

**MANAGEMENT OF CONFLICT IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS IN  
TANZANIA WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO IRINGA MUNICIPAL  
COUNCIL AND TANGA CITY COUNCIL**

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## **DECLARATION**

I, Letisia Warrioba, declare that Management of conflict in city and municipal councils in Tanzania with specific reference to Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council is

my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

## **SUMMARY**

The study intended to investigate conflict management capacity in local government authorities (LGAs) in Tanzania. Specific objectives embrace to: identify types of conflict; find out causes of conflict within Tanzania LGAs; find out positive and negative effects

of conflict; explore mechanisms available for conflict resolution; identify the problems encountered in resolving conflict; and recommend policy options and strategies for managing conflict in LGAs.

Research questions included: what types of conflict persist in the city and municipal councils in Tanzania?; to what extent does conflict lead to the strengthening or weakening of the relationship between the councilors and the permanent public officials?; and what are the available mechanisms for conflict resolution?

The study was conducted in Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council using a case study design. This involved both qualitative and quantitative approaches. A total number of 1012 respondents constituted a study sample.

The research instruments included: observation, interviews, questionnaires, consultations with informants and informal discussions, focus group discussions and documentary reviews.

The study found that conflict existed in the councils because of factors like inadequacy of funds, lack of transparency, lack of accountability and low level of education among the councillors. The available mechanisms for conflict resolution included: mediation, disciplinary committees, meetings, informal discussions, seminars and guidance and counselling. However, these mechanisms were not effectively used in managing conflict.

Lastly, the respondents suggested measures for improving conflict resolution skills. They include: frequent meetings, provision of education and training, increased transparency, definition of roles through job descriptions, increased participatory decision-making, and increased sources of funds.

Some policy implications were established, they include: the strong need for the local government authorities to solve the existing problems such as mistrust and misuse of public funds.

Lastly, recommendations included: further effective measures must be taken to address the existing and future problems; there is a need to review regularly the present municipal and city councils policy so as to make it address current global changes; and lastly, there is a need to conduct more researches on the conflict and its causes in other municipal and city councils in Tanzania.

## **KEY TERMS**

Conflict, conflict management, conflict resolution values, conflict resolution mechanisms, mediation, seminars, guidance and counseling, transparency, and job descriptions.

## **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

	<b>Page</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE</b>	
<b>1.0 BACKGROUND INFORMATION TO THE STUDY....</b>	<b>1</b>

1.1	INTRODUCTION	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1
1.2	BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1
1.3	STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3
1.4	OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5
1.4.1	Research questions	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5
1.5	MOTIVATION AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6
1.6	METHODOLOGY	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7
1.6.1	Study design	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7
1.6.2	Sampling procedures...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8
1.6.3	Research instruments	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8
1.6.4	Data analysis	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8
1.7	HYPOTHESIS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8
1.7.1	Hypothesis one	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8
1.7.2	Hypothesis two	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	9 1.8
	SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9
1.9	ASSUMPTIONS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9
1.10	TERMINOLOGY	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10
1.10.1	Local government authorities	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10
1.10.2	Conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11
1.10.3	Conflict resolution...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11
1.10.4	Councillors	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11
1.10.5	Executives	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12
1.10.6	Permanent public officials...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12
1.10.7	Tanzania	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12
									<b>Page</b>
1.10.8	Madaraka Mikoani	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13
1.10.9	Ujamaa policy	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13
1.10.10	Qualitative research...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13
1.10.11	Quantitative research	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14

1.10.12 Descriptive data analysis ... ..	14
1.11 REFERENCE TECHNIQUES .... ..	14
1.12 SEQUENCE OF THE STUDY ... ..	15
1.13 SUMMARY ... ..	16

## CHAPTER TWO

<b>2.0 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK...</b>	<b>17</b>
2.1 INTRODUCTION ... ..	17
2.2 DEFINITION OF THE CONCEPT 'CONFLICT' ... ..	17
2.3 FORMS/TYPES OF CONFLICT ... ..	19
2.3.1 Goal conflict ... ..	19
2.3.2 Cognitive conflict ... ..	20
2.3.3 Affective conflict ... ..	20
2.3.4 Procedural conflict ... ..	20
2.3.5 Scarce resource conflict ... ..	21
2.3.6 Authority conflict ... ..	21
2.3.7 Interdependence conflict ... ..	22
2.3.8 Elements of conflict ... ..	22
2.4 VIEWS AND EFFECTS OF CONFLICT ... ..	23
2.4.1 Functional conflict ... ..	27
2.4.2 Dysfunctional conflict... ..	28
2.5 NATURE OF CONFLICT ... ..	29
2.6 INTRODUCTION OF CONFLICT (CONFLICT FORMATION) ... ..	30
2.6.1 Introduction of outsiders ... ..	31
2.6.2 Introduction of rules and policies which create conflict ... ..	31
	<b>Page</b>
2.6.3 Introduction of "Play by the Book" policy ... ..	31
2.6.4 Re-organization ... ..	32
2.7 PRINCIPLES OF CONFLICT ... ..	32
2.8 LEVELS OF CONFLICT ... ..	34



2.8.1 Intra-individual conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	34
2.8.2 Inter-individual conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	35
2.8.3 Intra-group conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	36
2.8.4 Inter-group conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	36
2.8.5 Organizational conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	37
2.9 SYMPTOMS OF CONFLICT	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	38
2.9.1 Poor lateral and vertical communication	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	38
2.9.2 Intra-group hostility and jealousy	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	38
2.9.3 Intra-personal friction	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	39
2.9.4 Escalation of arbitration	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	39
2.9.5 Proliferation of rules and regulations, norms and myth	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	39
2.9.6 Low morale of the type expressed in frustration at Inefficiency	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	39
2.10 CAUSES OF CONFLICT	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	40
2.10.1 Competition for resources	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	40
2.10.2 Task interdependence	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	41
2.10.3 Jurisdictional ambiguity	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	41
2.10.4 Status problems	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	42
2.10.5 Communication barriers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	42
2.10.6 Individual traits	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	43
2.11 ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND CONFLICT	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	44
2.12 CONFLICT RESOLUTION	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	47
2.12.1 Conflict resolution values	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	47
2.12.2 Conflict resolution strategies/styles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	51
2.13 TACTICS OR TECHNIQUES OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	54
								<b>Page</b>
2.13.1 Bargaining	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	55
2.13.2 Mediation	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	55
2.13.3 Arbitration	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	56
2.14 EMPIRICAL REVIEW	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	57

2.15 SUMMARY	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	62
--------------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	----

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3.0 CONFLICT DEVELOPMENT IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS

<b>IN TANZANIA</b>	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	64
3.1 INTRODUCTION	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	64
3.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF COUNCILS IN TANZANIA	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	64
3.2.1 Local government authorities in the pre-colonial period	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	66
3.2.2 Local Government authorities during the colonial period	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	67
3.2.2.1 German period (1884 – 1918)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	67
3.2.2.2 British period (1919 – 1961)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	68
3.2.3 Post - colonial local government	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	71
3.2.3.1 Transitional phase (1961 – 1972)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	73
3.2.3.2 De-concentration phase (1972 – 1978)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	73
3.2.3.3 Devolution phase (1978 – 1982)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	75
3.2.3.4 Re-Introduction of local government authorities phase (1982 – 1992)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	76
3.2.3.5 Local government under multiparty democracy phase (1992 to the present)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	79
3.3 NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT AUTHORITIES IN TANZANIA	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	80
3.3.1 Organization structure of local government authorities in Tanzania	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	81
3.3.2 Administrative machinery of Tanzania local government authority at the council level	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	83
									<b>Page</b>
3.3.2.1 Structure of the rural authorities	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	85
Full council	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	85
Standing committees	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	87
▪ Committee for finance and planning	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	88

▪	Committee for administration and establishment	...	...	...	...	...	...	88
▪	Committee for social service	...	...	...	...	...	...	88
▪	Committee for educational affairs	...	...	...	...	...	...	88
▪	Committee for economic services	...	...	...	...	...	...	89
▪	Committee for human resource development	...	...	...	...	...	...	89
	Council director	...	...	...	...	...	...	89
	Ward executive officer	...	...	...	...	...	...	89
	Village council	...	...	...	...	...	...	90
3.3.2.2	Structure of the urban authorities	...	...	...	...	...	...	90
a.	Committee for finance and administration	...	...	...	...	...	...	91
b.	Committee for urban planning	...	...	...	...	...	...	91
c.	Committee for public health	...	...	...	...	...	...	91
d.	Committee for education and culture	...	...	...	...	...	...	91
e.	Committee for trade and economic affairs	...	...	...	...	...	...	91
f.	Committee for human resource development	...	...	...	...	...	...	92
3.4	SERVICE DELIVERY IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT	...	...	...	...	...	...	92
3.5	SOURCES OF FINANCE IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT	...	...	...	...	...	...	94
3.6	ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT	...	...	...	...	...	...	95
3.7	LOCAL GOVERNMENT RELATIONS WITH CENTRAL GOVERNMENT	...	...	...	...	...	...	97
3.7.1	Legislative control	...	...	...	...	...	...	98
3.7.2	Financial control	...	...	...	...	...	...	98
3.7.3	Ministerial or administrative control	...	...	...	...	...	...	99
3.7.4	Judicial control	...	...	...	...	...	...	99
3.7.5	Proper officer	...	...	...	...	...	...	100
								<b>Page</b>
3.7.6	Dissolution	...	...	...	...	...	...	100
3.7.7	Other methods of control	...	...	...	...	...	...	100
3.7.8	Authorities to perform functions in the national interest...	...	...	...	...	...	...	100
3.8	PROBLEMS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT	...	...	...	...	...	...	101

3.8.1	Financial problems	...	...	...	...	...	...	102	3.8.2
	Lack of competent manpower	...	...	...	...	...	...	103	
3.8.3	Poor quality of employees	...	...	...	...	...	...	104	
3.8.4	Antagonism between permanent public officials and the councilors	...	...	...	...	...	...	105	
3.8.5	Division of authority between councilors and permanent public officials	...	...	...	...	...	...	105	
3.9	PERCEIVED CONFLICT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT AUTHORITIES							109	
3.9.1	Structural conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	110	3.9.1.1
	Policy making versus implementation	...	...	...	...	...	...	111	
3.9.1.2	Revenue	...	...	...	...	...	...	111	
3.9.1.3	Vision and mission	...	...	...	...	...	...	112	
3.9.1.4	Power and authority	...	...	...	...	...	...	112	
3.9.1.5	Horizontal conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	113	
3.9.2	Role conflict	...	...	...	...	...	...	114	3.10
	SUMMARY	...	...	...	...	...	...	115	

## CHAPTER FOUR

<b>4.0</b>	<b>RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b>	...	...	...	...	...	...	117	
4.1	INTRODUCTION	...	...	...	...	...	...	117	
4.2	PREMINARY STUDIES AND PILOT VISITS	...	...	...	...	...	...	117	
4.3	RESEARCH DESIGN	...	...	...	...	...	...	118	
4.4	RESEARCH AREA	...	...	...	...	...	...	118	
4.4.1	Rationale	...	...	...	...	...	...	118	
4.4.2	Iringa Municipal Council	...	...	...	...	...	...	119	
									<b>Page</b>
4.4.2.1	Physical features and climate	...	...	...	...	...	...	119	
4.4.2.2	Population and economic activities	...	...	...	...	...	...	120	
4.4.2.3	Social and economic infrastructure	...	...	...	...	...	...	120	
4.4.3	Tanga City Council	...	...	...	...	...	...	120	

4.4.3.1	Physical features and climate	...	...	...	...	...	...	121
4.4.3.2	Population and economic activities	...	...	...	...	...	...	121
4.4.3.3	Social and economic infrastructure	...	...	...	...	...	...	122
4.5	POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES	...	...	...	...	...	...	122
4.5.1	Population and sample	...	...	...	...	...	...	122
4.5.2	Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration	...	...	...	...	...	...	124
4.5.3	Sampling techniques	...	...	...	...	...	...	126
4.5.4	Aims of sampling	...	...	...	...	...	...	126
4.5.5	Advantages of sampling	...	...	...	...	...	...	126
4.5.6	Disadvantages/limitations of sampling	...	...	...	...	...	...	126
4.5.7	Purposive sampling	...	...	...	...	...	...	128
4.5.8	Simple random sampling	...	...	...	...	...	...	128
<b>4.6</b>	<b>RESEARCH METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS...</b>	...	...	...	...	...	...	<b>128</b>
4.6.1	Data collection methods	...	...	...	...	...	...	129
4.6.1.1	Primary source	...	...	...	...	...	...	129
4.6.1.2	Methods of primary data collection	...	...	...	...	...	...	129
4.6.2	Secondary data	...	...	...	...	...	...	130
4.6.3	Non-participant observation	...	...	...	...	...	...	131
4.6.4	Questionnaires	...	...	...	...	...	...	131
4.6.5	Interviews	...	...	...	...	...	...	132
4.6.6	Consultations and informal discussions	...	...	...	...	...	...	132
<b>4.7</b>	<b>DATA ANALYSIS</b>	...	...	...	...	...	...	132
4.7.1	Types of data analysis	...	...	...	...	...	...	133
4.8	SUMMARY	...	...	...	...	...	...	134

**Page**

**CHAPTER FIVE**

<b>5.0</b>	<b>FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS</b>	...	...	...	...	...	...	135
5.1	INTRODUCTION	...	...	...	...	...	...	135
5.2	DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS	...	...	...	...	...	...	

OF THE RESPONDENTS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	135
5.2.1 Categories of respondents by age and sex	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	136
Educational background of the respondents	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	138
5.2.3 Categories of respondents by occupation/economic activities	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	139
5.3 EXISTENCE AND TYPES OF CONFLICT IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	140
5.3.1 Existence of conflict in city and municipal councils	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	140
5.3.2 Discussion	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	141
5.4 TYPES OF CONFLICT IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	142
5.4.1 Discussion	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	143
5.5 CAUSES OF CONFLICT IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	144
5.5.1 Discussion	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	151
5.6 EFFECTS OF CONFLICT IN THE CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	156
5.6.1 Discussion	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	161
5.7 MECHANISMS AVAILABLE FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	164
5.7.1 Discussion	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	166
5.8 CONSTRAINTS ON CONFLICT RESOLUTION	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	168
5.8.1 Discussions	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	169
5.9 SUGGESTED MEASURES FOR IMPROVING CONFLICT RESOLUTION SKILLS IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS IN TANZANIA	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	170
5.9.1 Discussion	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	171
5.10 SUMMARY	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	171

## CHAPTER SIX

Page

### 6.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS PROPOSALS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	173
6.2 SUMMARY	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	173
6.2.1 Objectives of the study...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	173
6.2.2 Specific objectives...	...	...	...	...	...	.....	...	173
6.2.3 Research questions...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	174
6.2.4 Area of the study...	...	...	...	...	...	.....	...	174
6.2.5 Population and sample...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	174
6.2.6 The study design...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	174
6.2.7 Research instruments and data analysis...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	175
6.2.8 Hypotheses...	...	...	...	...	.....	...	...	175
6.2.9 Assumptions of the study...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	175
6.2.10 Findings...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	176
6.3 CONCLUSIONS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	179
6.4 PROPOSALS	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	181
6.5 POLICY IMPLICATIONS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	181
6.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	182
6.7 LIST OF SOURCES	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	183
6.8 APPENDICES	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	193
Appendix I: ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE OF A DISTRICT COUNCIL...								193
Appendix II: ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE OF AN URBAN COUNCIL ...								194
Appendix III: MAP OF TANZANIA	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	195
Appendix IV: MAP OF IRINGA REGION	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	196
Appendix V: MAP OF TANGA REGION	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	197
Appendix VI: CATEGORY A: QUESTIONNAIRES FOR EXECUTIVE OFFICERS, HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS AND OTHER PERMANENT PUBLIC OFFICIALS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	198
Appendix VII: CATEGORY B: QUESTIONNAIRES FOR COUNCILLORS	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	202
Appendix VIII: CATEGORY C: HOJAJI KWA MADIWANI	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	207
Appendix IX: CATEGORY D: HOJAJI KWA WATENDAJI	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	214

## LIST OF FIGURES

	<b>Page</b>
1. Mutually hurting stalemate model.....	50



2. Five strategies of resolving conflict.....	52
3. Simplified structure of Tanzania Local Government System.....	82
4. Administrative machinery of local government authorities in Tanzania.....	84
5. Causes of conflict in city and municipal councils.....	145
6. Cumulative responses from Iringa and Tanga.....	148
7. Other causes of conflict.....	150

## LIST OF TABLES

	<b>Page</b>
1. Differences between councillors and permanent public officials.....	106
2. Survey population of the study.....	123

3	Selected permanent public officials .....	124
4	Sample composition.....	125
5	Sampling methods/techniques.....	127
6	Distribution of respondents.....	136
7	Categories of respondents by age and sex .....	137
8	Educational background of respondents .....	139
9	Occupations/ economic activities of the respondents .....	140
10	Existence of conflict in city and municipal councils.....	141
11	Types of conflict .....	142
12	Respondents' awareness of causes of conflict .....	144
13	List of items earmarked as causes of conflict.....	146
14	Cumulative total of responses for each item for both Iringa and Tanga....	147
15	Other causes of conflict in Iringa and Tanga.....	149
16	Awareness of effects of conflict .....	157
17	Respondents' perception of effects of conflict.....	158
18	Negative effects of conflict .....	159
19	Other negative effects of conflict .....	160
20	Positive effects of conflict resolution .....	161
21	Existence of mechanisms for conflict.....	165
22	Mechanisms available for conflict resolution.....	166
23	Constraints to conflict resolution.....	168
24	Suggested measures for improving conflict resolution skills in municipal and city councils in Tanzania .....	170

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

ATC	-	Air Tanzania Corporation
Cap		Chapter (of the Laws)
GOT	-	Government of Tanzania
HOD	-	Head of Department
ICAC	-	Independent Commission Against Corruption
LGA	-	Local Government Authority
LGIs	-	Local Government Institutions
LGRP	-	Local Government Reform Programme
Ltd	-	Limited
MEO	-	Mtaa Executive Officer
NORAD	-	Norway Agency for Development.
PMO	-	Prime Minister's Office
PORALG	-	President's Office Regional Administration and Local Government.
PPOs	-	Permanent Public Officials
RALGH	-	Regional Administration and Local Government
RGC	-	Royal Government of Cambodia
RS	-	Regional Secretariat.
SIDA	-	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SNV	-	Netherlands Development Organisation
TANESCO	-	Tanzania Electric Supply Company
TRC	-	Tanzania Railways Corporation
TTCL	-	Tanzania Telecommunications Ltd.
URT	-	United Republic of Tanzania
VC	-	Village Council
VEO	-	Village Executive Officer.
WDC	-	Ward Development Committee

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **1.0 BACKGROUND INFORMATION TO THE STUDY**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides a background that contextualizes the research problem. It states the research problem, the objective of the study and explains the motivation and justification of the study, methodology, hypotheses, scope and limitations of the research and the underlying assumptions. The chapter also gives stipulative definitions of terms and provides the sequence in which the study is organized. It ends with a summary of the main aspects covered.

#### **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Local government authorities in the United Republic of Tanzania, (Tanzania) as established by the *Local Government Acts Number 7 and 8* of 1982, are important grassroots institutions which have both administrative and development roles. The development role, which is the most critical, involves ensuring the well being of the people in areas of social service provision, agricultural development, community development and governance (Dryden, 1968:141). The on-going local government reforms in Tanzania are geared towards providing more power and autonomy to local authorities to manage their own affairs and discharge their functions more effectively (Mogella ,1987:82).

Local government authorities in Tanzania are categorized into district authorities and urban authorities which were established by The *Local Government Acts Number 7* and 8 of 1982, respectively.

Rural authorities include village councils, township authorities and district councils that cover a wide area and a population divided and grouped into

hamlets, villages and wards. Wards are very important because they are the constituencies for elected councillors (Warioba, 1999:83). Urban authorities include town councils, municipal councils, and city councils, and have a structure which includes streets (Mitaa) (Warioba, 1999: 86).

A local government authority in Tanzania is a government consisting of a group of politicians known as councillors who are elected by the people through local government elections. Each councillor represents a ward although there are also special seats for representatives of various groups such as women and the disabled. There are no required qualifications in terms of formal education for a person to vie for councillorship. Any citizen attached to any political party can become a councillor in any Tanzanian council.

When councillors meet, they form a council. This is the supreme policy making organ concerned with the formulation of policies, making of by-laws/regulations, approving budgets, employing senior officials and discussing peoples' problems as they are presented by an individual councillor. They are the political leaders.

The second group in the council performs the daily management of the local government authorities. This is the group of permanent public officials headed by a director, who is the chief executive officer of the council. This group includes heads of departments (see the organization structure in Appendices I and 11). The permanent public officials are the implementers of the policies and decisions formulated or made by the councillors. These are qualified technicians in planning, public administration, local government, finance, agriculture, education, health, community development, engineering, town planning and rural development.

In principle and according to the ongoing reforms, councillors are the employers of the permanent public officials in a local council. Thus, they have ultimate

power and can accept or reject any name for appointment recommended by the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government. (This Ministry is responsible for local government affairs).

In Appendices I and II, the structure of local government authorities in Tanzania places councillors at the top. The councillors and the permanent public officials have to work together to enable the local authority to discharge its functions properly. Councillors cannot by themselves be effective, nor can the permanent public officials who do not know the priorities of the people in the villages/streets and wards constituting the local authority. These groups, therefore, depend on one another.

The history of local authorities in Tanzania shows conflict between the councillors and the permanent public officials. The conflict between the two groups has been in existence in various councils in Tanzania as discussed in the statement of the problem below. This study intends to find out the causes, consequences and management mechanisms to address the conflict between councillors and the permanent public officials in Tanzanian local government authorities.

### **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Local government authorities in Tanzania are run by two groups of people who have different status. One group consists of councillors who are elected through a democratic process and then qualify to become the key decision-makers on issues pertaining to the management of the councils. Their term of office is five years, but they are free to compete for a second term or more. The second group comprises permanent public officials who implement the decisions made by the councillors. These are the permanent public officials of the council.

In order for the local government authorities (LGAs) to perform their duties effectively and efficiently, councillors and permanent public officials need to work as a team or as partners. They should forge an alliance geared towards both creating more collaborative arrangements and facilitating each other in their initiatives for the LGAs development.

However, local government authorities in Tanzania depict a different and unexpected scenario. A number of the LGAs are characterized by growing conflict, misunderstanding and mistrust between the councillors and the permanent public officials. The situation hinders cooperation and effectiveness in achieving the LGA's objectives.

In many LGAs, the situation is so turbulent that it has sometimes led to the dissolution of councils and the sacking of the executive directors. For example, the Dar es Salaam City Council was dissolved in 2002 by the Prime Minister who is responsible for local government (*Majira 10<sup>th</sup> November 2002:3*).

There are also cases where the local government authorities' directors were suspended. This list includes council directors for Kibaha, Bagamoyo, Ifakara, Arumeru, Morogoro Rural, Korogwe District Councils and Morogoro and Dodoma Municipal Councils. There have been cross-country transfers that were aimed at removing unwanted technical staff from the above respective councils. Hence, many, if not all, of the above mentioned councils were managed by acting directors and heads of departments whose ability and capacity of making quality strategic decisions were very poor (*Majira 10<sup>th</sup> November 2002:3*).

The problem that this research investigated was the identification of various factors which aggravate the misunderstanding and mistrust between councillors and the permanent public officials and to investigate the consequences and

impact of the councillors-permanent public officials' conflictual relationships in LGAs.

#### **1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The general objective of the study was to investigate the conflict management capacity of LGAs in Tanzania by looking at the causes and consequences of conflict between councillors and permanent public officials.

Specific objectives included to:

- Identify types of conflict.
- Find out causes of conflict within Tanzania LGAs.
- Find out positive and negative effects of the conflict.
- Explore mechanisms available for conflict resolution.
- Identify the problems encountered in resolving conflict.
- Recommend policy options and strategies for managing conflict.

##### **1.4.1 Research questions**

The question at the core of the thesis is whether conflict management provides an answer to the issue of conflict over roles, relationships, and structure of the councillors and permanent public officials. In an attempt to tackle the research problem, the following research questions guided the study:

- What types of conflict persist in city and municipal councils in Tanzania.
- To what extent does conflict lead to the strengthening or weakening of the relationship between the councillors and the permanent public officials?
- What are the available mechanisms for conflict resolution?



It is assumed that performance differs from one council to another depending on the nature and extent of conflict and the capacity to manage

### **1.5 MOTIVATION AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY**

This study intended to examine the causes and consequences of conflictual relationships between councillors who are policy makers and permanent public officials who are the policy implementers. It intended to come up with findings that explain why there has always been conflict in Tanzanian city and municipal councils. Knowledge of the causes of the problem will provide a basis or a starting point for policy deliberations on how to avoid future conflict and improve relationships between councillors and permanent public officials. The Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government will also find the study relevant for the provision of various policy guidelines and directives, since it is also responsible for the supervision of local government elections. The findings will help the Ministry in establishing mechanisms for minimizing the frequency of occurrences of conflicts between councillors and permanent public officials. The findings are also intended to assist the Ministry in providing fact-based advice on the employment of permanent public officials who have the skills to manage local government authorities.

The findings of the study should also provide important inputs to the councillors and the permanent public officials in all the councils in Tanzania. It is also expected that upon reading the findings and conducting self assessment, individuals/workers in LGAs will embark on efforts for reducing conflict in the councils and therefore, improve service delivery. This will also improve the decision-making process in the councils as differences between councillors and permanent public officials are reduced, thereby enhancing a harmonious relationship.

The literature review in Chapter Two shows that not much has been done on this aspect. Therefore, apart from contributing to knowledge about LGAs, the findings of this study will attract researchers to the area, especially on the relationship of conflict in LGAs and the means and mechanism to prevent it.

## **1.6 METHODOLOGY**

This section highlights the study design, sampling procedure and research instruments and discusses data analysis tools. Detailed information on data collection and analysis procedures is provided in Chapter Four.

### **1.6.1 Study design**

The study used qualitative and quantitative approaches. A qualitative approach attempts to understand the behaviour of people in institutions by getting to know them and their values (norms). A quantitative approach deals with operationalisation of empirical variables, prediction and testing (see 1.9.10 and 1.9.11). A case study, sometimes described as a collective study was used. This approach involves studying a number of cases jointly in order to understand, for instance, a phenomenon, population or general condition, investigate the causes, effects, and resolution of any possible existing conflict, understand the causes, effects and resolution of conflict in the two councils, which are Tanga City Council and Iringa Municipal Council.

This methodology is appropriate, because the intention was to conduct an in-depth analysis of the conflicting relationship between permanent public officials and councillors.

### **1.6.2 Sampling procedures**

A total number of 954 permanent public officials, which is more than 30% (Krishnaswami, 2002:144) of the survey population, was selected. The total number of permanent public officials for the two councils is 3215. All 54 councillors, which is 100%, were selected. Moreover, four directors (who are directly involved in local government authorities) out of six from the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government, were selected.

### **1.6.3 Research instruments**

Observations, interviews, questionnaires, consultations and informal discussions, focus group discussions and documentary reviews were used to collect data (Krishnaswami, 2002:197-199).

### **1.6.4 Data analysis**

Data analysis was both descriptive and inferential. The data was coded and tabulated, and percentages were calculated in order to facilitate interpretation and drawing of conclusions (Kothari, 1990:160).

## **1. 7 HYPOTHESES**

In this section the following two hypotheses will be considered.

### **1.7.1 Hypothesis one**

Inadequate conflict management capacity leads to the existence of conflict between councillors and permanent public officials.

To address this hypothesis the researcher identified the following.

- poor information sharing and dissemination;
- lack of transparency and clear accountability mechanisms;

- inadequate financial resources; and
- attitudes of permanent public officials and councillors.

### **1.7.2 Hypothesis two**

The conflicting relationship between councillors and permanent public officials lead to poor performance of local government authorities in public service delivery resulting in;

- inefficient delivery of services, for example, in the health, education and agricultural sectors;
- misuse of funds; and
- persistence of poverty.

## **1.8 SCOPE AND LIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH**

This study covers two councils, Tanga City Council and Iringa Municipal Council. The researcher is familiar with these councils which provided an opportunity for an in-depth study to be conducted.

This study focused on the causes and consequences of conflictual relationships between councillors and permanent public officials and its impact on the development of the areas of their jurisdiction.

## **1.9 ASSUMPTIONS**

The study was guided by the following assumptions:

- The current organization structure of local government authority in Tanzania leads to conflict between councillors and permanent public officials.

- Lack of clarity and the presence of overlaps in the roles and functions of councillors and permanent public officials create conflict.
- Lack of conflict prevention and management mechanisms leads to continuous conflict between councillors and permanent public officials.
- Differences in the levels of formal education between councillors and permanent public officials result in relationships marred by conflict.
- The scarcity of financial and material resources and the poverty of the councils and councillors result in the scramble for resources, which is manifested in the form of conflict.

## **1.10 TERMINOLOGY**

This study is about conflicting relationships between councillors and permanent public officials. However, some terms/terminologies have a special meaning when referred to in this study. The terms are defined below.

### **1.10.1 Local government authorities**

Local government authority is defined as that part of the government of a country operating on a local level, functioning through a representative organ known as a council, established by law to exercise specific powers within a defined area of jurisdiction (Warioba, 1999:1).

Some scholars view local government authorities as institutions to which legal and political authority from the central government and its agencies are transferred (Mniwasa & Shauri, 2001:3). The transfer includes the authority to plan, make decisions and manage public affairs by agencies other than the central government (Ng'ethe, 1998:5).

As previously stated, LGAs are grassroots government institutions established by the *Local Government Act No. 7* of 1982 and the *Local Government Act No. 8* of 1982 and their amendments. They are responsible for planning, financing and implementing development programmes within their areas of jurisdiction. Each authority has to suppress crime, maintain peace and good order, protect public and private property and promote the social welfare and economic well being of the people within their areas of jurisdiction. It is also responsible for the control and improvement of agriculture, trade, and industry, enhancement of health, education and social life of the people and fighting poverty, disease and ignorance.

#### **1.10.2 Conflict**

Terry (1983:83) defines conflict as the existence of opposition or dispute between persons, groups or organizations. He further points out that '...with all the developments taking place in management, it is rational to expect differences of opinions, beliefs and ideas to exist'.

#### **1.10.3 Conflict resolution**

According to Galabawa (2000:4), conflict resolution refers to an ending of conflict between disagreeing parties. This, he stated, requires consideration of various aspects such as time, energy, cooperation and the context within which the conflict occurs.

#### **1.10.4 Councillors**

Councillors are typically elected as members of political parties, but once elected, they are meant to represent all their constituents and not just those who voted

for them. They are bound by a code of conduct enforced by standards boards (Max, 1991:25).

In Tanzania, Councillors are elected politicians representing citizens in their constituencies (wards) or various groups such as women and the disabled in the council. When they meet according to the law they form the council of their respective LGAs.

### **1.10.5 Executives**

An executive is a person or group of persons who have administrative or managerial authority in an institution (Columbia Encyclopedia), 2001:2). In government, the term refers not only to the chief administrative officer, but also to all others who execute the laws and government policies. In this study they are referred to as permanent public officials.

### **1.10.6 Permanent public officials**

In this study permanent public officials are professionals and operation scale workers who are employed by the council to execute the day- to-day activities of the council. Directors of district, town, municipal and city councils belong to this category. The Independent Commission Against Corruption (ICAC) defines permanent public officials as individuals having public official functions or acting in a public administration capacity (ICAC, 2000:1).

### **1.10.7 Tanzania**

Tanzania refers to one state and a sovereign united republic. The territory of the United Republic of Tanzania consists of the whole area of mainland Tanzania and the whole of the area of Zanzibar and includes the territorial waters (*The*

*Constitution of United Republic of Tanzania of 1977 (URT, 1977:14)* .  
"Mainland Tanzania" means the whole of the territory of the United Republic of Tanzania which formerly was the territory of the Republic of Tanganyika.  
"Tanzania Zanzibar" means the whole of the territory of the United Republic of Tanzania which formerly was the territory of the People's Republic of Zanzibar and which was previously referred to as "Tanzania Visiwani" (*URT, 1997: 137*).

#### **1.10.8 Madaraka mikoani**

"Madaraka Mikoani" is a Kiswahili phrase that literally means 'power to the regions.' These words describe the system of government administration adopted by the Tanzania government after the recommendations of the American consultancy firm, 'Meckiesey Company Ltd. in 1972 '(Warioba,(1999:1). Nyerere (1972:29) defined `Madaraka Mikoani` as a transfer of some powers from the centre (headquarters of the ministries) to the regions and districts. In Tanzania `Madaraka Mikoani` is used to mean decentralization. It is a means of empowering the local people in decision-making.

#### **1.10.9 Ujamaa policy**

This is the policy of socialism and self-reliance that was declared in Tanzania in 1967 to put the country's economy in the hands of the people through the nationalization of all major means of production (Nyerere, 1968:186).

#### **1.10.10 Qualitative research**

Qualitative research methodology approach, among others, attempts to understand the behaviour of institutions by getting to know the persons involved and their values, rituals, symbols, beliefs and emotions. The approach presents descriptive material and shows how the observations prompted the researcher to



analyse and isolate variables and how, in turn, those variables can be developed into theory (Frankfort, 1996:554).

