

Participation 2000

PRSP COTONOU

HIPC

Political Handbook
& NGO Calendar 2003

Vision 2025

Globalization

TANZANIA

W  **HIV/AIDS**

S **NEPAD** 

S **MWAFKA**

YLTP

D




**FRIEDRICH
EBERT** 
STIFTUNG

Dear Partners, Friends & Interested Readers,

Karibu 2003!

In the year 2002 we received many positive comments and expressions of appreciation for the Political Handbook/ NGO Calendar. This has encouraged us to continue to make the handbook as comprehensive as possible. Here, then, is the new handbook for 2003. We hope that you will find it just as interesting and useful.

Once again we present a wide range of articles that discuss political, economical and social conditions in Tanzania. For readers actively engaged in the development of civil society the handbook is both a source of useful information and a toolbox to assist you in your work. We have done our best to make it as accurate and as reader-friendly as possible, but we are of course open to constructive comments and criticism.

At FES we will continue to work with issues that have bearing on poverty reduction, issues such as gender, HIV/AIDS, conflict reduction and human rights. Closely related to poverty reduction is the agreed co-operation between the African, Caribbean, and Pacific states and the European Union, the conditions of which are described in the Cotonou Agreement. FES will contribute by furthering a better and broader dialogue on the issues in order to attain satisfying results for Tanzania and the region.

Further projects of major concern for FES and for the partners are:

- Leadership for Good Governance (“Youth Leadership Training Programme”)
- Participation and Conflict Resolution (“Coping with Conflicts, Agenda Participation”)
- Support to the Local Government Development (“Manual and Training for Councillors”)

Finally I would like to thank our many contributors for their work, with special thanks to Alphonse Siarra, Kate Girvan and the coordinator, Angela Ishengoma.

The staff of the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung Tanzania would like to wish you and your family a healthy, prosperous and peaceful year 2003. And let us stand together for Peace, Shalom, Salaam, Paz and Amani!

PETER HÄUSSLER
Resident Director

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CALENDAR OVERVIEW 2003 / 2004

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GUIDELINES FOR INCLUDING THE GENDER DIMENSION IN AN ACTIVITY

compiled by Viktoria Walter

FES Tanzania puts a strong emphasis on assuring gender balance and gender sensitivity in its activities. We invite all our partners to join hands with us in order to make sure that women and men participate and profit equally from the activities.

Objectives Development:

- Identify a specific gender objective for the activity

Target Group:

- Which group of men/women will benefit?
- What can you do in terms of ensuring gender balance/participation?
- Who should participate in order to advocate for gender-balance?

Is the Concept Gender-Oriented?

Modality and instruments, type of event:

- Invitation addressing women, e.g. personal invitation, not only inviting the organisation
- What type and design of the event is needed to attract also women?
- Consider differences in the time budget of men and women, family supporting facilities
- Invite female representatives of the organisation for planning

Collaborators/Partner Organisation/Resource Persons:

- Prepare yourself for resistance against gender integration and appreciate willingness of partners to integrate gender
- Choose gender-responsive resource persons: is there a female to do the job?
- Ensure gender-balance in teams
- Include women experts

Topics to be Covered:

- Check that the topics address the gender dimension or issues in question
- Avoid having gender as a separate topic

Financial Estimates/Resources:

- Allow for additional resources for possible extra gender-informed resource person and/or family supportive facilities
- Allocation of budget to facilitate that at least 1/3 of the activities are gender responsive

Tentative Programme:

- Send it out as early as possible (women need time for planning their release from family duties. They might even need to seek permission to attend.)

Media Coverage:

- Enable women to speak to the media (prepare well!)

Expected Outcome:

- Check consistency with gender objective
- Ensure that women's concerns are addressed in all documentation and other follow ups

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JANUARY – FEBRUARY 2003

27th - 9th

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FEBRUARY 2003

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FEBRUARY – MARCH 2003

24th - 9th

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MARCH 2003

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MARCH – APRIL 2003

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APRIL - MAY 2003

21st - 4th

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MAY 2003

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MAY – JUNE 2003

19th - 1st

APRIL 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30				

MAY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4		
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

JUNE 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
30						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29

MON 19	TUE 20	WED 21	THU 22	FRI 23	SAT 24	SUN 25
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 26	TUE 27	WED 28	THU 29	FRI 30	SAT 31	SUN 1
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

23/24

JUNE 2003

2nd - 15th

MAY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

JUNE 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
30						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29

JULY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

MON 2	TUE 3	WED 4	THU 5	FRI 6	SAT 7	SUN 8
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 9	TUE 10	WED 11	THU 12	FRI 13	SAT 14	SUN 15
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

25/26

JUNE 2003

16th - 29th

MAY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

JUNE 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
30						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29

JULY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

MON 16	TUE 17	WED 18	THU 19	FRI 20	SAT 21	SUN 22
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 23	TUE 24	WED 25	THU 26	FRI 27	SAT 28	SUN 29
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

27/28

JUNE – JULY 2003

30th - 13th

JUNE 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
30						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29

JULY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

AUGUST 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30
31						

MON 30	TUE 1	WED 2	THU 3	FRI 4	SAT 5	SUN 6
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 7	TUE 8	WED 9	THU 10	FRI 11	SAT 12	SUN 13
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

29/30

JULY 2003

14th - 27th

JUNE 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
30						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29

JULY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

AUGUST 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30
31						

MON 14	TUE 15	WED 16	THU 17	FRI 18	SAT 19	SUN 20
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 21	TUE 22	WED 23	THU 24	FRI 25	SAT 26	SUN 27
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

31/32

JULY – AUGUST 2003

28th - 10th

JUNE 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
30						1
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20	21	22
23	24	25	26	27	28	29

JULY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

AUGUST 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30
31						

MON 28	TUE 29	WED 30	THU 31	FRI 1	SAT 2	SUN 3
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 4	TUE 5	WED 6	THU 7	FRI 8	SAT 9	SUN 10
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

33/34

AUGUST 2003

11th - 24th

JULY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

AUGUST 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
			1	2	3	
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31

SEPTEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30					

MON 11	TUE 12	WED 13	THU 14	FRI 15	SAT 16	SUN 17
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 18	TUE 19	WED 20	THU 21	FRI 22	SAT 23	SUN 24
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

35/36

JULY 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27
28	29	30	31			

AUGUST 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30
31						

SEPTEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30					

AUGUST – SEPTEMBER 2003

25th - 7th

MON 25	TUE 26	WED 27	THU 28	FRI 29	SAT 30	SUN 31
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 1	TUE 2	WED 3	THU 4	FRI 5	SAT 6	SUN 7
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

37/38

SEPTEMBER 2003

8th - 21st

AUGUST 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
			1	2	3	
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31

SEPTEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30					

OCTOBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

MON 8	TUE 9	WED 10	THU 11	FRI 12	SAT 13	SUN 14
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 15	TUE 16	WED 17	THU 18	FRI 19	SAT 20	SUN 21
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

39/40

AUGUST 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
			1	2	3	
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31

SEPTEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30					

OCTOBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

SEPTEMBER – OCTOBER 2003

22nd - 5th

MON 22	TUE 23	WED 24	THU 25	FRI 26	SAT 27	SUN 28
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 29	TUE 30	WED 1	THU 2	FRI 3	SAT 4	SUN 5
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

41/42

SEPTEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30					

OCTOBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

NOVEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

OCTOBER 2003

6th - 19th

MON 6	TUE 7	WED 8	THU 9	FRI 10	SAT 11	SUN 12
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 13	TUE 14	WED 15	THU 16	FRI 17	SAT 18	SUN 19
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

43/44

SEPTEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30					

OCTOBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

NOVEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

OCTOBER – NOVEMBER 2003

20th - 2nd

MON 20	TUE 21	WED 22	THU 23	FRI 24	SAT 25	SUN 26
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 27	TUE 28	WED 29	THU 30	FRI 31	SAT 1	SUN 2
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

45/46

NOVEMBER 2003

3rd - 16th

OCTOBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
	1	2	3	4	5	
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

NOVEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

DECEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

MON 3	TUE 4	WED 5	THU 6	FRI 7	SAT 8	SUN 9
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 10	TUE 11	WED 12	THU 13	FRI 14	SAT 15	SUN 16
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

47/48

NOVEMBER 2003

17th - 30th

OCTOBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
		1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31		

NOVEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

DECEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

MON 17	TUE 18	WED 19	THU 20	FRI 21	SAT 22	SUN 23
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 24	TUE 25	WED 26	THU 27	FRI 28	SAT 29	SUN 30
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

49/50

DECEMBER 2003

1st - 14th

NOVEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

DECEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

JANUARY 2004

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

MON 1	TUE 2	WED 3	THU 4	FRI 5	SAT 6	SUN 7
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 8	TUE 9	WED 10	THU 11	FRI 12	SAT 13	SUN 14
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

51/52

NOVEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

DECEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

JANUARY 2004

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

DECEMBER 2003

15th - 28th

MON 15	TUE 16	WED 17	THU 18	FRI 19	SAT 20	SUN 21
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 22	TUE 23	WED 24	THU 25	FRI 26	SAT 27	SUN 28
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

week

53/1

NOVEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
					1	2
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23
24	25	26	27	28	29	30

DECEMBER 2003

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28
29	30	31				

JANUARY 2004

M	T	W	T	F	S	S
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

DECEMBER 2003 – JANUARY 2004

29th - 11th

MON 29	TUE 30	WED 31	THU 1	FRI 2	SAT 3	SUN 4
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
MON 5	TUE 6	WED 7	THU 8	FRI 9	SAT 10	SUN 11
MORNING						
NOON						
AFTERNOON						
NOTES						

I. OVERVIEW

SOME BASIC FACTS & FIGURES

Geography¹

Total area	945,087 sq. km
Land area	886,037 sq. km
Water area	59,050 sq. km
(This includes the islands of Mafia, Pemba and Zanzibar)	
Total land boundaries	3,402 km
Coastline	1,424 km
Highest point: Kilimanjaro	5,895 m
Natural resources	hydropower, tin, phosphates, iron ore, coal, diamonds, gemstones, gold, natural gas, nickel

Land use

Arable land	3%
Permanent crops	1%
Permanent pastures	40%
Forests and woodland	38%
Other	18% (1993 estimates)

People

	1996	1999	2000
Population ² (estimated)	30.5 million	32.9 million	33.7 million
Population growth rate %	2.8	2.4	2.3
Population density (people per sq.km)	34.5	37.3	38.1
Ethnic groups ³	Mainland - native African 99% (of which 95% are Bantu consisting of more than 130 tribes), other 1% (consisting of Asian, European and Arab) Zanzibar - Arab, native African, mixed Arab and native African		
Religions	Mainland - Christian 45%, Muslim 35%, indigenous beliefs 20% Zanzibar - more than 99% Muslim		

1 CIA-The World Factbook - Tanzania: downloaded 30/11/01

2 Population statistics: World Development Indicators database, July 2001

3 Information on ethnic groups and religion: CIA - The World Factbook

TANZANIA: A POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

By Mr O.K. Temwende, Kivukoni Academy of Social Sciences

The United Republic of Tanzania was formed in April 1964 by the union of Tanganyika and the state of Zanzibar, comprising the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba. Tanganyika had been successively a German colony, a British administered League of Nations' Trust Territory under British administration, and finally independent since 1961 within the Commonwealth of Nations. Zanzibar was a British colony until 1963.

Africans in Tanganyika, as was the case in other parts of Africa, never reconciled themselves to colonial domination. From the very beginning, they rose and fought the colonial invaders. The most outstanding resistance was shown by the Sumbua led by Kimweri against the Germans; by the Hehe under Mkwawa who fought a long and bitter war against the Germans; and during the Maji Maji War under the leadership of Kinjeketile, Mputa and Kibasila. Due to the lack of unity among these early nationalists and fighters for freedom, and due to the superior fighting power of the colonial invaders, all of these early liberation struggles ended up in total failure and great loss of life.

The later struggle for

national freedom in Tanganyika was not marked by sharp confrontation and bloodshed as was the case in neighbouring Kenya or other African colonies like Mozambique, Angola or Zimbabwe. There were two main reasons for this relatively peaceful struggle. One was that there was only a small body of white settlers in Tanganyika, numbering about 20,000 in the 1950s, and as few of them were of British origin, there were not very strong British political and economic interests in Tanganyika. The other reason was that in 1946, after the Second World War, Tanganyika became a United Nations' Trusteeship Territory. As such it could scarcely be allowed to fall under settler control.

As in the majority of African colonies, nationalism developed in Tanganyika after 1945. In fact the first signs of national awareness were already evident shortly after the First World War when, both on the mainland and on Zanzibar, African associations were formed. On the mainland the African Association (AA) was formed in 1929 as a discussion group among educated persons. This association became the Tanganyika African Association (TAA) in 1948. In 1934 a similar

African Association was formed in Zanzibar.

After the Second World War members of the Tanganyika African Association moved with the tide of nationalism and, in 1953, under the able and skilful chairmanship of Julius Nyerere, the TAA was reorganized as a political party, leading directly to the formation of the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) in 1954, while in Zanzibar the African Association was reorganized into the Afro-Shirazi Party in 1957.

The formation of TANU in 1954 marked the beginning of the independence struggle in earnest. After seven years of intense political struggle Tanganyika won her freedom under the auspices of the TANU, strengthened by the cooperation of the trade unions and agricultural cooperatives.

Two years later, in December 1963, the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba also became independent, but under a government without wide support. This was a government dominated by the Sultan of Zanzibar and a minority of land-owning local Arabs. Two months after independence in January 1964, the Sultan's government was overthrown and power passed to

non-Arab Afro-Shiraz Party.

The leaderships of the newly independent Tanganyika and Zanzibar replaced parliament with the party as the centre of power and in 1965 a change in the constitution made the country a one-party democratic state.

Tanganyika had inherited an economy torn and dilapidated by many years of colonialism. There was a very low level of literacy, a poor infrastructure and a high rate of disease and poverty. In response to this, in 1967, the new leadership made the then famous Arusha Declaration on Socialism and Self-reliance as the country's development blueprint. The cornerstone was Ujamaa, a policy of "villagisation" whereby the rural population was grouped into village communities to cultivate land together and be provided with essential services. The object was that they should be self-sufficient in basic needs.

This project did not survive. It collapsed along with socialism elsewhere in the world. Central planning proved itself unable to mobilise the country's economic forces and there were too many management errors, not to mention cases of embezzlement. However, although the economic performance of the period was far from satisfactory, standards of living did improve. Access to education and health services was extended and national unity was con-

solidated. This last aspect is seen as President Nyerere's most significant achievement.

Given the failure of Ujamaa and self-reliance, President Nyerere's successor, President Ali Hassan Mwinyi, made an about turn and in 1985 he negotiated an adjustment programme with the Bretton Woods institutions. Since 1986 the country has been involved in a series of adjustment programmes following on from the first agreement with the IMF. Tanzania had effectively no choice and was forced to implement drastic measures in an attempt to create an environment favourable to investment in all the economic sectors. The 1990s have seen an acceleration of the reforms with considerable effort going into the key programme of decentralisation.

In the early 1990s the ruling party CCM sensed that the democratic movement was gaining ground across Africa. It had grasped the nettle of economic liberalisation and now also managed to swim with the tide of democratisation. A multiparty system was introduced in July 1992 and the first multiparty elections were run in 1995. Benjamin William Mkapa became President of the United Republic of Tanzania, while Dr. Salim Amour became President of Zanzibar.

A difficult political situation arose after the 1995 elections. The main opposition

party CUF disputed the results and boycotted the House of Representatives. It claimed that victory had been snatched out of the hands of its leader, Seif Shariff Hamad, and appealed to world opinion to denounce the poll and introduce sanctions against CCM.

In 1997 the Commonwealth secretariat came in as mediator and, after protracted negotiations, an accord was made but never implemented. The situation remained tense up to 2000 when the second multiparty elections were held. Again CCM won both in the mainland and in Zanzibar with Mr Mkapa as President of the Union and Mr Aman Karume as President of Zanzibar. The post 1995 election scenario was repeated after the results of the 2000 elections. However, this time, CCM and CUF wasted no time and entered into negotiations, reaching an accord in September 2001. The implementation of the accord started towards the end of 2001.

The Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar (SMZ) has passed a motion on the accord in the House of Representatives. SMZ is also effecting the 8th amendment of her constitution in order to provide for the implementation of the accord.

The President of the Union, Hon. B. W. Mkapa, has appointed Hon. Hamad Rashid Mohamed of Civic United Front (CUF) an MP

in the Union Parliament. The Union President has also formed a commission headed by Brig. Hashim Mbita (Rtd) to inquire into the clash between the police and demonstrators which occurred in the islands of Unguja and Pemba on 26 - 27 January 2001.

The number of fully registered political parties increased from 13 in 2000 to 15 in 2002. Two parties, namely PPP and MSHIKAMANO, have obtained temporary registration. During the same period two parties have been de-registered, namely TPP and PONA. ■

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, September 2002

NOTES

INTRODUCTION TO INDICATORS

By Mr C.M.M. Kajege, Kivukoni Academy of Social Sciences

An indicator is a measure that can be used to reflect progress, stagnation or deterioration in a particular phenomenon or situation such as literacy, the economy, health and poverty. For example, a change in the literacy rate from 5% to 7% over a five year period reflects an improvement in literacy in that period.

Indicators are also used to compare a given situation, for example poverty, between one individual and another, between one household and another, between one community and another or one country with another.

The economic and social welfare of an individual,

household or community can be measured using economic and social welfare indicators.

ECONOMIC INDICATORS

There are a number of standardized indicators in this area that can give a picture of a country's economic situation. These indicators are most useful when (1) they are compared with those of other countries in the region; (2) they are put into a time perspective (e.g. the 1960 Gross National Product compared with that of 1980); and (3) when internal variations are taken into consideration (e.g. how the project area compares to the nation as a whole).

• **Gross National Product (GNP)** per capita is the main criteria for the country classification. It does not in itself constitute or measure welfare or success in development. It does not distinguish between the aims and ultimate uses of a given product, nor does it say whether it merely offsets some natural or other obstacles to welfare. GNP measures the total domestic and foreign value added claimed by residents. It comprises Gross Domestic Product (GDP) plus net factor income from abroad, which is the income residents receive from abroad for factor services (labour and capital), less simi-

lar payments made to domestic non-residents who contributed to the domestic economy.

• **Gross Domestic Product (GDP)** is the total output of goods and services for final use produced in an economy by both residents and non-residents regardless of the allocation to domestic and foreign claims. It is calculated without making deductions for depreciation of “fabricated” assets or depletion and degradation of natural resources. GDP per capita is obtained by dividing GDP by the population. The figures for GDP are US \$ value converted from domestic currencies using a single-year official exchange rate.

• **Unemployment** is one of the key indicators of the economy. Unemployment is generally defined as males and females in the economically active age group who are not in paid employment in cash or kind or self-employed on a continuous basis, but who are available and have taken specific measures to seek paid employment or self-employment. The rate is derived from the economically active population. The employed include regular employees, working proprietors, active business partners and unpaid family workers but exclude homemakers.

• **Income distribution** is the proportion of the consumption that the population with the lowest consumption (lowest 20 percent) spends.

This indicator can also be used to measure the pattern of the standard of living.

• **The nation’s debt situation** is an estimate of the nation’s public and private sector long-term foreign debt expressed as a percentage of the GNP; an assessment of the nation’s ability to pay it back and how it affects the government’s capacity to provide services to its people.

• **Rate of inflation** is defined as the percentage annual increase in a general price level commonly measured by the Consumer Price Index (CPI) or some comparable price index. Inflation affects people’s livelihood. Price increases of food and non-food essential items means harder lives for people.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

The following represent commonly used indicators of social development. In general they are used in the same way as the economic indicators.

• **Infant mortality rate (IMR)** is the probability of dying between birth and exactly one year of age expressed per 1,000 live births for a given year. It is a very sensitive indicator, which is influenced by maternal care, health services provided and infant care. The “under 5 mortality rate” is the probability of dying between birth and exactly five years of age expressed per 1,000 live births. It is influenced by the livelihood status of the family.

• **Life expectancy** is the

average number of years newborn children can expect to live taking into account the mortality risks prevailing for the cross-section of the population at the time of birth.

• **Literacy** is defined as the percentage of women and men aged 15 and above who can read and write. “Adult illiteracy” is defined as the proportion of the population over the age of 15 years who cannot, with understanding, read and write a short, simple statement on their everyday life.

• **Primary school gross enrolment ratio** is the total number of children enrolled in primary school, e.g. Std. I-VII (whether or not they belong in the relevant age group for that level), expressed as a percentage of the total number of children in the relevant age group for primary school, e.g. 7-13 years old. However, it should always be remembered that the overall net enrolment rate is, in most cases, much lower due to pupils dropping out of school.

The Ministry of Education has issued a directive that “the primary pupil-teacher ratio” must be 45:1. The primary pupil-teacher ratio is the number of pupils enrolled in a school divided by the number of teachers in the education system. ■

Sources: 1) Poverty Monitoring Master Plan, United Republic of Tanzania, 2001
2) World Development Report 2000

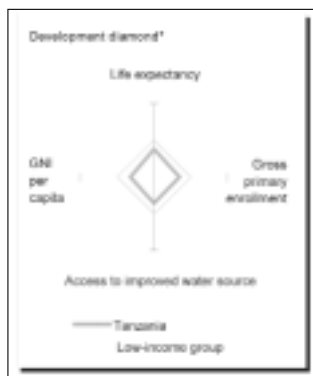
TANZANIA AT A GLANCE

Source: World Development Report 2002, World Bank; Human Development Report, 2001; UNDP & World Bank 2000, www.worldbank.org/data

I. POVERTY AND SOCIAL INDICATORS

	TANZANIA	SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA	LOW INCOME
2000			
Population, mid-year (millions)	34.0	659	2,459
GNP per capita (Atlas method, US\$)	270	480	420
GNP (Atlas method, US\$ billions)	9.1	313	1,030
Average annual growth, 1990-2000			
Population (%)	2.8	2.6	1.9
Labour force (%)	2.6	2.6	2.4
Most recent estimate (latest year available, 1990-2000)			
Poverty (% of population below national poverty line)	51
Urban population (% of total population)	33	34	32
Life expectancy at birth (years)	45	47	59
Infant mortality (per 1000 live births)	152	92	77
Child malnutrition (% of children under 5)	31
Access to improved water source (% of population)	54	55	76
Adult illiteracy (% of population age +15)	25	38	38
Gross primary enrollment (% of school-age population)	67	78	96
male	67	85	102
female	66	71	86

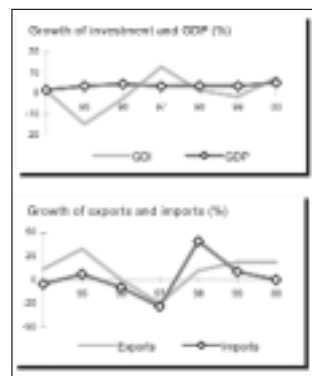
I. POVERTY AND SOCIAL



2. KEY ECONOMIC RATIOS AND LONG-TERM TRENDS



3. STRUCTURE OF THE ECONOMY



*The diamonds show four key indicators in the country (in bold) compared with its income-group average. If data are missing, the diamond will be incomplete.

2. KEY ECONOMIC RATIOS AND LONG-TERM TRENDS

	1990	1999	2000*	
GDP (US\$ billions)	4.3	8.8	9.3	
Gross domestic investment/GDP	26.1	15.3	17.7	
Exports of goods and services/GDP	12.6	13.6	14.7	
Gross domestic savings/GDP	1.3	3.3	8.7	
Gross national savings/GDP	5.9	2.9	8.6	
Current account balance/GDP	-17.9	-12.3	-9.2	
Interest payments/GDP	1.1	0.7	1.4	
Total debt/GDP	151.2	91.9	78.7	
Total debt service/exports	34.2	15.7	15.3	
Present value of debt/GDP	...	53.1	29.1	
Present value of debt/exports	...	373.5	189.2	
	1990-00	1999	2000	2000-04*
(Average annual growth)				
GDP	2.9	3.6	5.1	6.2
GDP per capita	0.1	2.4	1.3	4.0
Exports of goods and services	9.3	18.6	18.4	1.7

3. STRUCTURE OF THE ECONOMY

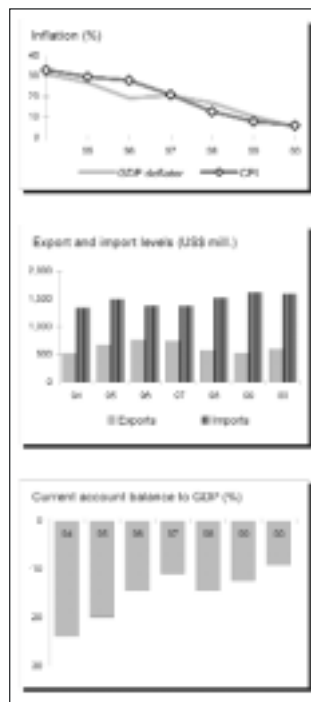
	1990	1999	2000*
(% of GDP)			
Agriculture	46.0	44.8	45.1
Industry	17.7	15.4	15
Manufacturing	9.3	7.4	7.5
Services	36.4	39.8	40
Private Consumption	80.9	89.8	86
General government consumption	17.8	6.9	12
Imports of goods and services	37.5	25.6	23.8
	1990-00	1999	2000
(Average annual growth)			
Agriculture	3.2	3.1	3.4
Industry	3.1	6.7	7.2
Manufacturing	2.7	4.9	4.6
Services	2.7	5.4	5.8
Private Consumption	2.2	5.2	-0.9
General government consumption	2.5	-1.5	5.0
Gross domestic investment	-1.4	-1.5	7.5
Imports of goods and services	0.9	8.7	0.1

Note: 2000 data are preliminary estimates

* Compiled from World Bank Report 2000, 2002

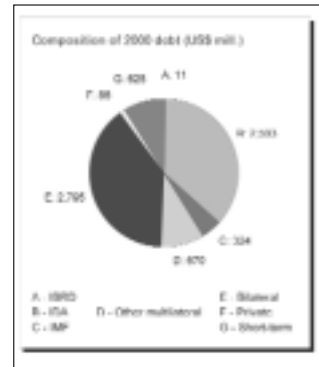
4. PRICES AND GOVERNMENT FINANCE

	1990	1999	2000
Domestic prices			
<i>(% change)</i>			
Consumer prices	35.8	7.9	5.9
Implicit GDP deflator	20.2	10.3	5.4
Government finance			
<i>(% of GDP includes current grants)</i>			
Current revenue	11.4	10.6	10.7
Current budget balance	-1.1	0.5	-0.5
Overall surplus/deficit	-3.8	-3.3	-5.8
TRADE			
<i>(US\$ millions)</i>			
Total exports (fob)	352	541	600
Coffee	85	77	84
Cotton	75	28	38
Manufactures	73	22	34
Total imports (cif)	1297	1631	1592
Food	59	200	176
Fuel and energy	174	104	95
Capital goods	540	710	770
Export price index (1995=100)	75	84	83
Import price index (1995=100)	92	84	85
Terms of trade (1995=100)	82	99	98
BALANCE OF PAYMENTS			
<i>(US\$ millions)</i>			
Exports of goods and services	519	1195	1327
Imports of goods and services	1557	2244	2146
Resource balance	-1038	-1049	-819
Net income	-186	-66	-43
Net current transfers	461	34	35
Current account balance	-764	-1081	-827
Financing items (net)	748	1223	1176
Changes in net reserves	16	-143	-348
Memo			
Reserves incl. gold			
<i>(US\$ millions)</i>			
Conversion rate(DEC, local/US\$)	195.1	744.8	800.4



5. EXTERNAL DEBT AND RESOURCE FLOWS

	1990	1999	2000
<i>(US\$ millions)</i>			
Total debt outstanding and disbursed	6438	8053	7104
IBRD	243	16	11
IDA	1250	2594	2593
Total debt service	179	196	213
IBRD	44	8	6
IDA	14	43	51
Composition of net resource flows			
Official grants	677	737	763
Official creditors	208	177	111
Private creditors	4	-13	-11
Foreign direct investment	0	183	193
Portfolio equity	0	0	0
World Bank program			
Commitments	537	159	272
Disbursements	187	199	142
Principal repayments	32	30	37
Net flows	155	169	105
Interest payments	26	21	20
Net transfers	129	148	85



Source: World Bank, 2002 www.worldbank.org/data/

NOTES

2. GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES

DIFFERENT VIEWS ON GLOBALIZATION

“The benefits of globalisation are obvious: faster growth, higher living standards, new opportunities. Yet a backlash has begun. Why? Because these benefits are very unequally distributed; because the global market is not yet underpinned by rules based on shared social objectives; and because, if all of tomorrow’s poor follow the same path that brought today’s rich to prosperity, the earth’s resources will soon be exhausted...” *Kofi Annan, UN Secretary-General, in the Daily News, 22nd December 2000, Noble Peace Prize Winner 2001.*

What is Globalization?

While globalization may mean different things to different people, there is no doubt that it is the most frequently used concept to describe contemporary international interaction.

The most prominent areas associated with the concept of globalization are information technology (IT) and the global economy. The obvious peculiar characteristics of globalization related to information technology and the global economy are speed, intensity, scope, volume and value of the international transactions in the areas of information, finance, trade

and administration. In simple terms, globalization is the free movement of goods, capital and information.

Dimensions of Globalization

The process of globalization manifests itself in a number of dimensions. The most prominent are those in the areas of economics, finance, information technology, environment and even in politics. At the economic level, globalization is responsible for integrating national economies into a single world economy. This is expressed through the merging of transnational corporations, which are simply defined as large commercial enterprises which do business in many countries. The formation of sub-regional and regional economic organizations such as the East African Community, SADC, COMESA, ECOWAS, EU, NAFTA and ASEAN is yet another expression of the economic dimension of the process of globalization.

At the financial level, the process of globalization has integrated the financial markets. The dimension of information technology is the backbone of the process of globalization. It is the application of information techno-

logy that counts in the process of globalization. The obvious expressions of information technology are the internet and the electronic media. The global news coverage of the CNN is a case in point.

Environmental integration is another dimension of the process of globalization. According to Scott Barret and Charles S. Person “we all share just one global climate system and a single ozone layer, both of which are necessary for supporting life on earth. The climate and the ozone layer are global public goods. Use of both by one country does not diminish the amount available to others and no country can be excluded from using them. Emissions of pollutants that change the climate and destroy ozone in the hemisphere are global problems” (in SAISPHERE 2000: Can the Environment Survive Globalization?).

At the political level, one political aspect of globalization is the spread of democracy throughout the world. The emphasis on human rights, rule of law and good governance have become international concerns.

Another important political aspect of globalization is national security. The process

of globalization raises serious challenges to national governments. Information systems create new vulnerabilities in a nation's infrastructure, particularly to its electric power grid, banking system and water supply. At the international level, globalization raises the question of whether the world is safer or more dangerous place. Due to the process of globalization many nations face both new threats and new vulnerabilities. These include poverty, diseases, conflicts and terrorism.

Varying perceptions on Globalization

Whether the process of globalization is good or bad, or whether its effects are positive or negative depend much on one's perspective. Consequently, the process of globalization has its proponents and opponents. For its advocates, globalization increases productivity by offering better access to capital, markets for products, lower-priced consumption items and information about new technologies. Economic growth, in turn, produces new wealth that can bring great improvements in the human condition and reduce global poverty. Globalization also has the potential of promoting civil, political and economic freedoms.

The activists against globalization come from different perspectives and motivations. For those coming from an economic point of view, globalization harms the world's

poorest. Trade could hurt the poor by lowering, through international competition, the prices of what they produce. Economic integration leads to aggregate growth which could lead to higher inequality within countries. One industrial country's economy downturn can pull the rest of the world into recession. Finally, globalization is partly one-sided or exclusionist. Its advantages are foremost in the rich countries and less in the poor countries; or it involves urban centers to the detriment of rural areas.

The opponents coming from the information technology point of view worry about the Internet's negative impact. A lone cyber terrorist, for example, can cause havoc and disrupt millions of PCs worldwide. This fear is related to security concerns as well, for with globalization, it is easier for global criminal networks to operate. There is no better demonstration of this than the terrorist network that was responsible for the criminal events of September 11 in New York and Washington DC.

