part of my work towards fulfilling the requirement for the award of a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Institute for African Renaissance Studies, through the University of South Africa, I am undertaking a research on “Participation of Rural Community Members in Rural Development Planning in Tanzania”. The research for my Doctor of Philosophy (PHD) Degree concerns the participation of rural community members in rural development planning in Tanzania.

The research seeks to investigate the extent to which rural community members participate in rural development planning in Tanzania. The research will inform policy makers regarding ways of enhancing communities’ participation in rural development planning in the country.

This research presents an opportunity for you to voice out your opinion and to enter into discussions with other staff of the council on the subject matter. The procedure will take place in the form of a focus group and the discussion will be recorded and the data collected will be transcribed for the research. All participants are guaranteed anonymity by the author.

Would you please be kind enough to participate in this study?

The pertinent details are as follows;

Date:

Venue:

Time:

Duration of the focus group is expected to be an hour.

Kind regards

---

JUMANNE RASHID FHIKA

## **Protocol 5: Obligation to participate in research**

**The Participant**

**P.O. Box Kondoa**

**Kondoa District**

**TANZANIA**

**J. R. FHIKA**

**147 Nicolette Street**

**Meyers park,**

**Pretoria 084**

**SOUTH AFRICA**

12 December, 2014

**Dear participant,**

### **RE: OBLIGATION TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH**

Thank you for agreeing to be a participant in my research. This is to assure you that your anonymity will be protected by me as the author and by the university, UNISA. You will not be identifiable throughout the work.

Kind regards

JUMANNE RASHID FHIKA