#### **1.10.11 Quantitative research**

Quantitative research methodology deals directly with operationalization, manipulation of empirical variables, prediction and testing. Quantitative research places great emphasis on procedure and on statistical measures of validity. Therefore, a quantitative approach will show a clear progression from theory to operationalization of concepts, from the choice of methodology and procedure to the data collected, from statistical tests to findings and ultimately conclusions. (Frankfort, 1996:554-555).

#### **1.10.12 Descriptive data analysis**

Descriptive data analysis is the study of distribution of one variable. This study provides profiles of work groups, persons and other subjects of a multiple characteristics such as size, composition, efficiency and preferences (Kothari, 1990:1).

### **1.11 REFERENCE TECHNIQUE**

The Havard method of reference has been used. This consists of the name of the writer, followed by a comma, the year of publication followed by colon and the page numbers eg. (Warioba, 1999:252) at the end of the sentence or section. At the end of the thesis, an alphabetical list of sources arranged according to surnames of the writer has been given. (Burger, 1992:23-75.)

## **1.12 SEQUENCE OF THE STUDY**

This report consists of six chapters. Chapter one provides the background to the research problem, the research objective, motivation and justification of the study. Methodology, hypothesis, scope and limitations are discussed. The chapter also defines the terms used in a special way in this study.

Chapter Two provides a theoretical perspective and conceptual framework of conflict and conflict management, before it examines the concepts of conflict and conflict resolution.

Chapter Three presents a historical background of local government authorities and the development of conflict in city and municipal councils in Tanzania. The chapter also explains the evolution of local government, the structure, staff and potential existence of conflict.

Chapter Four describes the research methodology, highlighting the research design, instruments of data collection, sample and sampling procedures, and tools for data analysis.

Chapter Five provides an analysis of the research results. The chapter presents, discusses and interprets the incidence of conflict cases, intensity, functions and dysfunctions, and its management in local government authorities, particularly in the two selected councils, that is, Tanga City Council and Iringa Municipal Council

Chapter Six gives conclusions, proposals, and policy implications. Suggestions are provided with regard to new policy actions required to make conflict in local government an activator for better performance rather than a contributor to poor governance and performance.

### **1.13 SUMMARY**

This chapter provided the background to the research problem, the statement of the problem and the motivation and justification of the study. It also highlighted the main objective of the study, which was to investigate the causes and consequences of conflict in the city and municipal councils. The study focuses on the causes and consequences of conflictual relationships between councillors who are the policy makers and permanent public officials who are the implementers. It then assesses the capacity of LGAs to resolve/manage conflict.

The chapter further presented the hypotheses and research questions. It also highlighted the assumptions of the study, briefly discussed the methodology, sequence, scope and limitations of the study and described some of the concepts frequently used in the study as well as the reference technique used in the study. However, more concepts, forms, effects, principles, symptoms, causes and resolutions of conflict are discussed in Chapter Two.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **2.0 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the conceptual framework for the study by reviewing the literature on conflict. As a way of starting, the chapter explains conflict as a concept. Then it explains forms and types, views and effects, functional and dysfunctional aspects of conflict. The chapter also highlights on the nature, introduction (conflict formation) and principles of conflict. It further points out the levels of conflict, symptoms and causes of conflict followed by conflict resolution and a review of related studies.

#### **2.2 DEFINITION OF THE CONCEPT 'CONFLICT'**

The commonly accepted definition of conflict is that it is a disagreement of ideas or interests, values and beliefs that occur between one individual and another, one group and another or even one institution and another. Terry (1983: 83) defines conflict as the existence of opposition or dispute between persons, groups or institutions. For example, in many Tanzanian public corporations such as Tanzania Electricity Supply Company Limited (TANESCO) and Tanzania Railways Corporation (TRC), there have been several disputes concerning terminal benefits between the employees and their management. Such disagreements amount to a conflict between the two groups. Terry (ibid), further argues that, with all the developments taking place in management, it is rational to expect differences of opinion, beliefs, and ideas to exist.

Lippitt (1982:68) contends that conflict is a complex phenomenon that occurs in an institution and in work relationships. Lippitt further defines conflict as the

process which begins when one party perceives that the other has frustrated or is about to frustrate some concern of his/hers. Conflict is caused by unlike points of view.

According to Schmidt & Kochran (1972: 357) conflict is a struggle between two parties and is characterized by overt expressions of hostility and/or intentional interference in the goal attainment of the opposing party. Schmidt and Kochran perceive the likelihood of overt conflict between organizational units as a function of three variables: the incompatibility of their goals, the interdependence of their activities and the extent to which they share the same resources. Such overt expressions of hostility can be exemplified by the results of the differences of interests that occurred in Kilosa District among the Masai pastoralists and the other ethnic communities living in the area in which more than 30 people died due to fighting in 2002 (Radio Tanzania, News Programme, November 30<sup>th</sup>, 2002).

The above example shows what Schmidt and Kochran consider conflict as an active attempt to block one's group goal attainment. Conflict, however, can also only be passive whereby employees in an institution become stressed and their performance decreases significantly. There are cases whereby a pseudo conflict occurs between individuals or groups. This conflict occurs regardless of whether the two parties have incompatible goals or otherwise. It occurs even when the goals of the two parties are compatible and the consequences become detrimental to everybody involved.

Darling & Walker (2001:230) also view conflict as a situation in which it becomes impossible for two or more individuals operating within a unit to exist together. According to Babyegeya (2002:219), conflict is a breakdown of communication between members of an institution or a situation where decisions are not well understood, hence causing difficulty in selecting an alternative action. Babyegeya

argues further that if conflict is not well managed it can bring institutional functions to a standstill.

Therefore, conflict is the process in which one party perceives its interests as being opposed or negatively affected by another party. It is important to note that in this process, attitudes, values, and styles play an important role in determining whether conflict leads to beneficial or destructive outcomes. For example, differences of values between Christians and Moslems in Tanzania have resulted in several covert and overt conflicts. In Dar es Salaam, Moslems demanded that pork-selling shops be closed in some parts of the city. This led to several physical confrontations with pork sellers and the Government. (Ngailah, 2004: 6).

## **2.3 FORMS/TYPES OF CONFLICT**

As shown above, conflict is a complex phenomenon both in institutions and in the society at large. Conflict may take one or more forms as discussed below.

### **2.3.1 Goal conflict**

Goal conflict results from incompatible preferred or expected outcomes. It includes inconsistencies between the individual's or group's values and norms (such as standards or behaviour) and the demands on tasks assigned by higher levels in the institution (Galabawa, 2000:72). Goal conflict usually occurs when, for example, the subordinates' view on the productivity standards or performance indicators become incompatible or totally contrary to the view of their supervisors. In this case, a goal conflict occurs because the subordinate and the supervisor do not agree on what should be achieved. In general terms, goal incompatibility refers to the extent to which an individual or groups' goals are at odds with the capacity to achieve the goals. For example, several candidates in

Tanzania aim at becoming doctors or academic professionals but when joining higher learning institutions they are found to have a low capacity and cannot perform at the required levels, as a result they experience goal conflict.

### **2.3.2 Cognitive conflict**

Cognitive conflict, which is a common form of conflict among individuals, occurs when there is an incompatibility of ideas and thoughts within an individual or between individuals. In some cases, it is referred to as inter-individual conflict. It often occurs when an individual has two different ideas on solving a problem, whereupon it becomes difficult to decide on which idea to adopt. In this case, if the situation prolongs, a cognitive conflict occurs. The same may be the case between two individuals having two different views on how to make a decision (Galabawa, 2000:72).

### **2.3.3 Affective conflict**

When industrial experience and emotions are incompatible within an individual or between individuals, affective conflict occurs. Although it is difficult to openly experience differences of feelings and emotions between individuals, it is very common that two individuals may have different feelings about the same situation. For example, two employees could experience different feelings when discussing issues of their section. One could experience positive feelings about the decision and another could feel threatened. This would certainly result in affective conflict between these two employees (Galabawa, 2000:72).

### **2.3.4 Procedural conflict**

It is very common that in institutions the management and employees may differ in the methods, ways, and means of making decisions or solving problems.

These differences amount to procedural conflict. It means that in all cases, where employees or other people differ over the process of resolving matters, a procedural conflict occurs. The most common procedural conflict occurs in negotiations between trade unions and managements. For example, the TANESCO employees and the management had a procedural conflict when the employees refused to accept the privatisation of the top management without taking into account the employees' terminal benefits. The conflict resulted in several industrial actions leading to the disruptions of the day-to-day activities (Galabawa, 2000:73).

### **2.3.5 Scarce resource conflict**

Babyegeya (2002:219) classifies conflict according to resources. A scarce resource conflict is the conflict which takes place when there are insufficient resources in an institution. This happens when some members in certain departments start complaining that other departments are favoured in resource distribution while others are disfavoured or ignored. This situation was observed by one researcher at Mzumbe University where non-academic staff felt that the academic staff were paid more than them. They had already complained to the management who were working on the issue.

### **2.3.6 Authority conflict**

Authority conflict is a conflict which emanates from improper use of authority by the administration, or the subordinates question the appropriateness of the authority. Some of the administrators resort to authoritarian powers in their operations. They believe that every member of the group should listen and obey orders. The subordinates for various reasons may resist these orders and the result is a clash between the administrators and the subordinates. On the other



hand, subordinates may challenge the administrator or the authority, not because they do not believe that the institution should have a manager, but because the manager may be considered incapable or unfit for the position. Offensive and defensive behaviours become the order of the day between the manager and the staff (Babyegeya, 2002:220).

### **2.3.7 Interdependence conflict**

Interdependence conflict is the form of conflict which emanates from work relationships and the need to work together. During the execution of functions the groups may use different strategies in accomplishing the work. Or one group may not see the need to cooperate with another group because of perceiving themselves as being more important than others. This can cause clashes or reduced cooperation between the groups, leading to poor performance. This conflict is common where there are such aspects as high levels of specialization, job dissatisfaction due to divergent goals among the staff and communication obstacles. In a school, for example, teachers specialised in science subjects may perceive themselves to be more important (intelligent) than teachers in arts subjects. This may cause arts subject teachers to retaliate by forging an alliance that may always block any suggestion from the science camp even if the suggestion is a good one. This may later lead to inefficiency and ineffectiveness (Babyegeya, 2002: 221).

### **2.3.8 Elements of conflict**

In order to understand conflict, one has to be aware of various elements that constitute conflict in an institution or social system. According to Galtung (1969:168) conflict has three elements: attitude, cognitive ideas and emotional behaviour, which are overt and have a potential for aggressive or hostile action and contradiction. This involves incompatible values and interests between

parties or within one person. Galtung states that these elements are necessary for a full-fledged conflict to exist and more importantly, all parties must be consciously aware of each element for a conflict to be fully expressed.

## **2.4 VIEWS AND EFFECTS OF CONFLICT**

There are various perceptions regarding conflict. Conflict is a reality in everyone's life and should be considered a natural process that occurs daily. As a group performs its assigned tasks, conflicts inevitably arise (Robbins, Bergmann, Stagg & Coulter, 2003: 421). For most, conflict has negative connotations, invokes negative feelings and often leads to destruction. Whether the effect of conflict is good or bad depends on the strategies used to deal with it (Rahim, 1986: vi).

The traditional view argues that conflict must be avoided because it indicates problems. The behavioural view sees conflict as a natural and inevitable outcome of people working together in groups and teams. Thus it (conflict) need not necessarily be viewed negatively, but rather positively as a potential force in contributing to the performance of the individuals. According to the interactionists, not only is conflict a positive force, but it is also necessary for an individual to perform effectively. Resolving conflicts means challenging normal processes and procedures in an effort to improve individual productivity or introduce innovative systems (Robbins, Bergman, Stagg & Coulter, 2003:421–422).

Heellriegel, Slocum and Woodman (1995:430-1) show that conflict in institutions is both positive and negative depending on its scale or magnitude. A similar view is also held by Pondy (1967:320) who points out that conflict is not necessarily good or bad. Conflict can have both good and bad consequences. He argues that conflict generates pressure to reduce conflict but when it persists, it can be endured under certain conditions.

McShane & Von Glinow (2003:386) observe that conflicts occur when people disagree about task issues, such as key decision areas, procedures, processes and the appropriate choice for action. Such conflict is potentially healthy and valuable because it makes people rethink their perspectives and reality. Wood, Chapman, Fromholtz, Morrion, Wallace & Zeffane (2003: 597) add that as long as the conflict remains focused on the issue, new ideas may emerge and the conflict remain controlled. It can force participants to address some of their assumptions and override their attempts to achieve premature unanimity, thus leading to better performance.

Dealing with conflict between and among individuals can be one of the most frustrating and uncomfortable experiences for administrators. According to Schmidt & Tannenbaum (1960:107) when conflict occurs strong feelings are frequently aroused, objectivity flies out of the window, egos are threatened, and personal relationships are placed in jeopardy. On the other hand, a flexible society benefits from conflict because such behaviour helps to create and modify norms and assists its continuation under changed conditions. Coser (1956:137 &154) notes the following positive aspects.

- Conflict helps to establish one's identity and independence. Conflict, especially at the earlier stages of one's life, help assert one's personal identity as separate from the aspirations, beliefs and behaviours of those around you.
- Intensity of conflict demonstrates the closeness and importance of relationships. Intimate relationships require one to express opposing feelings such as love and anger.
- The coexistence of emotions in a relationship results in tension when conflicts arise. While the intensity of emotions can threaten the relationship, if dealt with constructively it can help in measuring the depth and importance of the relationship.

- Conflict can build new relationships. At times, conflict brings together people who did not have a previous relationship. During the process of conflict and its resolution, these parties may find that they have common interests and then work to maintain an ongoing relationship.
- Conflict can create coalitions. Similar to building relationships, sometimes adversaries come together to build coalitions to achieve common goals or fend off a common threat. During the conflict, previous antagonism is suppressed to work towards these greater goals.
- Conflict serves as a safety-valve mechanism, which helps to sustain relationships. Relationships which repress disagreement or conflict grow rigid over time, making them brittle. Exchanges of conflict at times through the assistance of a third-party, allow people to vent pent-up hostility and reduce tension in a relationship.
- Conflict helps parties assess each other's power and can work to redistribute power in a system of conflict. Since there are few ways to measure the power of the other party, conflicts sometimes arise to allow parties to assess one another's strength. In cases where there is an imbalance of power, a party may seek ways to increase its internal power. This process can often change the nature of power (or regulate power relations) within the conflict system.
- Conflict establishes and maintains group identities. Groups in conflict tend to create clearer boundaries, which help members determine who is part of the "in-group" and who is part of the "out-group". In this way, conflict can help individuals understand how they are part of a certain group and mobilise them to take action to defend the group's interests.
- Conflicts enhance group cohesion through issue and belief clarification. When a group is threatened, its members pull together in solidarity. As they clarify issues and beliefs, renegades and dissenters are weeded out of the group, creating a more sharply defined ideology on which all members agree.

- Conflict creates or modifies rules, norms, laws and institutions. It is through the raising of issues that rules, norms, laws and institutions are changed or created. Problems or frustrations left unexpressed result in the maintaining of the *status quo*.

Low to moderate levels of conflict are functional and consistently demonstrate a positive effect on the individual's performance (Robbins, *et al.*, 2003:423). Successful institutions encourage mild forms of task conflict without having the situation escalate into an emotional battle between employees or work units. The key is to create task conflict and to prevent it from escalating into a conflict relationship (McShane & Von Glinow, 2003:386).

Sometimes conflict is competitive in nature as it is based on a principle of competition between participants and is seen as dysfunctional. The main characteristic of competitive conflicts is that the participants have a win-lose orientation. This is the belief that the conflicting parties are drawing from a fixed pie and the more one party receives the less the other party receives (McShane *et al.*, 2003:394).

Conflict can also be cooperative. This is also seen as functional, as experiences of this kind of conflict are important antecedents for individual and team effectiveness. The win-win orientation of the participants is an integral part of cooperative conflict. The parties believe that they will find a mutually beneficial solution to their disagreement. In addition, the parties discuss concerns quickly and openly, seek their partner's opinions, and explain their course of action fully. It works best when the parties do not have perfectly opposing interests and when they have enough trust and openness to share information (McShane *et al.*, 2003: 394-396).

Describing whether conflict is good or bad, Wood *et al.*, (2003: 599-600) argue that the interactionist view is not suggesting that conflict is good. In terms of the

intensity of the conflict, it distinguishes between functional and dysfunctional conflict. Functional conflict is of a constructive nature. For instance, it supports the goals of a work group and thus improves the performance of its individuals. Dysfunctional conflict is destructive and can decrease work productivity and job satisfaction and contribute to absenteeism and job turnover.

The fact is that if there is too much conflict in an institution then the negative effects are obvious because too much conflict results in stress on the part of the employees. The conflict is manageable when an institution experiences a positive contribution from conflict relationships and experiences.

#### **2.4.1 Functional conflict**

Robbins (2001:385) defines functional conflict as the conflict that supports the goals of the group and which improves its (group's) performance. The argument is that if conflict leads to normal competition among groups and the groups work harder and produce more, then it is advantageous to the group and the institution.

Adaptation requires changes in the procedures, priorities and perhaps even in the institutional goals. It is also true that conflict in an institutional setting, especially at the resolution level, may lead to constructive problem solving. For example, the need by the people, employees or groups to resolve conflict can enable them (the people) to search for ways of bringing change. The conflict resolution process can be a stimulus for positive change within an institution. The productivity of confrontations arises from the fact that conflict can lead to change, change can lead to adaptation, and adaptation can lead to survival and even prosperity (Walton, 1976:5-7).

In simple language, constructive conflict offers the groups the opportunities to recognize otherwise neglected problems and opportunities and thereby increase their creative capacity. It is common knowledge that all rational human beings when faced with a conflict tend to search for ways of solving it. In so doing, strategies and mechanisms aimed at problem solving are established, and creativity is maximised.

#### **2.4.2 Dysfunctional conflict**

Dysfunctional conflict refers to the negative aspect of conflict, which occurs due to its disruption in communication, cohesiveness and cooperation. The productive activity of each party will further be reduced by the diversion of time and energy to winning a conflict. Individuals engaged in conflict typically experience stress, frustration, and anxiety; these in turn reduce job satisfaction, impair concentration on the task, create apathy and encourage withdrawal in the form of absenteeism or turnover.

Wood *et al.*, (2003: 597) discuss dysfunctional conflict as a relationship conflict or socio-emotional conflict due to the fact that it is a conflict based on interpersonal relationships. It involves inter-personal difficulties that arise over feelings of anger, mistrust, dislike, fear and resentment. This type of conflict is usually dysfunctional and thus not preferable because it can drain people's energies and distract them from other important work priorities. McShane et al, (2003: 388) wrote that it appears that the friction and hostilities inherent in relationships increase personality clashes and decrease mutual understanding, thereby hindering the completion of institutional tasks.

It is therefore important to manage conflict because, at its worst, it can divert efforts from goal attainment, deplete resources, especially time and money, affect the psychological well being of employees, and cause stress. Severe conflict in terms of conflicting thoughts, ideas, and beliefs may lead to

resentment, tension and anxiety. A typical example of dysfunctional conflict is the situation at the TRC (Tanzania Railways Corporation) where employees' conflict with the management had left the employees demoralized, unmotivated and less interested in the performance of their company. This shows that severe conflict and competition in place of cooperation can obviously harm performance. This was observed at the Dar es Salaam Railway Station in Tanzania where the employees had gone on strike because of being dissatisfied by the management style as well as not being paid adequately (Ngailah, 2004:1 & 4).

Institution employees and management should acknowledge that conflict is a two-sided phenomenon. It has both bad and good effects and therefore often challenges interpersonal dynamics (Robbins & Coulter, 2004: 405).

## **2.5 NATURE OF CONFLICT**

Describing the nature of conflict, Walker (1986:137-48) and Bolman & Deal (1997:167) point out that conflict arises due to individual differences in goals, expectations and values.

Conflict is further exacerbated today by changes in technology, global shifting of power, political unrest, and financial uncertainties. To some managers conflict should be avoided at all cost. To others, conflict presents exciting possibilities for the future, particularly if it is managed in a positive, constructive fashion (Darling & Fogliasso, 1999:384-5).

Traditionally, conflict within an institution has been seen as a sign of a problem. Conflict meant there were differences of opinion and alternatives which needed to be considered. Today, conflict is seen as a sign of a good institution (Hellriegel *et al.*, 1995:430-1).



Conflict can be either complex or simple. The more complex a conflict is, the more the potential for a creative, constructive transformation or solution of the conflict. If the conflict is too simple, parties will not be motivated to get engaged and they will tend to ignore it. This can lead to greater problems in the institution which can lead to poor performance. Therefore, in this situation one will have to introduce additional actors or make new salient issues to increase the complexity of the conflict. However, complexity is beneficial up to a certain point because the human mind can deal effectively with only certain cognitive elements. When there are more elements the conflict becomes too complicated to manage. Darling & Fogliasso (1999:385) conclude that it is impossible to eliminate conflict totally. Managers who try to eliminate conflict will not last long, while those who manage it well will typically experience both institutional benefits and personal satisfaction.

## **2.6 INTRODUCTION OF CONFLICT (CONFLICT FORMATION)**

Having examined the nature of conflict, it becomes obvious that an institution without conflict cannot perform effectively and the conflict should be of the required complexity so as to enable the parties to deal with it constructively. Too simple conflict can be detrimental to an institution. It is therefore important that the required levels of a conflict situation should be introduced and maintained by management.

Conflict formation is the process of introducing conflict and maintaining it as conflict formation and transformation. There is a belief that conflict can force participants to address some of their assumptions, leading to better performance (Wood *et al.*, 2003:597). Effective managers use conflict creatively to stimulate personal development, to address personal problems, to increase critical vigilance and self-appraisal and to examine conflicting values when making

decisions (Blome, 1983:4). The tools that may be used to introduce conflict are discussed below.

### **2.6.1 Introduction of outsiders**

Managers may introduce outside consultants as change agents into an institution to deliberately create conflict. These individuals may hold different beliefs and thus force the institutional participants to look at their own positions more critically (Silver, 1981:323). Since these outsiders are not related to the employees in line relationships, employees will develop a level of conflict that is useful for competition, creativity and performance.

### **2.6.2 Introduction of rules and policies which create conflict**

The implementation of a new set of rules, policies or regulations can often promote conflict among the institution employees. Changes in the work rules, levels of output or standards force individuals to re-evaluate themselves and others. Introducing rules and working relationships amounts to introducing change in an institution. Change always creates resistance in favour of the *status quo*. Conflict is therefore obvious, and if it remains at a required level it becomes useful to an institution (Robbins *et al.*, 2003: 423).

### **2.6.3 Introduction of “Play by the Book” policy**

Silver (1981:324) argues that rules and regulations are in all institutions. However, the sudden demand by an institution that its employees follow the book may create a substantial amount of conflict. This in turn forces the employees to take a closer look at the rules, policies and procedures they are using and recommend improvement. The typical example of ‘play by the book policy’ is when the police in Dar-es-Salaam insisted that the operators of

commuter buses should not let passengers stand in the buses. This is enforcing a law that requires passengers to sit in their seats, or get fined if found standing (Radio Tanzania, News Programme, November 16<sup>th</sup>, 2002).

#### **2.6.4 Re-organization**

Another common means of creating controlled conflict is to vary the mix of people in a given department or unit. A reorganization of people, shifting of employees, and the changed positions of individuals with differing views may create conflict. This in turn may force managers and subordinates alike to assess their own behaviour and productivity (Silver, 1981:324). Employees remaining in a department for years and years tend to develop standard norms, values and behaviour that kill conflict types of relations completely. Such a situation is not healthy for innovation, creativity and problem solving. A change or at least a rotation of the employees from one department/section/unit to another disturbs the established norms and values resulting in conflict, competition and problem solving.

### **2.7 PRINCIPLES OF CONFLICT**

In order to carry out conflict resolution one has to understand various principles of conflict. Kazan and Ergin (1999: 255) have provided five principles of conflict as follows. Firstly, conflict is emotionally defined. This means that conflict is emotional in terms of its onset, the social meaning inherent from the conflicting parties and the strategic options each has for dealing with the conflict. Therefore, one has to identify the emotions of the disputable in order to be able to understand the disputants' strategic orientation to the conflict and how they may be poised to deal with the conflict.

Secondly, conflict has emotional balances. This means that while emotion is always present in conflict, intensity levels are likely to vary throughout the conflict process, which will impact on interaction and the course of the conflict. Therefore, one has to understand emotional intensity, which signals the salience of the conflict issues. This enables one to make inferences about a party's orientation to the conflict. Knowing the emotional intensity, one can either trigger emotional intensity so that the conflict is engaged, or one may need to decrease the intensity to prevent emotional flooding. Also, one needs to link between needs intensity or felt emotion and emotional communication, since it is not good to assume that there is a direct connection between what is being experienced and what is being expressed. Some individuals often tend to strategically exaggerate or feign emotions.

Thirdly, conflict involves a moral stance. This means that the experience of emotion is fundamentally evaluative in nature; events are interpreted as being good or bad, right or wrong, fair or unfair. These judgements influence one's orientation towards the conflict, including the relationship with the conflicting parties and the conflict issues. Therefore, one has to know how one morally frames the conflict in order to gain an understanding of what a party may need for resolution to occur.

Fourthly, conflict is identity based. This principle maintains that emotion cannot be experienced without a sense of one's self. In other words, individuals become emotional because something personal is at stake for them. Thus, conflict in which identity is highly salient is potentially destructive. Therefore, one should study the emotional responses that reveal identity needs and face the concerns of disputants. When one identifies the cause of the conflict, one will be able to resolve it more effectively.

Lastly, conflict is relational. This means that emotional communication conveys relational definitions that impact on conflict. The key relational elements are power and social status. Thus, when one senses that one's power and social status *vis-à-vis* those of the others are challenged, conflict is likely to be triggered. Therefore, one has to identify challenges or apparent discrepancies in relational definitions that can trigger conflict.

## **2.8 LEVELS OF CONFLICT**

Conflict at the workplace occurs when two or more people disagree over issues of organizational substance and/or experience some emotional antagonism with one another (Wood *et al.*, 2003:597).

There are four levels of conflict, namely, intra-individual conflict, inter-individual conflict, intra-group conflict, inter-group conflict and organizational conflict. (Wood *et al.*, 2003:598-599).

### **2.8.1 Intra - individual conflict**

Intra - individual conflict occurs within an individual and usually involves some form of goal, cognitive or affective conflict. Wood *et al.*, (2003: 598) call it intra-personal conflict and define it as conflict that occurs within the individual as a result of actual or perceived pressures from incompatible goals or expectations.

In principal, intra - individual conflict occurs when an individual is faced with two or more incompatible views or ideas and he/she cannot easily adopt one. The result of this conflict is commonly in the form of tensions and frustrations, which ultimately affect the individual's performance.

Intra-individual conflict also results in cognitive dissonance, a situation in which an individual experiences inconsistencies in his/her own thoughts and/or behaviour. This is common when an individual is not having the required amount of information on some issues. If the conflict remains at a sufficient level, a person is motivated and struggles to reduce the dissonance by collecting more information. It is important to diagnose and deal with intra-individual conflict because if it persists it may ravage and destroy completely those with neurotic tendencies. If it is maximized, it may also lead to workplace violence. Galtung (1969:168) considers violence as being 'present when human beings are being influenced so that their actual somatic and mental realisations are below their potential realisation.'

### **2.8.2 Inter-individual conflict**

Inter-individual conflict occurs when two or more individuals perceive their attitudes, behaviour, or preferred goals as being in opposition. Institutions' interpersonal conflict is based on some type of role conflict in which a person perceives incompatible messages and pressures from the role senders (boss/supervisor). Wood *et al.*, (2003:596) describe the inter-individual conflict as interpersonal conflicts. According to the authors, these are natural and can actually spur creativity and performance of the participating individuals. Among the common reasons for this level of conflict are differences in personal beliefs and values.

Another source of inter-individual conflict is role ambiguity. This is the uncertainty or lack of clarity surrounding expectations about a single role. In many Tanzanian public institutions, role ambiguity is a common phenomenon due to poor selection of employees which is associated with nepotism. As a result, many employees experience role ambiguity because they do not know the job. Research shows that interpersonal conflict also leads to stress reactions,

oppression, hostility and withdrawal behaviours such as turnover and absenteeism (Misenyi, 2006:3; Mwanakatwe, 2006:2).

### **2.8.3 Intra-group conflict**

Intra-group conflict occurs among group members and it involves some clashes among some or all of the group members which often affect the group's processes and effectiveness. Research shows that only three in ten family-run businesses survive to the second generation and one to the third generation. Intra-group conflict is also very common in institutions. When employees are in one group, which has norms and values, and one finds them incompatible to one's expectations and values a conflict emerges within the group. The performance of the group and teamwork in general may significantly be affected. (Wood *et al.*, 2003:567)

### **2.8.4 Inter-group conflict**

Opposition and clashes between groups or teams amount to inter-group conflict. In many institutions, groups such as the union and the management often experience inter-group conflict. Examples are the conflict going on in Tanzania's institutions such as TANESCO, TTCL, TRC and ATC. The conflict here is between the unions and the management and it is basically based on disagreement about the privatisation process and methods. The results of this conflict have been costly. In some institutions such as TANESCO and TTCL, the conflict has made the parties develop attitudes that are characterized by distrust toward each other, rigidity, a focus on self interest, a failure to listen and sometimes picketing. (Misenyi, 2006:3)

The inter-group conflict discussed above is vertical conflict. It occurs when supervisors attempt to control subordinates too tightly and the subordinates

resist (Pondy, 1967:320). Vertical conflicts also result from a poor institutional structure. Inter-group conflict also emerges among horizontal groups in an organization and it is known as horizontal conflict. It occurs when each department or team strives only for its own goals, disregarding the goals of other departments and teams, especially if those goals are incompatible. In cases where each department or team has its own values, such a conflict emerges. Higher learning institutions in Tanzania have two important groups of employees: the academic and the administrative staff. These two groups have different values, different individual objectives to achieve, and differing levels of knowledge and exposure, which make them experience horizontal conflict almost permanently (Omari & Mihyo, 1991:78).

Inter-group conflict also includes line managers and staff, in which line managers tend not to value the staff's advisory role. As a result, they commonly experience conflict relationships. This is also one of the types of structural conflict.

### **2.8.5 Organizational conflict**

Organizational conflict is conflict within an institution and/or between institutions. When it occurs within an institution it is called intra-organisational conflict. Inter-organizational conflict is conflict that occurs between one institution and another (Wood *et al.*, 2003:598). Conflict between an institution and another occurs when the goals and objectives of the institutions are incompatible with the social values and standards of the society. For example, several newspapers like "Kasheshe" (one of the tabloids in Tanzania) were banned because its objectives did not reflect the values of the society.

Organizational conflict also takes the form of an institution *versus* group conflict. It means an institution enters into conflict with a certain group or groups in the society. (Wood *et al.*, 2003:598)



## **2.9 SYMPTOMS OF CONFLICT**

Before looking at the causes of conflict, one must recognise the symptoms of conflict. The symptoms of organizational conflict are poor lateral and vertical communication, inter-group hostility and jealousy, and intra-personal friction. Others are escalation of arbitration, proliferation of rules and regulations, norms and myth, and lastly low morale of the type expressed in frustration at inefficiency. These symptoms are discussed below.

### **2.9.1 Poor lateral and vertical communication**

Decisions are taken on the wrong information. Group A is unaware that Group B is working on another part of the same problem. Two levels in the same division are moving in different directions on the same problem. One person may have misunderstood what the other person has said. Or the other person may not have said what they meant to say. Sometimes because of anger, it is hard to hear what the other person is saying. Sometimes when there is a conflict, people do not tell each other, which causes even more conflict (Galabawa, 2000:37).

### **2.9.2 Intra-group hostility and jealousy**

Intra-group hostility and jealousy usually come out in such statements as: "Department A is only concerned with keeping its lines straight, while department B is totally unaware of what is taking place. They never tell us anything, they expect us to know by intuition". Knezevich in Galabawa, (2000:37) states that an institution cannot survive unless a means of communication is developed among various operating levels.

### **2.9.3 Intra-personal friction**

Relations between individuals, usually in different groups, deteriorate to icy formality or argument. Problems seem to get polarised around people and personalities (Galabawa, 2000: 51).

### **2.9.4 Escalation of arbitration**

More and more inter-group conflicts are passed onto the crossover point for arbitration. The crossover point becomes ever higher in the hierarchy as successive levels of superiors take up the defence of their interested parties. What started as a problem between clerks over, say, a withdrawal of credit may become a confrontation between the director of finance and the director of marketing which may have to be resolved by the managing director. According to McCall and Lombardo (1983:26), escalation of arbitration occurs because a manager's strength is allowed to become a weakness and that the over extensions of one's strength, such as in some conflict situations, may lead to management ineffectiveness.

### **2.9.5 Proliferation of rules and regulations, norms and myth**

It becomes more and more difficult to do anything without ignoring somebody's regulations, somebody's established way of doing things, somebody's essential permission (Self, 1982: 23).