An FES-Position

"Globalization deepens the inequalities in our societies. Political action must thus focus on strengthening the foundations of social cohesion. Existing forms of cooperation and solidarity are being dissolved; and these must now be reestablished and secured.

We need to rethink the relationship between market and state - on both national and the international levels. The inequality of worldwide developments necessitates the linking of the economic and political spheres, otherwise the global social question will threaten our very survival.

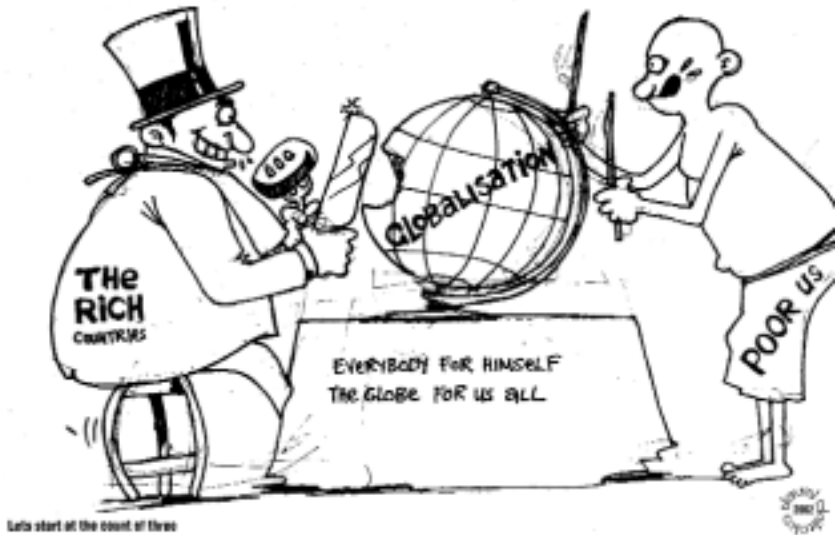
We must take advantage of the opportunities of globalization together. Dividing the world up into globalization winners and losers isn't very helpful, at least not if we want to build a lasting world order. Growth, development and solidarity are going to continue to be mutually dependent values." *Holger Boerner, President of the Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, 17th of June, 1998, Berlin.*

You can get more information on globalization via the Internet:

www.worldbank.org
www.imf.org
www.aidc.org.za/ilrig
www.odc.org
www.globalism.com.au/
www.un.org/partners/civil-society/agard.htm

Critical views:

www.fes.de
stettenj@fes.de
www.ifbwww.org
info@attac-netzwerk.de
www.attac-netzwerk.de



Source: The Guardian, 12/11/2002

TANZANIA AND THE DYNAMICS OF THE CONTEMPORARY GLOBAL ECONOMY

Role of the Private Sector, Foreign Direct Investments and International Trade

By Prof. F. A. S. T. Matambalya, Department of Marketing, University of Dar es Salaam

I. Introduction

A very important feature of the contemporary global economy is the increasing international economic integration. There are three major channels of international economic interaction: international investment, international trade and international diffusion of new technologies (Matambalya 2001, Siebert and Klodt 1998).

The private sector is considered to be the motor for economic development in a liberal global economy. Furthermore, integration with

the global economy is seen as a prerequisite for competitiveness and sustainable growth of any economy.

International economic interactions can enable developing economies to close the gap in terms of such critical strategic resources as capital. Thus, in a liberal global economy, such resources as investments can easily flow to developing countries in the form of foreign direct investments (FDIs).

Besides, through the trade channel, developing countries can in more mutually benefi-

cial ways, interact with other economies on the global factor markets (i.e., markets where they source such inputs as capital, labour and raw materials) and global markets for goods and services (i.e., where they sell their products, including services). International trade, which is the traditional form of international economic linkage, is still the most imperative link between national economies in general, and developing economies in particular. The pertinent interactions are institutionalised through arrangements

of a bilateral nature, a regional nature (through regional integration schemes), and a multi-lateral nature promoted and realised through the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Against this background, this article discusses the roles of the private sector, FDI and international trade in a liberal global economy. Using simple indicators, it highlights the evolution of the private sector in Tanzania, FDI and trade. All statistical figures in this article are adapted from Matambalya (2001).

II. Fundamentals of the contemporary global economic dynamics

A. Economic liberalisation

Economic liberalisation is the foundation of the current global economic dynamics. Technically, it refers to a policy stance where economic policies deliberately seek to promote international economic interaction via a freer-market economy.

Economic liberalisation is realised through the removal or reduction of direct controls of both intra-national and international economic transactions, and a shift towards more reliance on price mechanism to co-ordinate economic activities. It involves designing and implementing specific measures to make possible the shift of the economy to a situation where there is, *inter alia* (a) less direct involvement of government in economic production activities, and (b) less

use of controls (e.g., licenses, permits, price controls, etc., exchange rates, etc. (Matambalya 2001, Black 1997).

B. Empowerment of the private sector

The economic liberalisation process is firmly founded on the empowerment of the private sector. Hence, the process involves the empowerment of non-state economic units, i.e., private enterprises and households. In Tanzania this has involved the privatisation of state-owned enterprises (SOEs).

Coming after the failure of earlier policy attempts to empower the people through collective ownership of various properties through the state, the move to empower the private sector is also seen as a possible way of promoting direct, and wherever possible, more widely spread property ownership in society. In this spirit, shares of formerly public enterprises like the Tanzania Oxygen Limited (TOL), Co-operative and Rural Development Bank (CRDB), Tanzania Breweries Limited (TBL), etc. were sold to the public.

C. Regulatory framework

While recognising the potentials of liberalisation, no responsible government in the world has ever equated liberalisation with full-scale *laissez faire*, i.e., a policy of complete non-intervention by governments in the economy, leaving all decisions to the market.

Instead, liberalisation expresses a freer economy, in which the government continues to play a facilitating role, by setting and managing a regulatory framework.

A conducive regulatory framework is necessary in order to promote competition and create a level playing field for individuals, households and enterprises participating in various economic transactions. Otherwise liberalisation may lead to such undesirable practices as the formation of formal or informal cartels (agreement by a number of firms in the industry to restrict competition), thus causing less efficient economic performance and distorting the sharing of the benefits of liberalisation.

III. Envisioned evolution of investments and trade in a liberal global economy

A. Envisioned evolution of investments from a global perspective

Liberal economic policies are expected to induce the growth of international capital flows. Trends in FDI provide important information about economic competitiveness. The proxies for the pattern and structure of integration with the global economy can be gleaned from, (i) the development of a country's capital flows relative to its output and trade flows, and (ii) the development of a country's capital flows relative global capital flows.

In its elementary form, the assessment of an economy from a global perspective involves the exploration of various indicators of the contribution of international trade to economic evolution, e.g., (i) the relationship between FDIs and GDP, (ii) the relationship between FDIs and exports, (Matambalya 2001, Siebert and Klodt 1998, Grundlach and Nunnenkamp 1996, Stoeckl et al. 1990).

B. Envisioned evolution of trade from a global perspective

Liberal economic policies are expected to induce the growth of international trade flows. Trade trends give important information about economic competitiveness. The most common approach to assess the role of international trade involves measuring the trend dimension of a given economy's integration with other economies. In its elementary form, this involves the exploration of various indicators of the contribution of international trade to economic evolution, e.g., (i) the contribution of trade to output, and (ii) the growth in trade flows *vis à vis* growth of output, (Matambalya 2001, Siebert and Klodt 1998, Stoeckl et al. 1990).

Hence, the evolution of a nation's trade as an indicator of its integration with the global economy can be highlighted by the relationships between, (i) exports and

GDP, and (ii) exports and capital flows.

C. Baselines for assessing performance in FDIs and trade

In the assessment of a given economy, it is important to know whether the economy under review is, (i) falling back in relation to the global trend, (ii) keeping pace with, (iii) (particularly for developing economies) catching up with, or (iv) outpacing it. (Matambalya 2001, Grundlach and Nunnenkamp 1996).

IV. Lessons from Tanzania's recent FDI performance: selected indicators

A. Contribution of FDIs to GDP

Regarding the ratio of net FDIs to GDP, the results computed using data from WB 2001b and WB 1992 are presented in table 1 for Tanzania, alongside her sister EAC economies.

Apparently, Tanzania is not yet an attractive destination for FDIs. Although the ratio has been increasing over the years, it remained extremely low. Hence, although available data does not allow a global comparison, with this kind of performance Tanzania cannot be keeping pace with the world, let alone catching up.

Though Tanzania is now attracting more FDI than in the past (a substantial part

being directed at extracting its mineral wealth), overall the performance of all the three East African Community (EAC) economies is bad.

B. Growth of FDIs flows relative to growth of export flows

The relevant test of integration with the rest of the world through capital flows is depicted in table 2 for Tanzania and the other two EAC economies. For Tanzania the average FDI-to-export ratio in the period 1990 to 1998 increased by a phenomenal 900 percent compared to the 1980 to 1989 period.

The evidence of positive trends is encouraging. However, due to the absence of consistent data to enable a comparison with the overall global trend, it is not possible to prove whether the growths recorded by Tanzania and Uganda indicate the economies are keeping pace with the global trend, or even catching up. Besides, Kenya, Tanzania's important economic partner, recorded a real fall back, and compared to the 1980 to 1989 period, the ratio in the period 1990 to 1998 declined from 1.3 percent to 0.75 percent.

The explicatory power of the results is severely restrained by the extremely low starting points of FDIs, as Tanzania recorded virtually zero FDIs during most of the 1980s.

Table 1: Integration of the EAC and selected economies in the global economy as depicted by the relationship between FDIs and export trends.

TABLE 1		$\frac{\text{NDFI}}{\text{GDP}} * 100$		
	Year	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda
1.	1980	1.1	0.00	0.00
2.	1985	0.21	0.00	0.00
3.	1989	0.63	0.80	0.25
Average of 1980 - 1989		0.32	0.02	0.02
4.	1990	0.25	0.9	0.14
5.	1995	0.36	2.1	0.14
6.	1998	0.50	2.8	2.8
Average of 1990 - 1998		0.24	1.5	0.85
Average of 1980 - 1998		0.28	0.76	0.42

Source: NFDI net foreign direct investments, GDP... gross domestic product.

Source: Matambalya 2001.

Table 2: Integration of the EAC and selected economies in the global economy as depicted by the relationship between FDIs and export trends.

TABLE 2		$\frac{\text{NDFI}}{X} * 100$		
	Year	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda
1.	1980	3.8	0	0
2.	1985	0.8	0	0
3.	1989	0.27	7.7	6.4
Average of 1980 - 1989		1.3	0.56	0.64
4.	1990	1.0	0.79	1.92
5.	1995	1.1	9.29	0.29
6.	1998	1.4	13.22	27.3
Average of 1990 - 1998		0.75	7.4	7.6
Average of 1980 - 1998		1.03	3.6	3.9

Source: NFDI net foreign direct investments, direct investments, X ... exports Source: Matambalya 2001.

Table 3: The integration of the EAC and selected economies into the global economy: evidence from selected trade-related indicators.

TABLE 3		$\frac{\Delta(X\psi)}{\Delta(GDP\psi)} \times 100$			$\frac{\Delta(X\psi)}{\Delta(Xy)} \times 100$		
		1980-90	1990-99	1980-99	1980-90	1990-99	1980-99
1.	Kenya	105	18	61.5	85	6	45.5
2.	Tanzania	NA	306	-	NA	137	-
3.	Uganda	62	226	144	35	236	135.5
4.	SSA	140	183	161.5	46	64	55
5.	EA and Pacific	140	170	155	213	183	198
6.	World	160	276	218	-	-	-
7.	High Income	160	270	215	96	94	95

V. Lessons from Tanzania's recent trade performance: selected indicators

A. Significance of exports relative to global exports

Optimistic observations are presented in Table 3 (Matambalya 2001). Tanzania recorded a notable ratio of 137 percent for the period 1990 to 1999. Compared to the high-income countries, which recorded 94 percent, it appears that the economy is potentially catching up.

However, these results allow only reserved optimism due to the extremely low starting point. Besides, the EAC's only somewhat strong economy, i.e., Kenya, shrank from 85 percent for the 1980 to 1990 period to 6 percent for the 1990 to 1999 period.

Notes: $\frac{\Delta(X\psi)}{\Delta(GDP\psi)} \times 100$

growth of exports relative to growth of GDP, computed as average of the observation

years, $\frac{\Delta(X\psi)}{\Delta(Xy)} \times 100$

growth of country exports relative to growth of global exports, computed as average of the observation years.

EA ... East Asia, SSA ... Sub-Saharan Africa, High Income; (WB 2000: 334-335). Source: Matambalya 2001.

B. Importance of exports in GDP

On the basis of results presented in table 3 for the period 1990 to 1999, Tanzania appears not only to be moving forward in tandem with the global trend, but also to be systematically catching up with the more advanced economies. However, the observed trends are weakened by the extremely low take-off levels. In 1980, for instance, Tanzania recorded dismal GDP and exports of goods and services of US \$ 4220 millions and US \$ 506.4 (equivalent to 12 percent of the GDP), respectively. The

comparable figures for Uganda were US \$ 4 304 and 301.28 (equivalent to 7 percent of the GDP) respectively.

VI. Conclusions

This article contains some important observations with respect to the reform efforts as well as economic performance efforts related to FDI and trade. Tanzania's net FDI to GDP ratio has been growing over the years. Yet, the economy is apparently still not a sufficiently attractive destination for FDI as the ratio remained extremely low. Given this performance, Tanzania might not have managed to keep pace with the global trend, let alone catch up with advanced economies. As to the growth of FDI flows relative to growth of export flows, the ratio increased by a 900 percent in the period 1990 to 1998, compared to the 1980 to 1989 period. However, the absence of consistent data makes a comparison with the

overall global trend impossible.

Regarding the significance of Tanzania's exports relative to global exports, optimistic trends are observed as well. From a technical perspective, the country appears to be potentially catching up compared to the high-income countries. Also, Tanzania appears not only to be moving forward in tandem with the global trend, but also to be systematically catching up with the more advanced economies, regarding the importance of exports in GDP.

Overall, the results give a degree of hope regarding Tanzania's economic performance in general, and integration with the global economy (through the investment and trade channels) in particular. Although, the explanatory

power of the results is restrained by the low starting points of key variables of economic performance (e.g., exports, GDPs, and FDIs, etc.) they suggest that the economy has firmly set off on the arduous path to economic development and modernisation.

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NOTES

THE NEW PARTNERSHIP FOR AFRICA'S DEVELOPMENT (NEPAD): EAST AFRICAN COMMUNITY (EAC) AND TANZANIA PERSPECTIVES

By Mr H.E. Mrango, President's Office, Planning and Privatization, DSM

NEPAD is a vision and a programme of action for the development of the African continent conceived and developed by African leaders. It is a commitment that the African leaders are making to the African people and to the international community to take leadership in enhancing political and economic governance and placing African countries, both individually and collectively, on a path of sustainable growth and development and thus accelerating the integration of the continent into the global economy. Within this framework Africa is calling for partnership with the rest of the world, and especially with the industrialized countries, in her development on the basis of her own agenda and programme of action. Generally speaking the goals of NEPAD are not that new. What is new is the approach to their realization where the concept of Africa as owner and spearhead assumes a central position. The key goals are to accelerate the eradication of poverty, promote accelerated growth and sustainable development (achieve and sustain 7% GDP growth over the next 15 years)

and halt the marginalisation of Africa in the globalisation process.

As a precondition for sustainable development, NEPAD has first of all identified its priority as a Peace, Security, Democracy and Political Initiative. Also covered here is Economic and Corporate Governance and the strengthening of the Sub-regional and Regional approach to development. The second area of focus covers the sectoral priorities for Bridging the Infrastructure Gap, Human Resource Development, Agriculture, Environment, Culture, and Science and Technology. The third critical element of NEPAD is Resources Mobilization. In the immediate phase of building capacities, reliance remains on ODA¹, debt relief and domestic revenue generation. However, as the fundamentals for market economies are put in place, Africa hopes to mobilize most of its resources through trade, hence the importance of market access for its commodities, private capital inflows and improvements in domestic private savings.