### **2.9.6 Low morale of the type expressed in frustration at inefficiency**

Most of these frustrations, under the conditions of conflict, are directed at the higher levels of the institution. The following expressions can be used to express frustrations, "We don't seem to be able to get anything moving." "It's no use

trying to be imaginative around here.” “You would think they didn’t want anything to happen.”

At some point in time, these symptoms are found in almost every institution. They arise as a direct result of the competition turning into conflict. Treating the symptoms will be ineffective if the underlying cause is left untouched. If the underlying cause is untouched, the remedy will only complicate the issue and will ultimately be discarded. Also, the strategy for resolving the conflict must be related to the disease, not the symptom. Therefore, diagnosis, that is, differentiating between the symptoms and the causes is the key to the proper management of conflict (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967: 148, Galabawa, 2000:64, Handy, 1976:291).

## **2.10 CAUSES OF CONFLICT**

The discussion above shows different forms and levels and ways of introducing conflict. This section lists the general causes of conflict in institutions. It is important to note that the major cause of conflict is people’s association. Terry (1983:83-84) argues that whenever people are closely associated and particularly in pursuit of common goals, it is reasonable to assume that given sufficient time, differences will occur among them. The following causes of conflict can be identified (Terry, 1983:83-84).

### **2.10.1 Competition for resources**

The scarcer the supply of resources relative to the amount needed by rival parties, and the more important the resources are to them, the greater the likelihood of a conflict developing and for its intensity to increase. In Tanzania’s government, scarcity of resources is a major source of conflict. Conflict normally occurs between the Finance and the Administration departments which have

financial resources, on the one hand, and the technical department on the other. The fact that financial resources themselves are limited makes competition for them inevitable (Babyegeya, 2002:220).

### **2.10.2 Task interdependence**

When two individuals or two groups are in some way dependent upon each other for successful performance of their tasks, conflict is likely to occur if the two parties have different goals or priorities (Wexley, 1988:194). For example, for a lecturer at Mzumbe University in Tanzania to be able to administer an examination to students, the secretary has to type the examination paper in time and the messenger has to duplicate copies before the examination. But these two assistants may have other assignments as ordered by the heads of their respective departments. The assignments by the heads of departments are always given a higher priority, which may make the examination activity suffer. In such circumstances, the conflict between the assistants and the lecturers becomes inevitable.

### **2.10.3. Jurisdictional ambiguity**

This conflict originates from a poor institutional structure. When the jurisdictional boundaries are unclear due to overlapping responsibilities or gaps in a responsibility, and one party attempts to assume control over the desirable activities or to relinquish its part in the performance of the undesirable activities, a conflict will certainly occur. Also, where one party attempts to take full credit for success in joint activities or attempts to avoid the blame for the failure in such activities, a conflict may occur. Jurisdictional issues are very important. As such, the institutions' structure should not leave room for jurisdictional overlaps and gaps. Generally, poor job design and unclear reporting relationships can cause conflict over work arrangements (Buford & Bedeian, 1988:185).

#### **2.10.4 Status problems**

Individual status in an institution results in conflict. This is very common in the army where status profiles a lot on the actions performed. In an institution, however, conflict may occur when a department tries to improve its status while other departments perceive this as a threat to their own position in the status hierarchy. Another example is that in an institution where there are perceived inequities in rewards, job assignments, working conditions, and status symbols, status conflict may also occur. The price of the service rendered should be fair and satisfactory to both employees and employer (Galabawa, 2000: 41 & 53).

#### **2.10.5 Communication barriers**

Inadequate communication also has the potential to worsen conflict situations when either too little or too much communication takes place (Robbins, 1983: 146). Insufficient communication contributes to the development of pseudo conflict by preventing agreement between two parties whose positions are essentially compatible. The absence of adequate channels of communication can also impede attempts to achieve coordination between parties with interdependent tasks (Elses, 1987:38).

Moreover, when there is too much open communication, conflict may occur because of the inequity and value differences between different groups in an institution. This stirs up resentment and hostility. Walton (1976: 107) found that conflict between departments in an institution was greater when the departments possessed substantial knowledge about each other's activities than when they did not. Conflict is often caused by problems in communication.

Perrow in Scott (1987:47) points out that channelling of information plays a major role in positive performance.

#### **2.10.6 Individual traits**

Personality traits of an individual play a significant role in conflict making. According to Gupta (1990:362) and Galabawa (2000:31) conflict behaviour is more likely when the parties are high in dogmatism and authoritarianism [authoritarianism?] and low in self-esteem. Needs and values also contribute to the development of conflict. For example, employees with a strong need for independence are likely to have a conflict with their boss if he/she is very authoritarian and supervises closely allowing little time for autonomy.

Knapp, Putman & Davis, (1988:423) attribute organizational conflict to "heterogeneity of the work force, environmental changes, differences in goals, diverse economic interests, differential role structures, conflict group loyalties, and value discrepancies in organizations." Others include differences in knowledge, beliefs, or basic values; competition for position, power, or recognition; a need to release tension; drive for autonomy; personal dislikes and differing perceptions or attitudes generated by the structure of the organization. Organizational conflict is also caused by conflict of interest, conflict of values, and goal conflict

Conflict arises due to a variety of factors that include individual differences in goals, expectations, values, and proposed courses of action. Conflict is further exacerbated today by changes in technology, global shifting of power, political unrest and financial uncertainties (Darling & Fogliasso, 1999: 384-5).

According to Lippitt (1982:68), conflict is always caused by unlike points of view. Lippitt categorizes the causes of conflict into disagreement over facts, methods,

goals and values. He declares that resolving differences over facts is easier than settling differences over values.

The issues of conflict are many. Conflict arises when people are competing for the same resources, such as territory, jobs and income, housing, when they are not fairly distributed or when there are not enough to go round. The same applies to natural resources such as cultivatable land and fresh water. Conflict arises when people are unhappy with how they are governed. In most cases, conflict occurs when a particular group wants to be independent from a central government, or when their viewpoint is not represented in the government, or when the government oppresses them and does not respect or meet their basic needs.

Conflict arises when people's beliefs clash. Religious and political views are particularly sensitive because people often depend on these for a sense of identity and belonging. Sometimes a religious or political group attacking another religion or political group causes conflict. This is because one such group is eager to spread a particular belief and even enforce it on others. Some leaders may aggravate religion and political differences as part of their tactics for sustaining or gaining power. In the same way ethnic differences can cause conflict or be made to cause conflict. Again, people's ethnicity gives them a sense of identity and belonging and it is threats to this sense which can cause violent responses, just as individuals may lash out with angry words or gestures when they feel threatened (Handy, 1976:291-319).

## **2.11 ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE AND CONFLICT**

Organization structure is part of the relationships among positions in the organization and among members of the institution. The purpose of a structure is the division of work among members of the institution and the coordination of

their activities so that they are directed towards achieving their goals and those of the institution. It also defines tasks and responsibilities, work roles relationships and channels of communication. The structure makes possible the application of the process of management and creates a framework of order and command through which the activities of the organization can be planned, organized, directed and controlled (Mullins, 1989:112).

There are several types of organizational structures but all show the following important relationships:

- **Line relationships:** In these relationships authority flows vertically down through the structure. There is a direct relationship between the superior and the subordinate with the subordinate responsible to only one person.
- **Functional relationships:** These are the relationships between people in a specialist or advising position with line managers and their subordinates. The specialist offers a common service throughout the departments of the institution, but has no direct authority over those who make use of the service.
- **Staff relationships:** These arise from the appointment of personal assistants to senior members of staff. The persons in a staff position have no direct authority in their own right, but act as an extension of their superior and exercise a representative authority only.
- **Lateral relationships:** These exist between individuals in different departments or sections, especially individuals on the same level. Lateral relationships are based on contact and consultation and are necessary to maintain coordination and effective organizational performance.

Another important dimension of the organization structure involves the levels of management that it establishes. These are flat organizations in which there are few levels from the bottom to the top. This occurs commonly in project teams



and matrix organizations while in line and staff organizations levels of management increase significantly. When there are many levels of management, communication and decision-making suffer due to long channels from the bottom to the top and *vice-versa*. (Mullins, 1989:112).

An institutional structure, as shown in Appendices 1 and 11 (Local Government) is of great use. However, there are many institutions, which have deficiencies in structures. Mullins (1989:139) summarizes the weaknesses of institutional structures as follows:

- Firstly, they sometimes suffer from lack of design, wastefulness and inefficiency.
- Secondly, they appoint members to head sections and departments without clear definitions of their duties and qualifications required to perform them.
- Thirdly, if the structure does not put jobs along the lines of functional specialisation, training and performance suffer; therefore it is wasteful to employ new workers.
- Lastly, if the institution is not founded on principles, such as required qualification and experience, managers are forced to fall back on personality.

These weaknesses of the institutional structures both in terms of levels and functions create uncertainty, lack of understanding, unclear reporting relationships, unclear roles and functions to be performed and poor communication, all of which are potential causes of conflict in institutions.

## **2.12 CONFLICT RESOLUTION**

Resolution is defined as the act of solving or settling a problem or a dispute. Galabawa (2000:41) considers conflict resolution as conflict management in human relations and that it refers primarily to conflict within an institution though it can also mean dispute among institutions or between institutions and the public. Conflict resolution, which has as its objective the ending of conflict between disagreeing parties, is not an easy task. It is a process that requires consideration of various aspects such as time, energy, cooperation and the context within which the conflict occurs.

### **2.12.1 Conflict resolution values**

Managing conflict within institutions is a necessary element in order to support the mission and maintain goals and standards. Conflict resolution has a number of values as discussed below.

- **Respect for all**

From a conflict resolution perspective, conflicts can and must be resolved by taking into account the needs of the people affected by the conflict. In other words, for a solution to be lasting, it must meet the needs of all those involved in the conflict. A solution in which one party's needs are met at the expense of the needs of the other party, is neither just nor likely to last for a long time (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001:7; Kazan & Ergin, 1999:24)

- **Participation and empowerment**

Conflict resolution is based on the view that people have a right and an obligation to participate in decisions that affect their lives. As such, conflict

resolution seeks to help people understand themselves and their situation better. It seeks to further develop their skills, to increase their opportunities to influence decisions that affect their lives and to develop their capacity to work together with others to implement decisions. Conflict resolution reinforces the value of participation by giving people concrete tools to empower themselves and others in making decisions (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001: 14).

- **Cooperation**

Conflict resolution stresses that people are most likely to achieve their own goals and to have rewarding relationships as well as for society to be diverse, cohesive and productive when they cooperate. This means that when in conflict, people should consider each other as allies in helping create a solution to a common problem rather than enemies who are to be defeated (Hughes, 1993:27).

- **Respect for diversity in views and perspectives**

One of the fundamental tenets of conflict resolution is that the parties in the conflict need to respect and understand each other's needs and perspectives. This is not only understanding and respecting people that you agree with, but also attempting to understand those who you disagree with and respecting their right to disagree (Kazan & Ergin, 1999:246-267; Bodtker & Jameson, 2001: 6-7).

- **Justice**

Most people practicing and writing about conflict resolution agree that it is necessary that solutions are just and fair. In conflict, justice can be of two kinds: procedural and substantive. Procedural justice means that the procedure for dealing with the conflict is fair. Conflict resolution techniques are very useful in ensuring procedural justice, such as ensuring that all the parties affected by the

conflict are present. Substantive justice amounts to ensuring that the solutions produced are fair. This, however, is more theoretical than practical. For instance, if parties in mediation agree to what the mediator believes is an unjust solution, there is very little the mediator can do to facilitate a more just outcome (Cambodia - World Bank, 2005: 3-6).

- **Non - violence**

Conflict resolution promotes the use of non-violent techniques wherever possible. Based on the argument that violence is generally unethical and ineffective, conflict resolution techniques seek to highlight and create non-violent options for dealing with conflict. While acknowledging that the use of force cannot always be avoided, it is argued from a conflict resolution perspective that by increasing the acceptance of non-violent methods for dealing with conflict and training people in these skills, a great proportion of conflict can be more effectively addressed without violence (Galtung, 1996:78).

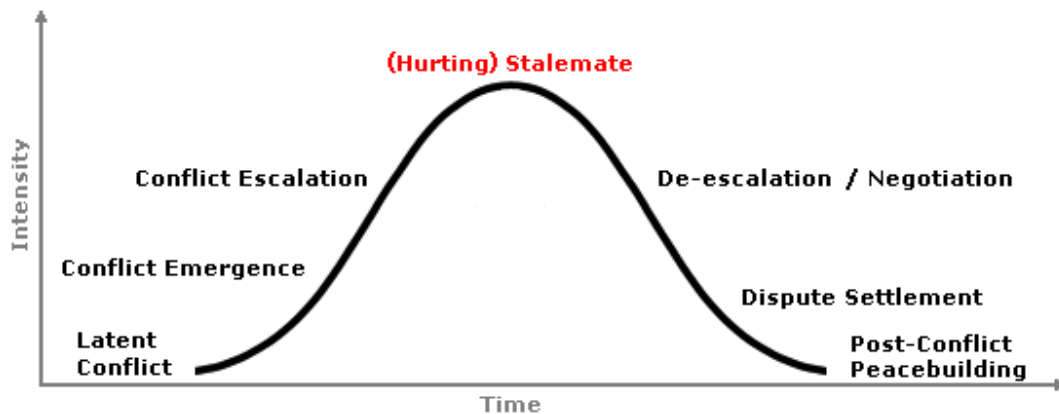
- **Transformation of individuals and their communities**

Changing the way one deals with conflict helps them live a more rewarding and responsible life. Changing oneself is also an essential part of creating community change, as one is providing positive role models for others, and taking responsibility for the role one plays as part of one's own community. However, for community change, one also needs to be proactive and consider other ways to influence the communities such as through conflict resolution training and direct intervention (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001:9-11)

According to Rubin & Sung (1994:152-5), once conflict escalates, it often reaches a stalemate, a situation in which neither side can win but neither side wants to back down or accept loss either. Stalemates emerge for a number of

reasons such as, failed tactics, depletion of available resources to fuel the conflict, a reduction in support of the conflict by group members or allies or costs becoming too high to continue.

Despite realizing that the conflict is going nowhere, it is often difficult for parties to transform the nature of the conflict and consider a settlement. What is more, many individuals on both sides build up a vested interest in the perpetuation of the conflict. If the conflict is bringing them political power or economic opportunities, they may want to keep it going rather than working towards de-escalation or settlement. Leaders also fear the loss of face that would ensue if they had to admit that pursuing the conflict was a mistake. Eventually, the conflict reaches a point at which a sort of equilibrium sets in which neither side is getting any closer to achieving its goals and where no one is happy with the situation. They come to realise that the costs of continuing the struggle exceed the benefits to be gained. This is the situation known as the mutually hurting stalemate which is often ripe for the introduction of proposals for settlement. The mutually hurting stalemate model is presented in Figure 1.



**Figure 1: Mutually hurting stalemate model**

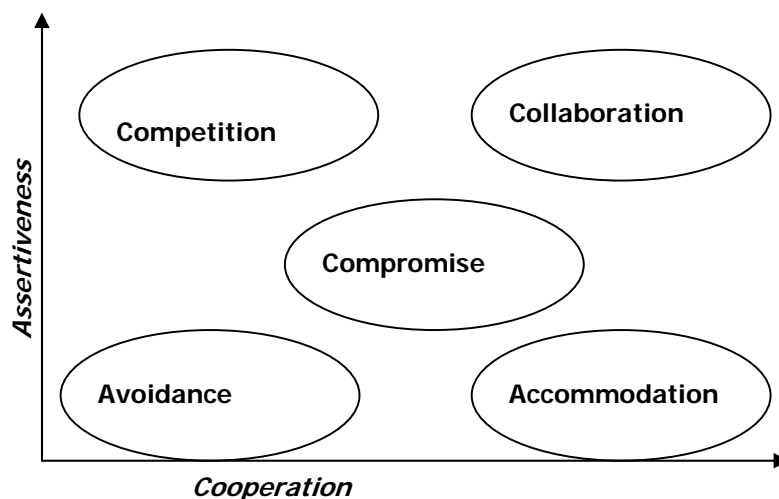
Source: Rubin & Sung., 1994:152

### 2.12.2 Conflict resolution strategies/styles

Dealing with conflict between and among individuals can be one of the most frustrating and uncomfortable experiences for an administrator. Any attempt by an administrator to alter a specific conflict position requires that he/she be knowledgeable of its origin. An understanding of the source improves the probability that the proper resolution or stimulation technique will be selected (Robbins, 1974: 29). There are various conflict resolution strategies or styles which various scholars have identified. Using the two-dimensional model of behaviour (concern for self and concern for others), Rahim (1983:369-376) identified five styles of conflict resolution as shown below:

- **Interacting style:** This is characterised by cooperative discussions in which the person shows empathy for the other person and seeks to reconcile both parties' interests.
- **Avoiding style:** This reflects how the concern for one's own and the other party's interests occurs when a person chooses to ignore the conflict.
- **Obliging style:** This reflects a high concern for the other's interest and low concern for one's own interest and is characterised by yielding or conceding to the demand of the other party.
- **Dominating style:** This shows a high concern for one's own interest and a low concern for the other's interest. It is characterised by the person aggressively pursuing his/her own interests at the expense of (the interests of) the other party.
- **Compromising style:** This is a mixture of the other styles and is generally employed when one does not want to use other styles because time constraints limit problem solving. Here the parties in conflict have relatively equal power.

Lippitt (1982:69) identifies five principal methods of resolving interpersonal conflict. These are withdrawal, smoothing, compromising, forcing and confronting. In the same bid to resolve conflict in organizations, Hughes (2001:26) also proposes five strategies which include competition, accommodation, compromise (sharing), collaboration and avoidance. He defines these strategies in relation to the level of cooperation (the party's desire to satisfy the other party's concerns) and assertiveness (the party's desire to satisfy his/her own concerns) that exist, as shown in Figure 2.



**Figure 2: Five strategies of resolving conflict**

Source: Hughes, 2001:26

- **Competition:** Is a win-lose orientation where the desire to cooperate is low and assertiveness is high. This strategy is appropriate where quick decisions are vital (in emergencies) or where there is no popular decision to be found like increasing dues in order to keep operating or enforcing

new rules or cutting costs. It is also a strategy used against people who try to take advantage of the non-competitive behaviour of others.

- **Accommodation:** This is the antithesis of competition. It is used where cooperation is high and assertiveness is low. This is valuable when it is important to appease the other party (unstable personality), especially when the issue is important and you find yourself on the wrong side of an argument. So, in order to allow a better perspective to be heard, to minimise losses, to allow subordinates to develop by learning from their mistakes and to build social credits for later, accommodation can be employed.
- **Compromise (sharing):** This is used where medium assertiveness and cooperation are prominent. This is a zero-sum strategy which can be as simple as sharing a room instead of having it to yourself. It involves balancing the needs of those in conflict that have equal power, but committed to mutually exclusive goals. This strategy tends to achieve temporary settlements on complex issues when collaboration and competition prove unsuccessful.
- **Collaboration:** This is a problem solving approach whereby every one wins. It is used when both assertiveness and cooperation are high and the concerns are vital. Also, it is used when the objective is to learn, to reach consensus and to search for deep-seeded emotions among the individuals.
- **Avoidance:** Being neither assertive nor cooperative, this strategy is normally reserved for an issue which is too trivial to waste time on while at the same time there are more important issues at hand. It is used as an initial stage to allow parties to “cool down” or when others resolve the conflict more effectively. In this instance, one ignores the conflict hoping



that it will remedy itself. The strategy is also good when it is important to gather information that supersedes an immediate decision or when the issues are merely indicators of different problems.

Babyegeya (2002:220) adds two other strategies for resolving conflict:

- reductions of the degree of functional interdependence and
- confrontation technique.

- **Reduction of the degree of functional interdependence**

This aims at making groups independent from each other. This can be done by reducing the dependence on common resources, by loosening up schedules, or by reducing pressure for consensus. Organisational objectives should be subjected to negotiation among members of the institution. With negotiated objectives, commitment of workers is secured, thus reducing chances for conflict to occur. This calls for participative decision-making.

- **Confrontation technique**

Confrontation occurs where the conflicting individuals are brought together for the purpose of discussing their differences. Confrontation gives different parties the opportunity to discuss their feelings towards each other in an open manner. Adopting this strategy is an indication that the administrator recognises that it is better to allow conflict to be expressed than to be suppressed.

## **2.13 TACTICS OR TECHNIQUES OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION**

The various strategies of conflict resolution identified above entail some tactics like bargaining, mediation and arbitration.

### **2.13.1 Bargaining**

Bargaining is a tactic mainly used when compromising over issues at hand. It is a negotiation situation which can be either distributive or integrative in nature. Distributive bargaining refers to a negotiation situation in which a fixed sum of resources is divided up. It leads to a win-lose situation between the parties.

Integrative bargaining is a negotiation situation that seeks to increase the total amount of resources. It creates a win-win situation between the parties (McShane *et al.*, 2003: 394). Integrative bargaining is built on the belief that there exists one or more settlements that can create a winning outcome for both parties. Integrative bargaining is preferable to distributive bargaining because it builds long-term relationships and facilitates good working relations in the future. It bonds the parties allowing each to believe that they have achieved a victory.

Distributive bargaining, on the other hand, creates animosities, deepens divisions amongst those who have to work together and leaves one party a loser. To operate integrative bargaining, both parties need to be open with their concerns, open in their communication, be sensitive to the needs of others, trust each other, and be willing to be flexible. These conditions are rarely present in an institution and hence bargaining tends to win at all costs.

### **2.13.2 Mediation**

Mediation is a process in which a neutral third party to the conflict assists in the achievement of a negotiated solution by using reasoning, persuasion and the presentation of alternatives. In a negotiation situation, the behaviour and feelings of the parties can become sharply polarised, and each party may become isolated from the other. When this happens, a mediator can maintain

contact and communication between the parties in dispute. The third party does not control the agreement, but influences the conflict resolution process. The mediators guide solutions to their problem.

Mediation techniques include asking each party the state of the problem, that is, to state the view of the problem each party perceives and to ask them to confirm the accuracy of the repeated response of others. Once the initial positions have been presented and understood, alternative solutions are generated using brainstorming. The use of recess in the mediation process is valuable. A recess can help calm the parties after an emotional encounter. It can also be used to conduct private enquiries about interests, as well as to de-escalate conflict (Slocum, 2007:266).

### **2.13.3 Arbitration**

Arbitration is a process in which a third party to a conflict has authority to impose an agreement that is binding on the parties in conflict. If mediation fails, disputes often go to arbitration. This may occur if negotiations between unions and management have reached an impasse; a grievance is presented and the arbitrator listens to both sides. In this process the dispute is referred to a third party. The third party is given the power to formulate a settlement that is binding on both parties. This is similar to a judge in a courtroom. Arbitration may be voluntary or compulsory. The former occurs when both parties involved have the choice of whether or not to have a decision imposed on them. Compulsory arbitration, perhaps due to government regulations, denies them that choice (Torington & Hall, 1987:442-454).

## **2.14 EMPIRICAL REVIEW**

Empirically, literature on conflict between permanent public officials and councillors is scanty in Tanzania. Those few studies available are too general. This study narrows down the situation to cover relationships and conflict between permanent public officials and councillors in two specific councils of Tanga City Council and Iringa Municipality.

Pierre (1990:37) indicates that even in developed countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia and the United States of America, the problem of lack of harmony between administrators and politicians exists even in the wave of reforms towards new public management that these countries have pursued. The bureaucrats in these countries dominate the process and procedures carried out by the councils, which was to be changed by the reform. It is only in countries such as the Nordic countries where more harmony is found between the two groups.

With the advent of modern nation-states, a central feature of governance has been the nature of the relationship between the political and administrative elites or elected public officials and career civil servants. For administration, the historical trend, particularly in western nations, has been a move away from part-time, politically affiliated administrators to professional, career civil servants. However, many countries, particularly the developing and the middle-income countries, experience periods of ebbing and waning politicisation in the civil service. The way the governing and administrative elites work together affects government performance as well as citizens' perceptions of the quality of public institutions in upholding the public interest.

Pierre, further points out that the persistent dilemma in modern democratic systems has been the tensions concerning boundaries of the role of the elected politicians/councillors and the professional administrators/officials in performing their duties. There is a continuum in solving this tension, with one extreme advocating for absolute control of neutral and professional bureaucracy by the councillors and the other extreme contending that "to the victor goes the spoils," with huge shifts in the senior service after a transition of power. In reality, most countries aspire to fall somewhere along the continuum between the two extremes, with approaches that grant some autonomy to senior civil servants *vis-à-vis* the politicians. This recognition is based on the accountable and limited power of the bureaucracy putting in place measures to protect it from political partnership and interference and the aspiration that higher-level civil servants do not only implement public policy but can also promote broad public interest and prevent any abuse of powers by politicians. The institutional configuration of these protective measures is shaped by a political system of a country: presidential (with emphasis on the executive branch), parliamentary (with emphasis on the legislative branch) or some mix, as well as the country's legal framework and administrative history.

Seeking dramatic change while avoiding controversy is a dilemma often faced by councillors. To resolve this dilemma, councillors sometimes propose controversial changes immediately after an election, when the next election is still years away. This may be especially true in non-presidential election years when fewer people vote and the influence of single issue voters is greatest. During this period, the councillors often have a very specific agenda, and their concern for one particular issue may lead them to address that issue as soon as possible. After a few attempts to create change, they encounter intense lobbying of groups who may be hurt by their agendas; they thereby begin to learn how their actions may affect the broad electorate they represent and they moderate their initiatives.

The councillors want the government to work for their constituents and to help individuals. They are responsive to publicly represented information and indeed, the councillors' interest in creating or changing public policy is more often prompted by anecdotal data offered by a concerned constituent than by research findings. The councillors learn about programmes by listening to testimony from a constituency or the media or through site visits. Consequently, they are most often interested in and knowledgeable about the broad brush strokes of a programme rather than the detailed, complex components upon which the programme's quality may hinge.

The councillors are forced to deal with multiple, current and visible crisis. This limits the extent to which these officials can learn the complex details about any one programme.

For the councillors, reality is the public's perception of an issue or problem. Thus, they look for activities that will generate favourable stories in the press. A favourable news story gives policymakers an instant and inexpensive way to inform their constituencies about the job they are doing and can help shape the public perception of an issue. Their focus on the media also means that the councillors will try to respond quickly to constituent requests or concerns so as to forestall possible bad publicity.

The situation above indicates how the behaviour of the councillors leads to potential for conflict between the elected (the councillors) and the appointed local staff.

A case study of conflict resolution in Cambodia provides an example of how conflict can be managed elsewhere. Since the mid 1990s the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) has pursued a policy of decentralisation and deconcentration.

A series of pilot initiatives in the decentralisation and deconcentration was consolidated and institutionalised in 2001 with the passing of new laws for administration of the communes. Elections held in 2002 operationalised a system of local governance through representative councils at the commune level. A recently completed public opinion poll indicates that village chiefs, commune councils and elders are very active in resolution of disputes/ conflict. Despite the fact that none of these actors has the formal power to adjudicate, the above study suggests that between themselves they resolve over 85% of the estimated 200,000 conflicts that arise annually. A detailed research on the methods used by these actors in the resolution of disputes is not available. Anecdotal accounts and the limited amount of existing research on the subject suggest that local dispute resolution is a process of guided reconciliation employing what might be described as a mixture of state power [the fact that villagers respect the authority of local officials] and ethical influence [the legitimacy which local conciliators derive from their ability to resolve conflict] (Cambodia-World Bank, 2005:5).

In Tanzania, not much has been done on conflict management. A research report on the Local Government Reform Programme in Tanzania shows mistrust between councillors and the permanent public officials (URT, 2002:19-20). The report states that burning issues that can be discerned from the field work on governance and conflict in local government authorities is transfer of power, functions and decision-making to the lowest feasible level as close to the people as possible.

Furthermore, in most of the councils visited by the Researcher, there appeared to be mistrust between councillors and the permanent public officials. There was a tendency of permanent public officials to criticise councillors as lacking proper education and training, while councillors on their part criticised permanent public

officials as being arrogant. The report adds, "In Mwanza, councillors appeared to be confident that they were in control. Some councillors in Kilosa and Iringa (those with university level of education) were also confident of being able to control council business through committees. However, councillors with lower education in both Kilosa and Iringa did not seem to be that confident. The same problem appeared in Bagamoyo where there appeared to be a mistrust between the councillors and the permanent public officials".

In their theory of differentiation and integration, Lawrence & Lorsch (1967:148) found that in order to deal effectively with conflict in institutions, individuals (whether a superior or a person in coordinating roles) involved in achieving integration, need to have influence based largely upon the person's perceived knowledge and competence. While Lawrence and Lorsch were referring to managers who were primarily responsible for achieving integration within institutional units, the influence of knowledge and competence might be operating similarly in conflict resolution between permanent public officials and councillors.

Writing on managing conflict in local government authorities in Tanzania, Nchimbi (2004:1) points out that discord, hostility, misinformation, differences, annoyances, misinterpretation and contentions are indicators of conflict. He further discusses the causes of conflict which include lack of information, inequitable distribution of resources, the need to save face, overlapping roles (as in the case of councillors and permanent public officials), difference in ideologies, different perceptions and scarce resources.

Msongo (1994:47) found that 85% of the elected councillors in Lushoto District Council were primary school leavers. These councillors lacked training to enable them to comprehend issues presented before them and this, the author states, contributed to misunderstanding (conflict). The author proposes that the councillors should be trained once elected into office. He further proposes that



management needs to be more interested in managing conflict as resources become scarcer and as relationships become more complex, interdependent and influenced by personal values and expectations. Managing conflict within the institution's rehabilitation unit is necessary in order to support the unit's mission and maintain rehabilitation goals and standards. The above case study of conflict in Tanzania does not tell whether or not there had been an impact. The conflict addressed in the case study should have been studied in detail and analysed critically.

## **2.15 SUMMARY**

This chapter has discussed the concept of conflict, focusing on the nature, causes, forms, elements, principles, levels, symptoms, structure and resolution of conflict. Generally, the discussion has shown that conflict is inevitable.

Knowing the general categories of causes of conflict is part of developing an effective intervention strategy. Causes of conflict include:

- Lack of information and misinformation, as well as differing views on what data are relevant, the interpretation of the data and how the assessment is performed.
- Bad relationship, which results from strong emotions, stereotypes, miscommunication and repetitive negative behaviour.
- Differences in values, which arise over ideological differences or differing standards on evaluation of ideas or behaviours. The actual or perceived differences in values do not necessarily lead to conflict. It is only when values are imposed on groups or groups are prevented from upholding their value systems that conflict arises.
- Unequal or unfair distribution of power and resources, time constraints, destructive patterns of interaction and unfavourable geographical or environmental factors contribute to structural conflict.

- Interest differences, which involves actual or perceived competition over interests, such as resources and the way a dispute is resolved or perceptions of trust and fairness.

Most people assume that conflict is something that should be avoided. It is perceived to be negative and a sign of an unhealthy relationship. Conflict can be constructive or destructive. Depending on a number of factors, conflict either creates a better situation for all involved or it is destructive. Thus, conflict is not necessarily something terrible to be avoided, but is often an opportunity to create new solutions to problems, to learn about oneself and to come closer to other people.

The key to conflict resolution is learning how to handle constructively the inevitable conflict in one's life. It is better to learn how to deal with conflict constructively than trying to avoid or to suppress it. Conflict is said to be constructive when it results in improved relationships, an open and comfortable atmosphere, substantive benefits to all the parties and greater self-confidence and productivity.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3.0 CONFLICT DEVELOPMENT IN THE CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS IN TANZANIA**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter starts by outlining the historical background of councils in Tanzania. Then it describes service delivery in local government, sources of finance and the role of local government in rural development. It further discusses its relationship with the central government. In this chapter the problems facing local government are also presented. Then the constitutional development of local government in Tanzania is discussed. This development created many possible points of friction between the councillors and the permanent public officials which could be the source of conflict.

#### **3.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF COUNCILS IN TANZANIA**

The history of the councils governed by local government in Tanzania goes back to the pre-independence period. Before the arrival of the German colonial power in Tanganyika, the local communities (for example ethnic communities and clans) exercised some kind of local administration (Max, 1991:25). The Germans (1884-1918) did not develop local government, as they adopted direct and coercive rule. A more formal and significant local government emerged during British colonial rule (1919-1961). Unlike the Germans, the British used indirect rule through native leaders and councils and later established local government (based on legislation) with more democratic councils and adequate resources including adequate qualified staff (Mawhood, 1985:1). After independence in 1961 the *Native Authorities Ordinance Cap 72 of 1926* and the related legislation

(inherited during independence) were abolished and even more democratic local government authorities continued to be established throughout the country. The independent government resolved to maintain and transform the local government system in order to foster local democracy and national development.

For the purpose of this thesis, local government is a government at community and district level. It is a governmental institution established for the purpose of advancing the interests of the people at the community level. Moreover, it is mandated by law to discharge a specified range of functions in specified areas of jurisdiction for the betterment of the lives of its subjects, the local residents. It involves people through democratically elected representatives in the administration of their own affairs at their locality. These people must have power over their own social and economic development activities. (Mahyenga, 1990:4).

Local governments have three other essential characteristics: a set of local authorities or institutions with separate autonomy and legal status distinct from those of the central government, powers to raise their own revenues and spend it on the discharge of their functions as assigned to them by law and power of the local institutions to make decisions as responsible organs in their own right and not as an extension of the central government (Mwaikusa, 1994:72 ).

The *Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977* provides for the establishment of the local government system in the country for the purpose of promoting local democracy, local participation and improving the well being of the people at the local level.

### **3.2.1 Local government authorities in the pre-colonial period**

The history of local authorities in Tanzania goes as far back as the pre-colonial period. Local authorities in the pre-colonial era were truly local in the sense that there was no outside centralized administration. Development among various ethnic community groups was uneven. However, in some areas governance was more central and spread over large geographical areas encompassing a greater number of clusters or villages under a single head or a chief who was respected by every one in the community. In other clusters or villages, governance was much more loose and local.

In most cases, the people elected the chief democratically. A person became a chief by virtue of possessing certain useful but unusual qualities such as economically valuable skills like iron working which produced instruments for both defence and production, knowledge in weather forecasting (such as rain making) and also skills in hunting and gallantry.

Governance under the chief was mainly for two purposes: the defence of the ethnic community against attacks by hostile neighbours and protection against nature in the form of wild animals and other natural hazards. Although some of the chiefs and leaders of the ethnic communities became very powerful as symbols of those tribes, still, by and large there was respect for the subjects. This was because abuse of the honour and trust bestowed upon a chief by the people could lead to his removal. This was an important democratic attribute.

In many ethnic communities' elders formed councils, which deliberated on important matters affecting their communities' security and welfare. Later some such communities became stronger and established military units which led to chief townships as in the case of the Chagga, the Nyamwezi and the Hehe.

Explorers, Arab traders and missionaries found well-established chiefdoms in Tanzania.

During the pre-colonial era there was no conflict on matters involving community governance since there existed a system of communal society that allowed community elders to form an elder's council to resolve community problems in an amicable way. The relationship between these elders and other community members was based on self-respect. Thus, amicable relationships between the ethnic community elders and the other community members, as well as established self-respect contributed greatly to non-existence of conflict during the pre-colonial era (Max, 1991:7).

### **3.2.2 Local government authorities during the colonial period**

As noted earlier, Tanzania (then Tanganyika) was occupied by two colonial powers, the Germans (1884-1918) and the British (1919-1961). It was noted further that local government in the pre-colonial period was much loose and local, and was later restructured by the colonial powers according to their vested interests. The Germans were the first colonial power who came in 1884. Their first task was to change the then pre-colonial system and establish their own system of local government.

#### **3.2.2.1 The German period (1884-1918)**

The period of German occupation of Tanzania was largely spent on overcoming local resistance. The war against resistance was first waged against Arab traders on the coast who were losing control over the trade because of the arrival of the Germans. Secondly, the war was waged against some powerful and well established local chiefs such as Mkwawa of the Hehe and Isike of the Nyamwezi (Shivji & Peter, 2003:4).

In the administration of Tanzania, the Germans preferred “direct rule” with everything being controlled by the central government in Dar es Salaam. At the district and sub-district levels, German officials were in charge. Under them there were the Akidas, the Jumbes and the Liwalis (local leaders like foremen) who mainly came from the coastal areas because their literacy skills in Arabic came in handy for the purpose of local level administration. The system did not provide for any kind of people’s representation. Having fought with several of the local leaders/rulers, the Germans did not trust traditional rulers (Shivji & Peter, 2003:4). Thus, even those appointed were not given any special role, but they were merely expected to express loyalty to their authority (i.e. the Germans). The system continued up to the end of the First World War in 1918, when the Germans lost the war and Tanganyika was administered by the British under the mandate of the League of Nations (Shivji & Peter, 2003:4).

During the German rule there was a significant conflict between the Germans and some ethnic communities like the Nyamwezi and Hehe. These were coordinated and led by their traditional chiefs namely Mkwawa and Isike Owing to their inferior weapons, they were however easily defeated (Shivji & Peter, 2003:4).

### **3.2.2.2 The British period (1919-1961)**

In the first years of their rule, the British were satisfied with the administrative structure left behind by the Germans. They established their presence in almost all parts of the territory. They never disturbed the boundaries established by the Germans and they also used almost all the same Jumbes, Akidas, and Liwalis who had been in the service of the Germans.

However, things began to change with the coming of Sir Donald Cameron as the Governor of Tanganyika in 1925. He introduced the system of indirect rule which had been experimented by Lord Lugard in Nigeria. Indirect rule involved the use of traditional rulers in the governance of the country at the local level. The British attempted to identify local rulers for every ethnic community. In case of doubt or as to who the traditional ruler was, the British installed one of their own choices as the chief. He enjoyed the same powers as the traditional rulers.

In furtherance of the policy of indirect rule in the territory, the colonial government (British) enacted the *Native Authorities Ordinance Cap 72 of 1926*. The aim was to protect the position of the chief or official ruler once legally recognised and installed by the colonial government. The native authority was defined as any chief or other native or group of natives declared to be established as a native authority under the Ordinance for the areas concerned (Shivji & Peter, 2003: 6, Max, 1991:11).

According to Max (1991:80), the *Native Authority Ordinance Cap 72 of 1926* established native authorities whose main objective was to involve the natives in the administration of the colonial government. The ordinance gave chiefs administrative, judicial and executive powers. The major functions of the native authorities were the maintenance of peace and order and the levying of annual rates. The chiefs were empowered to exercise both administrative and judicial powers. The native authorities were thus part of the colonial system of indirect rule (Mwaikusa, 1994:62).

Chiefs, assisted by elders, court clerks, and tax collectors/clerks headed the native authorities. These native authorities lacked democratic elements since, firstly, their members were not democratically elected representatives of the people in the locality, and secondly, local authorities were not autonomous



because they were closely supervised and controlled by the colonial government through district commissioners. In addition, the native authorities lacked jurisdiction over non-Africans residing in their areas (locality). Due to these weaknesses, Max (1991:80) views native authorities as "mere instruments of political decentralization rather than of social and economic development of the colonial government in the local area."

In an attempt to democratize the native authorities and make them operate efficiently, *the Native Authority Ordinance Cap 72 of 1926* was amended in 1950 and the chiefs-in-council system was created. Under this system, the council consisted of the chiefs and members appointed by the district government. The new native authorities differed from the former as they put emphasis on development and betterment of the welfare of the people. In the amendment of the *Native Authorities Ordinance Cap 72 of 1926*, in 1950, two major changes were introduced. Firstly, ordinary citizens were appointed by the district commissioner on recommendation of the chief to sit on what was called the chief-in-council. To some extent the councils curbed the administrative powers of the chief, who could not make any major administrative decisions without its approval and secondly, native authorities were incorporated into legal entities and thus could sue or be sued in their own names. Although common people were appointed to the councils under the chiefs, the council could not be said to be representative of the people since they were controlled by the district commissioners. Furthermore, they had no jurisdiction over non-Africans living in the area (Shivji & Peter, 2003: 5).

In 1953 the colonial government enacted two important legislative measures in so far as the local government was concerned. These were *the African Chiefs Ordinance Cap 331 of 1953* and *the Local Government Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953*. *The African Chiefs Ordinance Cap 331 of 1953* aimed at consolidating the

position of the chief in his locality and to elaborate on his administrative and judicial powers. The *Local Government Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953* on the other hand, repealed and replaced the *Native Authorities Ordinance Cap 72 of 1926*. This new ordinance extended the powers of the councils to cover everybody living within its jurisdiction, including non-Africans. The only controversial matter that was not touched by the new legislation was the issue of free elections to the councils.

From 1953, villages were given the right to choose councillors amongst themselves who joined the council of representatives in the local area (district or town). This resulted in the enactment of *the Local Government Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953*, which also established county councils. Urban councils were also formed through the *Local Government Election Ordinance Cap 47/66 and 379 of 1962*. (Urban areas)

When the British took over from the Germans, there already existed conflict between the Germans and local leaders like the Hehe under Mkwawa and the Nyamwezi under Isike.

After realizing this, the British selected a local leader for each tribe. The local leaders therefore did not resist against the British Government leading to reduction in conflict between the British and the local leaders. However, conflict still existed between local leaders and some of the people who were being forced by the local leaders to work for the British Government.

### **3.2.3 Post-colonial local government**

When Tanzania mainland (Tanganyika) gained her independence in 1961, it inherited the colonial administrative system of governance. Under this system governance at local level was vested in three bodies, the native authorities, the

district councils and the town councils. There was also one municipal council, Dar es Salaam, which was established in 1946 under the *Municipality Ordinance of 1946*. The *Local Government Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953* was retained. The district, town and municipal councils were also retained (Shivji & Peter, 2003:7).

After independence the government continued to use the *Local Government Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953*. District, town, and municipal councils were formed and given powers to employ staff, collect taxes and make by-laws in their areas of jurisdiction. In this period, there were the Ministry of Local Government, the Local Government Commission, 17 regions, 58 districts and 15 urban councils. The councils had standing committees on finance and establishment, education, health, works, urban planning, natural resources and general purpose (Warioba, 1999:11).

Without abolishing the inherited local government structures, the post-colonial government initiated many changes including the abolition of native authorities at the local level (the chiefs). Many other reforms in the local government, which had impacts at sub-district level in particular, followed suit. The reforms are presented in phases as summarized below:

### **3.2.3.1 Transitional phase (1961 – 1972)**

As previously stated the post-colonial government inherited the colonial system of governance. In the first flush of nationalism, native authorities were abolished and replaced by popularly elected district councils as prescribed by the *Local Government Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953*. Within two years of independence, district councils replaced all native authorities.

The *Local Government Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953* that had provided for 48 local authorities was revised in 1962 to repeal the established native authorities. The

local government then consisted of the district, the urban and the municipal councils. The municipalities had the highest status followed by the town councils and by the district councils. This partly depended on their capacity to finance programmes. The Ministry for Local Government was responsible for the town and the municipal councils while the regional commissioners were responsible for the district councils.

Furthermore, in 1963 the old village headmen were removed and village councils were amalgamated into village development committee. In 1965, the single party system was introduced in Tanzania Mainland and TANU (the ruling party) was made part and parcel of the local government system. *The Local Government Election Act 50 of 1965* decreed that all councillors had to be TANU members. With the introduction of the one party system the chairman of the council was no longer elected. The district chairman of the party for example became the *ex officio* chairman of the council (Max, 1991:33).

During this phase, the ruling party was supreme and very strict. There was no room for opposition, hence there was remarkable conflict because the party directives were followed as the party was very powerful.

### **3.2.3.2 De-concentration phase (1972 – 1978)**

The local government authorities system was abolished and replaced by decentralization in 1972. The reasons for the abolition of Local Government Authorities included problems of administration, lack of supervision, weak internal administration, and poor financial position of local authorities which made it difficult to fulfil their obligations (Warioba, 1999:36).

*The Decentralization of the Government Administration (Interim Provisions) Act 27 of 1972* replaced the popularly elected local authorities with appointed

committees, *predominantly* composed of government functionaries. The district development councils and the regional and district committees were established, and the President was empowered to appoint the directors for the respective committees (Shivji & Peter, 2003:9).

This system, transferred power to the regions, and ironically but correctly dubbed Madaraka Mikoani (Power to the regions). This is also known as de-concentration. The decentralized system replaced the comprehensive local government system. The objectives of decentralization were to work out a system which gives more local freedom in both decision-making and action on matters which are primarily of local impact. The aim was to ensure even development between and within regions and districts and to solve problems of duplication or overlap of duties among various leaders at the local level.

Other objectives included improving egalitarian and socialist oriented development in the rural areas and countryside in general, enhancing local development initiatives, acting as a mechanism for fair allocation of the scarce resources, and improving administration capacity of both central and local administrators in dealing with rural development issues (Mogella, 1987:80).

During this period "party supremacy" demanded loyalty to all the permanent public officials and councillors to implement and support party policies. As such no remarkable conflict was manifested here (Mogella, 1987:80), although the then President Mwalimu Nyerere underlined that the abolition of local government did not mean the abolition of local representation and that the purpose of the new system was to increase people's participation in decision-making and participation (Mushi, 1995:18) . In practice, things did not work out smoothly. The 1972 decentralization was by means of de-concentration. The central government was brought closer to the people. The permanent public

officials were de-concentrated from Dar es Salaam to the regions. The politicians were dominating the entire system.

The local governments thus got caught up in the centralizing tendency of the state structure as a whole (Shivji & Peter, 2003:8). The local government was perceived and treated as an implementing agency of the central government (which was not the reason for its establishment). The village continued to be perceived as a geographical space or focus of development and not as a social space of governance as such. Both in governance and development the approach was top-down. The constitution did not recognize local governments as territorial areas separate from the district administration. The organizational structure placed local government, central government and the Party (TANU) to work as a single system but with asymmetrical power relations, with the party on top followed by central government and local government (Kamugisha, 1969:2). The organization structure was the cause of the conflict. It was not proper to place the three systems together, putting the party at the top. The superiority of the party made the party officials very arrogant and used this opportunity to mistreat others. This created conflict between the party officials and the officials from the central and local government.

### **3.2.3.3 Devolution phase (1978 –1982)**

The decentralization system did not last long. In 1978 the government moved to re-introduce local government. Two reasons were given for the re-establishment of the local authorities. First, the economic crisis of the late seventies and eighties and its attendant consequences provided for the key incentives for the re-establishment of local authorities. Second, the system was very expensive.

The re-establishment of the local government was also stipulated in the *Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977* (Article 145) decreeing

that "there shall be established local government authorities in each region, district, urban area and village in the United Republic". According to the "*Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977 (Article 147 (1))*," the prime objective of the local government was consolidating and giving more power to the people. It states, "Local government shall be entitled and competent to participate, and to involve people in planning and implementation of development" (Presidential Commission, 1991:73). In other words, the intention was to enhance democracy at the local level, a task that the previous decentralized administration had failed to perform.

In the years 1978 and 1979 *the Urban Councils (Interim Provisions) Act. No. 11 of 1978* and *the Local Government Elections Act No. 4 of 1979* were enacted, which became operational during the general elections of 1980.

This phase was characterised by scarcity of essential items, like fuel, food, educational facilities, for example desks, books for primary school pupils (primary schools are managed by local authorities), to name only few. This situation resulted in conflict between the permanent public officials and the councillors. There was mistrust between them. The councillors blamed the permanent public officials saying that they were the cause of those problems.

#### **3.2.3.4 Re-Introduction of local government authorities phase (1982-1992)**

The local government system was reintroduced in Tanzania in 1982. This was facilitated by the constitutional amendments, which aimed at placing power in the hands of the people, that is, self-governance by local communities through local representatives. The same amendments conferred local authorities with autonomous status. The elected councillors were given more power in terms of managing their own councils, raise councils' revenues and hire and discharge the

permanent public officials. However, the executive director was appointed by the Local Government Service Commission to implement the ministerial goals and objectives.

The gradual re-introduction of local government authorities in Tanzania was consolidated and given a legal framework in a series of local government legislations passed in 1982. These included the *Local Government Act No. 7 of 1982*, which provided for the establishment of district authorities, and the *Local Government Act No. 8 of 1982*, which provided for the establishment of urban authorities. The *Local Government Finance Act No, 9 of 1982* provided for the control of financial matters.

These acts re-established the district authorities composed of village governments and district councils. The urban authorities including town authorities, municipal councils and city councils were part of the re-establishment. The laws gave powers to the LGAs to employ, collect and spend revenues and to make by-laws. However, restructuring and changes characterize the history of local government in Tanzania. Even with this full revival of local government in 1982, problems of capacity, poor organization, restructuring service delivery, democratic value and management still linger on (Warioba, 1999:52).

During this era, conflict became remarkably high because of competing objectives and unclear roles between the councillors and the permanent public officials (appointed by the Local Government Service Commission [LGSC]) and the Ministry responsible for local government administration. Another situation which led to conflict was the fact that the permanent public officials were expected to report to two supervisors: to the councillors and to the Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration.



Local government gained a prominent and secure place for the first time in 1984 through the fifth constitutional amendment. The purpose of local government was to place power in the hands of the people [see the *Constitution of Tanzania of 1977, Article 146 (1)*] It is also significant to note that the Article was brought into the constitution by the same constitutional amendment which introduced, for the first time, the Bill of Human Rights. It is therefore logical to say that the local government principal legislations put emphasis on participatory democracy.

The period from 1984 to early 1990s marked the devolution phase. Its emphasis was on the concept of self-governance by the local communities through local representatives. Under this system, the re-established local governments such as district councils were supposed to be autonomous, raise their own revenues and hire and discharge their own staff.

In this phase, local government authorities were given four sectoral responsibilities namely, primary education, health care, district roads, and water supplies.

Local government institutions (LGIs) were thus expected to create conducive avenues of participatory democracy at the grassroots and solve the socio-economic problems of the people (Ngware and Haule, 1993:6). However, the LGIs were expected to operate within the premises of the economic logic of cost effectiveness to respond to the needs of the people at the grassroots level and become viable organs for people's empowerment.

To readdress these problems, government's thinking and behaviour have focused on reforms and changes. The reforms and changes would, however, be meaningful only if they would have appropriate focus and proper vision embracing, among other things, issues of service delivery, adequate

representation and participation, advocacy of constituents' needs, and effective administrative practices (Ngwale & Haule, 1993:8).

The current trends in government practice show that from the many approaches adopted to alleviate the problems facing local government authorities, issues of internal management and organization structure have been given priority.

### **3.2.3.5 Local government under multiparty democracy phase (1992 to the present)**

Following the political changes taking place all over the world, Tanzania adopted a multiparty democratic system on July 1<sup>st</sup> 1992. In the same year, some of the local government administrative reforms took place, including the increase of the tenure of the councillors from three to five years.

The country conducted the first civic elections under multiparty democracy in October 1994 and the ruling party, 'Chama Cha Mapinduzi' (CCM) won.

Regarding the significance of multipartism to the general performance of local government institutions in Tanzania, all registered and even unregistered political parties supported local government. The ruling and dominant political party in Tanzania, Chama Cha Mapinduzi, in its socialism (Ujamaa) policy declaration (1967) maintains that:

*Local government is a basic component of people's power because it consists of institutions that enable people to rule themselves, democratically, in the nineties; CCM will continue to educate citizens so that they understand clearly the fact that local government is their instrument of participation at the local level. (Mushi, 1995:6).*

### **3.3 NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT AUTHORITIES IN TANZANIA**

The local government system started the Local Government Reform Agenda in 1996. The *Local Government Amendment Act No. 6 of 1999* was enacted by Parliament in February 1999. The reforms aimed at improving the quality and access to public services provided through or facilitated by local councils. The reform results were expected to feature much on the political, financial and administrative autonomy of the councils.

Although the reforms have been reflected in almost all aspects of the Tanzania local councils, as reflected in the efforts being made to build the capacity and autonomy of the local councils, the structure and roles of the councillors and the permanent public officials have remained the same as before the reform period. Even conflict seemed to have increased between the two groups, as councillors claimed to be more superior over the permanent public officials.

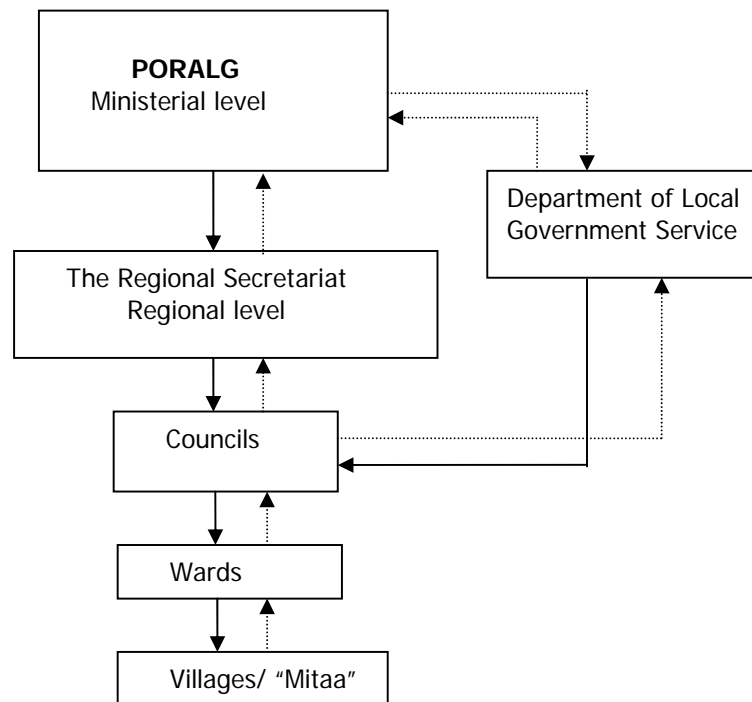
The reforms have also ignited more conflict between councillors and the permanent public officials because of the reduction of the supervision role of the Central Government through the traditional strong regional administration. In giving more autonomy to the councils through reforms, the relationship between the region and the district councils has become weak and remote. Councillors, being a political force in the LGAs, have used this opportunity to undermine the role of permanent public officials. As a result, conflict has been maintained and actually revitalized.

### **3.3.1 Organization structure of local government authorities in Tanzania**

The general description of the structure of local government in Tanzania is defined in the *Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania 1of 1977 (Article 145)* which provides for the establishment of local government at the urban, district and sub-district levels. This provision has resulted in the enactment of several legislative measures for the purpose of establishing local government at various levels in Tanzania mainland.

According to the *Constitution of 1977 (Article 145)* the underpinning philosophy for the structure and administrative system of local government in Tanzania was twofold. The first dimension is the promotion of local democracy in the sense that the local government system and administrative machinery should enable the local people to exercise a voice and take part in the decision-making process so that they can determine, influence and shape the destiny of their own lives and future. This means that the administrative structure of local government ensures that local government is democratically governed. The requirement for the establishment of a sound and democratic local government system is also reflected in section 4 of the *Local Government Acts No. 7 and 8 of 1982* (revised in 2000) as well as in section 4 of the *Local Government Amendments Act No. 6 of 1999*. The second dimension is the provision of goods and services for the betterment of the livelihoods of the people in their respective local areas.

The Tanzania local government system sets a clear hierarchy starting from the national level down to the regions, councils, wards, and village levels. The following chart provides a pictorial representation of the local government system on the Tanzania mainland.



**Figure 3: Simplified structure of Tanzania local government system**

Source: Local Government legislation, including researchers understanding and interpretation of local government in Tanzania.

Key:

- ▶ Executive (command) relationship
- .....▶ Advisory relationship

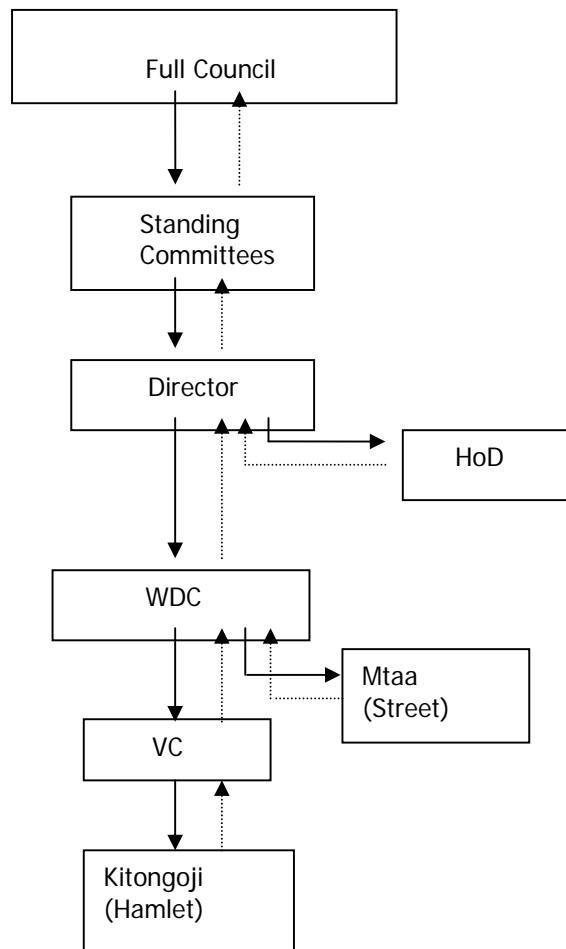
As indicated in Figure 3, the chain of command of the local government system starts at the ministry level whereby the President's Office, Regional and Local Government Administration (PORALG) is the apex institution. PORALG is charged with the overall management of local government in the country and works closely with the Department of Local Government Service that has recently been established by the *Public Service Act No. 8 of 2002*. The Department reports directly to the Public Service Commission. It deals with planning, coordination and supervision of the implementation of guidelines for the management of

human resource in local government. It is also responsible for designing and ensuring observance of effective human resource management systems including performance and discipline in local government.

The Regional Secretariat (RS) follows in the hierarchy of command and it plays supervisory and advisory roles to the councils. It is there to ensure that the councils perform public duties as directed and in accordance with the law. The local government councils (local government authorities) are the next in the hierarchy. They include urban and rural councils. The urban councils were established by the *Local Government Act No. 8 of 1982*, they include city, municipal, and town councils. The *Local Government Act No. 7 of 1982* established rural councils which include district councils, township authorities and village councils.

### **3.3.2 Administrative machinery of Tanzania local government authority at the council level**

The council is the administrative machinery of local government. It has a clear administrative system that starts at the full council level and runs down to the ward and village levels. These levels are further described in Figure 4.



**Figure 4: Administrative machinery of local government authorities in Tanzania**

Source: *Local Government Acts No. 7 and 8 of 1982; Local Government Amendment Act No. 6 of 1999.*

Key:  
 —————> Executive relationship  
 .....> Advisory relationship  
 WDC= Ward Development Committee  
 HoD = Head of Department.  
 VC = Village Chairperson

Administratively, the council is made up of the councillors and the permanent public officials. Councillors are politicians responsible for policy and decision making in the council. They are elected by the residents in their respective wards and thus represent, advance and protect the interests of their voters at the council. Moreover, a councillor is a 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 councillors in order to enable the latter to make sound decisions. Also, they implement policy decisions made by the councillors.

The *Local Government Act No. 7 of 1982* and the *Local Government Act No. 8 of 1982* categorize the local government authorities (LGAs) in Tanzania into rural and urban authorities respectively. This section discusses the types of authorities, showing the functions of committees, which are mostly composed of councillors. It is important to note that the functions of the committees are similar in both cases.

### **3.3.2.1 Structure of the rural authorities**

The structure of local government authorities is unique because of the inherent use of standing committees in executing their operations. The full council is the supreme organ in the council with six standing committees in urban authorities and five standing committees in rural authorities.

#### **Full council**

The full council is a top organ in the council responsible for policy and decision-making. It is a gathering that involves all councillors and is chaired by the council chairperson elected from among the councillors by the councillors. The full council comprises the chairperson or the lord mayor, all elected members or



councillors, special seats councillors and all members of the Parliament of the United Republic of Tanzania in the area. When the group of councillors meet as a full council it has the following powers:

- To approve, adopt or amend the plans, strategies and policies, which together make up the council's policy framework. Such plans include the Development Plans, the Education Development Plan, the Local Transport Plan, the Food Law Enforcement Service Plan, the Housing Investment Programme, the Adult Learning Plan, the Council's Corporate Plan and/or its equivalent.
- To determine and amend, in accordance with the standing orders of the council, the council's revenue and capital budgets including the allocation of financial resources to different services and projects, propose contingency funds and the council tax base, setting the council tax and decisions relating to the council's borrowing requirements and the control of its capital expenditure.
- To approve the council's statement of accounts, income and expenditure and balance sheet.
- To approve supplementary estimates for which there is no budgetary approval.
- To take any decision, which is contrary to the approved policy framework and/or the approved budget.
- To appoint and remove a leader or any members of the committees.
- To agree and/or amend the scheme of delegations to committees and sub-committees, deciding on their composition and making appointments to them and other non-executive bodies.
- To appoint representatives to outside bodies such as the United Nations Children Education Fund and Plan International (an international NGO dealing with rural development).
- To make and amend standing orders, financial regulations and rules in relation to contracts.

- To elect a lord mayor or a chairperson, deputy lord mayor or vice chairperson and exercise related functions.
- To divide local constituencies and local government electoral divisions.
- To make, amend, revoke or re-enact by-laws.
- To make a scheme for the payment of allowances to members and determine the amount of all allowances payable to members of the council, its committees, sub-committees and other bodies.
- To take decisions and/or give advice on matters brought to the council by the permanent public officials and other bodies or persons, i.e. consider and determine all matters referred to it for decision by the council committees.
- To carry out any other functions reserved by law to the council, including those "local choice" functions reserved for the council.
- To establish or dissolve a council committee or other bodies of the council, or alter its membership (including the position of chairperson and deputy chairperson) at any time unless otherwise required by statute.
- To receive and approve as necessary the minutes of the full council and council committees.
- To receive and deal with motions by councillors in accordance with the rules and procedures (Warioba, 1999:83).

### **Standing committees**

Standing committees are permanent technical committees composed of councillors and permanent public officials. These are council committees that constitute the second level of the local council's organization structure. They are charged with the provision of advice to the full council on specific matters such as finance, administration and employment (Warioba, 1999:69-73). A councillor chairs the meeting of each standing committee.

- **Committee for finance and planning**

This committee is responsible for putting together the estimates of revenue and expenditure for both the recurrent and development budget submitted to it by other committees. This committee is also responsible for fixing rates and fees. It meets more often than the other committees (Warioba, 1999:92).

- **Committee for administration and establishment**

This committee is concerned with all personnel matters from recruitment, promotion and taking disciplinary actions of all staff whose appointment is the responsibility of the council (Warioba, 1999:96).

- **Committee for social services**

The social service committee covers sectors such as health, water, and works. Its functions include being responsible for the overall policy direction of the council's social services. It is also responsible for all types of works including road maintenance and construction of buildings (Warioba, 1999:101).

- **Committee for educational affairs**

The committee for educational affairs is responsible for running primary education in the area, especially in the construction and maintenance of school structures, provision of school teaching materials and supplies, fixing and collection of school fees and the payment of teachers' salaries and other benefits (Warioba, 1999:101).

- **Committee for economic services**

This committee is concerned with the management of agricultural development, the use of natural resources such as forestry, game reserves, fishery, beekeeping, nurseries and determining the direction of all economic activities in the council (Warioba, 1999:101).

- **Committee for human resources development**

This committee establishes policies and mechanisms to ensure that the available human resources in the community within the authorities and in the council structure are effectively coordinated and harnessed for the progress of the authority (Warioba, 1999:101).

### **Council director**

The council director is the chief executive officer and head of the permanent public officials. She/he reports to the full council, to whom she/he is secretary and works closely with the standing committees. The council director is assisted by heads of departments (HoDs). These are permanent public officials who undertake professional duties in the council such as financial management, human resources management, planning and engineering. The HoDs report to the council director. (Warioba, 1999:102)

### **Ward executive officer**

Next in the hierarchy is the ward executive officer (WEO) who is also a secretary to the ward development committee (WDC). She/he reports to the council director and takes orders from the same. She/he works closely with the councillors who, as noted above, chairs the WDC and with the technical staff

stationed at the ward in supervising development activities (see *Local Government Acts Nos. 7 and 8 of 1982*). Below the WEO there is the Mtaa Chairman (*Local Government Amendment Act No. 6 of 1999*). The Mtaa level exists in all urban councils. The Mtaa executive officer (MEO) works with the Mtaa Chairman in mobilizing the local residents in the respective Mtaa, to take part in development activities as directed by the council.

### **Village council**

The village council is found in district councils. It 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. The council conveys directives down to the village level through the WEO and *vice versa*. `Kitongoji` is the lowest level in the administrative chain of local government in Tanzania. It is made up of a few households and governed by a `kitongoji` chairperson elected by the residents of that kitongoji. The `kitongoji` chairperson reports to the village chairperson who ensures that the ward and council directives reach this lowest end of the local government administrative system in Tanzania (Warioba, 1999:82).

### **3.3.2.2 Structure of the urban authorities**

The second category of the local government authorities is the urban authority as established by the *Local Government Act 8 of 1982*. The standing committees as provided for by this Act (section 42) include the following:

### **Committee for finance and administration**

The committee for finance and administration is concerned with financial matters as shown in the section on the rural authorities. However it also deals with personnel matters.

### **Committee for urban planning**

This committee is concerned with the numerous urban development and planning requirements. Due to the influx of people from rural to urban areas, this committee is important in land distribution, housing, community development and population growth issues such as population statistics and censuses.

### **Committee for public health**

This committee has similar functions as those shown in the health committee of the rural authorities.

### **Committee for education and culture**

The functions of this Committee are similar to those shown in the Health committee in rural authorities.

### **Committee for trade and economic affairs**

The functions of this committee are similar to those of the committee for Trade and Economic Affairs in the rural authorities. This committee is also concerned with trade development in the council. It issues directives on all commercial activities in the council.

### **Committee for human resource development**

The functions of this committee are the same as those of human resources development in the rural authorities.

It is important to note that all these committees are formed by councillors and not by the permanent public officials. In rare cases, technicians or professionals are co-opted in the meetings. This co-option is common in the planning committee, the works committee and the health committee. All in all, councillors remain the major decision-makers in almost all technical issues of the council and the development of the local authority. Moreover, the full council has the authority to suspend permanent public officials and forward its recommendations to the Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration for further action.