Africa is rich in minerals,

oil, gas deposits and flora and fauna. It is also rich in history and culture and has an ecological lung (rainforests) with a minimum presence of emissions and effluents. All these could be better harnessed for Africa's development.

EAST AFRICAN COMMUNITY (EAC)

NEPAD sees sub-regional and regional approaches as necessary for improving Africa's competitiveness, mindful of the fact that as markets most African countries are small. The Treaty of the East African Community (EAC), signed on 30 November 1999, seeks to promote and strengthen the balanced and sustainable integration of economic, social, cultural and political aspects of the three member states: Tanzania, Kenya, and Uganda. To this end EAC is promoting regional projects, facilitating the movement of people and vehicles across borders, harmonizing policies and regulations for trade and investments and promoting regional infrastructure. EAC is implementing its Development Strategy launched in April, 2001 with programmes such as Lake Victoria Basin

development, agriculture and food security, energy, tourism, civil aviation safety, postal services, meteorology, and inter-university co-operation. To enhance good governance in the region, two organs of the Community, namely the EAC Court of Justice and the EAC Legislative Assembly were launched in November, 2001. Efforts for concluding the Customs Union Protocol are at an advanced stage. Clearly, EAC strategies are in accordance with the general thrust of NEPAD and will serve as vehicles for achieving the objectives of NEPAD.

TANZANIA PARTICIPATION IN NEPAD

The United Republic of Tanzania, as a member of the African Union (AU), is committed to the objectives of NEPAD and is in a good position to participate effectively and gainfully in all aspects of NEPAD for a number of reasons. Firstly, Tanzania is committed to the principles of democracy, rule of law and the protection of human rights. The government has adopted a Good Governance Framework which promotes the participation of its people in decision making; the principles of constitutionalism; the rule of law, the administration of justice and protection of human rights; gender equality; the culture of accountability, transparency and integrity in the management of public affairs; and the positive prin-

ciples of electoral democracy. Tanzania will advocate for the same principles at the continental level. Secondly, the Government has effected comprehensive economic reforms laying the basis for competitiveness. Lastly, Tanzania is a member of the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) and the East African Community (EAC). These regional arrangements are important in promoting economies of scale in terms of market size and the mobilization of resources.

NEPAD PRIORITY AREAS OF FOCUS FOR TANZANIA

Tanzania is in the process of formulating its NEPAD programme of action. Emphasis will be placed on policy actions and programmes with critical bearing on poverty eradication. It will promote regional and continental inter-linkages, the involvement of the private sector, exports to the region and beyond, and facilitate cross border movements.

Priorities according to the NEPAD framework:

Conditions for Sustainable Development

Capacity building for transparency and accountability, facilitation of private sector, empowerment of local communities, legal sector reform, regional security (SADC & EAC) and capacity building in economic policy formulation and analysis.

Human Resource Development

Primary education development, rationalization of tertiary and higher education institutions, health sector reform, roll back malaria, telemedicine and health care programme for Tanzania, integrated disease surveillance network, reproductive and child health, HIV/AIDS control, water and sanitation and vocational education and training improvement.

Infrastructure Development

Cross border and domestic grid interconnections in the context of EAC and SADC, the generation of energy in accordance with 2001 Revised Power Sector Master Plan and the East African Road Transport Corridors. Other areas are railway transport improvements, ports and shipping, air transport and aviation, pipeline transport and telecommunications improvement.

Productive and Economic Services

Trade development, agriculture diversification, mining, manufacturing (export processing zones, establishment of capacity for agro-processing and natural resources processing), tourism, lands development, and environment protection and conservation. ■

¹ ODA = overseas development assistance

WORLD SUMMIT ON SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT (WSSD) Johannesburg, South Africa, 26 August – 4 September 2002

By Mr Moses Kulaba, *Agenda Participation 2000*

Preamble

As the delegates from all over the world convened in Johannesburg, international attention was temporarily shifted away from the traditional western capitals and the conflict hotspots in the Middle East to the long awaited World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD).

In the preceding weeks the Summit had been described as one of the biggest United Nations meetings ever. The top geared preparations that preceded the Summit led opinion makers from all over the world to believe that the world had finally awakened to the concerns of the third world countries.

Considering the issues tabled for discussion, most delegates hoped that the poor nations of the world would celebrate 4 September 2002 as the historic day when the world's most affluent nations came to the rescue of the economically downtrodden. It was envisaged that 10-15 years after the Johannesburg Summit, the sick and hungry would no longer have cause to worry about the scarcity of food and expensive medicine. Children would go to school and adults would go to work in a safe

and clean environment.

Despite the traditional differences between the rich and the poor, the Johannesburg summit was expected to yield a political commitment to sustainable development. The summit was expected to conclude with a statement from world leaders in the form of the "Johannesburg Declaration" reaffirming their commitment to work towards sustainable development.

Ministerial meetings

The ministerial meetings held earlier at an Indonesian resort in Bali had proved promising, with breakthroughs on some of the controversial issues. Three quarters of the draft implementation plan had been agreed upon. The unresolved issues in Bali related to provisions regarding trade, finance and the setting of timetables. The draft implementation plan identified broad areas where action was to be taken: *poverty eradication, changing unsustainable patterns of consumption and production, natural resources and eco-systems, globalisation, health and sustainable development.*

The UN agenda

The United Nations Secretary General, Kofi Anann,

had identified five key areas where the Johannesburg Summit was to make a real difference: *water and sanitation, energy, health, agricultural productivity and biodiversity / ecosystem management.* The summit had to deliver concrete results in these five areas under an acronym, "WEHAB".

Summation of the Summit's conclusions

The Johannesburg Summit once again failed the poor. The environmentalists were given piecemeal results and the less developed countries were marginalised yet again. Planet earth remained confronted with environmental threats as before while the rich nations and the multinational corporations emerged triumphant.

The draft text for the implementation of the resolutions submitted to the Summit for negotiation was watered down to a toothless document shrouded in ambiguities. The wording of the final political declaration was devoid of strict targets binding governments to meet the same. The Agenda 21, adopted at the World Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, was weakened further by the ambiguous wording of the

Johannesburg text. Oxfam International summed up the Summit as an opportunity wasted, while the environmentalists, e.g. Greenpeace, awarded the Summit a complete 'F' grade. The WSSD had turned its back on the poor, said Oxfam's Andrew Hewett. The Summit had proved a sad disappointment, said Oxfam's executive director, Barbra Stocking.

The issues at stake

Some of the issues which were to be addressed by the Johannesburg Summit with specific timetables were:

- Halving the proportion of people living in extreme poverty and without access to safe drinking water by 2015.
- Reducing or phasing out environmentally harmful products and trade distorting subsidies; setting targets for developed countries and their review in 2007; and increasing the share of renewables in the global energy mix by at least to 15 % by 2010.
- Setting 2020 as a target for eliminating human and environmentally harmful products; halting and reversing the current loss of natural resources/ biodiversity by 2015; and setting 2004 as a deadline for effectively reducing, preventing and controlling pollutants and their health related impacts.
- Trade/financial issues relating to market access; aid and debt relief to poor countries by increasing Overseas

Development Assistance (ODA) or meeting targets of 1% of GDP set during the Millennium Summit; total debt cancellation; replenishment of the Global Environmental Facility; respect of Human Rights; and access to land as major ingredients of sustainable development.

However, after the Summit it became clear that delegates only managed to set targets in areas like water and the improvement in the Global Environmental Facility (GEF). There were no new commitments made, nor were timetables set, by the rich countries in the realms of *agricultural subsidies, dumping, the commodity price crisis, the raising of aid levels and debt cancellation*.

Proceedings

The WSSD drew delegates from all sections of society. While this was essential in providing the summit with the flavour and diversity needed in debating world problems, their numbers were overwhelming. The official number of delegates attending the Summit ranged between 45,000 and 60,000, excluding the local staff and South African residents. There were as many interests as there were delegates. Delegates competed to advance their own interests in the Summit agenda and the final political declaration. The situation denied the Summit the cohesive force needed to reach

a common position on the most contentious issues under discussion.

The ability to advance views and provoke substantial discussion on the issues at stake depended on economic prowess rather than physical eloquence and the size of the delegation. Those who lacked economic power dropped out or tactfully withdrew from the negotiations, leaving room for the economic giants to take the lead.

Economic influence was manifested by the ability of the rich nations to influence the debates and wording of the final implementation plan. Economically powerful countries such as Japan, United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (the JUSCAN alliance) manipulated other delegates to drop targets on renewable energy and market distorting subsidies in rich countries. Poor nations conceded to a vague wording that would refer the issues of subsidies to the next round of talks in Doha and also agreed to a wording that would 'encourage' the reform of subsidies. At some point the US held up progress in the discussion by referring a compromise text on globalisation and trade issues to President George Bush in Washington DC for approval. Indeed, at the end of the summit the political declaration was a representation of what the US had said and wanted.

The lack of focus in the topics of discussion weak-

ened the WSSD. The topics for discussion were too general to generate a feasible implementation plan. As earlier hinted, every group represented at the Summit competed to ensure that its interests were given greater priority. As the summit progressed it was common for some disgruntled delegates to issue statements blaming one block, e.g. the financial institutions or radical social movements, of hijacking the Summit. This was an indication that no single delegation knew exactly what was on the agenda for the Summit. The Summit's real agenda was influenced by the strong and influential nations.

The Global People's Forum held at the Nasarec Center and the cultural show held at Ubuntu Village acted to the detriment of the Summit. The two events diverted the attention of some delegates from the serious issues of discussion at the Summit. The Global Forum degenerated into a platform for lamentating over missed opportunities and social injustices, while the Ubuntu Cultural Village degenerated into a world cultural showroom and crafts market for the delegates attending the Summit. The delegates took time off to shop for some of the world's art crafts and Africa's traditional regalia. The smart ones seized the opportunity to negotiate personal trade deals rather than to negotiate the WSSD draft implementation

plan. When looking at the amount of activity going on in these two places one wondered whether the summit was in fact being held outside Sandton Convention Center.

The lack of a point of reference and follow up after the Summit was yet another loophole in the final WSSD implementation plan document. The document did not spell out a clear office or contact point to monitor and ensure its implementation at national level. The document was open ended and left the prerogative of implementation to the good will of the respective national governments. Such a *carte blanche* to the governments had earlier failed the implementation of Agenda 21 and therefore the Johannesburg Summit ought to have corrected this mistake by establishing a focal point of reference and, possibly, by giving Civil Society Organisations (CSO) the power to report on the progress or the lack thereof in the implementation of the WSSD plan by national governments. Although the Secretary General, Kofi Annan, has since appointed an Under Secretary to oversee the implementation of the WSSD, the failure to have such an office engrained in the WSSD document reduced its focus even further.

Conclusion and Recommendations

It appears that the failure of the Summit was due to the

lack of foresight in determining the number and composition of delegates, the agenda for discussion, the nature of the parallel events and the point of reference after the Summit. In order to ensure that a future summit is a successful one, the following recommendations should be considered:

- The composition of the delegates should be left the same but their numbers scaled down to meaningful proportions. The delegates to the summit should be selected by their respective organisations on the basis of their competence and of their skill in putting across points on the issues under discussion. The summit organisers would invest more in Information Communication and Technology (ICT) to ensure the summit proceedings are beamed electronically live across the globe. Consultations with experts on contentious issues arising during the negotiations should be arranged via teleconferencing techniques. This would reduce the summit costs on transport, accommodation, meals, contingency allowances and security.
- The topics of discussion should be focused and sharpened to avoid ambiguities. Sideline events like the people's global forum should be held before the summit and their inputs submitted to the summit as a block representation from the Civil Society Organisations). CSOs are

often poor and are funded by donor agencies, the cost of attending such summits should be greatly reduced and grounds for conflict avoided.

- The summit organisers should insist on targets and time bound goals for all resolutions made. The wording of

the final declaration should be specific and clear rather than vague and general. The political document should clearly spell out a point of reference (contact office) at the national level.

- The millions of dollars saved by this major cost cut

should be spent on immunising children against killer diseases and also providing HIV/AIDS patients with anti-retroviral drugs. Some should be spent on supporting universal primary education in poor countries like Tanzania. ■

WHAT BENEFITS DOES THE COTONOU AGREEMENT HOLD FOR THE AGRICULTURAL SECTORS OF THE EAC ECONOMIES IN VIEW OF THE REFORMS OF THE EU'S COMMON AGRICULTURAL POLICY?

By Prof. Francis A.S.T. Matambalya, Department of Marketing, University of Dar es Salaam

INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, particularly since 1989, both the ACP-EU development co-operation regime and internal EU integration policies, have undergone fundamental changes. The most vivid manifestation of these changes is the shift from the Lomé culture of non-reciprocity in ACP-EU trade to the Cotonou culture which emphasises reciprocity. Related development refer to the ongoing reforms of the CAP.

A crucial process related to the internal EU reforms refers to CAP reforms. In this regard, the initial wave of cautious reforms of the mid 1980s, was followed by a second wave of more substantial reforms in the early 1990s. Subsequent to the adoption of Agenda 2000 by the EU

Heads of State in 1999, which spelled out more clearly the reform of EU's agricultural sector, the third wave CAP reforms constitutes very substantial proportions.

Thus, by extrapolating the global economic impact of CAP reforms, the article derives lessons for the economies of the East African Community (EAC). It outlines the consequences within the context of the changing environment for international agricultural trade in general, and the CAP reforms in particular.

ORIGINS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE EU'S CAP INTERVENTIONS

The CAP is one of the original pillars of European integration. Already Title II of the Treaty of Rome (1957),

which established the European Economic Community (EEC) - the predecessor of the EU, dealt with agriculture.

Article 38 provided that the common market shall extend to agriculture and trade in agriculture, and ensure that the development and operation of the common market for agricultural products is guided by a common European policy.

Article 39 outlined the objectives of the CAP, as being:

(i) To increase agricultural productivity (!), by promoting technical progress and by ensuring the rational development of agricultural production and the optimum utilisation of the factors of production, in particular labour.

(ii) To ensure a fair standard of living for the agricultural



Source: DemoCrazy by GADO

community, in particular increasing the earnings of persons engaged in agriculture.

(iii) To stabilise markets.

(iv) To assure the availability of supplies.¹

(v) To ensure that supplies reach consumers at reasonable prices.

CONCEPTUAL AND LEGAL FOUNDATIONS OF EU'S CAP

Conceptually, the CAP manifests the political economy of protectionism. Concretely, CAP utilises trade policy to insulate the domestic (EU) agricultural sector from competition (i.e. from imports). CAP protection is realised through tariff barriers and non-tariff barriers (NTBs).

The latter includes quotas and a system of guaranteed prices for the main agricultural crops and products.

In terms of the legal base, the WTO's agreement on agriculture provides the general framework for CAP. Accordingly, each WTO member country's schedule of concessions should outline, *inter alia*:

(i) The dedication by member state to achieve specific binding commitments in market access (article 4). The focus is the reduction of tariffs and other access commitments.

(ii) Domestic support commitments (articles 6-7, and annexes 2-4). Through them, member states commit themselves to reduce domestic support in favour of agricultural producers.

(iii) Export competition commitments (article 8), through which member states commit themselves not to provide export subsidies other than those specified in the member's schedule.

(iv) Export subsidies commitments (articles 9-10), specifying the member countries' resolve to reduce subsidies of various types (direct, marketing, export, etc.), avoid dumping, and desist from transportation costs discrimination.

(v) Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS) measures, specified in article 14, which emphasise that members should research an agreement on SPS.

These provisions call for a liberalisation of the agricultural sector. The setback lies

in the fact agriculture is the least liberalised sector, because the relevant WTO provisions allow substantially higher levels of protection, compared to the provisions on industrial goods. It should, however, be noted that up to 1995, the provisions of the general agreement on tariffs and trade (GATT) marginally liberalised agricultural trade. Subsequently, many areas of world agricultural trade were dominated by export and domestic subsidies, and restricted import regimes.

PRICE SUPPORT SYSTEM AS THE HUB OF THE CAP INTERVENTION INSTRUMENTS

The CAP that emerged in the 1960s (enacted in 1962) was built on a system of guaranteed prices for the main agricultural crops and products. The system consisted of three types of prices, i.e. target prices, entry prices and export subsidies.