### **3.4 SERVICE DELIVERY IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

The role of local government in the delivery of services is recognized by many observers and institutions. It is widely accepted that local governments play a vital role in human development. They are not only instruments for the promotion of local democracy, but also are important government institutions for the provision of vital services to the people. Local government serves people from the very early stages of life. For example, it is understood that many children are born in hospitals that are run by the local government authorities; they live in the environment maintained by the local government and attend schools funded by the local government and probably are buried by the local government authorities if relatives are not available.

The establishment of local government in Tanzania, as stated in the *Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977, Article 143*, is a reflection of the government's intent to ensure that the masses have access to vital services, can effectively participate in decision-making including the determination of their own priorities. The local government acts are clearer on this point. For instance, Article 111 of the *Local Government Act 7 of 1982* describes a range of mandatory services that must be provided by a district council authority. These include, maintenance of peace and security, provision of education, water, health care, ensuring economic well-being of the people and promotion of democratic governance. Moreover, the *Local Government Amendment Act 6 of 1999* includes additional services that have not traditionally been provided by local government in Tanzania. These are the management of the environment and gender based development. In perusing both *Local Government Acts 7 and 8 of 1982* (under appended schedules) one is astonished by the length of the lists detailing the range of services that local government is expected to deliver. There are more than 150 different types of services, which are provided by both urban and rural councils. This suggests the trust the government has on local government in improving the living conditions of the people and in reducing poverty.

In order to make local government more capable, efficient and effective in service delivery, the Government of Tanzania launched the local government reform programme (LGRP) [PORALG 2000]). To implement this large scale and ambitious programme, the government published the Local Government Reform Agenda 1996-2000 as well as the 1998 Policy Paper on Local Government Reform. The actual implementation of the LGRP started in year 2000 and is scheduled to continue until the year 2012. The implementation experience indicates the presence of some limitations caused by the resistance to change by some of the local government councillors as well as the complexity of the reform process. However, on the other hand, the LGRP has reportedly achieved substantial success in terms of aspects such as the decentralization of adequate



resources and decision-making power to the local government authorities. These have greatly amplified the capacity of local government in service delivery (Government of Tanzania, 2002:19).

In order to make local government more responsive in service delivery, several approaches have been adopted in the context of the on going LGRP. Firstly, there is the introduction of partnerships with other sectors, notably the private and non-governmental organizations. (They include the Netherlands Development Organization, (SNV) Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) and Norway Agency for Development (NORAD). These sectors are working in collaboration with local governments in the delivery of key services such as water, health care, education, and transport infrastructure. Secondly, local government has introduced an outsourcing strategy that includes arrangements such as subcontracting, leasing of some services such as the collection of market fees, the running of council business facilities, the collection of solid and liquid waste, and the leasing of council property and equipment. Another strategy is the enhancement of the involvement of the people in the decision-making process and the improvement of accountability of local government to the people. The introduction of a new performance management system (Open Performance Review and Appraisal System) is a case in point. Moreover, the masses continue to be educated and mobilized to take personal responsibility and utilize available opportunities such as micro loans for their own development, instead of waiting for government services. All these innovations are aimed at improving the capacity of local government in service delivery.

### **3.5 SOURCES OF FINANCE IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

Local government empowerment includes improving its ability both to collect adequate revenue and to manage its finances. Local government needs

adequate finances in order to be able to adequately provide services to the people. Sources of revenue or finance for local government in Tanzania are stipulated in the *Local Government Finance Act No. 9 of 1982*. And they include the following:

- Property tax.
- Land tax.
- Service charges.
- Refuse collection fees.
- Foreign aid.
- Bank loans.
- Proceeds from council property sales.
- Interest from council investments.
- Tax collected from sales of farm produce; and
- Government grants and subsidies

The major sources are property tax and government subsidies. Revenue from these sources is used for development expenditure whereas revenue from other sources is mainly used for recurrent expenditure in the council.

### **3.6 ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

Rural development is a wide and all embracing concept. It is mainly about the improvement of social and economic well-being of the people in the countryside. Therefore, reduction of rural poverty should be the purpose of rural development programmes and effort. Also, it is about involving the rural population in the political process to ensure that they take part in the decision-making process and thus overcome isolation and powerlessness. Rural development is about improving the quality of the lives of the people in the countryside.

The role of local government in rural development has been referred to by many institutions such as the World Bank, donors and governments (Netherlands Development Organization, 2004:8). District councils in Tanzania are more relevant in this regard because they are essentially rural based. Consequently, the recognition of the role of local government in rural development has attracted enormous support from donors (Kunkuta, 2000:9)

Experience shows that many donors are increasingly supporting and empowering district councils in undertaking their rural development role. For instance, Irish Aid has for many years been supporting Ulanga District Council. This donor is also currently supporting Kilombero District Council. The Netherlands Development Organization is supporting Dodoma Rural District and it is in the process of extending its support to the rural councils in Morogoro Region where it has recently established an extension office. Moreover, the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) is supporting district councils in the Lake Zone that covers the regions of Mwanza, Mara and Shinyanga. There are many area based development programmes (ABPs) in Tanzania some of which involve donor funding. Most of these programmes are located in the districts where development needs are said to be greater than in the urban areas that have always been favoured by such programmes, and often at the expense of the countryside (Kunkuta, 2000:9).

Recognition of the role of the district and sub-district structures of local government in rural development has also been expressed by the Government of Tanzania. Consequently, the government recently launched the Local Government Support Programme (LGSP) and the Local Government Capital Development Grant (LGCDG) system for the purpose of ensuring that adequate financial resources reach the district councils, the ward and the villages (the Government of Tanzania, 2004:22). The government believes that adequate funding will enable the rural councils to finance various development projects

and hence hasten rural development. Critics have expressed their doubts, and correctly so, of the capacity of some councils to manage the funds since they have not had adequate training in financial management. They also lack experience in managing funds bearing in mind that most of them are from poor economic backgrounds. However, contrary to conventional wisdom, experiences from micro-finance programmes in Tanzania have indicated that through careful planning and guidance, local people in the rural areas can manage their finances and development projects (Kunkuta, 2000:9).

The role of local government in rural development can be reflected in its ability to foster local democracy whereby the local people are involved in decision-making and are empowered to make choices on various developmental aspects. Another key aspect is the improved ability of the local government to provide vital services such as education, health care, clean and safe water, roads, promotion of agriculture and local businesses. The provision of services, for instance, feeder roads, education, and health, provides opportunities for the poor in the rural and urban areas to engage in productive activities and hence move out of poverty. Therefore, enhancing the capacity of local government to promote local democracy and service delivery can arguably contribute significantly to improving the quality of the lives of the rural dwellers.

### **3.7 LOCAL GOVERNMENT RELATIONS WITH THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT**

The local government system is intended to provide the ordinary people with an opportunity to participate in the administration of local affairs and to serve their fellow citizens. It is a system with local representatives who are responsible to the local community for their administration. The central government lays down the general policy for local government through the ministry responsible for local government, in the interest of the country as a whole. The central government

entrusts power to the local authorities and it has the duty to ensure that such powers are properly exercised to attain positive results. The local authorities, on the other hand, have to make sure that they provide adequate services to the satisfaction of the citizens under their jurisdiction. This kind of relationship consists of checks; controls and supervision. There are several types of controls which include the following:

### **3.7.1 Legislative control**

Central Government gives powers to local authorities to make their own by-laws, rules and orders to effect certain duties. The central government is interested in seeing how such powers are exercised, that is, to what extent and to whose benefit. It wants to prevent illegal actions performed by local authorities. For this reason, the Central Government exercises constant vigilance and controls over local authorities. All by-laws therefore, have to be approved by the central government through the appropriate ministry before they become effective (Warioba, 1999:178).

### **3.7.2 Financial control**

Central Government gives powers to local authorities to raise funds from various sources. They are equally given powers to spend those funds. But the Central Government is the first caretaker and would therefore like to see that such public funds are used properly according to the law and the agreed financial regulations. That is why it sends auditors to rectify, advise, regulate and control local authorities' finances (Warioba, 1999:179).

### **3.7.3 Ministerial or administrative control**

The minister responsible for local government has a duty to ensure that the various councils established under the *Local Government Act 7 and 8 of 1982*, carry out their functions efficiently and to the general well-being of the public under their authority. The minister has also the duty of ensuring that an even rate of development is maintained throughout the territory. Other administrative controls cover such fields as transfer of functions, dissolution or suspension of councils in cases of gross defaults in the performance of obligatory duties, and the ordering of appeals or enquiries, the inspection of services or works especially those financed through loans or grants-in-aid. Under the ministry, there are such officers as local government officers whose duties are to conduct inspections, supervision and act in an advisory capacity (Warioba, 1999: 179-180).

### **3.7.4 Judicial control**

The question of judicial control comes in when the by laws, rules and orders are violated, or the services are neglected thereby making the innocent public suffer unduly. Thus, an individual may lodge complaints against the actions of a local authority as long as he/she can prove that such an authority has exceeded its statutory powers or has failed to perform its duties laid upon it by law. In such circumstances the courts may give an injunction order or declaration, which may be in the form of an authoritative statement to give justice to the complainant. Therefore, local government officers, by the fact that they are the eyes of the Central Government, have the duty of seeing that services are provided by the council to the satisfaction of the citizens' needs (Warioba, 1999:180).

### **3.7.5 Proper officer**

The cited acts establishing the local authorities make provision for the appointment of a proper officer who is charged with the exercising of some of the controls mentioned above. For the district council, the proper officer is the regional commissioner; for the urban councils, which are fewer in number and more highly developed, and which have more specialized financial problems, the proper officer is the minister (Warioba, 1999:180-181).

### **3.7.6 Dissolution**

If a council fails to perform the duties conferred upon it by any written law of the country, the minister responsible can dissolve it and replace it by whatever authority s/he may think suitable. Naturally, this extreme measure would not be adopted unless there is a serious and widespread mismanagement of the council's affairs (Warioba, 1999:181).

### **3.7.7 Other methods of control**

Councils cannot enter into contracts over a certain specified amount unless the proper officer gives his/her approval (Warioba, 1999:181).

### **3.7.8 Authorities to perform functions in the national interest**

According to the *Local Government Finance Act No. 9 of 1982*, the Central Government is obliged to pay annually to both the urban authorities and the district councils' grants from the public revenue. Generally, grants are essentially a way of providing incentives to local government.

Grants are broadly divided into basic grants and specific grants. Basic grants are aimed at enabling the local government authorities to discharge their obligatory

functions taking into account their tax potential and other resources. The usual criteria for determining the amount of such grants are the cost of services, such as the maintenance of roads, primary education, rural and urban health and water; the revenue to be raised locally by the authorities themselves; and the factors that control the growth and provision of the services.

Specific grants are provided by the government as an inducement to local action or when a demand is made upon the authorities to develop services or functions necessary from the viewpoint of national policy (Warioba, 1999: 181-187, 192-196).

### **3.8 PROBLEMS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

Tanzania follows the English model of local government authority in which there is a sharp division of responsibilities and functions between elected councillors on the one hand and the permanent public officials on the other. The colonial government had been applying this system since 1954 when the *Local Governance Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953* came into force (Dryden, 1968:143).

At the time of independence in 1961, the great majority of local councils were still not the representatives of the local population elected by the electoral process and most of them were composed of varying proportions of elected and permanent public officials, the latter being mostly chiefs. It was only when the council membership everywhere became fully democratic in 1962 that the divisive character of the machinery of local government made itself apparent. However, the attainment of a new legal status did not bring an automatic improvement in the quality of local government in Tanzania. There were some difficulties and problems.



### 3.8.1 Financial problems

One of the problems facing local government authorities in Tanzania is the frequent financial crises and insolvency brought about by the irresponsible decision-making of some of the councillors, malpractices or sheer inefficiency by permanent public officials in collecting revenue. Semboja and Therkildsen (in Mbuta, 1999:23) also agree that the poor performance of the local councils or governments is due to poor collection of revenue. They both agree that the financial crises in the local government authorities is the result of the declines in revenue collection.

Inadequate revenue capacity, the increasing burden of the recurrent expenditures and the falling levels of the capital budgets of the councils, both proportionally and in absolute terms, reduce the capacity of the councils to undertake projects. The reason for this situation is lack of motivational schemes (Mahyenga, 1990:76). Motivation is a creation of a will to work and it is singled out as "the core of management" (Gupta, 1990:5). As Mahyenga (1990:76) argues,

*One of the causes of the incompetence of the Kibaha District Authority as observed in non-completion of projects and in the failure of the district to collect the estimated revenue, is the non-implementation of the motivational scheme by the authority. The workers of the Kibaha District Authority are inefficient because of the presence of ineffective motivational schemes resulting in the poor morale among workers and continued inefficiency.*

Thus, motivational schemes are important in promoting efficiency and effectiveness because motivation reduces absenteeism, turnover, and labour unrest. Motivation also creates better organizational relations and commitment

to work, attracts workforce, fosters team spirit and increases loyalty to the organization (Galabawa, 2000:53).

Lack of finance led to the failure of improving and expanding the services, which were already in existence, especially the administrative, educational and medical services. This was attributed to the unrealistic budgeting and financial juggling that in turn led to bankruptcy. Since the level of revenue and other sources showed no general improvement and in some areas greatly declined, improving one service was sometimes only possible at the expense of another. The fact is that with the limited resources available to them, the local authorities had to restrict their activities and to concentrate their efforts upon certain limited objectives (Gasto, 1997:46).

It is therefore observed that the administrative incompetence afflicted councils, both large and small, and those with or without a history of progress and prosperity. The withdrawal of day-to-day control experienced by administrative officers of the colonial government led to the decline in the standards of efficiency and gave free rein to those who were able and willing to turn the situation to their own advantage.

### **3.8.2 Lack of competent manpower**

The inability of councillors to shoulder various responsibilities due to inadequate formal education and experience with the functioning of local government is another problem. The problem of poor execution of local councils should not be looked at in isolation from the competence of the manpower prevailing in the councils. Lack of competent manpower causes the local councils to fail to execute the projects agreed upon by the councillors (Gasto, 1997: 48). Dryden (1968:100) had a similar viewpoint when he said that the councillors who bore responsibility for the progress and prosperity of their home areas were for the

most part ill-equipped to shoulder such responsibility. He further argued that the councillors were poorly educated, they had little knowledge of the purpose and practice of local government and they were uncertain of their roles as councillors within the system itself.

### **3.8.3 Poor quality of employees**

Poor quality of the permanent public officials was another problem confronting local government authorities. The quality of permanent public officials was distinctly variable and generally poor at the time of independence. This was due to several factors including, absence of a unified local government service and career prospects in the local government. The output of school leavers with form four or more years of secondary education was inadequate to meet the needs of better paid employment, let alone those of the local authorities.

Decenzo & Robbins (1988:360) pointed out that the institution's human resources are very important in undertaking the various activities in the institution. The survival of all institutions requires competent managers and workers to coordinate their efforts toward an ultimate goal. Competence arises from basic formal education, work related training, and experience. Untrained and inexperienced personnel are likely to perform poorly even if adequate funds are available.

The scarcity of human resources at local government level at independence in Tanzania was a dominant characteristic of rural authorities. Town councils got off to a much better start in life than their rural counterparts due to the following reasons:

- The urban councils, being located in areas of commercial development, were able to draw for their membership upon a board of councillors who

were better equipped to understand their role in the local government system and to cope with the demands made upon them.

- The constitution of a town council was revised so as to include in its membership, certain senior officials of the Central Government who were stationed within its area of jurisdiction, and in general, the standard of the permanent public officials was superior to those found in most rural councils (Dryden, 1968:102).

#### **3.8.4 Antagonism between permanent public officials and the councillors**

There already existed a growing antagonism between permanent public officials and the councillors. This did nothing to make the local government service attractive to those who might have otherwise been tempted to enter it (Dryden, 1968: 100). The growing antagonism or conflict between the permanent public officials and the councillors is associated with the division of authority between them.

#### **3.8.5 Division of authority between councillors and permanent public officials**

As discussed earlier, Tanzania follows the English model of local government authority in which there should be a sharp division of responsibilities and functions between the councillors and the permanent public officials.

The problem within the English model of division of local authority is alien to the traditional African concept of leadership and authority. The division of authority

between part-time councillors, on the one hand, and permanent public officials on the other, leads to conflict in the councils.

The councillors and permanent public officials are dissimilar from each other in background, experience, and in formal and professional education as shown in the table below.

**Table 1: Differences between councillors and permanent public officials**

S/N	Main Properties	Councillors	Permanent public officials
1	Criteria for appointment/election	Owes his/her position to popular appeal or support.	Appointed on the strength of his/her qualification for a particular kind of work.
2.	Basis for appointment or election	Elected on temporary basis	Holds a permanent appointment
3.	Mode of working	Has a view of public affairs which is coloured by the interests of his or her constituency.	Has been trained to observe government regulations, sets his/her course more objectively and works within a framework or rules and set procedures.
4.	Perceptions towards procedures	Because his/her world is essentially one of challenge and change, finds that official procedures, by their inherent rigidity often inhibit or thwart political action.	In the interest of administrative efficiency, the permanent public civil officials, may tend to prize too highly procedural virtues of the constituency and conformity at the expense of more substantial objectives.
5	Roles/responsibilities/duties	Deal with enactment of by-laws and principles.	Implement local government policies, directives, and people's intentions or deliberations that come to them through their representatives.

Source: Compiled from different authors by the researcher, 2006

At some point, permanent public officials as a class are perhaps not easily adaptable to a rapidly changing situation. The situation in Tanzania after independence was such that a drastic revision of attitude was desirable on the part of the permanent public officials in general. Great emphasis was to be placed upon local development at the village level. To bring about the planned social and economic revolution, political leaders were given a leading part to play. The reasons were that these politicians had already been leaders in the struggle for independence, and were known to the people. They were politically acceptable and were more likely to inspire a rural revolution than the new group of permanent public officials, most of whom were relatively fresh to the services and they were forbidden to participate in politics. They were thus unknown to the people and therefore lacking in the vital qualification necessary to inspire confidence.

Furthermore, the placement of activities of both the central government departments and local councils under the surveillance and direction of the party is another innovation in the local administration in Tanzania at post independence. This was done through the appointment of political commissioners as heads of regional administration and by elections to the councils of party nominees.

Some of the problems facing the local authorities in Tanzania are due to the little weight given to the advice by permanent public officials. The common complaint among permanent public officials in Tanzania is that the politicians rarely seek advice from the permanent public officials on administrative issues, let alone, political matters. The English model of local government inherited by Tanzania is based upon the assumption that though elected councillors may be competent to determine issues of principle, they lack professional expertise to implement the decisions which they make. Hence, local government is regarded as the business of specialists. In fact, there has never been a greater need for expertise

in local administration than during the years following independence, nor has there been a greater reluctance on the part of decision makers to avail themselves of it. The permanent public officials particularly, at district level were asked to do no more than provide secretarial assistance and legal advice and to cope with a variety of relatively minor executive matters (Dryden, 1968:102).

By not involving the permanent public officials in decision-making, a sense of participation and unity has been missing. Furthermore, the transfer of authority from permanent public officials to political leaders came as a disappointment to many permanent public officials. It is true that the colonial pattern of organization had been retained but those who now sat in authority were politicians while the permanent public officials were given the new designation of 'secretary'. These disparate elements within administration were not conducive to harmonious relationships.

More importantly, the emphasis which had been placed by the Government on the essentially political role was mistakenly assumed by permanent public officials who in all respects were the true descendants of the district commissioners of the colonial era.

The above weaknesses necessitated the independent government to reform the local government system so as to make it more democratic and effective. Hence, in 1962 the *Native Authorities Ordinance Cap 72 of 1926* was abolished and the *Local Government Ordinance Cap 333 of 1953* was amended. The reforms necessitated the creation of district and urban councils all over the country. The chief's position in the local authorities was abolished and membership to the council was limited to democratically elected members. This time the councils were empowered to recruit their own staff, raise revenue, make by-laws subject to the approval of the minister responsible for local government, provide social services and maintain law and order.

In 1963, the Unified Local Government Service was established to curb the problem of the shortage of qualified manpower in poor districts which could not attract qualified manpower/staff. It was at this juncture that local government authorities lost their right to appoint, promote, discipline and recruit their own senior staff. This task of managing senior personnel in the local government was in 1963 left in the hands of a central government body called the Local Government Service Commission.

The reformed local governments continued to operate below satisfactory levels as they continued to lack qualified and experienced personnel and the situation was aggravated by the departure of the experienced European experts following independence. Their limited financial resources were also mismanaged, embezzled or stolen. These anomalies continued to make local government authorities ineffective. By 1970, it was evident that the system was going to collapse and the Central Government intervened by taking over the function of providing social services. Despite the intervention, the situation continued to deteriorate fast leading to the decision of abolishing the local government system in 1972 (Warioba, 1999: 34-43, 62).

### **3.9 PERCEIVED CONFLICT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT AUTHORITIES**

Conflict is a disagreement between two parties, individuals or groups of individuals on certain realities. Terry (1983:83) defines conflict as an existence of opposition or dispute between persons, groups or institutions. Conflict among groups or organizational units has its base in the presence of competing objectives, methods, philosophies, and missions and in the desire of managers to protect jurisdictions, control resources or acquire power.



In Tanzania, conflict in local government authorities has existed before the colonial period in various forms which include two main forms; structural conflict and role conflict.

### **3.9.1 Structural conflict**

An organizational structure is an important tool because it shows the relationship that exist between one level of authority and another, the power granted to various levels in the structure, the groupings of the roles, duties and responsibilities that are to be performed by groups and individuals, and the value of the activities of a group in the organization. The structure of LGAs in Tanzania (see Appendices I and II) clearly shows the position held by the councillors and their role, and the position held by the permanent public officials and their areas of specialization as indicated by the departments and sections. Vertical conflict arises among different kinds and intensity of roles, missions, objectives, and activities, at various levels. Conflict arises due to inadequate communication between echelons and due to the differences of interests between position holders occupying different stations in the organizational hierarchy, and due to the lack of shared perceptions and attitudes among members.

Vertically, in the structure, councillors form the top level of the LGAs in Tanzania. The major role of the councillors is to formulate policies, make decisions and establish by-laws. The permanent public officials comprising the director, the heads of departments and heads of sections and all the other staff are the implementers of the decisions and policies deliberated by the full council. At a theoretical level, these roles are clear and it is expected that there cannot be possibilities of conflict. (See Appendices I and II)

In practice, however, the two groups have constantly been in conflict. There have been disagreements and misunderstandings on the following areas.

### **3.9.1.1 Policy making versus implementation**

For effective policy making, councillors need adequate and reliable information from the permanent public officials. The permanent public officials do provide the required information but the councillors view the information as inadequate and in some cases over/under-exaggerate it. This leads to the belief that effective decision-making cannot take place because the permanent public officials frustrate the full council. However the permanent public officials believe that councillors do not have the requisite expertise and competence to make decisions on the complex problems of the Tanzanian LGAs. (Kunkuta, 2003:10)

### **3.9.1.2 Revenue**

There is also a vertical structural conflict that occurs between councillors and the permanent public officials in the area of revenue. There are a lot of disagreements and mistrust on the methods that the permanent public officials use to collect revenue from the residents of the authorities. There are also disagreements on the way tax is collected. For example, while the permanent public officials do not care about the way tax is collected, the councillors feel that the tax gives room to tax collectors to harass their electors, particularly the poor and women. It is for this reason that in 2003 the Central Government abolished tax collection which involved elements of harassment and brutality.

Expenditure of the revenue also contributes to vertical structural conflict. How much should the full council and its committees spend in the process of formulating policies and making decisions and how much should be used by the permanent public officials to run the council and deliver services to the public,

results in immense conflict between the two groups. It is specifically in this area that councillors have tended to reject the permanent public officials. The councillors believe that LGAs have adequate finances for all items of expenditure. The permanent public officials on the other hand, know the reality about council finances.

Another vertical structural conflict centres on revenue allocation. Decisions on which projects should be implemented and which ones should wait for the subsequent financial year creates conflict between the permanent public officials and the councillors. The councillors tend to force and lobby for the projects to be implemented in their wards. The permanent public officials tend to look at those areas that are in critical need of the projects. This creates conflict between the two groups (Kunkuta, 2003:11)

#### **3.9.1.3 Vision and mission**

Although all Local Government Authorities (LGAs) in Tanzania have their vision and mission statements, these are only useful to the permanent public officials. The councillors have their political objectives such as winning the subsequent elections. Therefore, in general, while the permanent public officials become responsible for meeting the council objectives and because they are employed to do so, the councillors interfere a lot with their activities, making the achievement of the LGAs' vision and mission difficult, hence a vertical structural conflict (Kunkuta, 2003:10).

#### **3.9.1.4 Power and authority**

It is obvious that the full council has powers and authority over the permanent public officials. Currently, the councillors cannot simply terminate the service of a director and heads of departments as these are appointed by the LGSC. This

results in grudges on the part of the councillors in many LGAs. It intensifies the conflict between the two groups and councillors feel that they do not have the power to remove the permanent public officials (Kunkuta, 2003:10).

### **3.9.1.5 Horizontal conflict**

Horizontally, conflicts occur due to the interdependence of tasks among the conflicting units. Mutual task dependence is a key variable in interdepartmental conflict. Task dependence is the extent to which two units depend on each other for assistance, information, compliance or other coordinative acts in the performance of their respective acts. Such interdependence creates the need for collaboration, but also presents occasions for conflict and the need for bargaining behaviour between units (McFarland, 1979:412).

Looking at structural conflict there are potential and actual conflict in Tanzanian LGAs. Starting with the committees that are mainly formed by the councillors, the major source of conflict revolves around which committee is more important than another and how much resources should be allocated to each of the committees. There are perceptions among councillors that the Committee for Finance and Planning is of prime importance. This view has resulted in occasional conflict between the Finance Committee and the other committees.

Another horizontal structural conflict occurs among the council departments. In particular, the Finance Department is often in conflict with other departments due to the perception that the department does not efficiently manage the process of funding other departments.

Line-staff conflict is a form of structural conflict, primarily horizontal, between the staff and the line managers at or near the same level (McFarland, 1979:412). There are elements of conflict type of relationships between the line and staff departments. The Auditing Department and the Finance Department for

example have a long-term conflict. (McFarland 1979:412) and observed by the researcher at Mzumbe University).

### **3.9.2 Role conflict**

Role conflict occurs when an individual assumes roles that are inconsistent with one another in different situations (McFarland, 1979:413). The role conflict in local government authorities also takes the form of interferences that occur between the roles assumed by councillors and those performed by the permanent public officials. It is very common in Tanzanian councils to find councillors behaving or doing things that are in principle performed by the permanent public officials. Because of the lack of the requisite expertise and competence, councillors find themselves in a state of role ambiguity resulting in role conflict.

The permanent public officials on the other hand, also do find themselves in role conflict. This happens during the process of assisting councillors to make effective decisions by providing them with information on various council issues. In doing so they tend to be overloaded with roles that are inconsistent with one another leading to the occurrence of role conflict.

Role conflict is a common phenomenon in local government authorities because of the competition between the councillors and the permanent public officials. The councillor's objectives include pleasing and satisfying their personal interests and those of their electorate. Permanent public officials are professionals expected to render services to councillors and citizens competently and effectively and without bias. The interplay between these two groups contributes to the intensity of role conflict. (MacFarland, 1979:413.)

### **3.10 SUMMARY**

The structure of the Tanzanian Local Government Authorities (LGAs) is as old as the councils themselves, which can be traced back to the colonial period. Although several changes have taken place in the socio-economic framework, the council structure has remained relatively the same. Structural strengths and weaknesses have also persisted creating a continuation of the traditional conflicting relationships within councils. This has involved councillors having conflicts among themselves, councillors with the permanent public officials, the permanent public officials among themselves and councillors having conflict with their electorates.

Conflict has led to inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the execution of various duties in the local government authorities. However, the Central Government has always made efforts to resolve such conflicts. These efforts have to some extent helped in controlling the rate of occurrence of conflict in the local government authorities.

However, it is important to note that conflict is unavoidable in any institution and tends to vary from simple to complex. Hence, understanding the source and nature of conflict in local government authorities in Tanzania is of great importance. This understanding will in turn help in devising effective and sustainable strategies of managing conflict in the local government authorities in Tanzania.

Furthermore, in an effort to find effective ways of managing conflict in the local government authorities providing the local government leaders with effective education and training on local government management can help greatly in attaining sustainable local government administration and effective conflict resolution. The education and training provided can enhance their capacity to

quickly understand the sources of conflict, the nature of conflict, and the short and long term impact of conflict. This understanding can make government leaders develop effective plans of resolving such conflict.

Likewise, education and training can be pivotal in building critical thinking and confidence among the local government leaders. With critical thinking and confidence such leaders would be able to staunchly face the various challenges of globalisation.

Having discussed the development of conflict in city and municipal councils, it is now important to discuss in the next chapter, the research methodology. This will include the research design, sample and sampling techniques, data collection and data analysis.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **4.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the methodology of the study. It starts by describing the preliminary study and pilot visits which the researcher did before embarking on the main research. Then it discusses the research design and research area which comprises Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council. This includes a discussion of each council's physical features, climate, population, economic activities and social and economic infrastructure. The chapter also describes the population, sample and sampling techniques, the research methods and instruments, the data collection and analysis instruments.

#### **4.2 PRELIMINARY STUDIES AND PILOT VISITS**

The initial attempt to begin this study was for the researcher to conduct preliminary studies and pilot visits to the two councils in order to familiarize herself with the study environment. Specifically, these visits and studies were intended to enable the researcher to:

- Get "a bird's eye view" of the council's and
- informally meet some of the units of analysis for creating rapport and at the same time getting relevant information regarding the relationships between the councillors and the permanent public officials.



It is from this background that the researcher identified and established a base for the choice of samples. The pilot visits and preliminary studies therefore acted as initial steps for getting to the `locale` . (study environment).

### **4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The aim of the study was to investigate the conflict management capacity of municipal and city councils in Tanzania by looking at the causes and consequences of conflict between councillors and permanent public officials and suggesting effective means of conflict resolution in the two councils. This study employed a case study design because a case study is not a single qualitative technique but it uses several methodologies, that is, triangulation.

### **4.4 RESEARCH AREA**

This section provides an overview of the geographical, economic and cultural setup of the study area, namely Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council. (appendices IV and V).

#### **4.4.1 Rationale**

Understanding the physical, economic and social characteristics of a study area was important for two main reasons. Firstly, a study area with enough arable land, reliable rainfall and good infrastructure is likely to stimulate agricultural production and reduce conflict. Secondly, a study area with a wide range of economic resources is likely to be economically strong and thus less prone to conflict. Some of the conflict in the councils arises from the scramble for scarce resources between the councillors and the permanent public officials (Babyegeya 2002:219).

Secondly, a council without conflict will perform better than the one with a lot of misunderstandings between the permanent public officials and the councillors. This is supported by Wood *et al.* (2003) who say that conflict involves interpersonal difficulties that arise over feelings of anger, mistrust, dislike, fear, and resentment. However, McShane & Von Glinow, (2003:386) argue that conflict is constructive problem solving. These two approaches will be proved in chapter five after the analysis.

The two councils were selected purposively due to both their diverse physical/climatic characteristics and their economic, social and cultural differences. While Tanga is situated along the coastal areas of Tanzania Iringa is located in the Southern Highlands. Another reason for selecting these councils is that the researcher has considerable knowledge about their residents. The profile of each council is presented below.

#### **4.4.2 Iringa Municipal Council**

The Iringa Municipal Council is in Iringa Region. It lies between latitudes 7<sup>0</sup> and 10<sup>0</sup> south of the equator, and longitudes 35-40 degree east of the Greenwich. It is 1560 and 2000 metres above sea level. The municipality covers an area of 162 square kilometres and it is bordered by Iringa Rural District and Kilolo District (see Appendix IV).

##### **4.4.2.1 Physical features and climate**

The Iringa Municipality has two main physical features; the central section of the town is part of the Southern Highland ranges, and the Little Ruaha Valley, surrounds the escarpment. The Municipality has only one rainy season from December to May, and temperatures are relatively cool throughout the year. (Iringa Municipal Council Profile, 2006: b).

#### **4.4.2.2 Population and economic activities**

The population of Iringa Municipality is 106,668, of which 49,925 are males and 56,743 are females (Census, 2002). The number of households is 24,512 and the annual population growth rate is 4.6 percent. The growth rate is high due to the rural/urban migration and high birth rates.

The economic activities of the people living within the Municipality include agriculture, commerce and formal employment. Agriculture employs 40 percent of the population while 30 percent deal with wholesale and retail trade. Twenty percent of the population work in industries and 10 percent are employees of the public and the informal sectors. The economically active population is 75,000 people. (Iringa Municipal Council profile 2006: d and e)

#### **4.4.2.3 Social and economic infrastructure**

The Municipality has 46 nursery schools, 34 primary schools, 9 secondary schools, a vocational training centre and two private universities. There are 22 dispensaries, 3 health centres, one government hospital, and 19 pharmacies. The road network is composed of 23 km of tarmac roads, 42 km of gravel roads, and 230 km of earth roads. There are also reliable posts and telecommunication facilities, four medium industries and five permanent markets (Iringa Municipal Council Profile 2006, f, g and h).

#### **4.4.3 Tanga City Council**

Tanga City Council is one of the oldest councils in Tanzania and was established during the colonial period. It covers an area of 536 sq. km, within latitude 4 and 6 South and longitudes 37 and 39.10 East. Tanga is located 360 km North of

Dar es Salaam and it is the second largest port in Tanzania (see Appendices III and V).

#### **4.4.3.1 Physical features and climate**

The Municipality is located along the coast and experiences humid climate with temperatures ranging from 25<sup>o</sup> to 32<sup>o</sup>C depending on the season. The town experiences two rainy seasons, long rains from March to May and short rains from October to December (Tanga Investment Profile, 2006:3).

#### **4.4.3.2 Population and economic activities**

Tanga has 211,965 inhabitants with a population growth rate of 1.1 percent. The explanation for this low population annual growth is the decline and almost total collapse of the sisal industry.

The economic activities in the municipal area agriculture, commerce, formal and informal employment. Agriculture is one of the important economic activities especially for the majority living in the rural part of the municipality. It is both the source of food and supplementary income for employees whose meagre incomes from salaries can hardly take them through a month. The local production within the municipality contributes 20% of the food requirements.

Tanga's economy is centred on the port which handles some 75,000 tons per year in exports (coffee, sisal and seed beans). Industry runs at an average of 22% per annum of the installed capacity, with the largest industries being the cement and detergent factories. There is active investment especially in wholesale and retail trade (Tanga Municipal Council Investment Profile, 2006:4-29).

#### **4.4.3.3 Social and economic infrastructure**

Tanga City Council has social services of all grades. There are 3 hospitals, 8 health centres and 41 dispensaries in the health sector. In the education sector there are 10 pre-primary schools, 69 primary schools, and 10 secondary schools. Tanga has good rail, port, road and airport access although these are under-utilized because the airport is very small, no trains have gone there for more than five years because people prefer buses. The port is not popular because the transporters prefer Dar es Salaam port. There are also reliable posts and telecommunication facilities (Tanga City Council Investment Profile, 2006:4-29).

#### **4.5 POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES**

This section describes the population, sample, and methodology which were used and also gives the reasons for the choice.

##### **4.5.1 Population and sample**

Krishnaswami (2002:143) defines population as the target group to be studied in a particular place while a sample is a part of the population. Population, therefore, is the total collection of elements about which one wishes to get information. Samples are used in researches rather than the whole population because of costs in terms of funds, time and materials that can be involved in surveying the whole population.

The total survey population targeted in this study was 3219, comprising of 3161 permanent public officials, 54 councillors in the two councils, Tanga and Iringa, and 4 senior officers from the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government. However, since this is a qualitative study that cannot handle such a large population, a sample of 969 was selected, which was approximately 30%

of the total survey population. This is in line with Krishnaswami (2002:144) who recommends a population sample of 30% as being representative enough of the entire population.

**Table 2: Survey population of the study**

Council	Councillors	Executive directors	Heads of departments	Other permanent public officials
Tanga	35	1	10	1869
Iringa	19	1	8	1272
Total	54	2	18	3141

Source: Tanga and Iringa Councils' Profiles, 2006

In studying the two councils it was useful to consider councillors and permanent public officials separately. The reason for using this approach was that councillors were very few (54) compared to the permanent public officials (3141). If combined, the results would not reflect a true representation. The selected permanent public officials were as shown in Table 3.

For the purpose of the consistency in the following tables all numbers are rounded off to the nearest number. eg. 4.2 becomes 4 and 4.5 becomes 5. This will result in the percentages not always adding to 100%.

**Table 3: Selected permanent public officials**

S/N	Council	Total survey population	Number of Selected persons	Percentage of the total permanent public officials
1.	Tanga	1880	564	30
2	Iringa	1281	390	30
	Total	3161	954	30

The number of selected permanent public officials was 954, which was approximately 30% of the total population. This size of the sample was large enough and representative of the population. When the sample is large enough it will provide results that reflect the population (Cochran, 1977: 81). Based on this fact, the researcher expanded the sample to cover all councillors in the two councils. This was also extended to the executive directors and heads of departments.

#### **4.5.2 Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration**

The Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration was also included in the sample. The justification for the inclusion of this ministry can be explained as follows.

As shown in the organization structure, head office, (Appendices I and II), the chain of command in local government authorities starts at the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government. (Department of Local Government Authorities). The ministry is responsible for designing and ensuring observance of effective human resource management, which includes performance and discipline in local government, hence its importance in this study.

On several occasions, the ministry has intervened in conflict between councillors and permanent public officials. It has always been the duty of the ministry through its department to resolve such conflict. In most cases, such conflict has been resolved by transferring the permanent public officials concerned to other councils (2004:1-3). It is thus appropriate to include this ministry in the sample. The Department of Local Government and Administration is headed by a director with 4 assistant directors. For the purpose of this study, the director and the three assistant directors have been included in the sample.

Thus, the size of the sample of the study was 1012, comprising of 954 permanent public officials, 54 councillors and 4 senior officers from the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government. The sample composition is shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: Sample composition**

Area	Permanent public Officials	Councillors	Senior Officials	Total
Iringa Mun. Council	390	19		409
Tanga. City Council	564	35		599
Ministry of Regional Admin. and Local Govnt.			4	4
<b>Grand total</b>				<b>1012</b>

Source: Compiled by the researcher 2006



### **4.5.3 Sampling techniques**

Krishnaswami (2002:143) defines sampling as the process of drawing a sample from a larger population. Therefore, it is a process of obtaining the number of elements about which one would wish to make inferences.

### **4.5.4 Aims of sampling**

Krishnaswami (2002:144) argues that a well selected sample reflects accurately the characteristics of the population. For him, sampling has two aims:

- To make inference about an unknown parameter from measurable sample statistics.
- To test a statistical hypothesis relating to a population.

### **4.5.5 Advantages of sampling**

According to Krishnaswami (2002:146) sampling has the following advantages:

- It reduces the time and cost of research studies because it has become possible to undertake even national or global studies at a reasonable cost and time.
- It saves labour: a small team is required both for fieldwork and for processing and analyzing the data.
- The quality of the study is often better with sampling than with a complete coverage.
- It provides much quicker results.

### **4.5.6 Disadvantages/limitations of sampling**

Sampling is however not free from limitations, the following are the main limitations of sampling:-

- It demands a thorough knowledge of sampling methods and procedures and exercise of great care, otherwise the results obtained may be incorrect or misleading.
- It may not be possible to ensure the representation of the sample, even by the most perfect sampling procedures. Therefore, it results in a certain degree of a sampling error.

**Table 5: Sampling methods/techniques**

PROBABILITY/RANDOM	NON-PROBABILITY/NON-RANDOM
(a) Simple designs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Simple random sampling</li> <li>• Stratified random sampling</li> <li>• Systematic random sampling</li> </ul>	(a) Convenience or accidental Sampling
(b) Complex designs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(i) Cluster and area sampling</li> <li>(ii) Multi-stage and sub sampling</li> <li>(iii) Probability proportional to size sampling</li> <li>(iv) Double sampling and multi-phase sampling</li> <li>(v) Replicated sampling</li> </ul>	(b) Purposive or judgmental sampling (c) Quota sampling (d) Snow-ball sampling

In order to be able to draw valid inferences from a sample in relation to its respective population the researcher used both purposive and stratified random sampling. Stratified random sampling was done first by stratifying the population into segments based on the number of permanent public officials and councillors in each council. The researcher then selected a sub-sample from each council to aggregate into the main-sample. This ensured that each member of the population had an equal chance and probability, greater than zero, of being selected in the main sample. This, however, required a sampling frame or a list

of members of the eligible population well in advance during the pilot survey visits.

In building the sampling frame, a list of permanent public officials and councillors falling under the two councils was obtained in advance. The population of the two councils is shown in Table 4.

#### **4.5.7 Purposive sampling**

This approach enabled the researcher to select cases which were intended to enable her to answer the research questions and objectives as identified by Sekaran (2003:277). This is used when a researcher needs to select cases which are particularly informative or would bring in fair representation. This was applied to this study which has an unequal composition of the survey population as demonstrated in Table 2. If one looks at the table, one will note that the number of the councillors is very small and would thus not give a true representation.

#### **4.5.8 Simple random sampling**

Simple random sampling is a way of selecting subjects in which every element in the population has an equal chance of being chosen (Sekaran, 2003:270). Therefore, the researcher selected the sample from the sampling frame using random numbers. This gave every element in the population an equal chance of being chosen.

### **4.6 RESEARCH METHODS AND INSTRUMENTS**

There was a need to test the research instruments with a few respondents to see whether the information given by the respondents was relevant to the study. A pre-test for each structured interview was conducted by administering it to a few

respondents in order to ensure that it solicits the information required by the researcher in addressing the research problem.

#### **4.6.1 Data collection methods**

According to Krishnaswami (2002:197) data are facts, figures and other relevant materials, past and present that serve as bases for the study and analysis. He further states that data may be classified into primary and secondary sources as discussed below.

##### **4.6.1.1 Primary sources**

These are original sources from which the researcher directly collects data that have not been previously collected. Primary data sources are first-hand information collected through methods such as observation, interviewing, mailing and questionnaires. Krishnaswami (2002:199) gives four advantages of primary data as follows:

- From the observation the researcher can study behaviour as it occurs.
- In participant observation, the observer can understand the emotional reactions of the observed group and get a deeper insight of their experience.
- The observer will be able to record the context which gives meaning to the observed behaviour and heard statements (Krishnaswami, 2002:207).

##### **4.6.1.2 Methods of primary data collection**

The methods of primary data collection include the following:

###### **▪ Interviewing**

This is a face-to-face conversation between the researcher and the respondent.

- **Observation**

Gathering of data relating to the selected research by viewing and/or listening.

- **Mail survey**

This is used for collecting data by getting questionnaires completed by respondents by mail.

- **Experimentation**

It involves a study of independent variables under controlled conditions. It may be conducted in a laboratory or in the field in a natural setting.

- **Simulation**

It involves creation of an artificial situation similar to the actual life situation.

- **Projective technique**

It aims at drawing inferences on characteristics of respondents by responding to stimuli. (Krishnaswami, 2002: 203).

#### **4.6.2 Secondary data**

Krishnaswami (2002:203) defines secondary data as sources which have been collected and compiled for another purpose. It consists of readily available documents and already compiled statistical statements and reports whose data may be used by researchers for their studies. Examples include census reports and annual reports.

Secondary data consists of published and unpublished records and reports (Krishnaswami, 2002:199). Advantages of secondary data are:

- This data is available, can be secured quickly and easily.

- It may cover wider geographical area and longer reference period without much cost.
- The use of secondary data broadens the data base from which scientific generalizations can be made.

In order to get data for this study, a combination of primary and secondary data was used.

#### **4.6.3 Non-participant observation**

The researcher also used non-participant observation, whereby the observer remained detached from the situation but recorded the happenings by, for example, listening to the people she observed, for example, during tea break or in corridors. In this method the researcher remained in the background (Krishnaswami, 2002:207). This method was employed in this study because the researcher was not an employee of Iringa and Tanga Councils. If the researcher was an employee of the two councils it would be possible to use participant observation, whereby she would have become completely involved in the situation being researched.

#### **4.6.4 Questionnaires**

A questionnaire is a document in which a list of questions appears for a formal social survey enquiry. There are two types of questionnaires: the open-ended questionnaires where the respondents are free to give detailed answers or opinions, and the closed-ended where the respondents are given alternatives and asked to choose the appropriate one. In the second category respondents are not free to give unwanted details.

This study used open-ended questionnaire. This methodology was appropriate because it was very wide and informative (Krishnaswami, 2002: 222). (Appendix VI-IX).

#### **4.6.5 Interviews**

An interview is a very popular method of data collection. If properly conducted, it can provide a rich source of information. Interviews can be structured or unstructured and can be used in various situations. In structured interviews, normally the interviewer has a list of questions for the interviewee, while in an unstructured interview the interview takes the form of discussions. In this case, the researcher leads the conversation by identifying a number of topics and allowing the interviewee to talk about them (Krishnaswami, 2002:222). This study used both structured and unstructured interviews. This supplemented the information given in the questionnaires.

#### **4.6.6 Consultations and informal discussions**

This is another technique of data collection. The researcher consulted the councillors, the executive directors and the heads of departments who were directly involved in the conflict. This technique was deemed useful because it enabled the researcher to get practical experience on the subject matter and clear any doubts that might have led to wrong conclusions. This method was supplemented by informal discussions in order to get the required information which was treated as confidential (Krishnaswami, 2002:223).

### **4.7 DATA ANALYSIS**

Data analysis means the computation of certain indices or measures along with searching for patterns of relationships that exist among the data groups.

Analysis, particularly in the case of survey or experimental data, involves estimating the values of unknown parameters of the population and testing hypotheses for drawing inferences (Kothari, 1990:160). According to Kothari data analysis takes place after the data have been collected. Analysis of data requires a number of closely related operations such as estimation of categories, application of these categories to raw data through coding, tabulation and then drawing statistical inferences. Collected data was condensed in a few manageable groups and tables for further analysis. Thus, the researcher classified the raw data into some purposeful and usable categories.

Tabulation was part of a technical procedure where classified data were put into tables. The analysis was based on the computation of various percentages and coefficients by applying various well-defined statistical formulae (SPSS). In the process of analysis relationships or differences supporting or conflicting with the original or new hypotheses were subjected to tests of significance to determine their validity.

#### **4.7.1 Types of data analysis**

According to Kothari (1990-160), analysis may be categorised into descriptive analysis and inferential (statistical) analysis. Descriptive analysis is largely the study of distributions of one variable. This study provides profiles of institutions, work groups, persons and other subjects on any of a multitude of characteristics such as size, composition, efficiency and preferences. This sort of analysis may be in respect of one variable (described as one-dimensional analysis), or in respect of two variables or more than two variables (described as multivariate analysis).



Inferential analysis is concerned with the various tests of significance for testing hypotheses in order to determine with what validity data can be said to indicate some conclusion. It is also concerned with the estimation of population values. It is mainly on the basis of inferential analysis that the task of interpretation (i.e., the task of drawing inferences and conclusions) is performed (Kothari, 1990:160). In this study, therefore, both descriptive and inferential data analyses were used. The data was coded and tabulated, and percentages calculated in order to facilitate the interpretation and the drawing of the conclusions.

#### **4.8 SUMMARY**

This chapter presented the methodology used in the study. It described the research design, the research area, the population sample and sampling techniques, and the data collection and analysis methods.

The research design was a case study and the research area comprised two councils. A profile of the study area captured a range of variables assumed to have an impact on the health and stability of the councils. These included the councils' population and population growth rates, physical and climatic conditions, economic activities and social and economic infrastructure.

A stratified sample selected both purposively and by simple random techniques was used. It was made up by permanent public officials and councillors in the two councils and senior officers from the Ministry of Local Government and Regional Administration. The permanent public officials made up the largest segment of the sample, constituting 30% of the population. The data were collected using questionnaires, interviews and observation methods. They were analyzed descriptively and inferentially. The results and the findings are presented in Chapter Five.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **5.0 FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the findings, analysis and discussion of the findings that were obtained through questionnaires, interviews, observation, consultations and informal discussions. The aim was to understand the conflict management capacity of LGAs in Tanzania. The findings are based on the objectives of the study outlined in chapter one.

The chapter starts by presenting the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the sample population, focusing on age, sex, and educational background. The aim is to reveal the type of population that is affected by conflict in the local government authorities in Tanzania. Other sections in this chapter include: the existence and types of conflict, the causes of conflict within the Tanzanian LGAs; effects of conflict, the mechanisms available for conflict resolution in Tanzanian LGAs; constraints to conflict resolution and suggested measures for improving conflict resolution skills in LGAs in Tanzania.

#### **5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS**

The total number of respondents who were involved in this study was 1012, comprised of 954 (95 %) permanent public officials, 54 (5%) councillors and 4 (1%) senior officials from the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government. Their distribution is illustrated in Table 6.

**Table 6: Distribution of the respondents**

Area	Permanent Public Officials		Councillors		Senior Officials		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Iringa Municipal Council	390	39	19	2			409	40
Tanga City Council	564	56	35	3			599	59
Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government					4	1	4	1
<b>Sub total</b>	<b>954</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1012</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Grand total</b>							<b>1012</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

### 5.2.1 Categories of respondents by age and sex

Demographers and other social scientists have special interest in the age structure of a population, not only because it is a fundamental measure of population growth, but also as an instrument that helps to understand the relationship within the community and the way various activities are undertaken. While the age structure has enormous implication on the management of various resources and administrative functions, sex has influence on the prioritisation of the various services and participation in various activities in society. As such, age

and sex were taken into consideration during this and the respondents who were included in this study were both grown-up and mature. The age-sex categorisation of the respondents was as shown in Table 7.

**Table 7: Categories of respondents by age and sex**

Age	IRINGA				TANGA				MINISTRY		TOTAL	
	PPOs		Councilors		PPOs		Councilors		Officials		N	%
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
<25	36	23	0	0	24	17	0	0	0	0	100	10
25-30	37	60	0	0	63	91	0	0	0	0	251	25
31-36	53	73	2	0	117	94	1	3	0	1	344	34
37-42	29	24	5	0	49	58	4	2	0	0	171	17
43-48	7	4	3	3	1	2	7	1	2	0	30	3
49-54	11	7	1	2	0	0	13	1	0	1	36	4
55-60	2	1	3	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	10	1
61-66	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
67+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0
Total	176	192	14	5	255	262	28	7	2	2	943	93
No resp	5	17	0	0	19	28	0	0	0	0	69	7
Total	181	209	14	5	274	290	28	7	2	2	1012	100

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 7 indicates that most of the respondents were aged between 25 and 42, that is 86%. This is the most active group in the socio-economic development within a country. There was no respondent who was above 66 years of age. Only 69 (7%) respondents did not answer the question in the questionnaire.

Regarding sex, the table shows that in the category of PPOs, the female respondents were more than the male respondents. This is because most of them came from the teaching profession in which females are more than males. For example, in Iringa, female respondents were 192 while male respondents were 176. In Tanga, female respondents were 262 while male respondents were 255. On the contrary, in the category of councillors there were only five (5)

female respondents in Iringa while male councillors were fourteen (14). In Tanga, female respondents were seven (7) while male respondents were twenty eight (28). This shows that females are fewer than males in the two government authorities and hence a prevalence of male dominance in decision-making.

### **5.2.2 Educational background of the respondents**

The researcher asked the level of formal education of the respondents because of the assumption that knowledge is fundamental in understanding the sources and nature of problems as well as devising mechanisms of solving them. Knowledge is also crucial in the management of resources and conflict.

In this study, the term education was used to refer to formal education, which is provided in school under a well organized curriculum; as opposed to informal education which does not entail a systematically organized syllabus. The respondents were grouped into five categories of educational levels, that is, primary, ordinary secondary, advanced secondary, diploma, advanced diploma and degree education. Table 8 illustrates the distribution of educational levels of the respondents.

**Table 8: Educational background of the respondents**

Educational Level	Iringa				Tanga				Ministry Officials		Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		PPOs		Councilors		M	F	N	%
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F				
Primary Education	9	20	1	-	27	38	-	-	-	-	95	9
Ordinary Secondary Education	30	43	4	-	96	111	13	-	-	-	297	29
Advanced Secondary Education	27	45	2	2	65	53	10	3	-	-	207	21
Diploma	56	67	3	3	39	52	2	2	-	-	224	22
Advanced Diploma	15	8	1	-	16	26	1	2	-	-	69	7
Degree	44	26	3		31	10	2		2	2	120	12
<b>Total</b>	<b>181</b>	<b>209</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>274</b>	<b>290</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1012</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Referring to Table 8, it can be deduced that most of the respondents, that is 29%, had received ordinary secondary education followed by diploma holders (22%) and then advanced secondary education (21%). On the other hand, very few respondents had an advanced diploma (7%) and primary education (9%). The degree holders constituted 12%.

### 5.2.3 Categories of respondents by occupation/economic activities

The researcher asked the respondents to state their occupations/economic activities. This was relevant in that it was geared towards ascertaining the way resources are utilized both in Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council, as well as in the ministry. Table 9 indicates the distribution of occupations/economic activities as identified by the respondents.

**Table 9: Occupations/ economic activities of the respondents**

Occupation/Econ. activities	Iringa				Tanga				Ministry		Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		PPOs		Councilors		Officials			
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	N	%
Street Executive Officers	11	7	-	-	33	6	-	-	-	-	57	6
Administrators	22	12	14	5	34	15	28	7	2	2	141	14
Teachers	127	179	-	-	149	233	-	-	-	-	688	68
Agricultural Officers	8	-	-	-	21	5	-	-	-	-	34	3
Ward Executive Officers	7	2	-	-	20	9	-	-	-	-	38	4
Health Officers	6	9	-	-	17	22	-	-	-	-	54	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>181</b>	<b>209</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>274</b>	<b>290</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1012</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 9 depicts that teachers constituted the largest number of respondents, that is 688(68%) of the 1012 respondents. Administrators were 141 (14%), street executive officers were 57 (6%), health officers were 54 (5%), ward executive officers were 38 (4) and agricultural officers were 34 (3%).

### **5.3 EXISTENCE AND TYPES OF CONFLICT IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS**

Conflict exists in both institutions and in society at large and it can be of different types as identified in the literature review. They include: goal conflict, cognitive conflict, affective conflict, procedural conflict, scarce resource conflict, authority conflict, and interdependence conflict.

#### **5.3.1 Existence of conflict in city and municipal councils**

During the survey, the researcher was interested in exploring the existence of conflict in city and municipal councils both in Tanga and Iringa. Regarding the

existence of conflict the researcher asked the respondents to state whether they had witnessed any conflict between permanent public officials and councillors. The responses were as shown in Table 10

**Table 10: Existence of conflict in city and municipal councils**

Category	AREA																	
	IRINGA						TANGA						Ministry					
	Yes		No		No resp.		Yes		No		No resp.		Yes		No		No resp.	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
P.P.Os	204	52	146	37	40	10	398	71	115	20	51	9	-	-	-	-	-	-
Councillors	11	58	6	32	2	11	34	97	1	3	0	0	-	-	-	-	-	-
S/ Officials													4	100	0	0	0	0
Total	215	53	152	37	42	10	432	72	116	19	51	9	4	100	0	0	0	0

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 10 indicates that conflict exists in city and municipal councils in Iringa and Tanga. From the table the responses were as follows: In Iringa 215 (53%) respondents said 'yes', 152 (37%) respondents said 'no', while 42 (10%) respondents did not respond to the question. In Tanga 432 (72%) respondents said 'yes', 116 (19%) respondents said 'no', while 51(9%) respondents never responded to the question. Lastly, all 4 (100%) senior officials from the Ministry said 'yes'.

### 5.3.2 Discussion

The findings shown in Table 10 provide evidence that conflict exists in Iringa and Tanga. When the responses from Iringa, Tanga, and the Ministry were combined, it was found that 651 respondents (64%) out of 1012 respondents agreed that conflict existed in their respective councils. Those who said 'no' were 268 (26%) while those who never responded to the question in the questionnaire were 93 (9%). The fact is that the respondents who agreed that



conflict existed are more than those who did not agree. From the above observation one can conclude that conflict does exist in the two local government authorities in Tanzania, that is Iringa and Tanga. These results concur with observations by Robbins, Bergmann, Stagg and Coulter (2003:421) who asserted that conflict in organizations is inevitable. Confirmation of the presence of conflict in the councils that were visited provided a basis for the researcher to continue carrying out the study as scheduled.

#### 5.4 TYPES OF CONFLICT IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS

After verifying the existence of conflict, the researcher asked the respondents to mention the types of conflict that existed in their councils. A respondent was free to mention as many types of conflict as possible. After analyzing the responses three types of conflict were identified as indicated in Table 11.

**Table 11: Types of conflict**

Type of Conflict	Iringa						Tanga						Ministry		Grand Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		Total		PPOs		Councilors		Total		S/Officials			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
Scarce resource conflict	381	98	15	79	396	97	556	99	29	83	585	98	4	100	985	97
Affective conflict	157	40	9	47	166	41	235	42	13	37	248	41	3	75	417	41
Authority conflict	275	71	5	26	280	68	492	87	12	34	504	84	4	100	788	78

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 11 indicates the types of conflict that occur in the two local government authorities where the research was conducted in Tanzania as mentioned by the respondents. It was learnt that resource conflict ranked first with the frequency of 97% of the 1012 respondents. Authority conflict ranked second with the

frequency of 78% while the affective conflict ranked third with the frequency of 41% of all the 1012 respondents.

#### **5.4.1 Discussion**

The literature that was reviewed indicates that conflict is of varied nature, as contended by Darling & Fogliasso, (1999: 384-5). This contention is supported by the findings that are illustrated in Table 11. However, while the literature provides many types of conflict in organizations and society, the respondents identified only three types with the resource conflict being mentioned most often, that is 985 respondents (97%); followed by authority conflict, mentioned by 788 respondents (78%); and then affective conflict, mentioned by 417 respondents (41%). However, even if the mentioned types of conflict are just three, there might exist more than those identified. This is due to the fact that when discussing the causes of conflict with the respondents, their responses implied that there were more than the three types of conflict.

It was evident that goal conflict also existed. This was revealed through responses on the causes of conflict as illustrated in Section 5.4. For instance, negative attitudes and lack of transparency and openness which were mentioned as some of the causes of conflict, imply that affective conflict and goal conflict exist respectively. These results are similar to observations made by Galabawa (2000:72-73) and Babyegeya (2002:219-221). While Galabawa asserts that goal conflict and affective conflict exist; Babyegeya identifies that scarce resource and authority types of conflict exist. The next section discusses the causes of conflict in the councils visited.

## 5.5 CAUSES OF CONFLICT IN THE CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS

Apart from verifying the existence and types of conflict in local government authorities in Tanzania, by using the Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council, the researcher also wanted to know the causes of conflict. The researcher asked the respondents to, first, state whether they were aware of the causes of conflict and then asked them to identify the causes of conflict in their respective councils. The respondents who were asked include: permanent public officials and the councillors. Here, the respondents were required to say `yes` or `no`. Their responses were as shown in Table 12.

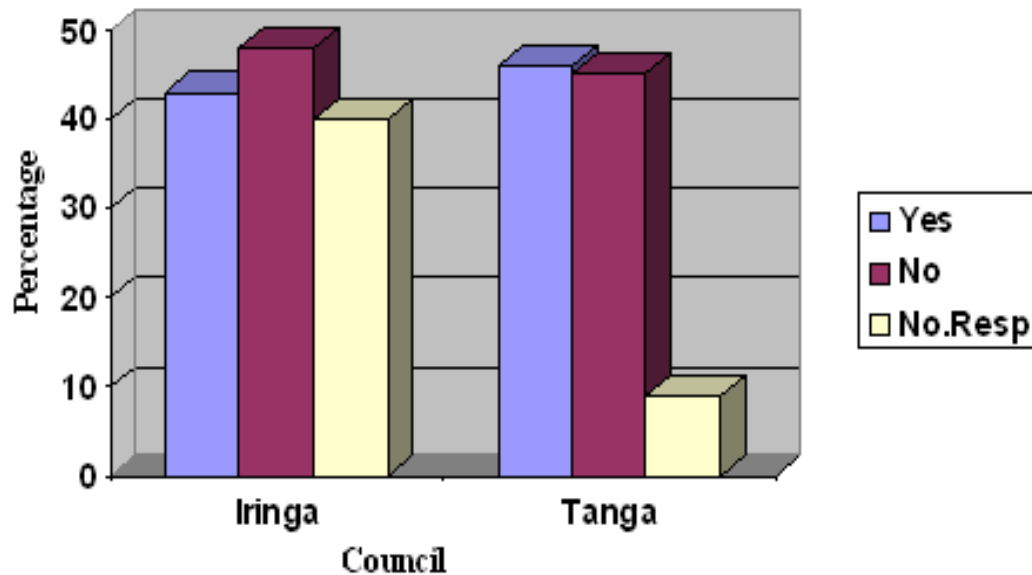
**Table 12: Respondents' awareness of causes of conflict**

CATEGORY	COUNCIL											
	IRINGA						TANGA					
	Yes		No		No.resp		Yes		No		No.resp	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
Perm.Pub.Offs	165	42	185	47	40	10	245	43	268	48	51	9
Councillors	11	58	8	42	0	0	31	89	1	3	3	9
Total	176	43	193	47	40	10	276	46	269	45	54	9

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 12 shows that in both councils the level of awareness was low since the percentage of those who asserted that they knew the causes of conflict was below 50%. Furthermore, there was no great difference between those who said 'yes' and those who said 'no' in both councils. In Iringa 176 (43%) said 'yes', while 193 (47%) said 'no'. However, 40 (10%) respondents did not respond to the question in the questionnaires provided. In Tanga 276 (46%) said 'yes', while 269 (45%) said `no`. Respondents who did not respond to the question

were 54 (9%). The distribution of responses from the respondents is presented more clearly in Figure 5 by percentage.



**Figure 5 Causes of conflict in city and municipal councils**

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

The researcher was also interested to know the causes of conflict in the city and municipal councils investigated. The list of items that were assumed by the researcher to be the causes of conflict in city and municipal councils was provided. The respondents were asked to tick against the items that were applicable in their respective councils as illustrated in Table 13.

**Table 13: List of items earmarked as causes of conflict**

Item	Iringa						Tanga					
	PPOs		Councilors		Total		PPOs		Councilors		Total	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
Inadequacy of funds	390	100	19	100	409	100	503	89	33	94	536	89
Low level of education	254	65	5	26	259	63	499	88	25	71	524	87
Poor organization structure	157	40	0	0	157	38	432	77	5	14	437	73
Inadequate conflict management capacity	59	15	2	11	61	15	501	89	11	31	512	85
Poor information sharing and dissemination	279	72	4	19	283	69	456	81	31	89	487	81
Negative attitudes	126	32	15	79	141	34	450	80	26	74	476	79
Lack of transparency and openness	304	78	7	37	311	76	557	99	13	37	570	95
Lack of accountability	317	81	11	58	328	80	513	91	21	60	534	89

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 13 illustrates that the listed items on the extreme left were all indicated by the respondents to be the causes of conflict in their respective councils. However, the councillors in Iringa did not indicate poor organization structure to be one of the causes of conflict in their council. Moreover, respondent's perspectives regarding the degree of each factor's contribution to the occurrence of conflict varied between the two councils. For example, while inadequacy of funds ranked the highest in Iringa, that is, 100% in terms of frequency of responses, in Tanga inadequacy of funds ranked second, that is 89%; lack of transparency and openness ranked the highest, that is, 95%.

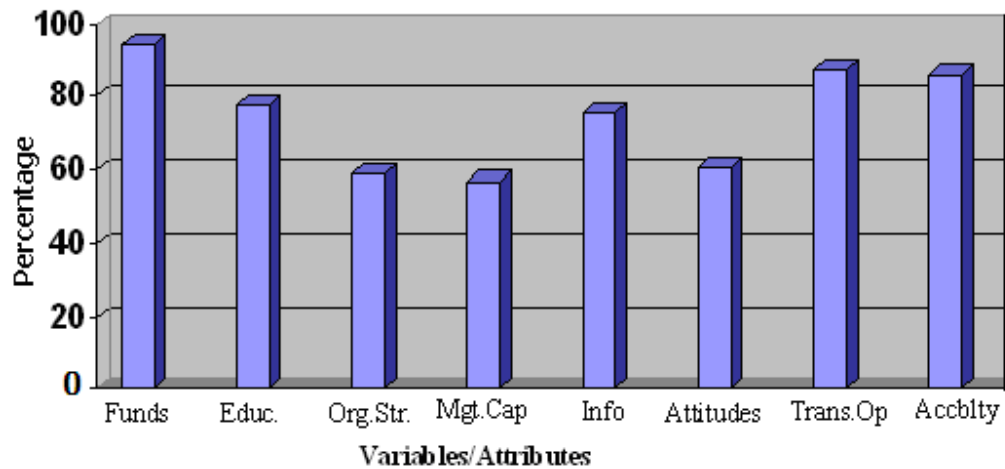
Nonetheless, when the responses from both councils were combined the result was as depicted in Table 14. Where there is zero (0) it means that the respondents did not agree.

**Table 14: Cumulative totals of responses for each item for both Iringa and Tanga**

Item	Iringa		Tanga		Total	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
<b>Inadequacy of funds</b>	<b>409</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>536</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>945</b>	<b>94</b>
<b>Low level of education</b>	<b>259</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>524</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>783</b>	<b>78</b>
<b>Poor organization structure</b>	<b>157</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>437</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>594</b>	<b>59</b>
<b>Inadequate conflict management capacity</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>512</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>573</b>	<b>57</b>
<b>Poor information sharing and dissemination</b>	<b>283</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>487</b>	<b>81</b>	<b>770</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>Negative attitudes</b>	<b>141</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>476</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>617</b>	<b>61</b>
<b>Lack of transparency and openness</b>	<b>311</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>570</b>	<b>95</b>	<b>881</b>	<b>87</b>
<b>Lack of accountability</b>	<b>328</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>534</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>862</b>	<b>86</b>

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

When one looks at Table 14, one can note that the responses for both Iringa and Tanga were combined to produce cumulative totals for each item on the extreme left, inadequacy of funds ranked the highest, that is 945 responses, which is 94% of the 1008 respondents. Lack of transparency and openness ranked the second with 881 cumulative responses; which is 87% of the 1008 respondents. Inadequate conflict management capacity ranked last with 573 responses; which is 57% of the 1008 respondents. Figure 6 illustrates more clearly this distribution of responses.