Target Price

The target price refers to the minimum price the EU farmers receive on the EU market. Traditionally, this price is fixed at a certain level, regardless of the level of production. Hence, in the case of overproduction, the target price translates into an intervention price, paid by the government or specially established agencies to farmers to buy excess production in unlimited quantities.

Hence, target prices guarantee EU farmers minimum

selling prices for their agricultural products, independent of the actual supply and demand situations. Thus, analogous to the traditional convent of protectionism, the CAP raises the profits for and employment by the EU agricultural sector.

Entry Price

The entry price is the minimum price at which products may be imported into the EU. It works through an import tax, levied on agricultural products entering the EU market and is one of the major sources of EU's revenue, as the revenue thereof earned accrues to the EU budget. Hence, since it is designed as a tool to protect EU (inefficient?) producers from (efficient) foreign producers, it causes trade diversion in favour of EU producers.

Export Subsidy

The export subsidy targeted products leaving the EU. Technically, it is a refund paid to EU exporters of agricultural exports, to fund the gap between lower (world market prices) and higher (EU market) prices. Through export subsidies of this type, EU agricultural products producers can dispose of their excess supply on the world markets, in what is a *de facto* dumping practice.

INNOVATIONS OF CAP INTERVENTIONS INSTRUMENTS

The fundamental changes in EU agricultural policy that began in 1992, picked up sub-

stantial velocity in the late 1990s, marking the most profound CAP reforms since it came into existence. In line with these changes, on 26 March 1999, the Heads of State of the 15 European Union countries meeting in Berlin formalised the Agenda 2000 provisions for financing the EU for the period from 2000 to 2006. At the Mid-Term Review (MTR) of the CAP presented in July 2002, the EU's Commission proposed to move on with the reform process that had already started with the Agenda 2000.

CAP Focus on Direct Aid in Place of Price Support System

In technical terms, the CAP reforms have so far resulted in a shift in agricultural support from price support to much less trade-distorting direct payments. Invariably, since direct payments are decoupled from current production, they are posited to be much less trade-distorting than the price support system.

To underscore, this shift:

(i) In 1991, 91% of the CAP budget was used on export refunds and intervention, thus causing trade distortion and huge stocks.

(ii) By 2006 (when the reform process is expected to have been completed), only 21% will be spent on market support, while 68% of the budget will be used for direct payments to farmers.

Reform Goals for Main Agricultural Measures

The agricultural measures cover arable crops (wheat, oilseeds, protein crops), beef and milk. Sugar, olive oil, fruits, and vegetables are so far not included in the reform process but are scheduled for reform possibly in connection with the Doha round. Likewise in the cotton sector no reforms are on the table.

The following changes for arable crops highlight the major CAP reform targets:

(i) Initially, the intervention price for arable crops will be reduced by 15% in two phases, i.e., during the 2000/2001 and 2001/2002 crop years.

(ii) An in-depth study of market changes beginning with the 2002/2003 crop year will be made to determine if further reductions should be made.

(iii) Approximately 50% of the drop in intervention prices will be compensated for by per-hectare compensatory payments.

(iv) Direct aid for oilseeds will be progressively aligned with aid for grains by 2002.

(v) The base rate for required freezing of fields is set at 10% for the entire 2000-2006 period.

(vi) Compensation for set-aside is set at the same rate as compensatory aid for arable crops.

OVERVIEW OF THE CONSEQUENCES OF CAP REFORM ON PRODUCTION AND TRADE

Globalist Consequences

The ideal situation for the

reformed CAP regime is one where aid interventions in the EU Agricultural sector are truly “non-trade distorting”. Any deviation from “non-trade distortion” implies trade distorting measures, affecting EU’s competitors on both EU on domestic and foreign markets.

Hence, the levels of CAP subsidies for European agriculture also partially determine the competitiveness of agriculture in other economies and distort trade. Notably:

(i) Although the reforms introduced under the CAP may be judged less trade distorting as in previous arrangements, the trade enhancing impact is conspicuously still inconsequential. The reality of the matter is that CAP is enhancing the price competitiveness of EU exports (through increasing direct aid payments which allow farm-gate prices to fall without undermining production).

(ii) By lowering prices, CAP reforms have stimulated domestic (EU) consumption of the relevant products, and lowered the costs of surplus disposal in foreign markets.

(iii) In the coming years, with EU intervention prices falling below world market prices for major cereals, EU exports are likely to increase beyond the pre-reform levels.

Implications of CAP Reforms for ACP Economies

The globalist effects of CAP reform on trade will equally apply to ACP economies.

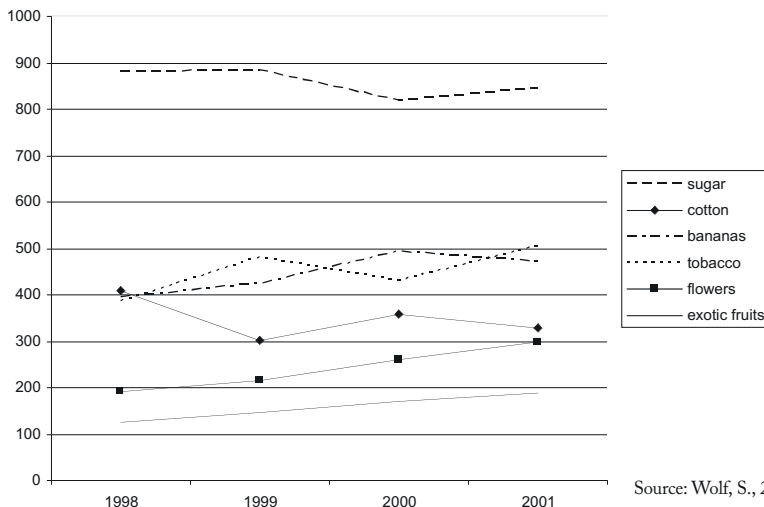
Hence, the presentation in this section is only an attempt to further customise the consequences for the ACP economies, due to their special linkages to the ACP, with the assistance of some examples. Thus:

(i) In view of possible EPAs between the EU and the EAC, the CAP reforms are likely to have a trade diverting and trade deflecting effect. The CAP reforms will enhance the diversion of trade from efficient producers from the Rest of the World (ROW) to inefficient EU suppliers of relevant products to the East African market. Similarly, it will increase trade deflection from efficient East African supplies of relevant products to inefficient EU suppliers.

(ii) ACP and EU products will compete on third markets. Generally, to the extent that the CAP intervention prices will fall below world market prices for major agricultural products, EU exports are likely to increase beyond the pre-reform levels.

(iii) Revenues from ACP exports to the EU will decline, due to declining prices of specific products. Currently, the ACP economies export to the EU about 1.6 million tons of ACP sugar, worth 844 million in 2001. This is equivalent to 86% of all sugar imports to the EU. However, as the quotas have not been changed since 1983, the quantities of ACP exports to the EU cannot be increased. A fall in sugar

FIGURE I: OVERVIEW OF MAIN ACP EXPORTS OF CAP PRODUCTS, 1998 TO 2001 (MILLION EUROS)



Source: Wolf, S., 2002, un-published paper.

prices will affect the incomes of the EAC economies, as they benefit from the sugar protocol.

(iv) The CAP reform may also have a stifling impact on the development of non-traditional agricultural exports, and hence hinder the ongoing diversification of exports. As depicted in figure 1, especially for flowers and fruits, some ACP economies (including Kenya and Tanzania from East Africa) have been able to increase exports of non-traditional ACP exports, such as cut flowers to the EU, partly because of to the preferential treatment.

(v) The CAP reforms should also be assessed in relation to other existing policies of relevance for ACP-EU trade relations. In this context, the EPAs advocated by the Cotonou

Agreement, the Generalised System of Preferences (GSP) which may offer a recourse for ACP states not willing to belong to an EPA, and Everything But Arms (EBA) as a special realisation, are particularly important. Equally crucial is the application of the Safeguard Clause by the EU. The policies may be struggling to get to terms with the CAP. In case of lack of coherence of these policies, their achievements will be sub-optimal at best.

DIGEST OF LESSONS OF THE CAP REFORM FOR THE EAC ECONOMIES

Policy Lessons

The EAC economies must bear in mind that the CAP is founded upon the legal text of the WTO, and accordingly, it attempts to address the prob-

lematic issues arising from it also within the framework of the multilateral trade negotiations. Furthermore, the Uruguay round of trade negotiations went a long way towards establishing a framework for effective liberalisation of agricultural trade. Thus, declines in preferential margins in agricultural trade are a fait accompli. Watertight measures to the contrary can only be negotiated within the multilateral fora.

Conceptual Lessons

The EAC economies also need to correctly conceptualise the CAP measures, and relate them to mainstream, contemporary thinking in international trade. In this context, the EAC policy makers need to acquaint themselves with the political economy of protectionism,

TABLE 3: EXPORTS OF SELECTED AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS TO THE EU BY THE EAC ECONOMIES IN 2000

HS Code	Product	Kenya		Tanzania		Uganda	
		% of total exports	000 €	% of total exports	000 €	% of total exports	000 €
0304 and 0302	Fish	-	-	28.7	115 772	6.0	14.574
0901	Coffee	-	-	18.9	76 082	55.9	136.74 9
0603	Flowers	19.1	151 269	2.1	8 264	4.3	10 569
0902	Tea	17.9	141 835	1.4	5 553		
0708 and 0709	Vegetables	16.2	127 593	-	-		
2008 and 2009	Fruits and Fruit Juices	6.2	49 238	-	-		
2401	Tobacco	-	-	8.8		10.5	25 676

Source: Own table compiled using data from EUROSRTAT website.

and understand the ways in which to deal with the complications for their economies, which arise from protectionism.

Negative Practical Lessons

First, the EAC economies will not be immune to the distortions of international trade dynamics and structures, which will be caused by CAP reforms. This is particularly so, considering the agrarian nature of the EAC economies in general, and the heavy dependence of the EAC economies on the EU market for their agricultural exports in particular (cf. table 3).

The agricultural exports to the EU are concentrated on a few product categories for all three EAC economies. Therefore, any substantial

price disturbances are likely to substantially affect the export revenues of the EAC economies.

Positive Practical Lessons

Since the EAC economies occasionally import food, they stand to benefit, in terms of cheap sourcing of these supplies at world markets.

WHAT CAN THE EAC ECONOMIES DO TO HARNESS THE IMPACT OF CAP REFORMS?

Specific to trade, the EAC economies must carefully and correctly grasp what is at stake in the next negotiation rounds, both within the multilateral forum and within the EU (cf. EPA trade regime). Thus, it should be borne in mind that the issue is not integrating the EAC in the

World Economy; the issue is how the EAC is integrated in the World Economy. Is the EAC going to be integrated therein as an independent viable economy; or as compartmentalized peripheral economy of the major economies? Among other things, the EAC economies must strategically work to:

- (i) Defend their domestic value added industries (i.e., processing industries).
- (ii) Have capacities to meet Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS) measures and other technical barriers.
- (iii) Effectively manage the taxes on imported goods.
- (iv) Offensively market their products domestically and internally.
- (v) Defend their economies using WTO-consistent

measures (e.g., safeguard close, domestic support commitments, etc.). This will require also intelligently designing commitments on agriculture to WTO-consistently protect their agricultural industry.

(vi) Negotiate with the EU for the multilateralisation of the Everything-But-Arms (EBA) initiative, i.e. including into the EU's WTO commitments.

(vii) List sensitive products, including their substitutes and exclude them from liberalization obligations within the framework of EPA trade regime.

(viii) Intelligently design their commitments (WTO agreement on agriculture, in articles 2 to 14) to WTO-consistently protect their agricultural industry.

(ix) Intelligently use the safe-

guard clause, to WTO-consistently protect their agricultural industry.

As a group of nations with common interests, the EAC economies should also consider:

(i) A common EAC position, including a joint negotiation of an EPA with the EU.

(ii) Clearly spelling out the status/role of other regional integration schemes in which the EAC economies are members.

(iii) Conducting country product-by-product analyses on the impact of CAP.

(iv) Analysing sectoral and linkage effect of liberalisation.

(v) Making macro-economic and micro (product, sectoral and sectoral linkages) impact analysis of FTAs with the EU to provide the basis for offensive and defensive strategies.

(vi) Ascertaining the impact

of CAP on the EU market, EAC and third (external) markets. ■

Note: This paper is summarised version of the paper "Which Benefits Does the Cotonou Agreement Hold for the Agricultural Sectors of the EAC Economies vis à vis the Reforms of the EU's Common Agricultural Policy?", presented at the Regional Workshop on The Impact and Consequences of EU-CAP Reforms in East Africa held at Lion Hill Lodge, Nakuru, Kenya, 6th to 8th November 2002."

1 Implicitly, this was achieved by increasing EU production and easy access to the EU of strategic agricultural products (which were mainly sourced from ACP in particular, and other developing economies in general).

NOTES

3. REGIONAL PERSPECTIVES

THE FIRST DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY OF THE EAST AFRICAN COMMUNITY 1997 – 2000*

By Dr Mobammed Omar Maundi, Centre for Foreign Relations

On 30 November 2001 the Third Summit of the East African Community officially launched the East African Legislative Assembly and swore in six judges of the East African Court of Justice in Arusha. The launch of the Assembly and the swearing in of the judges completed the creation of the institutional framework for regional integration.

The steady progress made by the Community since its launching lays a strong foundation for the realization of its regional integration objectives. According to the EAC Secretariat, the period 2001 to 2005 is the actualization phase of the Community. It will be guided by the Second East African Community Development Strategy (2001 - 2005) which was officially launched during the Second Summit in Arusha on 24 April 2001.

The objective of this article is to provide a brief assessment of the First Development Strategy (1997 - 2000). It focuses on the strategy's key principles and objectives, its medium term priorities and its achievements.

The process of integration

in East Africa is undertaken through development strategies. The First Development Strategy (1997 - 2000) laid down basic principles to govern the process of regional integration. The first of the key principles is people-centred, market driven integration. The second is the participation of the private sector and civil society in the decision-making process. The last one is the application of the principle of subsidiarity in the selection of the activities for implementation at the regional level.

The strategy's medium term priority was to establish a single market and investment area in the region. This was to be realized through the following: firstly, the harmonization of policies in order to promote cross-border movement of goods and persons; secondly, the development of the regional infrastructure; and thirdly, enhancement of technological and human resources development.

ACHIEVEMENT OF THE FIRST DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

The strategy scored some significant achievements in

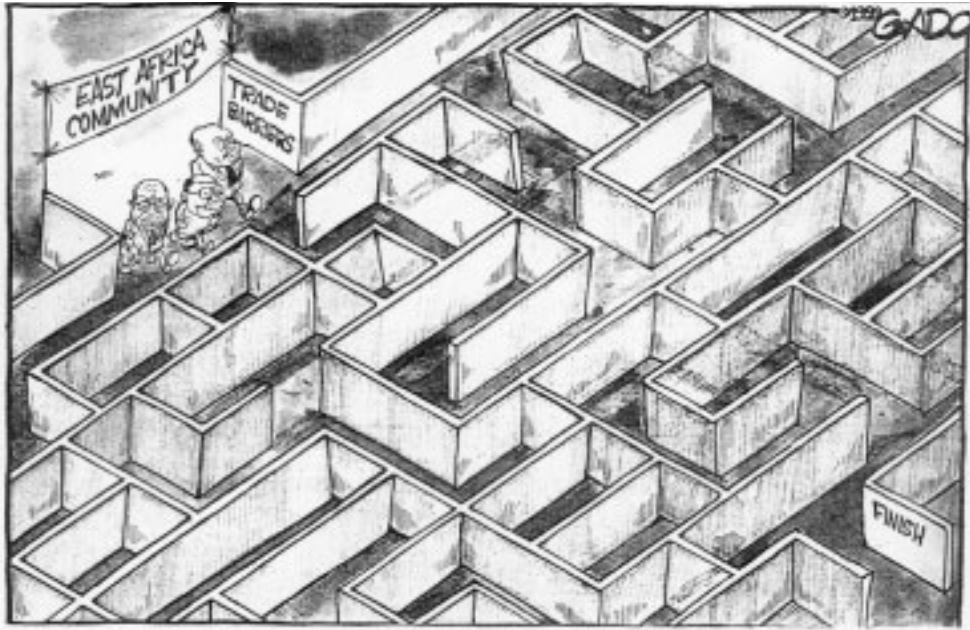
seven major areas:

1. Confidence Building Measures

Four specific accomplishments can be identified in this area. The first was the setting up of a Defence Liaison Office at the Secretariat. The second was the signing of a Memorandum of Understanding for Cooperation in the area of defence. The third was undertaking a joint military exercise annually since 1999. The fourth was the signing of a Memorandum of Understanding of Foreign Policy Co-ordination.