**Figure 6: Cumulative responses from Iringa and Tanga**

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Figure 6 shows that the column indicating inadequacy of funds is the tallest while the one indicating poor management capacity is the shortest.

Apart from providing the list of items against which the respondents were asked to tick in case they were relevant to their respective councils, the researcher asked them to mention other causes of conflict beside those which were listed in the questionnaire. The respondents gave almost similar responses since they seemed to have undergone almost similar experiences in their respective councils, that is, Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council. On the basis of their similarities, the responses were grouped into ten categories as portrayed in Table 15.

**Table 15: Other causes of conflict in Iringa and Tanga**

Causes Identified	Iringa						Tanga					
	PPOS		Councilors		Total		PPOS		Councilors		Total	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
Poor working environment	390	100	12	63	402	98	433	77	32	91	465	78
Delay in salaries	367	94	9	47	376	92	517	92	30	86	547	91
Lack of trust	157	40	5	26	162	40	256	45	23	66	279	47
Misuse of funds	352	90	16	84	368	90	489	87	31	89	520	87
Interference in duties/responsibilities	301	77	7	37	308	75	503	89	27	77	530	88
Delay in promotions	319	82	5	26	324	79	513	91	12	34	525	88
Favouratism in duty performance and promotions	278	71	11	58	289	71	88	16	5	14	93	16
Humiliation/oppression/despise	79	20	0	0	79	19	156	28	9	26	165	28
Nonpayment of allowances	245	63	6	32	251	61	411	73	16	46	427	71
Inefficient delivery of services	98	25	17	89	115	28	209	37	4	11	213	36

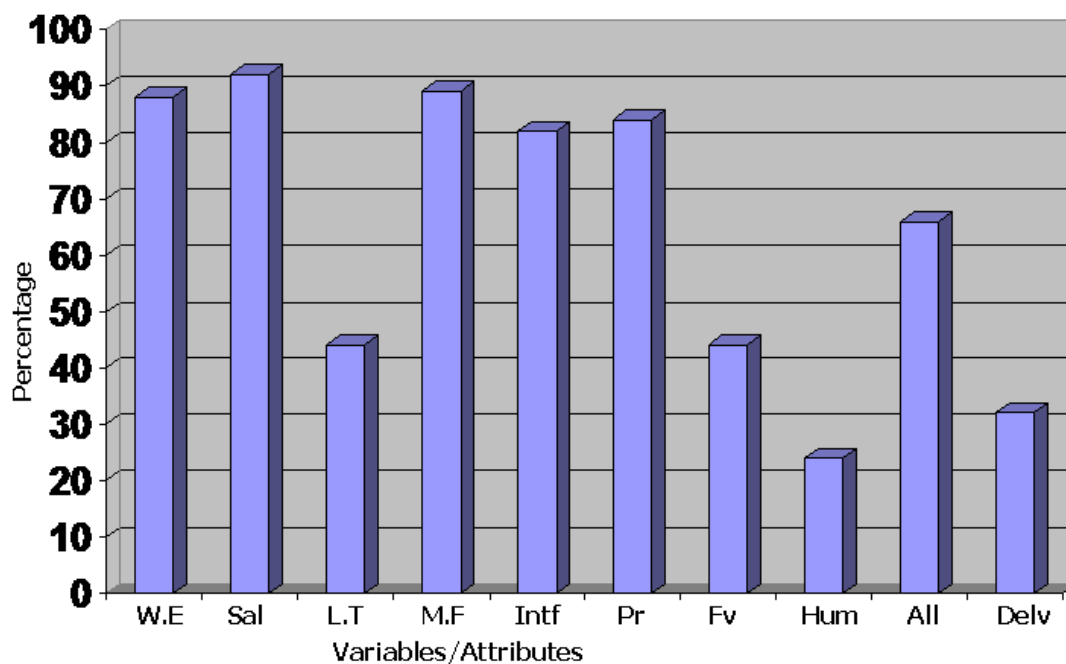
Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 15 shows that respondents in Iringa indicated that poor working environment was the most itching problem. It was identified by 98% out of 409 respondents, followed by delay in salaries (92%) and misuse of funds (90%).

The responses in Tanga indicate that delay in salaries ranked the highest, that is 91% out of 599 respondents, followed by interferences in duties/responsibilities and delay in promotions (88%); "misuse of funds" at 87% third and "poor working environment" at 78% fourth.

When the responses from both Iringa and Tanga in Table 15 are combined, as illustrated in Figure 7, delay in salaries ranked the highest, that is 92% out of 1008 respondents, followed by misuse of funds (88%). Humiliation/oppression/contempt ranked the lowest, that is, 24%. (see figure 7).





**Figure 7: Other causes of conflict**

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

### Key

All	=	Nonpayment of allowances (67%)
Delv	=	Inefficient delivery of services (33%)
Fv	=	Favouritism in duty performance and promotions (38%)
Hum	=	Humiliation/oppression/contempt (24%)
Intf	=	Interference in duties/responsibilities (83%)
L.T	=	Lack of trust (44%)
M.F	=	Misuse of funds (88%)
Pr	=	Delay in promotions (84%)
Sal	=	Delay in salaries (92%)
W.E	=	Poor working environment (86%)

Figure 7 portrays the combined responses for both Iringa and Tanga in as far as other causes of conflict are concerned. Delay in salaries, misuse of funds, poor working environment, delay in promotions, and interference in duties/responsibilities were mentioned very highly with the frequencies of 92%, 88%, 86%, 84% and 83% respectively.

### **5.5.1 Discussion**

The results in this section addressed objective number two and hypothesis number one of this study. The second objective of the study was to identify the causes of conflict within Tanzanian local government authorities (LGAs), while hypothesis number one stated that inadequate conflict management capacity leads to existence of conflict between councillors and permanent public officials.

To address the second objective and the first hypothesis of the study, the researcher established a list of causes against which the respondents were asked to tick, in case they were pertinent to their respective councils. The listed causes were inadequacy of funds, low level of education, poor organization structure, inadequate conflict management capacity, poor information sharing and dissemination, negative attitudes, lack of transparency and openness and lack of accountability. (the respondents managed to tick against them all though in different frequencies such that inadequacy of funds ranked the highest (94%), followed by lack of transparency and openness (87%), then lack of accountability (86%) and low level of education (78%). Furthermore, other causes in their respective councils, responses included: poor information sharing and dissemination (76%), negative attitudes (61%); and lastly but not least, inadequate conflict management capacity (57%).

As regards inadequacy of funds the argument is that, when financial resources are limited conflict tends to prevail leading to disharmonious relationships in the local government authorities. Furthermore, inadequate financial resources undermine councils' capacity to manage internal conflict, particularly the councillors-permanent public officials' tensions. In fact, the inability of councils to provide councillors with adequate financial rewards has continued to be one of the main causes of councillors-permanent public officials' conflict in local governments in Tanzania. Councillors have often complained of the failure of the

government and councils to fairly compensate them for their people's representative work which they consider as important and too demanding on their energies and resources including time. Also, the councillors usually allege that the permanent public officials squander the little funds available leading to failure in implementing development projects in the councils.

Kunkuta (2003:11) also observed that councils have been facing shortage of funds such that the councils have even failed to invest in ward's development projects leading to high tension between permanent public officials and councillors. Kunkuta (2003: 12) further contends that "Inability of the Council to satisfy project requirements in the wards due to lack of adequate funds frustrate councillors because this situation undermines their future election prospects".

Likewise, interview with one of the councillors in Iringa showed that funds available in the council were not enough. The councillor said,

*We had planned to invest in development projects in our ward but inadequacy of funds had hindered us from making any progress. This threatens my position in this ward because people will not understand me when I tell them that there have not been enough funds or no funds.*

In fact, this interview gave the researcher a picture that councillors and permanent public officials keep on fighting for meagre financial resources with the councillors blaming the permanent public officials of mismanagement of funds. Therefore, if the councils' financial capacity does not improve so will be their ability to manage the seemingly unending fighting between councillors and permanent public officials over resources sharing.

This result is supported by Babyegeya (2002:220) who argues that inadequate financial resources are one of the main causes of conflict. Babyegeya states that the scarcer the supply of resources relative to the amount needed by rival parties

and the more important the resources are to them, the greater the likelihood of a conflict developing and for its intensity to increase.

Regarding lack of transparency and openness which were mentioned with a frequency of 87%, it shows that the local government leaders were not adhering to the principles of good governance. Apart from lack of transparency and openness, the results also show that there was lack of accountability, which was mentioned with a frequency of 86%. These are problems that are supposed to be addressed in order to make sure that conflict in local government authorities does not reach unmanageable levels. (see table 14).

Furthermore, it was observed that councillors' perceived lack of transparency and the inadequacy of accountability of the permanent public officials was one of the major causes of unending friction between them. The permanent public officials also often accused the councillors of their failure to respect the hierarchical order when demanding accountability. In this regard, some councillors have tended to deal with individual officials instead of engaging them through the council chief executive officer. One of the permanent public officials lamented:

*You know these councillors do not respect us just because they are our employers and hence they sometimes decide to do some of the duties the way they want and sometimes keep on arrogantly skipping the hierarchical steps when pursuing some of the issues that pertain to their respective places. It happens that when they make requests for funds, they want such requests to be effected immediately, while in fact financial matters involve a lot of things to do before issuing the funds to the needy persons. One does not expect a trained person like me to do things unprofessionally and land into problems of financial mismanagement. But, the councillors take us to be lacking accountability when they find that they don't get what they request at the time they wish, even if it requires some procedures to follow.*

These results are in line with what was observed by Burford & Bedeian (1988:185) who associate prevalence of conflict with jurisdictional ambiguity that entails poor job design and unclear reporting relationships.

Low level of education was a concern that was raised more by the permanent public officials whose responses constituted 65% out of 390 permanent public officials in Iringa and 88% out of 564 permanent public officials in Tanga. Councillors' responses as regards their perception about low education, in Iringa only 5 (26%) out of 19 councillors agreed that low education was a contributing factor in the occurrence of conflict between permanent public officials and the councillors; while in Tanga the councillors who indicated low level of education to be the contributing factor in the occurrence of conflict were 25 (71%) out of 35 councillors. (see table 13).

Regarding low education as the contributing factor in the occurrence of conflict, the permanent public officials were much concerned with the low education level of most of the councillors. One permanent public official said:

*Councillors' low educational background is a big problem in our council. They normally fail to interpret government circulars and hence fail to implement effectively what the government requires to be done. We have one councillor who is a form four leaver and he normally works with me. I am a graduate holding a Bachelor of Public Administration. Because of the education gap between us, we always end up at loggerheads just because of different levels of understanding between us. These councillors even fail to set good development priorities.*

Nonetheless, the councillors did not count their low level of education as a contributing factor in the occurrence of conflict. One of the councillors in Iringa said:

*I have been a councillor for seventeen years and I am so conversant with all problems that face my people. Knowing the problems that face people*

*does not need a degree, since people's needs are common. Who does not know that people need good medical services, good roads, clean and safe water, and effective security?*

All in all, the researcher observed that low education levels among the councillors were also a big problem that led to prevalence of conflict. There existed big education gaps that made councillors and permanent public officials keep on quarrelling over simple issues that the councillors did not understand easily.

Poor information sharing and dissemination was also indicated to be one of the factors that led to occurrence of conflict in the councils. This was indicated by 770 (76%) out of 1008 respondents from both Iringa and Tanga. Very often the councillors accused the permanent public officials for failing to provide them with the needed information, for instance finances available in the council and expenditures. In some instances, information provided to councillors is bulky, technical and not user friendly. This is the same as was observed by Njunwa and Kunkuta (2005:13-14) whose study revealed that many permanent public officials in local government in Tanzanian councils, lacked the culture of information sharing [vertically and horizontally], which added to misunderstanding and conflict. In addition to lack of an information sharing culture this study also found weak council information systems, including ineffective registries as accomplices to poor information sharing and dissemination in local government authorities. (see table 13).

Negative attitudes were identified to be another factor leading to conflict in the councils, with a frequency of 61% of the 1008 respondents. The respondents commented that the capacity of councils to manage permanent public officials-councillors conflict is also compromised by a persistence of negative attitudes between these two groups. The researcher observed that it was common for the permanent public officials and councillors to despise each other, showing that

they never trusted each other. The councillors on the one hand could pose as people with massive political power over the permanent public officials while the permanent public officials, on the other hand, were regarding the councillors as people who could not make sound decisions and hence unhelpful.

These findings are similar to those in the study by Kunkuta (2003:10) that revealed that, conflict prevailed because most councillors in Tanzania considered permanent public officials as stubborn, dishonest, corrupt, and disrespectful, while most permanent public officials regarded councillors as illiterates who hardly understood what it would take to achieve local development. Furthermore, the permanent public officials regarded councillors as selfish and an obstacle because they allegedly unduly interfered with the day to day professional operations of the permanent public officials in the council. Kunkuta adds that because of deep mistrust between these two sides, council meetings scheduled for a few hours in a day had often been extended to two or more days due to the difficulty of attaining consensus. The permanent public officials had always accused councillors of preferring to extend the meetings in order to grab more sitting allowances. As concluded by SIDA (2003:17-18), negative attitude between these two groups is a perennial problem in many local government authorities in Tanzania.

The factors explained above together with a poor working environment; delay in salaries; lack of trust; misuse of funds; interference in duties due to poor organizational structure; favouritism; humiliation and inefficient services delivery contribute in the occurrence of conflict in local government authorities in Tanzania.

## **5.6 EFFECTS OF CONFLICT IN THE CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS**

The researcher was also interested in exploring the effects of conflict in both Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council. The researcher asked the

respondents to, first state whether they were aware of the effects of conflict, then to identify the effects of conflict in their respective councils. Their responses were as shown in Table 16. However the respondents were required to say yes or no.

**Table 16: Awareness of the effects of conflict**

CATEGORY	AREA																	
	IRINGA						TANGA						MINISTRY					
	Yes		No		No.resp		Yes		No		No.resp		Yes		No		No.resp	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
PPOs	254	65	106	27	30	8	502	89	22	4	40	7	-	-	-	-	-	-
Councilors	19	100	0	0	0	0	33	94	0	0	2	6	-	-	-	-	-	-
S/Officials	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	100	-	-	-	-
Total	273	67	106	26	30	7	535	89	22	4	42	7	4	100	-	-	-	-

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 16 shows that out of 409 respondents in Iringa Municipal Council 273 (67%) said 'yes', 106 (26%) said 'no', and 30 (7%) never responded to the question in the questionnaire. In Tanga City Council, out of 599 respondents, 535 (89%) said 'yes', 22 (4%) said 'no', while 42 (7%) never responded to the question. All four respondents (100%) from the ministry asserted that they were aware of the effects of conflict in local government authorities.

Furthermore, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they knew that conflict can have either positive or negative effects or both. Some of respondents said conflict has negative effects only; others said that it has both positive and negative effects. No one said that it has positive effects only. Their responses were as portrayed in Table 17.



**Table 17: Respondents' perceptions of effects of conflict**

CATEGORY	AREA																	
	IRINGA						TANGA						MINISTRY					
	Positive Only		Negative Only		Both +ve & -ve		Positive Only		Negative Only		Both +ve & -ve		Positive Only		Negative Only		Both +ve & -ve	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
PPOs	0	0	356	91	34	9	0	0	523	93	41	7	-	-	-	-	-	-
Councillors	0	0	17	89	2	11	0	0	26	74	9	26	-	-	-	-	-	-
S/Officials	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	0	4	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>373</b>	<b>91</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>549</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 17 shows that the respondents who perceived conflict as a negative aspect in the councils were more than those who said it has both positive and negative effects. For example, the respondents in Iringa who said that it has negative effects only were 373 (91%) while those who said that conflict has both positive and negative effects were 36 (9%). In Tanga City Council, 549 (92%) respondents said it has negative effects only while fifty (8%) respondents said it has both positive and negative effects. However, all four (100%) respondents in the Ministry said that the conflict has both negative and positive effects.

Apart from exploring the respondents' awareness of whether the effects of conflict in local government authorities were either positive only or negative only or both positive and negative, the researcher also asked the respondents to mention the effects of conflict. First, they were asked to tick against the effects that were already provided in the questionnaire. Then they were asked to mention other effects apart from those which were already provided in the questionnaire.

Regarding the question that required the respondents to tick against the items in the list provided the responses were as illustrated in Table 18.

**Table 18: Negative effects of conflict**

Negative Effects	Iringa						Tanga						Ministry		Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		Total		PPOs		Councilors		Total		S/Officials			
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
Inefficient delivery of services	270	69	13	68	283	69	467	83	31	89	498	83	4	100	785	78
Misuse of funds	375	96	19	100	394	96	511	91	27	77	538	90	4	100	936	92
Persistence of poverty	103	26	5	26	108	26	299	53	15	43	314	54	4	100	426	42
Poor quality of services	390	100	7	37	397	97	544	96	14	40	558	93	4	100	959	95

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 18 depicts that poor quality of services ranks highest, that is 95%, followed by misuse of funds (92%); then inefficient delivery of services (78%) and lastly, persistence of poverty (42%).

The researcher also asked the respondents to mention negative and positive effects of conflict, apart from those which were already provided in the questionnaire. The responses are as indicated in Table 19.

**Table 19: Other negative effects of conflict**

Negative Effects	Iringa						Tanga						Ministry		Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		Total		PPOs		Councilors		Total		S/Officials		NO	%
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Occurrence of violence	271	69	14	74	285	70	501	89	30	86	531	89	1	25	817	81
Disunity or divisiveness	308	79	19	100	327	80	255	45	35	100	290	48	3	75	620	61
Retardation in development	99	25	19	100	118	29	523	93	34	97	557	93	4	100	679	67
Poor revenue collection	215	55	15	79	230	56	499	88	32	91	531	89	3	75	764	75
Mistrust	307	79	17	89	324	79	521	92	29	83	550	92	4	100	878	87
Poor planning	102	26	9	47	111	27	298	53	19	54	317	53	2	50	430	42
Strikes	301	77	16	84	317	78	515	91	25	71	540	90	4	100	861	85
Decline of projects	72	18	7	37	79	19	476	84	7	20	483	81	4	100	566	56
Poor attendance	208	53	3	16	211	52	98	17	5	14	103	17	4	100	318	31
Lack of participatory decision-making	301	77	2	11	303	74	403	71	11	31	414	69	3	75	720	71
Dissatisfaction/disappointment	115	29	0	0	115	28	304	54	2	6	306	51	2	50	423	42
Increase of tension between or within groups	307	79	10	53	317	78	52	9	23	66	75	13	0	0	392	39
Disruption of teamwork spirit	103	26	3	16	106	26	200	35	31	89	231	39	4	100	341	34

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 19 indicates that mistrust ranked highest (87%) while poor attendance ranked lowest (31%).

Apart from mentioning negative effects, the respondents also mentioned the positive effects. The responses were as illustrated in Table 20.

**Table 20: Positive effects of conflict**

Positive Effects	Iringa						Tanga						Ministry		Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		Total		PPOs		Councilors		Total		S/Officials		NO	%
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Improves problem identification	22	6	1	5	23	6	36	6	7	20	43	7	2	50	68	7
Helps to improve decision-making	20	5	1	5	21	5	24	4	5	14	29	5	4	100	54	5
Improves services delivery	32	8	2	11	34	8	19	3	8	23	27	5	4	100	65	6
It helps the groups to gain recognition	9	2	0	0	9	2	3	1	4	11	7	1	3	75	19	2
Improves promotion of individuals	31	8	1	5	32	8	22	4	7	20	29	5	2	50	63	6
Leads to constructive problem solving	29	7	2	11	31	8	29	5	5	14	34	6	3	75	68	7
Improvement in salaries	34	9	2	11	36	9	41	7	9	26	50	8	4	100	90	9

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 20 portrays that very few people mentioned positive effects of conflict. Improvement in salaries was mentioned most frequently (9%), followed by constructive problem solving and improvement in problem identification, that is 7% each. Gaining of group recognition ranked last, that is 2%.

### 5.6.1 Discussion

The results in this section addressed objective number three and hypothesis number two of this study. The third objective of the study was to identify the positive and negative effects of conflict within Tanzanian local government authorities (LGAs), while hypothesis number two stated that the conflicting relationship between councillors and permanent public officials led to poor performance of LGAs in public service delivery resulting in inefficient delivery of social services, misuse of funds, and persistence of poverty.

First, the researcher wanted to know whether the respondents were aware of the effects of conflict or not and then the researcher asked them to state whether conflict had negative effects only or if there were positive effects also. Lastly, the researcher asked the respondents to identify the effects of conflict by asking them to list the negative effects and positive effects.

Regarding respondents' awareness, the researcher found that out of the 1012 respondents, 812 (80%) were aware of the effects of conflict; 128 (13%) indicated that they were not aware. Only 72 (7%) out of the 1012 respondents did not respond to the question in the questionnaire. This means that respondents who were aware were more than those who were not aware. This gave the researcher a basis or justification of continuing to ask questions related to the effects of conflict in their respective councils. If in case it had happened that all respondents said they were not aware of the effects of conflict, then there would be no need for asking them to identify the effects of conflict. (see table 16).

The respondents who said they were aware of the effects of conflict were also required to state whether the effects of conflict were negative or positive or both. Their responses showed that those who perceived conflict to have only negative effects were 922 (91%) out of 1012 respondents, while those who perceived it to have both positive and negative effects were 90, that is 9% out of the 1012 respondents. No respondent (0%) perceived conflict to have positive effects only. (see table 17).

After verifying the respondent's awareness or non-awareness of the effects of conflict in their respective councils, the researcher asked the respondents to identify both positive and negative effects. Seventeen negative effects were mentioned, they were identified with their percentage frequencies as follows: poor quality of services (95%); misuse of funds (92%); mistrust (87%);

occurrence of violence (81%); inefficient delivery of services (78%); poor revenue collection (75%); lack of participatory decision-making (71%); retardation in development (67%); disunity or divisiveness (61%); decline of projects (56%); strikes (85%); poor planning (42%); dissatisfaction/disappointment (42%); persistence of poverty (42%); increase of tension between or within groups (39%); disruption of teamwork spirit (34%); and poor attendance at work places (31%). These percentages were computed out of 1012 respondents. (see tables 18 and 19).

Some of the identified negative effects were in line with the observations made by other researchers in other related studies. For example, inefficiency in service delivery concurs with the findings of the study by Mehrotra (2006: 266); and misuse of funds was also observed by Ahmad (1997: 16) who argues that it leads to structural conflict in organizations.

However, the researcher found that poor attendance, persistence of poverty, disruption of teamwork spirit and decline of projects were the effects which had not been mentioned in any other study that was reviewed.

After identifying the negative conflicts in the councils that were visited, the researcher also asked them to identify the positive effects of conflict. They were as follows: improvement in problem identification (7%); development of constructive problem solving mechanisms (7%); improvement of service delivery (6%); improvement of promotion of individuals (6%); improvement in decision-making (5%); and attainment of group recognition (2%). These percentages were calculated out of 1012 respondents. (see table 20).

The findings and the discussions in this section can be concluded that, both positive and negative effects of conflict were mentioned in the councils the researcher visited. However, it was found that despite the fact that there were

both negative and positive effects; the negative effects were mentioned more than the positive effects. This observation was in line with what was observed by Darling and Fogliasso (1999: 384-5). According to Darling and Fogliasso, conflict is inevitable in organisations or institutions, it has both positive and negative effects, but negative effects always outweigh the positive effects. Thus, they emphasise that managers should not try to eliminate conflict as they won't be able to do so. What managers have to do is to ensure that conflict is managed properly in order to make sure that it generates positive effects in the institution.

## **5.7 MECHANISMS AVAILABLE FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS**

Regarding the question on mechanisms available for conflict resolution in the city and municipal councils, the researcher asked the respondents to, first indicate whether there were mechanisms for conflict resolution in their respective councils and then mention them. This question was directed to the permanent public officials (PPOs) and the councillors.

As regards the question whether there were mechanisms for conflict resolution, the respondents were required to say 'yes' or 'no'. The responses were as illustrated in Table 21.

**Table 21: Existences of mechanisms for conflict resolution**

CATEGORY	AREA											
	IRINGA						TANGA					
	Yes		No		No.resp		Yes		No		No.resp	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
PPOs	105	27	31	8	254	65	278	49	199	35	87	15
Councilors	6	32	2	11	11	58	23	66	7	20	5	14
<b>Total</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>265</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>301</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>206</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>15</b>

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

When one looks at Table 21, he/she can note that the percentage of those who did not respond to the question in the questionnaire in Iringa was greater than those who responded, that is 65% of 409 respondents. In Tanga, it is only 15% of 599 respondents who did not respond to the question in the questionnaire. Also, the table indicate that the percentage of those who said 'yes' in Iringa was 27% while in Tanga it was 50%. Generally, the table shows that conflict resolution mechanisms existed in the two councils.

Furthermore, the researcher asked the respondents who said 'yes' to mention the mechanisms that were available in their respective councils. The responses were as shown in Table 22.



**Table 22: Mechanisms available for conflict resolution**

Mechanisms	Iringa						Tanga						Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		Total		PPOs		Councilors		Total		NO	%
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Disciplinary committees	105	27	6	32	111	27	253	45	21	60	274	46	385	38
Meetings	99	25	6	32	105	26	147	26	23	66	170	28	275	27
Seminars	35	9	2	11	37	9	201	36	23	66	224	37	261	26
Guidance and counseling	5	1	1	5	6	1	25	4	10	29	35	6	41	4
Mediation	56	14	5	26	61	15	219	39	18	51	237	40	298	30
Informal discussions	72	18	5	26	77	19	179	32	16	46	195	33	272	27

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 22 indicates that the mechanism that was mentioned most frequently was disciplinary committees (38%), followed by mediation (30%). Guidance and counselling was least frequently mentioned, that is (4%) of all respondents.

### 5.7.1 Discussion

The question related to mechanisms for conflict resolution was in line with objective number four of the study. This was set due to the fact that the researcher was aware of the importance of resolving conflicts since if not resolved, conflicts escalate to unmanageable levels or reach a stalemate (Rubin & Sung, 1994:152-5). The researcher, therefore, asked the respondents to identify the mechanisms that were available for conflict resolution in their respective councils. Five mechanisms were identified, they include: disciplinary committees (38%); mediation (30%); meetings (27%); informal discussion (27%); seminars (26%); and guidance and counselling (4%).

When the two councils were compared, the frequency of responses in respect of each mechanism that was identified, Tanga had higher frequencies than Iringa. Regarding mediation, Tanga had 40% while Iringa had 15%; disciplinary committees, Tanga had 46% while Iringa had 27%; for meetings Tanga had 28% while Iringa, 26%; regarding informal discussions Tanga had 33% and Iringa, 19%; for seminars Tanga had 37% while Iringa had 9%; and finally, regarding guidance and counselling Tanga had 6% and Iringa had 1%.

After the respondents had identified the mechanisms, the researcher had a chance to interview a few respondents to explore the extent to which the mechanisms identified were utilized in resolving conflict. Regarding mediation, one respondent in Tanga said:

*We normally face some open conflict between councillors and permanent public officials which reaches the point of involving some third parties to help resolve the stand-offs. However, even mediations tend to fail because the councillors are always not ready to change their attitudes since they consider themselves to be more politically powerful than the permanent public officials.*

The use of mediation was, therefore, found to be among the mechanisms in conflict resolution as it helps to calm the parties after an emotional encounter and leads to de-escalation of conflict.

However, as a result of an interview with some of the respondents, the researcher discovered that although several mechanisms were mentioned apart from mediation, there was no effective use of these mechanisms. This was due to various constraints which were identified as can be seen in section 5.7.

## 5.8 CONSTRAINTS TO CONFLICT RESOLUTION

The researcher asked the respondents to identify the constraints that hindered conflict resolution. The responses were as illustrated in Table 23.

**Table 23: Constraints to conflict resolution**

Constraints identified	Iringa						Tanga						Ministry		Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		Total		PPOs		Councilors		Total		S/Officials		NO	%
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Inadequacy of funds	305	78	19	100	324	79	499	88	29	83	528	88	4	100	856	85
Low level of education	270	69	7	37	277	68	322	57	11	31	333	56	4	100	614	61
Unclear roles	180	46	9	47	189	46	355	63	23	66	378	63	0	0	567	56
Inherent disharmony between PPOs and Councilors	299	77	12	63	311	76	508	90	26	74	534	89	2	50	847	84
Poor information flow	301	77	16	84	317	78	245	43	21	60	266	44	2	50	585	58
Low conflict resolution skills	200	51	13	68	213	52	120	21	15	43	135	23	4	100	352	35
Lack of transparency	199	51	10	53	209	51	476	84	13	37	489	82	1	25	699	69
Jealousy	34	9	6	32	40	10	51	9	2	6	53	9	0	0	93	9
Mistrust	312	80	9	47	321	78	123	22	17	49	140	23	3	75	464	46

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 23 shows that inadequacy of funds was mentioned as the most itching problem with the frequency of 856 respondents (85%); followed by inherent disharmony between permanent public officials and councilors, with a frequency of 847 responses (84%); then lack of transparency with a frequency of 699 (69%). Low level of education was also identified as one of the hindrances with a frequency of 614 responses (61%). Other constraints included: Poor information flow with 585 responses (58%); unclear roles with 567 responses (56%);

mistrust with 464 responses (46%); low conflict resolution skills with 352 responses (35%); and lastly, jealousy with 93 responses (9%). The total number of respondents was 1012.

### **5.8.1 Discussion**

Conflict resolution is not an easy job due to the existence of constraints that may hinder the process. This situation was in line with observations made by Rubin & Sung, (1994:152-5) who wrote that constraints in conflict resolution tend to prevail and a manager cannot do without them. They say that, normally parties in the conflict have difficulties in changing their behaviours in order to settle the conflict. What is more, individuals on both sides build up a vested interest in the perpetuation of the conflict. If the conflict is bringing them political power or economic opportunities, they may keep the conflict going rather than resolving it. This is a typical situation that exists between the councillors who work for their political interests and the permanent public officials who tend to foster their economic interests as it was observed in the study areas. The divergent orientations of their interests led to the prevalence of disharmony between them and hence hindered conflict resolution.

Much concern was also raised on the inadequacy of financial resources which makes it difficult for the councils to conduct seminars, meetings and finance various projects. This finding concurred with the observations made by Babyegeya (2002:219) who wrote that scarcity of resources leads to prevalence of scarce resource conflict in organizations.

All in all, conflict resolution is complicated by so many factors which local government leaders are supposed to be aware of when managing conflict in their respective areas of jurisdiction. Understanding the sources of conflict and the constraints that can be encountered when resolving the conflict improves the

probability that the proper resolution or stimulation technique will be selected (Robbins, 1974:29). The next section dwells on measures that were suggested by respondents in order to improve conflict resolution skills.

## 5.9 SUGGESTED MEASURES FOR IMPROVING CONFLICT RESOLUTION SKILLS IN CITY AND MUNICIPAL COUNCILS IN TANZANIA

Likewise, the researcher was interested in exploring respondents' opinions regarding the measures they considered appropriate in improving conflict resolution skills in local government authorities. The number of respondents who were asked was 1012. Their responses were as illustrated in Table 24.

**Table 24: Suggested measures for improving conflict resolution skills in Local Government Authorities in Tanzania**

Suggested Measures	Iringa						Tanga						Ministry		Total	
	PPOs		Councilors		Total		PPOs		Councilors		Total		S/Officials		NO	%
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		
Provision of education and training	375	96	3	16	378	92	501	89	9	26	510	85	4	100	892	88
Frequent meetings	378	97	14	74	392	96	481	85	31	89	512	85	4	100	908	90
Increased sources of funds	388	99	19	100	407	100	389	69	34	97	423	71	4	100	834	82
Increased transparency	155	40	6	32	161	39	544	96	8	23	552	92	4	100	717	71
Creation of harmony between PPOs and councilors	99	25	3	16	102	25	156	28	5	14	161	27	4	100	267	26
Increased participatory decision-making	123	32	2	11	125	31	476	84	7	20	483	81	3	75	611	60
Definition of roles through job description	367	94	4	21	371	91	298	53	1	3	299	50	2	50	672	66

Source: Field Research in the Selected Study Areas in Tanzania, 2006

Table 24 shows that conducting meetings frequently was mentioned more frequently, that is by 908 respondents (90%); followed by provision of education and training, with a frequency of 892 responses (88%), increased sources of funds , with a frequency of 834 (82%). Increased transparency was mentioned by 717 respondents (71%) while definition of roles through job description was mentioned by 672 respondents (66%). Other measures included: increased participatory decision-making, mentioned by 611 respondents (60%); and lastly but no least, creation of harmony between permanent public officials and councillors, mentioned by 267 respondents (26%).

### **5.9.1 Discussion**

From the findings above, it can be concluded that respondents are aware of the poor conflict resolution skills in their respective councils. The most important aspect to consider in the promotion of these skills should be the provision of education and training that are related to conflict management in local government authorities. Meetings should be conducted frequently and they should involve various stakeholders. Education and training can help the leaders develop the ability to trace the origin and magnitude of conflict and this knowledge can in turn help them devise the best techniques of conflict resolution (Rahim, 1983:368-9).