2. Harmonization of Policies

Achievements in this area included the macroeconomic convergence. There is now a convertibility of the three East African currencies. The three East African countries now read their budget statements in the same day and time. Yellow fever cards requirements for East Africans have been eliminated. There is now a preferential tariff discount as follows: Kenya 90%, Uganda 80% and Tanzania 80%. There has been a harmonization of standards of goods and services as East African standards. Over 300



Source: DemoCrazy by Gado

standards have been harmonized out of which over 90 of them have been notified to the World Trade Organization (WTO) as East African Standards. Finally, there has been a mutual recognition of health certificates for goods issued by national bodies.

3. Easing of Cross-border Movement of Persons and Goods

To ease cross-border movement, an East African passport has been introduced. It provides a six-month multi-entry allowance. Inter-state passes have also been introduced. Apart from the granting of 7 days grace period of personal motor vehicles carrying a maximum of 7 persons, immigration desks for East Africans at the international

airports of the East African countries have also been introduced.

4. Infrastructural Development

Within the five-year period of the strategy, a number of infrastructural projects were either formulated or implemented. One of these was the implementation of the cross-border interconnectivity telecommunications project. The other was the formulation of the digital transmission project. A civil aviation project was formulated as well as the implementation of the postal automation project.

There was also the harmonization of the vehicle transit requirement; the development of the East African Community Railways Network; the

East African Power and Energy Master Plans; the development of oil and gas pipelines; and the identification of the East African Road Network and the holding of a Donors' Conference on the Road Network.

5. Development of Human Resources, Science and Technology

In the areas of human resources, science and technology, the Inter-University Council has been revitalized. An East African Science and Technology Co-ordination Committee has been set up, as has a Scientific Council.

6. The Process Towards the Establishment of the East African Community's Customs Union

In the area of Customs Union,

efforts have been directed towards the harmonization of the exemption regimes, the harmonization and simplification of customs documentation for application at the regional level, including the development of a single bill of entry (SBE) custom document and its draft manual.

Efforts have also been directed towards the development of a model harmonized investment code which is waiting completion and its subsequent adoption by the partner states. The harmonization of commodity descriptions and a coding system to 8 digit level have also been undertaken and incorpo-

rated into the World Customs Organization's Commodity Description and Coding System, Version 2000.

Outstanding work in this area is on the establishment of a Common External Tariff (CET), EAC Rules of Origin and the Programme for the Elimination of Internal Tariff.

7. Legal and Judicial Cooperation

In the area of legal and judicial cooperation, achievements have been in the signing of the Agreement for Avoidance of Double Taxation; the signing of the Road Transport and Water Ways Agreement; and the signing of the Memorandum of Understanding on

Co-operation in Environment Management.

Obviously, the most significant achievement in this area is the signing of the Treaty for the Establishment of the East African Community, its ratification and official launching, as well as the launching of the East African Legislative Assembly and the East African Court of Justice. ■

* This article has heavily depended on the EAC Secretariat's briefings, documents and publications.

ORIGINS OF VIOLENT CONFLICTS IN THE GREAT LAKES REGION

By Prof. Gaudens P. Mpangala, IDS, University of Dar es Salaam

The Great Lakes Region

Six countries constitute the Great Lakes Region (GLR): Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). An international symposium on the Great Lakes Region was held in Kampala, Uganda 8 - 10 April, 2002 with the participation of all six countries. The symposium was organized by the Mwalimu Nyerere Foundation and supported by the Governments of Uganda and Tanzania.

There have been three phases of violent conflict in the GLR: the period of the

nationalist struggles for independence, the period of nation building and the period of democratization.

The period of nationalist struggles for independence

The struggle for independence was on two fronts. On the one hand the nationalist political parties fought against a common enemy, the colonial power. On the other there was fierce infighting amongst the political parties for power at independence. Where political parties were ethnically or religiously based, competition between them led to violent ethnic or reli-

gious conflict. In some cases, the nature and character of colonialism necessitated the use of armed struggle such as the Mau Mau War waged by the Kikuyu against the white settlers and colonialism as a whole.

Rwanda provides a typical example of competition between ethnic based political parties resulting in violent conflict between 1959 and 1961. The nationalist parties struggling for independence were either Hutu or Tutsi parties. The consolidation of ethnicity amongst the ethnic groups throughout the German and later the Belgian



Source: Art in Politics, 1st E.A. competition on political caricatures and cartoons, FES 2001

colonial period was a result of the ideologies of racism and civilizing mission of the colonial powers. Instigated by the Belgian colonialists, the violent conflicts facilitated the taking over of power by the Hutu political parties at independence in 1962.

The period of nation building: 1960s to 1980s

Most of the violent conflicts in this period were about political power and the control of socio-economic resources. Given the weak state of the economic base of the politicians, political power became the means of gaining economic power. As well as having its internal struggles for power and wealth, Congo became a big center of inter-

rest for the big powers because of its rich mineral and agricultural resources. These internal and external factors resulted in the assassination of Patrice Lumumba, the first Prime Minister of independent Congo. Civil war followed and brought Mobutu to power.

Frequent and serious violent conflicts took place in Burundi after the assassination in 1961 of a uniting nationalist leader, Prince Rwagasore. Political struggles degenerated into ethnocentric politics. Immediately after independence (1962 - 1966) fierce ethnic competition for power culminated in the overthrow of the monarch in 1965 and the taking over of political power by the Tutsi

minority in 1966. Between 1966 and 1990 there were four periods of violent conflict characterized by massacres. The worst massacres occurred in 1972 when about 300,000 people were killed. The Tutsis, who were in power, segregated, oppressed and marginalized the majority Hutu, who in turn resisted and this led to violence.

In Rwanda, the Hutu majority was in power and they oppressed, marginalized and segregated the Tutsi minority. This also resulted in periodic conflict culminating in the outbreak of civil war in 1990.

In Uganda violent conflict erupted in 1966 as result of friction between the government of President Milton

Obote and the Kingdom of Buganda. The system of indirect rule set up by the British had resulted in the consolidation of strong kingdoms such as Buganda, Bungoro, Ankole and Toro. At independence Buganda was granted a certain level of autonomy with its own Buganda government. This contradicted the nationalist spirit of building the united nation of Uganda. The friction resulted in the overthrow of Kabaka, the King of Buganda who fled into exile in Britain.

Other violent conflicts in Uganda began in 1971 when Idi Amin staged a coup, overthrowing the Obote government and establishing a military rule of terror lasting for eight years during which more than 300,000 people were killed, including prominent politicians and religious leaders. Many more fled to neighbouring countries as refugees. The Idi Amin regime was given substantial support from big powers such as Great Britain. In the same period the relationship between the Amin government and the government of Tanzania grew from bad to worse, culminating in a war between the two countries from 1978 to 1979. Assisted by the anti-Amin people of Uganda, Tanzania overthrew the Amin regime. Continuous struggles for power resulted in civil war from 1980 to 1986, a war that brought President Museveni to power.

Conflicts during the period of democratization from 1990 to the present

With the exception of Uganda and Rwanda, which have adopted the movement political system, the democratization process resulted in the establishment of multi-party political systems followed by multi-part elections. Although the building of democracy was expected to solve the problem of conflicts, the early stage of multi-party competition has nonetheless given rise to violent conflicts, particularly where multi-party politics assumed the character of ethnically based politics.

In Burundi, nearly all the political parties established in 1992 were ethnically based, either Tutsi or Hutu dominated parties. Thus, when the Hutu based party, FRODEBU, won the elections of 1993 the Tutsi, who had made coup attempts, eventually assassinated the Hutu President Melchior Ndadaye three months after he was elected. The situation resulted in a civil war that has continued up to the present. Despite peace negotiations since 1996 culminating in the Arusha Peace Agreement of 28 August, 2000 and the establishment of a transitional government, peace has not been achieved in Burundi. Peace can be achieved if the current (October, 2002) ceasefire negotiations between the transitional government and the rebel groups

reach an agreement.

In Rwanda, the failure of the Habyarimana Hutu Government to democratize resulted in the outbreak of a civil war in 1990 when refugees from Uganda attacked the regime. The situation led to the genocide of 1994 when nearly a million people were massacred.

Violent conflicts in this period have also taken place in Kenya, Tanzania and the DRC. In Kenya violent conflicts erupted in the Rift Valley Province from 1991 to 1992 shortly before the first multi-party elections in 1992 and again in 1997/98. Using the ideology of regionalism (majimboism) some politicians, opposed to and threatened by multi-partyism, instigated the Kalenjin Ethnic Group to fight and evict the Kikuyu, the Luhya and other groups from the Rift Valley. More than 1,500 people were killed.

As Kenya moves towards the third multi-party elections in December, 2002 there is a substantial risk that further violent conflict will erupt. Protest against Moi's choice of Mr Uhuru Kenyatta as KANU'S presidential candidate has been widespread and to the extent that some prominent politicians of KANU have moved out of KANU and joined the Rainbow Alliance which has brought the opposition parties together to stage one opposition presidential candidate, Mr Mwai Kibaki. There

are fears that if the elections are rigged in favour of Mr Uhuru Kenyatta, political violence might erupt.

In Tanzania there have been conflicts between the strong competing political parties i.e. the ruling party CCM and the opposition party, CUF, in connection with the multi-party elections in Zanzibar. After the elections of 1995 conflict was latent, but after the elections of 2000 violent conflict erupted between CUF demonstrators and the police and more than 23 demonstrators were shot dead on 26 and 27 January, 2001. In both elections CUF accused CCM of rigging and manipulating the elections to snatch its victory. Conflicts over land have also taken place in some parts of the country as in the Kilosa District, Morogoro Region.

In the DRC dictator Mobutu mishandled the democratization process by allowing the formation of more than a hundred small and weak political parties. This was to the advantage of the regime in power.

Mobutu's regime was overthrown in May, 1997 after a military campaign launched by Laurent Kabila in October, 1996, assisted by Rwanda and Uganda. Kabila's failure to carry out democratization, and his deliberate marginalization of his allies who had assisted him in the war against Mobutu, resulted in the eruption of another war by rebel groups against him, assisted by Rwanda and Uganda. In that war Laurent Kabila was supported by Zimbabwe, Namibia and Angola. The assassination of Laurent Kabila brought his son, Joseph Kabila, to power, and he is making efforts to end the war.

So far Mr Joseph Kabila has created conditions which have enabled his government, the opposition parties and rebel groups to carry out a process of dialogue in South Africa which is to lead to the establishment of a transitional government and then democratic elections. He has also signed peace agreements with the Governments of Rwanda and Uganda.

Solutions for ending the violent conflicts in the GLR

The continuation of violent conflicts is detrimental to the development of the region. Every possible effort must be made to bring about peace. Sustainable peace requires short-term measures such as peace negotiations that incorporate all the parties concerned in the conflicts. Efforts should be made within the region and within the individual countries to develop conflict resolution capacities. The Peace Agreement between CCM and CUF Political Parties (Muafaka) in Tanzania in October, 2001 provides us with an example of the strengthening of the peace-building capacity within a country. It must be stressed that sustainable peace also requires long-term measures that include democratization, economic transformation and regional integration on the basis of people-centered democracy and people-centered development. ■

NOTES

TANZANIA AND REGIONAL TRADE AGREEMENTS

By Prof. F. A. S. T. Matambalya, Department of Marketing, University of Dar es Salaam

Policy framework of Tanzania's international trade

Presently Tanzania's trade policies are influenced by a set of partly interlinked forces, which act at various levels.

At the primary level Tanzania is a member of a number of trade regimes.

a) Tanzania participates in two major regional integration schemes, i.e., the East African Community (EAC) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Table 1 depicts Tanzania's partners in each of the two arrangements. The country's trade policies are therefore influenced by two sets of trade regimes, i.e., the EAC and SADC trade regimes.

b) Tanzania subscribes to the Cotonou Agreement which links the European Union (EU) and 77 African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) states. As a member of the ACP group of nations, Tanzania has to harmonise trade policy with the special provisions of the Cotonou Agreement on EU-ACP trade regime. The Cotonou Agreement is a Framework Agreement. Detailed negotiations of the Agreement will commence in September 2002.

Table 1: Tanzania's membership of regional trade protocols in Eastern and Southern Africa

Country/Scheme	EAC Trade Regime ^a	SADC Trade Regime
1. Angola		*
2. Botswana		*
3. DRC		*
4. Kenya	*	*
5. Lesotho		*
6. Malawi		*
7. Mauritius		*
8. Mozambique		*
9. Namibia		*
10. RSA		*
11. Seychelles		*
12. Swaziland		*
13. Tanzania	*	*
14. Uganda	*	*
15. Zambia		*
16. Zimbabwe		*

Notes: a ... EAC trade protocol under preparation, * denotes country membership in the scheme.

c) Tanzania subscribes to the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and its trade policies must be WTO-compatible.

major trading block of the Latin American sub-region, and the North American Free Trade Area (NAFTA).

At the secondary level, co-operation between regional blocks to which Tanzania subscribes and other regional blocks, constitutes developments which affect the country's trade policies. SADC, for instance, has signed a co-operation agreement with the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), and made initial moves to introduce relationships with the Mercado Comun del Sur (MERCOSUR) which is the

EAC Trade Regime

Article 5 of the Treaty of the EAC on the Objectives of the Community, specifies in paragraph 3 that the Community shall ensure the strengthening and consolidation of:

(i) co-operation in agreed fields that would lead to equitable economic development within the partner states and which would, in turn, raise the standard of living and improve the quality of life of their populations.

(ii) long-standing political, economic, social, cultural and traditional ties and associations between the peoples of the partner states so as to promote a people centred mutual development of these ties and associations.

The EAC is, therefore, also working on the institutionalisation, at the regional level, of co-operation in trade. Maasdorp and Hess (1999), in a report prepared for the EU, recommends the establishment of an EAC Trade Protocol.

The SADC Trade Regime

As an integration scheme, the SADC is one of the latest additions to similar initiatives in Southern Africa. Formally, it was established in August 1992 through the Windhoek Treaty to replace the Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference (SADCC) of which the key objective was to lessen economic dependence on the apartheid RSA.

This objective was inherited by the SADC. Following the multi-ethnic election of 1994, which paved the way for the dismantling of the apartheid system, the RSA joined the SADC as its 10th member in 1994. This brought a new reality to integration efforts in Southern Africa, heavily boosting the chances of the SADC as a tool for the development of the region.

The SADC trade regime is expressed by the SADC Trade Protocol. The Protocol was

the result of the Maseru Summit of 1996. This Protocol, which technically presents a Framework Agreement, is an interim arrangement, which should be systematically strengthened and in 2008, transformed into a fully-fledged Free Trade Area, in compliance with Article XXIV of the GATT, revised in 1994.

The protocol is relatively comprehensive, containing 39 Articles and five annexes. Being a trade protocol, all its articles are logically relevant for trade. They jointly aim to systematically remove intra-SADC trade barriers and turn the region into a free trade area (FTA) by 2008.

The Cotonou Agreement

On 23 June, the EU and its ACP associates signed a New Partnership Agreement in Cotonou, Benin. The Agreement replaced the Lomé Convention which governed EU-ACP development co-operation from 1975 to 2000. The New Partnership Agreement will govern EU-ACP co-operation in the next 20 years.

Economic and trade co-operation constitute one of the key pillars of the Agreement. In line with the new Agreement, EU-ACP trade will build on the so-called economic partnership agreements (EPA), which shall consist basically of free-trade areas (FTAs) between the EU and groups of ACP countries.

The WTO

The WTO provisions provide the base of international trade relations. The main characteristics of the WTO trade regime are tariff reduction and reciprocity in trade concessions. The WTO also provides for the formation of closer regional co-operation.