### **5.10 SUMMARY**

This chapter deals with presentation, analysis and discussions of the findings of the study. The findings were obtained through questionnaires, interviews, observation, consultations and informal discussions in an attempt to understand the conflict management capacity of LGAs in Tanzania.

The chapter started by describing the distribution of the respondents, the profile of the respondents that were involved in the study in terms of age and sex, educational background, and occupations/economic activities.

The major findings of the study presented in this chapter include: first, conflict exists in local government authorities and some of the types of conflict include scarce resource conflict, affective conflict, and authority conflict. Secondly, causes of conflict were identified to include: inadequacy of funds, lack of transparency and openness, lack of accountability, low level of education, poor information sharing and dissemination, negative attitudes, poor organisational structure and inadequate conflict management capacity, among others. Thirdly, positive and negative effects were identified by respondents, although it was learnt that negative effects outweighed the positive effects and hence, the need to effectively manage the conflict. Fourthly, mechanisms for conflict resolution were identified, they included: mediation, disciplinary committees, meetings, informal discussions, seminars and guidance and counselling. Lastly, it was learnt that there were constraints to conflict resolution that included: inadequacy of funds, inherent disharmony between PPOs and councillors, lack of transparency, low level of education among councillors, poor information flow, unclear roles, mistrust, low conflict resolution skills and jealousy. The chapter further presents the measures for improving conflict resolution skills as suggested by the respondents. The suggested measures were: frequent meetings, provision of education and training, increased transparency, definition of roles through job description, increased participatory decision-making, increased sources of funds, and creation of harmony between PPOs and councillors.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **6.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, PROPOSALS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the summary, conclusions, recommendations and policy implications.

#### **6.2 SUMMARY**

This section provides the summary of the whole study in order to give a quick picture of what the whole study is all about. The summary of the study runs as follows:

##### **6.2.1 Objectives of the study**

The study was conducted with the main objective of investigating the conflict management capacity in local government authorities in Tanzania by looking at the causes and consequences of conflict between councillors and permanent public officials.

##### **6.2.2 Specific objectives**

The specific objectives embraced to: identify the types of conflict; explore causes of conflict; find out positive and negative effects of conflict; identify the mechanisms available for conflict resolution; identify problems that complicate the efforts to resolve conflict in local government authorities in Tanzania and recommend policy options and strategies for managing conflict in LGAs.



### **6.2.3 Research questions**

The main question was whether conflict management provided an answer to the issue of conflict over roles, relationships and structure of the councillors and permanent public officials. In order to tackle the research problem the following questions guided the study: What types of conflict persist in the city and municipal councils in Tanzania? To what extent does conflict lead to the strengthening or weakening of the relationship between the councillors and the permanent public officials? and What are the available mechanisms for conflict resolution?

### **6.2.4 Area of the study**

The study was conducted in Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council, both in Tanzania.

### **6.2.5 Population and sample**

The size of the sample of the study was 1012, comprising 954 permanent public officials, 54 councillors and 4 senior officers from the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government.

### **6.2.6 The study design**

A case study design was used for the study. The researcher employed a cross-sectional (synchronic) research approach that involved both qualitative and quantitative methods. The cross-sectional approach is well recommended for as opposed to the longitudinal (diachronic) research tends to take a very long time. It is relatively easy for descriptive statistics, cost and time saving and proper

resource use. The data, both qualitative and quantitative, can be collected at one point in time.

### **6.2.7 Research instruments and data analysis**

The research instruments that were used in data collection included: observation, interviews, questionnaires, consultations with informants and informal discussions, focus group discussions and documentary reviews. Data were coded after correcting and editing the questionnaires and fed into the computer using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS+PC). The data were analysed using descriptive statistical approaches whereby the sums, frequencies, and percentages were calculated; as well as creating the graphs, histograms and figures. The results of the analysis were presented in tabular form for easy and concise discussions and support on a logical basis.

### **6.2.8 Hypotheses**

The hypotheses used by the researcher included: first, inadequate conflict management capacity leads to the existence of conflict between councillors and permanent public officials; and second, the conflicting relationship between councillors and permanent public officials leads to poor performance of local government authorities in public service delivery.

### **6.2.9 Assumptions of the study**

The overall study was guided by the following scenarios/assumptions:

- The current organisation structure of local government authority in Tanzania leads to conflict between councillors and permanent public officials;

- lack of clarity and the presence of overlaps in the roles and functions of councillors and permanent public officials create conflict;
- lack of conflict prevention and management mechanisms leads to continuous conflict between councillors and permanent public officials;
- differences in the levels of education between councillors and permanent public officials result in disharmonious relationships between councillors and permanent public officials that in turn lead to prevalence of conflict; and
- scarcity of financial and material resources and the poverty of the councils and councillors result in the scramble for the limited resources which is manifested in the form of conflict.

#### **6.2.10 Findings**

The findings of the study included the following:

- **Existence and types of conflict in city and municipal councils**

The findings reveal that the types of conflict existing in institutions and the society embrace goal conflict, cognitive conflict, affective conflict, procedural conflict, scarce resource conflict, authority conflict and interdependence conflict.

Regarding the question as to whether conflict existed in municipal and city councils, the responses were as follows. In Iringa, 53% (215) of the respondents said 'yes'; 152 (37%) respondents said 'no'; whereas 10% (42) respondents did not respond to the question. Respectively, in Tanga 432 (72%) of the respondents said 'yes'; and 19% (116) said 'no'. On the same question 100% (4) senior officials from the Ministry said 'yes'. (See table 10). The total number of respondents whose responses confirmed the types of conflict in Iringa was 280 (68%); in Tanga the number was 504 (84%) and all four (100%) in the Ministry

of Regional Administration and Local Government. The categories of respondents covered the permanent public officials (PPOs), councillors, and senior officials. As for the types of conflict, the results revealed that the scarce resource conflict ranked first with a frequency of 97% of the total number of 1012 respondents. Authority conflict ranked second with a frequency of 78%, while the affective conflict ranked third with a frequency 41% of all 1012 respondents (see table 11).

- **Causes of conflict in the city and municipal councils**

Respondents' perspectives pertinent to the degree to which the factors were contributing to the occurrence of conflict varied between the councils. Cumulatively, in both Iringa and Tanga, inadequacy of funds ranked the highest, that is 945 frequency of responses, which is 94% of 1008 respondents; lack of transparency and openness ranked the second by having 881 cumulative responses, which is 87% of the 1008 respondents. Inadequate conflict management capacity ranked last with 573 of the responses, which is 57% of 1008 respondents. The four senior officials from the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government were not involved in responding to this question. (see table 14).

In Iringa the respondents indicated that the poor working environment was the most itching or disturbing problem. It was identified by 402 (98%) out of 409 respondents, followed by delay in salaries (92%) and misuse of funds (90%) respectively. Nonetheless, in Tanga the respondents indicated that delay in salaries ranked the highest with the frequency of 547 (91%) out of 599 respondents, followed by interferences in duties and responsibilities which were reflected by 88% and delay in promotion by 88%. Humiliation, oppression and despise ranked the lowest, that is 28%. (see table 15).

- **Effects of conflict in the city and municipal councils**

Regarding the question of whether conflict has negative or positive effects or both, in Tanga City Council, 549 (92%) of the respondents observed that it has negative effects only, while (8%) of the respondents said it has both negative and positive effects. However, all four (100%) senior officials from the Ministry said that conflict has both negative and positive effects. (see table 17).

When the respondents were asked to identify positive and negative effects, the results were as follows: The negative effects that were identified included occurrence of violence, disunity or divisiveness, retardation in development, poor revenue collection, mistrust between councillors and permanent public officials, poor planning, strikes, decline of projects, poor attendance to work places, lack of participatory decision-making, dissatisfaction and disappointment, increase of tension in working places, and disruption of teamwork spirit. (see table 19).

On the other hand, the respondents identified positive effects to include: improvement in problem identification and solution, improvement in decision-making, improvement in service delivery, gaining of group recognition, making managers promote the employees at work places, and improvement in salaries. (see table 20).

All in all, the findings showed that negative effects of conflict outweigh positive effects, and hence the need to have effective mechanisms of conflict management. (see tables 19,20,21, and 22).

- **Mechanisms available for conflict resolution**

As for the availability of mechanism for conflict resolution, the respondents identified several mechanisms that include: disciplinary committee that was

mentioned most frequently by 38% of the 1008 respondents, followed by mediation mentioned by 30%, then meetings were mentioned by 27%. Also, informal discussions were mentioned by 27%, seminars were mentioned by 26% and lastly, guidance and counselling by 4% of the 1008 respondents. (see table 22).

The deduction that was made from the findings was that owing to the inadequacy of funds, the available mechanisms were not effectively utilized to resolve the day-to-day conflict, that is why hatred and malicious tendencies were observed to exist in the visited councils.

### **6.3 CONCLUSIONS**

On the basis of the findings, analysis and discussions, the researcher made various conclusions that include:

- Conflict of different types exists both in Iringa Municipal Council and Tanga City Council. Some of the types of conflict which exist are goal conflict, cognitive conflict, affective conflict, procedural conflict, scarce resource conflict, to mention just a few. Nonetheless, the most prevalent are scarce resource conflict and authority conflict.
- Most people in municipal and city councils consider that conflict always has negative effects in the councils. Though there are those who concede that conflict has positive effects, the fact is that the majority have negative attitudes towards conflict and even insist that measures should be devised to ensure that conflict does not exist in local government authorities. All in all, whether conflict has negative or positive effects, negative effects outweigh the positive effects;
- the working environment is poor in the two councils investigated. This also contributes to the prevalence of conflict. About 98% (402) in Iringa

Municipal Council ranked poor working environment as the biggest itching problem. (see table 15).

- It was also evident that there were salary delays and misuse of funds in the two local government authorities. For instance, in Iringa, three new teachers complained that they had not been paid for four months since they reported to their respective schools. The problem of salaries in Iringa ranked second after poor working environment, with the frequency of 92%. Salary problems also existed in Tanga City Council. Misuse of funds was ranked third, with a frequency of 90% in Iringa while it was ranked second in Tanga City Council with the frequency of 87%. (see table 15).
- There were delays in promotions in the two local government authorities. Respondents from both Tanga and Iringa complained of this problem.
- Conflict management mechanisms existed in the two local government authorities, some of which included the use of disciplinary committees, seminars, meetings, guidance and counselling and discussions. However, these mechanisms were not effectively utilized in resolving conflict in local government authorities.

All in all, conflict resolution is not an easy undertaking due to the existence of problems that hinder the process. Conflict management mechanisms do exist in the two local government authorities, but, due to lack of funds these mechanisms are not effectively utilized in resolving conflict in the two city and municipal authorities. This was also observed by Rubin & Sung, (1994:152-5) who stated that constraints in conflict resolution tend to prevail and a manager cannot do without them. They further contended that normally, parties in a conflict faced difficulties in changing their behaviours in settling the conflict.

## **6.4 PROPOSALS**

In order to resolve conflict in the two councils it is proposed that:

- Effective measures should be taken to address the existing and future problems, management issues, financial use and leadership conducts.
- Conflict management where it is necessary in local government authorities should be introduced in city and municipal council on a part time basis (on the job training) for the councillors and the permanent public officials.
- Guidance and counselling should be conducted in local government authorities, where necessary, in order to help create harmonious relationships between councillors and permanent public officials. Guidance and counselling, if necessary, can change the behaviour of both councillors and permanent public officials.
- There is a strong need for the two local government authorities investigated, especially the management, to brace themselves for solving the existing problems such as mistrust and *de facto* misuse of public funds and ensure proper accountability on a collective basis. This will enhance creativity and public confidence in them.

## **6.5 POLICY IMPLICATIONS**

There is a need to review regularly the present local government policy so as to keep abreast of the developments globally exacerbated by globalisation. This should go hand in hand with the creation of strategic measures to coherently address the poverty syndrome that is hitting the country, including looking for new sources of funds to finance the city and municipal councils. This research has indicated that lack of funds, trained and empowered councillors who know and understand their political roles vis-à-vis the roles of the permanent public officials and proper and cordial relations between the two groups are the most serious problems in the two local authorities where the research was conducted.



## **6.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

As the findings of this research are based on only one municipal council and one city council, there is a need to conduct more empirical field surveys on conflict and its implications in other local government authorities in Tanzania. Only then will the extent of conflict in the local government authorities in Tanzania be known.

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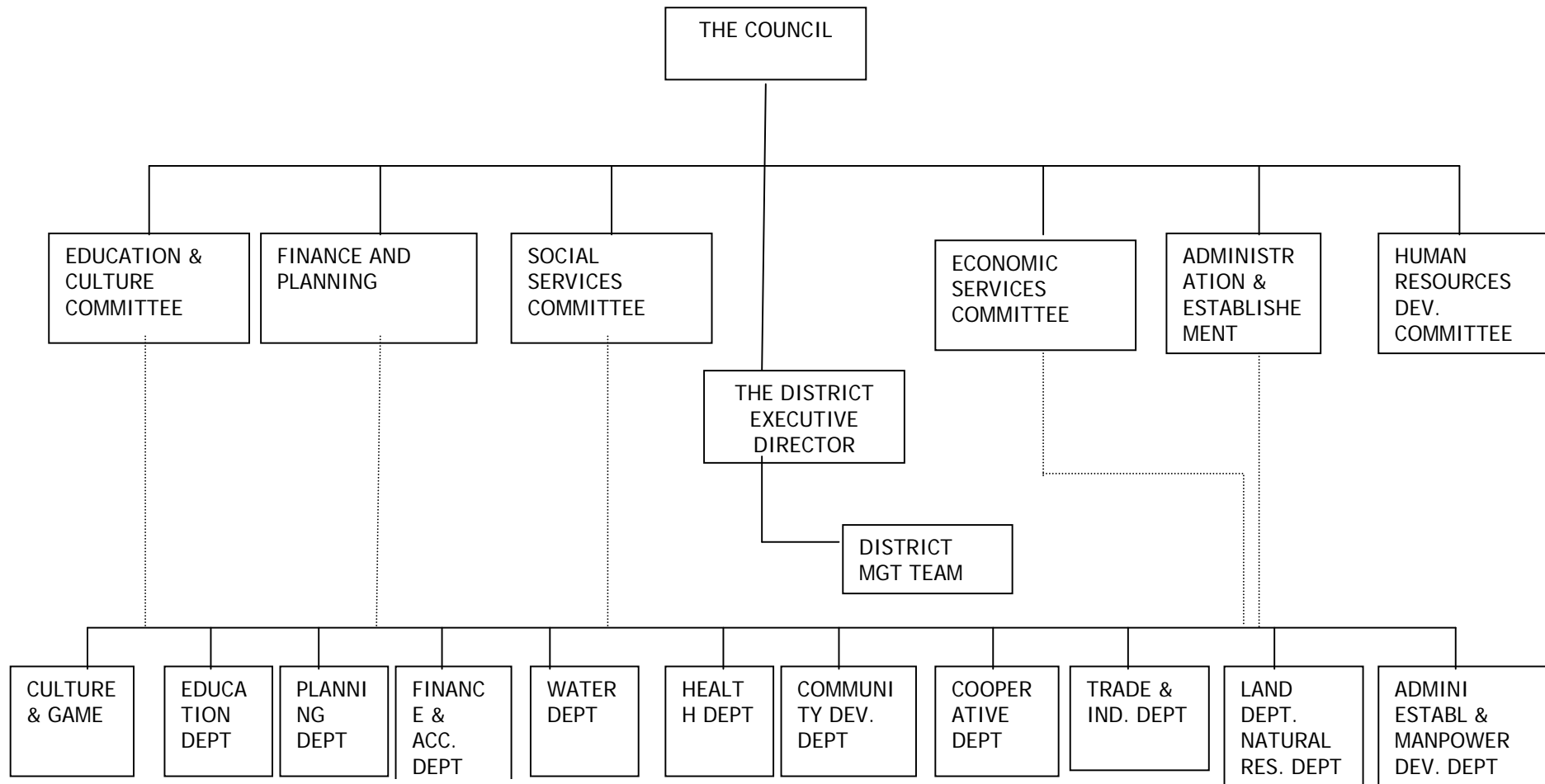
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## APPENDICES

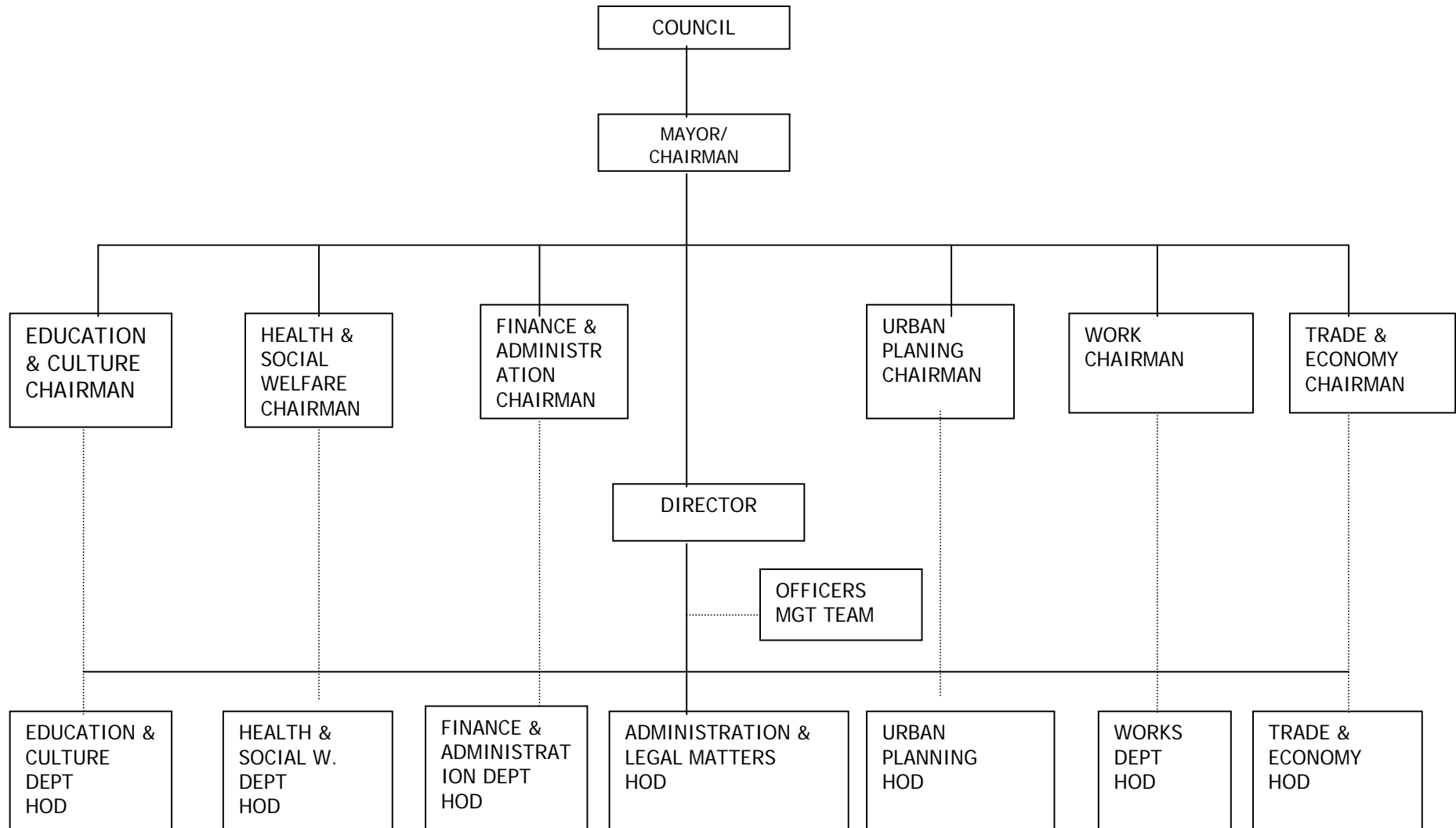
### Appendix I

#### ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE OF A DISTRICT COUNCIL



Source: *The structure of the Rural Authorities and Urban Authorities as shown by Warioba (1999:101), Max, 1991 (1991:148) (and the Local Government (District Authorities) Act No. 7 of 1982, section 74.*

ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE OF AN URBAN COUNCIL



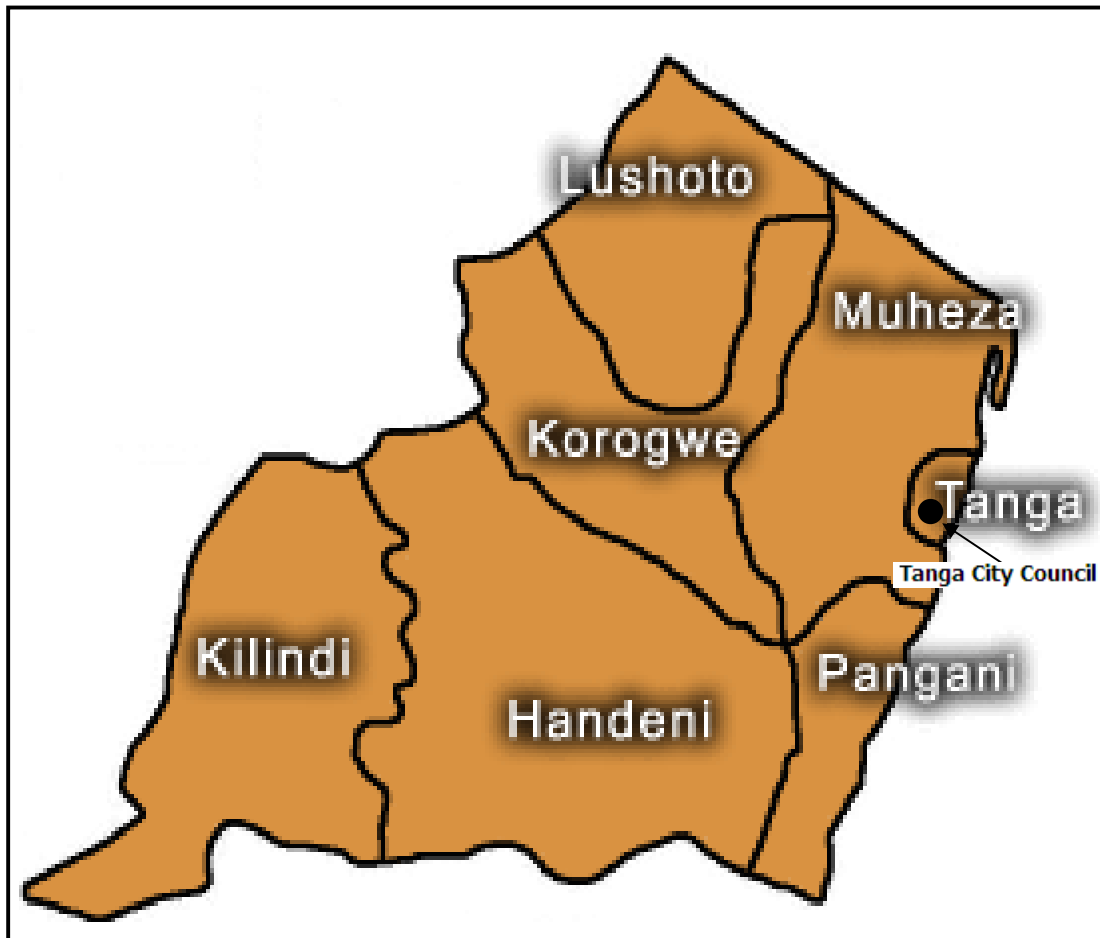
MAP OF TANZANIA



MAP OF IRINGA REGION



MAP OF TANGA REGION





**CATEGORY A  
QUESTIONNAIRES FOR EXECUTIVE OFFICERS, HEADS OF  
DEPARTMENTS AND OTHER PERMANENT PUBLIC OFFICIALS**

This questionnaire intends to collect information on conflict between permanent public officials and councilors in municipal and district councils.

[Please fill in the form or tick on the relevant box]

1. Your position -----
2. Date of birth-----
3. Age-----
4. Sex-----male-----female-----
5. Marital status-----married-----single-----  
divorced-----
6. Nationality-----
7. Academic and professional qualifications
  - a. Educational level-----
  - b. Professional qualification-----
8. As a member of the executive [Management] of the council what are your rights and duties vis-a-vis the councilors?
  - a. Rights-----  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----
  - b. Duties-----

9. What are the rights and duties of councilors?

a. Rights-----  
-----  
-----  
-----

b. Duties  
-----  
-----  
-----  
-----

10. a. Have you witnessed any conflict or any misunderstandings between permanent public officials and the councilors?

yes----- no-----

If the answer in [10] is yes, list down the area of conflict.

- 1.-----
- 2.-----
- 3.-----
- 4.-----
- 5.-----

11. Do you know the causes of conflict between permanent public officials and the councilors?

yes----- no-----

12. a. Do you know the effect of conflict in your council?

yes----- no-----

If the answer to (12a) is yes, list down the effects/impact of conflict in your council.

1.-----

-----

2.-----

3.-----

-----

4.-----

-----

5.-----

-----

13 .What do you think is a good approach of solving such conflict?

1.-----

2.-----

-----

3.-----

-----

4.-----

-----

5. -----

-----

14. What measures have been taken by your council to resolve the conflict between the officials and the councilor?

1.-----

-----

-----

2.-----

-----

3.-----

-----

4.-----

-----

5.-----

-----

15. What measures would you propose to be taken at council and national level in order solve the conflict between the permanent public officials and the councilors.

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.**

**CATEGORY B  
QUESTIONNAIRES FOR COUNCILLORS**

This questionnaire intends to collect information on conflict between the councilors and permanent public officials

[Please fill in the form or tick one relevant box]

1. Your position \_\_\_\_\_
2. Date of birth: \_\_\_\_\_
3. Age: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Sex: male [  ] female [  ]
5. Marital Status: single [  ] married [  ]  
divorced [  ]
6. Nationality: \_\_\_\_\_
7. Academic and professional qualification
  - a. Education level  
\_\_\_\_\_
  - b. Professional qualification \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

8. What are your rights and duties as a councilor?

Rights

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

Duties

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_

- 3. \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_
- 5. \_\_\_\_\_

9. Do you know the rights and duties of the permanent public officials?

yes [     ]                      no [     ]

If the answer above is yes, list them below.

1. Rights

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_
- 5. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Duties

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. \_\_\_\_\_
- 5. \_\_\_\_\_

10. Have you witnessed any conflict between the permanent public officials and the councilors

yes [     ]                      no [     ]

If the answer yes,

a. list down the areas of management conflict;

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

(b) What are the causes of conflict in your council?

---

---

---

---

---

11. List down the reasons of conflict between the councilors and the permanent public officials.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

12. What ways and methods has your council been using to eliminate or reduce conflict.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

13. (a) To what extent does the educational level accelerate conflict in your council?

(b) How? Explain \_\_\_\_\_

---

---

---

---

14. Suggest various means and ways by which you can reduce or eliminate conflict in your council

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

15. (a) To what extent have allowances and/or money been a major cause of conflict in your council?

Small extent [     ]     Great extent [     ]

(b) How? Explain \_\_\_\_\_

---

---

---

---

16. What are the effects of conflict in your council?

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_



17. Write down your opinions of conflict between the councilors and the permanent public officials in your council.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

18. a. Have you attended any training course on the role of councilors?

yes [ ] no [ ]

b. If the answer in (19a) is yes, list down the workshops, seminars and short courses attended.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_
5. \_\_\_\_\_

20. a. To what extent were the courses attended helpful?

Not helpful [ ] Moderate [ ] helpful [ ] very helpful [ ]

b. How? Explain \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION**

**CATEGORY C  
HOJAJI KWA MADIWANI**

Hojaji hii inakusudia kukusanya taarifa juu ya migongano baina ya madiwani na maofisa wa serikali(Wakurugenzi, Wakuu wa idara na Waajiriwa wengine wa Halmashauri).

[Tafadhali jaza fomu hii au weka alama ya vema mahali panapostahili.]

1. Jina-----

2. Tarehe ya kuzaliwa-----

3. Umri-----

4. Jinsi-----ME [Mwanaume]                      KE [Mwanamke]

5. Ndoa-----hujaoa/hujaolewa                      umeoa/umeolewa

6. Uraia-----

7. Kazi-----

8. Elimu na Utaalamu

a. Kiwango cha Elimu-----

-----

b. Sifa za Utaalamu-----

-----

9. Ukiwa diwani wajibu wako na kazi zako ni zipi?

a. Haki

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

6. -----

7. -----

b. Wajibu

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

10. Je unaujua wajibu na haki za watendaji?

NDIYO

HAPANA

11. Kama jibu katika namba (10) hapo juu ni NDIYO, ziorodheshe hapa chini

a. Haki

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

b. Wajibu

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

12. Je umeshashuhudia mgongano wowote wa kiuongozi kati ya watendaji na madiwani.

ndiyo

hapana

13. Kama jibu katika namba (12) hapo juu ni ndiyo, ziorodheshe hapa chini

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

14. (a) Nani ni chanzo cha migongano ya kiuongozi kati ya madiwani na watendaji katika halmashauri yenu

madiwani

watendaji

wote

(b) Eleza-----

-----

-----

-----

15. Orodhesha sababu za migongano ya kiuongozi kati ya madiwani na watendaji

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

6. -----

16. Halmashauri yenu huwa inatumia njia na mbinu zipi katika kuondoa au kupunguza migongano ya kiuongozi katika halmashauri yenu?

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

17. (a) Ni kwa kiasi gani viwango vya elimu vya madiwani huchochea/huogeza migogoro ya kiuongozi katika halmashauri yenu?

Kiasi kidogo

Kiasi kikubwa

(b) Kwa vipi? Eleza-----

-----

-----

-----

-----

18. Pendekeza njia na namna ambayo unaweza kuondoa au kupunguza migongano ya kiuongozi katika halmashauri yenu.

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

19. (a) Ni kwa kiasi gani posho na/ au fedha zimekuwa sababu kuu ya migogoro ya kiuongozi katika halmashauri yenu?

Kiasi kidogo

Kiasi kikubwa

(b) Kwa vipi? Eleza-----

-----

-----

-----

-----

-----

20. Nini matokeo/ athari ya migongano ya kiuongozi katika Halmashauri yenu?

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----



21. Andika maoni yako kuhusu migongano ya kiuongozi kati ya madiwani na watendaji wa halmashauri yenu.

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

22. (a) Umeshahudhuria kozi yoyote juu ya kazi za madiwani?

ndiyo

hapana

(b). Kama jibu katika namba (21 a) hapo juu ni NDIYO, ziorodheshe warsha, semina na kozi fupi ulizohudhuria.

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

23. (a) Ni kwa kiasi gani kozi ulizohudhuria zimekusaidia

hazikunisaidia       zimenisaidia kiasi       zimenisaidia sana.

(b) Kwa vipi? Eleza-----

-----

-----

-----

-----

**ASANTE SANA**

**CATEGORY D  
HOJAJI KWA WATENDAJI**

Hojaji hii inakusudia kukusanya taarifa juu ya migongano baina ya madiwani na maofisa wa serikali(Wakurugenzi, Wakuu wa idara na Waajiriwa wengine wa Halmashauri).

[Tafadhali jaza fomu hii au weka alama ya vema mahali panapostahili.]

1. Jina-----

2. Tarehe ya kuzaliwa-----

3. Umri-----

4. Jinsi-----ME [Mwanaume]                      KE [Mwanamke]

5. Ndoa-----hujaoa/hujaolewa                      umeoa/umeolewa

6. Uraia-----

7. Kazi-----

8. Elimu na Utaalamu

a. Kiwango cha Elimu-----

-----

b. Sifa za Utaalamu-----

-----

9. Ukiwa kama mtendaji wajibu wako na kazi zako ni zipi?

a. Haki

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

6. -----

7. -----

b. Wajibu

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

10. Je unaujua wajibu na haki za madiwani?

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Wajibu.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

11. Je umeshashuhudia mgongano wowote wa kiuongozi kati ya watendaji na madiwani.

ndiyo

hapana

Kama jibu katika namba hapo juu ni ndiyo, ziorodheshe hapa chini

1. -----
2. -----
3. -----
4. -----
5. -----

12. (Je unajua chanzo cha migongano ya kiuongozi kati ya madiwani na watendaji katika halmashauri yenu

ndiyo [ ] hapana [ ]

13 Je unajua matokeo ya ya migongano ya kiuongozi kati ya madiwani na watendaji kwenye halmashauri yako?

ndiyo ----- hapana-----

Kama jibu ni ndiyo orodhesha matokeo ya migongano hiyo -----

-----

1.. -----

2. -----

3.. -----

4.. -----

14. Halmashauri yenu huwa inatumia njia na mbinu zipi katika kuondoa au kupunguza migongano ya kiuongozi katika halmashauri yenu?

1. -----

2. -----

3. -----

4. -----

5. -----

15. Halmashauri yenu inachukua hatua zipi katika kutatua magongano kati ya watendaji na madiwani.

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16 . Pendekeza njia na namna ambayo unaweza kuondoa au kupunguza migongano ya kiuongozi katika halmashauri yenu.

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**ASANTE SANA.**