Implication of the multiplicity of trade arrangements

The multiplicity of arrangements is intrinsically a potential source for overt and covert friction. For instance, in conjunction with the overall objectives of EAC and the SADC, the EAC and SADC trade protocols may be following partly common, partly conflicting goals. Both the EAC and the SADC are pushing for rather fast economic integration. Even if the two schemes have not become competing schemes they have certainly become duplicating schemes. The weaknesses are camouflaged by two facts. First, only Tanzania belongs to both regionalisation schemes. Second, the SADC trade protocol explicitly specifies in Article 24 on most favoured nation treatment that (i) members shall accord the most favoured nation (MFN) treatment to one another and (ii) nothing in this protocol shall prevent member states from granting or maintaining preferential trade arrangements with third countries. Note also that, technically, a country may

belong to more than one FTA, because it does not have to implement a common external tariff (CET).

The duplication has also political implications. While the secretariat of the EAC is based in Arusha (Tanzania), that of the SADC is based in Gaborone (Botswana). This suggests that partly for strategic and partly for prestigious reasons, Tanzania is exposed to diplomatic pressure to ensure the continued existence of both the EAC and the SADC.

Conclusion

Basically, the multiplicity of trade arrangements is not a

significant liability. However, the rationalisation of trade arrangements at the same level, e.g. the EAC and SADC trade regimes will be an advantage and should be considered. Tanzania should work to ensure that differences between the EAC internal instruments and SADC instruments are at a minimum. ■

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NOTES

4. LOCAL PERSPECTIVES

THE TANZANIA DEVELOPMENT VISION 2025

By Mr C. K. Tandari, Department of Poverty Eradication, Vice President's Office

The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 projects that by the year 2025 Tanzanian society will be free from poverty and will have graduated from the group of least developed countries to that of middle income countries, with a high level of human development.

The Concept

Development Vision 2025 is a long-term development philosophy that is the articulation of a desirable future condition, which the nation envisages it will attain, and of the plausible course of action to be taken for its achievement. It seeks to actively mobilise the people and other resources towards the achievement of shared goals. The vision is like a vehicle of hope and an inspiration for motivating the people to search and work harder for the betterment of their livelihood and for prosperity.

The Tanzania of 2025 will have five major attributes:

- High quality livelihood.
- Peace, stability and unity.
- Good governance.
- A well educated and learning society.
- A competitive economy capable of producing sustainable growth and shared benefits.

High quality livelihood

Ideally, a nation's development should be people centred, based on sustainable and shared growth and be free from abject poverty. This entails the creation of wealth and its equitable distribution. Society must be free from inequalities and all forms of social and political relations that inhibit empowerment and effective democratic and popular participation of all social groups (men and women, boys and girls, the young and the old and the able-bodied and disabled persons). It is anticipated that by the year 2025, racial and gender imbalances will have been redressed. At the same time, law, politics, employment, education, culture, will have been reformed.

Peace, stability, and unity

A nation should enjoy peace, political stability, national unity and social cohesion in an environment of democracy and political and social tolerance.

Good governance

Tanzania cherishes good governance and the rule of law in the process of creating wealth and the sharing of benefits in

society and seeks to ensure that its people are empowered with the capacity to make their leaders and public servants accountable. By 2025, good governance should have permeated the national socio-economic structure thereby ensuring a culture of accountability, rewarding good performance and effectively curbing corruption and other vices in society.

A well educated and learning society

Tanzania will be a nation whose people are well educated with a developmental mindset and competitive spirit. These attributes are critical for the nation to effectively mobilise domestic resources to assure the provision of people's basic needs and to attain competitiveness in the regional and global economy.

To this effect Tanzania should:

- attain self-reliance driven by the psychological liberation of the mindset and the people's sense of confidence.
- be a nation whose people have a positive mindset and a culture which cherishes human development through hard work, professionalism,

entrepreneurship, creativity, innovativeness and ingenuity and who have confidence in and high respect for all people irrespective of gender.

- be a nation with a high level of education; a nation which produces the quantity and quality of educated people sufficiently equipped with the requisite knowledge to solve the society's problems, meet the challenges of development and attain competitiveness at regional and global levels.

A strong and competitive economy capable of producing sustainable growth and shared benefits

Tanzania should have created a strong, diversified, resilient and competitive economy which can effectively cope with the challenges of development and which can also easily and confidently adapt to the changing market and technological conditions in then regional and global economy.

Impediments to the realisation of past visions

- Donor dependency syndrome.
- A weak capacity for economic management.
- Failures in good governance.
- Ineffective implementation syndrome.

The targets of the VISION 2025

High quality livelihood

A high quality livelihood for all Tanzanians will be attained

through:

- Food self-sufficiency and food security.
- Universal primary education.
- Gender equality.
- Access to quality primary health care for all.
- Access to quality reproductive health services for all individuals of appropriate age.
- Reduction in infant and maternal mortality rates by three quarters of current levels.
- Universal access to safe water.
- Life expectancy comparable to the level attained by typical middle-income countries.
- Absence of abject poverty.

Good governance and the rule of law

Tanzanian society will be characterised by:

- Desirable moral and cultural uprightness.
- Strong adherence to and respect for the rule of law.
- Absence of corruption and other vices.
- A learning society, which is confident, learns from its own development experience and that of others and owns and determines its own development agenda.

A strong and competitive economy

The economy is expected to have the following characteristics:

- A diversified and semi-industrialised economy

with a substantial industrial sector comparable to typical middle-income countries.

- Macroeconomic stability manifested by a low inflation economy and basic macroeconomic balances.
- A growth rate of at least 8% per annum.
- An adequate level of physical infrastructure needed to cope with the requirements of the Vision in all sectors
- An active and competitive player in the regional and world markets, with the capacity to articulate and promote national interests and to adjust quickly to regional and global market shifts.

Driving forces for the realisation of the Vision

The major strengths, which Tanzanians must capitalise on, are national unity, social cohesion, peace and stability.

The following three key driving forces need to be promoted and utilised:

- A development mindset imbued with confidence, commitment and empowering cultural values.
- Competence and a spirit of competitiveness.
- Good governance and the rule of law.

For more details on the driving forces for the realization of the vision and for the means by which the vision will be implemented, go to the Tanzania Government website:

<http://www.tanzania.go.tz/vision.htm>

PROGRESS ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGIES IN TANZANIA

By Mr Clifford K. Tandari, Department of Poverty Eradication, Vice President's Office

In 2000 the Government approved the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) which provides a medium term strategy for poverty reduction in the context of the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative.

Areas that are getting strong focus as far as poverty reduction is concerned are:

Education: The abolishment of primary school fees in 2002 has raised enrolment rates in primary schools. The enrolment went up to 1,600,000 pupils for Grade I during the first year of school fees abolishment. Great focus will be on improving the quality of education in primary schools, raising enrolment, optimum utilisation of resources and capacity building at grassroots level to manage primary schools. Others will be addressing gender, environment and HIV/AIDS concerns. Programmes for the education sector:

- (i) Primary Education Development Programme;
- (ii) Rationalisation of Institutions of Tertiary and Higher Education.

Health: Priority actions include rehabilitation of health infrastructure, promotion of private and public



ownership, improving management and introduction of health insurance services.

Programmes for the health sector:

- (i) Health Sector Reform Programme
- (ii) Roll Back Malaria
- (iii) Telemedicine and Health Care Programme;
- (iv) Integrated Disease Surveillance Network.

HIV/AIDS: Specific actions on HIV/AIDS policy include implementation of multi-sectoral HIV/Aids Policy and improving primary health care services.

Programmes for HIV/AIDS:

- (i) Behavioural change communication;

- (ii) Safe blood transfusion;
- (iii) Prevention of mother to child transmission;
- (iv) Youth programmes;
- (v) Voluntary counselling and testing;
- (vi) Provision of highly active antiretroviral therapy;
- (vii) Care for orphans.

Water: Emphasis is put on the implementation of the revised National Water Policy. Programmes for the water sector include the water and sanitation programme. This programme will implement the international commitment to water for all by the year 2005/6. The programme will entail establishing and rehabilitating and expanding water

schemes; rainwater harvesting; exploration of water sources as well as assessment and training in specialised skills.

Agriculture: Focus is on the preparation of the action programme for the sector. Priority is on the improvement of the agriculture policy and the institutional environment to promote private investment and improve the profitability and productivity of the agricultural sector. Agriculture is critical to Tanzania's economic and social development goals that are espoused in the Tanzania Development Vision, 2025 for the three reasons. First, improvements in farm incomes of the majority of the rural population are a precondition to the reduction of rural poverty. Second, any strategy for addressing food security must involve actions to improve agricultural and livestock production and farm incomes to ensure availability and access to food. Third, agriculture, as the single major contributor to GDP, is the key to the country's overall economic development now and in the near future. Its potential in this regard is substantial. During 2002/03 the growth of the agricultural sector was unsatisfactory due to low investment, the use of poor technology, and lack of inputs. Other factors were a drop in price of some core cash crops, invasion of worms and under-utilisation of irrigated land. Between 1999

and 2001 the sector grew by an average of 3.7 per cent. During 2002/03 the Government increased the budget for the agricultural sector by 32 per cent so that the sector could have grown to seven per cent, instead the sector grew by 5.5 per cent only.

Roads: Focus is on rehabilitation and upgrading the road network and emergency repairs of feeder, district and regional roads; in addition, mobilisation of communities to carry out improvements on community roads (paying special attention to paths, tracks and trails).

Energy: Priority areas include the expansion of power generation and distribution, extension of rural electrification schemes and development and promotion of other renewable energy sources such as solar, wind, mini-hydro, and geothermal plants.

Good Governance: Comprehensive initiatives aimed at fostering good governance, notably the preparation of the National Anti-corruption Strategy and Action Plan and its dissemination throughout the country. Other actions involve extending the offices of the Prevention of Corruption Bureau to the districts; amendment of the Public Leadership Code of Ethics; and complementary reforms for the civil service and the system of local government.

Support of the Rural Sector: This is being done through the facilitation of crop credit, intensified search for export markets, revival of agro-processing plants, rationalization of local government taxation of crops and livestock, further liberalization of internal and cross-border agricultural trade and the distribution of disease-resistant seedlings.

Formulation of a Micro-Finance Policy: The formulation of a policy and promotion of savings and credit schemes will facilitate the promotion of income-generating activities of the poor population in rural and urban areas.

Strengthen the Economic Infrastructure: Continued efforts to strengthen the economic infrastructure include the complete privatization of the utilities and transport services and approval of related regulatory frameworks, and the continued use of the road agency (TANROADS) to manage trunk and regional roads.

Promotion of an Enabling Environment for Private Investment: This includes the thorough enactment of new land legislation and the strengthening of the Commercial Court.

Tracking of the Income and Social Indicators of Poverty and adoption of measures, such as the Tanza-

nia Social Action Fund (TASAF), to alleviate rural income poverty and provide relief to vulnerable groups.

Elaboration of Development Strategies for the education and agricultural sectors; amplification of strategies for other sectors and cross-cutting areas (HIV/AIDSs governance, environment, gender and employment); and costing of interventions.

Employment: The positive macroeconomic performance recorded recently has not trickled down to create employment.

Programme for improving employment levels:

(i) Vocational education and training improvement
(ii) Country Action Programme (CAP). This has been prepared with ILO support through the “Jobs for Africa Programme” and the “Poverty Reducing Employment Strategies for Africa”. CAP is based on the findings of the Investment for Poverty Reducing studies that were done in 1999/2000 to evaluate public and private investment strategies in order to provide new directions for

raising the quantum of employment led investment.

A Broad Range of Reforms was implemented within programmes supported by the IMF under the Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF), and the World Bank under the Programmatic Structural Adjustment Credit (PSAC-I), and other international partners. The reforms were aimed mainly at strengthening further the macroeconomic situation, bolstering the efficiency of the financial and goods markets, supporting the development of the rural sector, improving the performance of utilities, and creating enabling environment for private investment. Moreover, the reforms included the conditions for the HIPC-Completion Point, virtually all of which were carried out as planned.

The Budget for FY 2001/02: The budget provided for continued strong support for the priority sectors, as well as comprehensive fiscal initiatives. It included measures directed at promoting private sector-led economic growth, and strengthening the performance of the

pro-poor sectors.

- Abolition of primary school fees and other enrolment related contributions.
- Establishment of the Education Fund to support children from very poor families.
- The amendment of the Land and Village Act to provide for land ownership by women.
- Preparation of the action plan for the elimination of child labour.

There were encouraging developments in education (increased gross primary school enrolment); health (expanded management of child illnesses and strengthening of maternity service); judiciary (strong performance of the commercial court). Also, financial management and accountability (rolling out of the IFMS); and empowerment of the poor (continued progress in local government reform and operations at the community level). ■

HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY AND WOMEN'S ROLE: THE CASE OF TANZANIA

By Dr Bertha Koda, Institute of Development Studies, University of Dar es Salaam

Food security is one of the critical concerns in the world today and more so in the African continent where incidences of hunger are often reported in the media. This concern has even attracted the attention of sub-regional blocks like the Great lakes Region in East Africa where discussions on food security are no longer confined to individual countries. In a recent symposium held in Kampala, Uganda from 8 - 10 April 2002 for instance, food security featured prominently as one of the thematic problems to be addressed by the region in the 21st Century.

Africa is endowed with abundant natural resources which are critical for ensuring food security, yet Africa is still grappling with the challenge of eradicating hunger. Available data show that food security is affected by a multitude of factors. These include low levels of production and hence recurrent food deficits, rudimentary technology and the absence of strategic food reserves policy. Others include poor transportation infrastructure, under-capitalisation in the agricultural sector and poor land use and management. In a recent study done by the Rural Food Security Research Group based at the University of Dar

es Salaam, between 1998 and 2002, the issue of gender was also found to have a strong impact on the food sector.

The gender issue includes access to ownership and control over materials, human and social resources by all those who work in the food sector, women inclusive. Material resources include physical capital, that is animals, land implements, working capital and savings while human resources entail the labour force, technical knowledge and the health of people. Social resources on the other hand include the social position of either a household or members of the household and the kind of production and distribution they are exposed to, or a household is engaged in and upon which the household depends (Kamugisha, 2002).

The combination and full utilization of the material, human and social resources in a household guarantees household food security. If this is the case, how do women come into the picture? The answer to this question calls for a critical review of the status and position of women together with the whole issue of democracy at both household and public levels.

In Tanzania, and elsewhere

in Africa, food matters are very much a function of gender roles stereotyping. This was especially true during the colonial era and has been ever since. Women, who are the majority in rural areas and in the agricultural sector, form a critical human resource responsible for the food sector while men are generally relegated the role of managing the cash and export sector. Up to this day, women continue to be the custodians of households' food needs either by producing food or by struggling to earn an income in kind or cash which is eventually used for food purchase. However, the same patriarchal system which relegated women the role of food production continues to limit women on matters of decision-making on "how", "when" and "where" the food will be produced and who should assist in food production. It is here that the issue of who "owns", "controls" and "accesses" material, human and social resources applies. A good example which is worth noting is the issue of land. In an agrarian country like Tanzania where more than 80% of the population depends on agriculture for their livelihood, land becomes a major resource. Despite this, most women and youth have

no say in making decisions on household land-use, especially on the clan land. It is men who usually decide on land use matters. Indeed, most women have “access rights” to land but even this minimum right is increasingly being eroded due to the speed at which land renting (especially in land-deficit areas) is taking over. Land selling is also on the increase in some places and this reduces the amount of land for household use. Women are doubly affected. Not only is there less land for cultivation, but they lack the power to decide on how to spend money accrued from the sales of such land. Since women depend on land for food production, they are often forced to borrow land or rent it, (if they are among the few who have money). However, most borrowed land tends to be infertile and this affects the amount of crop harvest. Since most of those who borrow land are poor, they also fail to use modern farm inputs and implements and hence the poor harvests leading to their households becoming food insecure. This means that poor households, which are many in Tanzania, are often threatened by food insecurity.

The 1999 Village Land Act gives women a chance to share ownership and control rights over family land. Such land has to be registered under both the husband and wife’s names. However, the Law is not well publicized

yet, and women continue to have limited land rights. There is need, therefore, to let every woman and man know this law and use it for their own good.

The other equally important factor in food security is the issue of democracy. Much too often people talk about democracy at public levels but forget the household level where major decisions on food and related matter are also made. It should be remembered that the household is both a unit of production and consumption. Under the patriarchy system which is prominent in rural Tanzania, matters related to production are usually decided upon by the head of the household who is generally a male. (Only about 30% of rural households are headed by females). Due to the lack of participatory decision making at household level, women are assigned greater work loads with no access to modern technology, they have to work in the farms for many hours and when they return home they also have to perform household chores and other domestic responsibilities. They also rarely use improved technology in food transporting, processing and preservation because they neither have money to buy such technology nor do they have adequate power to influence decisions made by men at all levels (household, village, district, national) on issues of appropriate, accessible and

affordable technology for the food sector promotion.

Lack of democracy at household level also affects decisions on the use of household income. Women continue to contribute handsomely to export crop production managed by male heads of households but when it comes to decisions on cash expenditure women are normally “informed” and not “consulted”. The misuse of household incomes by the male heads has been pointed out by many women in Tanzania but the problem persists as it is protected by the African patriarchal culture. This biased practice on cash expenditure demoralises women and reduces their level of participation in production of both food and export crops, resulting in reduced incomes and household food in security. Besides, poverty which as Mukiibis et al (2002) contend: “is linked not only to poor performance of national economies but also with unequal distribution of income and a political structure that renders poor people powerless, whether in a democracy or a dictatorship” (page 6). Poverty affects household expenditure, even on food.

Regarding expenditure on food, the disparity between women and men is seemingly conspicuous where women spend more than men. This echoes what Engels once contended as quoted by Kapunda et al (1996) that the

percentage of total income spent on food tends to increase with poverty. Using the 1991/92 National Household Budget survey data, it is noted that male-headed households spent 67% of total household expenditure on food compared to 74% for female headed households (Koda, 2002).

The most affected people during periods of hunger are elderly women, the disabled, orphans and children. About 6.6 million Tanzanians faced chronic food insecurity in 1997 and since then this number may have increased due to an increased number of orphans who lost their parents due to HIV/AIDS pandemic.

The gender dynamics continue to dictate “who” should eat “what” and hence they impact on the health status of women, the very people who are expected to work every day. According to the culture of most Tanzanians, men eat the best food even though the food is normally produced, cooked and served by women. The marginalized position of women, economically, politically and socially, limits women’s influence on the distribution of food even at the consumption level. At times the women themselves and their children are prone to malnutrition despite the fact that they are the ones who know how much food has been cooked for the family. Food security is affected by both household and nation-

ally based policies. With regard to the food sector, policy matters include choices of crops to cultivate and the sources and quality of the required labour. At the household level, such policy issues are addressed by household heads who are, to a great extent, influenced by patriarchy. Most heads tend to promote cash/export crops more than food crops but since income accrued from the sale of such crops is not equitably distributed among all household members, most young people have realized that agriculture does not pay and thus they drift to urban areas and expose themselves to social ills, unemployment and HIV/AIDS, all of which again affects women’s access to productive labour (Kamugisha, 2002).

At the national level policies related to the food sector (such as food and nutrition policy, agriculture and livestock policy, employment policy, etc.) are also made with little involvement of women, and fail to adequately address women’s concerns related to food security because most of these policies lead to increased social differentiation, ignore cultural inhibitions and have little publicity while others promise unsustainable material support. The heavy emphasis on export crops reflected in most agrarian policies also marginalize women’s concerns on the food sector. However, the recently prepared National Agricul-

tural Development Strategy (2002) is a positive government attempt at addressing some of these anomalies with respect to food security and women’s role.

It should be realized at this juncture that women from poor households are not complacent about the problem of food insecurity. On the contrary, they have adopted several strategies to cope with food shortages. These include selling their labour to wealthier households in exchange for food during the peak seasons of soil preparation, weeding and harvesting as noted in Rukwa and Shinyanga Rural Districts (Kamungisha 2002; Koda, 2002). Another coping strategy is engaging in petty-business in non-farm activities to earn money for food purchase. Other strategies include appealing to the government and other agencies for famine relief (as an emergency measure), pushing the government for change of policies towards pro-poor and pro-food security policies, etc. Women are also increasingly demanding their rights to land, training and democracy using different avenues (Rural Food Security Research Group, 2001).

All in all, efforts to reduce the gendered poverty intrinsically go hand in hand with efforts to ensure household food security. ■

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GENDER AND LAND LAWS

By Mr K.A.K. Mkumbo, University of Dar es Salaam

The recent laws that consider gender balanced relations regarding land ownership in Tanzania came into force in 1999 and 2001. These laws, unlike the previous ones, categorically state the right of men and women to acquire, hold, and use resources accrued from land without regard to gender. The laws in question are: The land Act No. 4 of 1999 and the Village land Act No. 5 of 1999 that came into force in May 2001. The laws contain provisions that protect the land rights of women, prohibit discrimination against women, as well as ensuring the participation of women in making decisions concerning land matters.

Administration

The administration of the Village Land Act No.5 of 1999 is entrusted to the Village Council and the Commissioner for Land. The Vil-

lage Council is responsible for the management of all village land, while the Commissioner for Land deals with land other than the village land. In practice, The Village Council exercises the functions of management as a trustee, managing property on behalf of a beneficiary, while the villagers and other persons residing in a particular village are beneficiaries. In this arrangement, the Village Council is prohibited from allocating land or grant customary right of occupancy without the prior approval of the Village Assembly.

Customary Right of Occupancy

A Customary Right of Occupancy means a right to occupy village land on agreed terms and conditions. Where the Village Council grants any applicant a Customary Right of Occupancy, the Village

Council issues a certificate of Customary Right of Occupancy to that applicant.

Requirements and Application Procedures for Customary Right of Occupancy of Village Land

The following person(s) may apply provided that they are villagers and citizens:

- A person
- A family unit
- A married person who has been divorced
- A married person whose spouse was a villager who left the village at least two years previously.
- A group of person recognized under customary law
- An association
- A primary co-operative society
- Any other body recognized by any law
- A group of people who are not residents in the village

An applicant for a customary right of occupancy is required to fill in a form, which should be:

- a) accompanied by the prescribed fees
- b) accompanied by a declaration indicating whether the applicant holds any other land
- c) accompanied by any other information that is required by the Village Council
- d) signed by the applicant(s) as provided in the prescribed form

In determining whether to grant a Customary Right of Occupancy or not, the Village Council respects the equality of all persons without gender or any other discriminatory attitude.

Mortgages

The mortgage of a matrimonial home is valid only if:

- It is signed by a spouse(s) living in that matrimonial home
- It is assented to by the borrower and any spouse of the borrower living in that matrimonial home

It should be observed that customary mortgage of land should be in accordance with the customary law applicable to the mortgaged land.

Disposition and surrender

A spouse holding land or a dwelling house for a right of occupancy in his or her name alone must not undertake dis-

position by way of transfer mortgage, sale, gift, lease or otherwise of that land or dwelling house without the consent of the other spouse(s). Where it is proved that the other spouse has not consented to the aforesaid disposition, that disposition is deemed void by the law.

Surrender of Customary Right of Occupancy to a Village

Any person(s) holding a Customary Right of Occupancy may at any time surrender the Customary Right of Occupancy to the Village Council.

Land held under a Customary Right of Occupancy but surrendered with the purpose of depriving, or placing impediments in the way of, a woman from occupying land that she would be entitled to occupy under customary law or otherwise, is inoperative.

Re-grant of surrendered Customary Right of Occupancy

Where the person who has surrendered a Customary Right of Occupancy has dependants or is married, before publicizing that the land is available to be granted to any villager, the Village Council is required to first offer the land to the following persons in order of preference:

- a) Where the person who has surrendered the customary right of occupancy is a man:
 - (1) His wife, wives in order of seniority

- (2) His dependants

- b) Where the person who has surrendered the customary right of occupancy is a woman:
 - (1) Her husband
 - (2) Her dependants

Land applicable to Customary Right of Occupancy

Customary law will be applied to all matters relating to the administration and management of land that is not provided in the Land Act of 1999 or any other law. Any rule of customary law and any decision taken in respect of land held under customary tenure must take into account the customs, traditions and practices of the community concerned provided that they are in accordance with the fundamental principles of the National Land Policy and of any other written law. Any rule of customary law and any decision in respect of land held under customary tenure which denies women, children or persons with disability lawful access to ownership, occupation or use of any such land is void in operative.

The Participation of Women in the Settlement of Disputes

- a) Village Adjudication Committee

The law envisages a Village Adjudication Committee responsible for determining the boundaries and interest in land, setting aside or demar-

cating rights or pathway. The committee is also responsible for safeguarding the interest of women, absent persons, minors and persons with disabilities.

Note: In making decisions the Village Adjudication Committee must treat the rights or women and the rights of pastoralists to occupy or use or have interest in land as equal to the rights of men or agriculturalists to occupy or use or have interest in land.

A Village Adjudication Committee shall consist of between six and nine person, of whom three or more persons must be women.

b)Village Land Council
Every village is required to establish a Village Land Council to mediate between and assist parties in arriving at a mutually acceptable solution on any matter concerning village land. The Village Land Council must consist of seven persons, of whom three must

be women who are nominated by the Village Council and approved by the Village Assembly. The quorum of a meeting of the Village Land Council must be four persons, of whom at least two must be women. ■

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN TANZANIA

By Mr G. Chale, the Local Government Think-Tank

VISION OF FUTURE LOCAL GOVERNMENT SYSTEM

The vision was formulated and endorsed at the National Conference: Towards a shared Vision for Local Government in Tanzania, May 29 - 31 1996. The overall objective is to improve the delivery of services to the public and the main strategy to do so is decentralisation. The vision has been summarised and elaborated in Local Government Reform Agenda 1996 - 2000 that was endorsed in November 1996.

The local government councils will be free to make policy and operational decisions consistent with the laws of the land and government policies without the interference of the central government institutions.

The role of the central government institutions will be confined to:

- The facilitation and enabling of local governments in their service provision
- The development and management of policy and regulatory framework
- The monitoring of the accountability of the local government authorities
- Financial and performance auditing
- The provisions of adequate grants

The strength and effectiveness of the local government institutions will be underpinned by:

- The resources and the authority necessary to effectively perform the roles and functions that they have been

mandated to perform by the local people and by central government

- Adequate appropriately qualified and motivated staff recruited and promoted exclusively on basis of merit
- The necessary training and professionalism
- The capacity to operate efficiently and cost effectively

The leadership of the local authorities will be chosen through a fully democratic process that should also be extended to village councils and grassroots organisations.

The local government will:

- Facilitate the participation of the people in deciding on matters affecting their lives, in planning and executing their development programmes

- Foster partnerships with civic groups

Each local government will have rules and functions that correspond to the demands for its services by the local people and the socio-economic conditions prevailing in the area. The structure of each local government will reflect the nature of its roles and functions.

The local government authorities will be transparent and accountable to the people. This will be the basis for justifying their autonomy. Local government leaders (councillors) and staff will adhere to a strict code of ethics and integrity.

The implementation process will be phased as endorsed in the Local Government Reform Agenda because of capacity and funding constraints. Lessons learned during the short implementation period can subsequently be used to prepare a high quality new Local Government Act that will have lasting value. Phasing will also facilitate more intensive and meaningful public debate about the scope and content of a new local government system in Tanzania.

Local government will be holistic i.e. multi-sectoral government units with a legal status (body corporate) operating on the basis of discretionary, but general powers under the legal framework constituted by the National Legislation. Local govern-

ments have responsibility for socio-economic development and public service provision is also within their jurisdiction, such as the maintenance of law and order and issues of national importance such as education, health, water, roads and agriculture.

The reform of local government thus includes four main policy areas:

1. Political decentralisation is the devolution of powers and the setting of the rules for councils, councillors and committees. Political decentralisation includes the integration of the previously centralised service sectors into a holistic local government system with the council as the most important local political body within its jurisdiction. Political decentralisation implies the creation of real, multi-functional governments at the local level within the framework of the national legislation.

2. Financial decentralisation means that councils have discretionary powers and powers to levy local taxes. Central government, in turn, has the obligation to supply local governments with unconditional grants and other forms of grants. The principle also allows local councils to pass their own budgets reflecting their own priorities as well as the mandatory expenditure required by the national standards set by central government legislation.

3. Administrative decentralisation involves de-linking local authority staff from their respective ministries and establishing procedures for establishing a local payroll. Local governments will thus recruit their own personnel organised in a way decided by the respective councils in order to improve service delivery.

4. The relationship between rural districts, urban councils and lower local authorities will be defined. Administrative decentralisation makes local government staff accountable to local councils. As local governments have a body corporate status (they may sue and be sued) the management responsibility of local administration shall reflect this status.

Changed central-local relations:

- 1) The role of central government vis-à-vis local councils will be changed. The ministries will become policy making bodies
- 2) Supportive and capacity building bodies
- 3) Monitoring and quality assurance bodies within the local government legislation framework and
- 4) The minister responsible for local government will co-ordinate central - local relations and in particular all initiatives from ministries towards local government and will be enabled to issue regulations and guidelines but

only within the policy areas to be specified in the law reflecting the spirit and principles of the reform agenda. The law should specify the scope of the regulations issued by the minister and how they should relate to sectoral legislation. These regulations should specify the details of political, financial and administrative decentralisation.

In short, the overall object of the reform is to improve service delivery by making local authorities more democratic and autonomous within the framework established by the central government and under conditions of severe resource constraints. For this to succeed it requires in depth changes in local government relations, in relations between local councils and their citi-

zens, and in the way that councils and their staff operate - hence the importance of councillor training.

COUNCILLOR TRAINING

In order to achieve the above-mentioned government objectives, the training of councillors and technical staff at council and sub-council levels is imperative.

Recently, FES' Think-Tank, in collaboration with the Ministry of Local Government, produced a 175 page text written specifically to assist grass-root people's representatives (councillors) and technical staff at council and sub-council levels to enhance their daily performance in order to improve democracy and the livelihoods of the people in their communities. The

book has eleven solid chapters to which experienced local government practitioners in the country have contributed.

The name of the book is "Councillors and Development" (Diwani na Maendeleo). This book has been adopted by the Ministry and will form the bases for training of all local government staff at all levels. FES, the Ministry of Regional Administrative and Local Government and all the District Councils should co-operate in financing this training program before the next election of councillors.

Special thanks to FES for financing the completion of this training manual for councillors. ■

HIGHLY INDEBTED POOR COUNTRIES INITIATIVE AND LINKAGE TO POVERTY REDUCTION IN TANZANIA

By Prof. I. A. Msambichaka, Economic Research Bureau, UDSM

This article highlights a number of issues on debt and HIPC. They include the type of debts, the magnitude of debt, the definition of HIPC, the process of debt cancellation, the impact of the HIPC initiative on poverty reduction, the varied voices on HIPC and future prospects as a result of debt cancellation.

The Burden of Debts

A country's debt burden usually refers to the weight of her

obligations to creditors. An excessive debt refers to a situation when the costs of fulfilling the obligations exceed the benefits of doing so. Tanzania's debt is one of those categorized as burdensome.

Type of Debts

There are two types of debts: (i) external debt (ii) internal debt. External debt accrues when one government (creditor) or a private institution lends financial resources to

another government (debtor). The condition for this kind of transfer is that after an agreed amount of time, the debtor has to repay the loan plus interest to the creditor. The internal debt arises when a government borrows from institutions and individuals within its boundaries. Under such circumstances, the government agrees to pay its citizens the borrowed amount plus interest.

Tanzania's Debt Magnitude

Tanzania's debt increased from less than US \$ 1,500 million in the 1970s to US \$ 3,332 million in 1985, to US \$ 6066 million in 1990 and to US \$ 7507 million in 1998. On a per capita basis the 1998 debt magnitude was US \$ 234 per head which was about 90 per cent of the per capita GDP of US \$ 250. The debt magnitude per head was higher than the country's poverty line of US \$ 227 per year. It is plausible to claim that under such circumstances the country's debt is not only a heavy burden but retards the economic growth of Tanzania and enhances the vicious circle of poverty.

The HIPC Initiative: What is it?

The Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative is a comprehensive approach to external debt reduction for poor countries like Tanzania that requires the participation of both multilateral and bilateral creditors. It was James D. Wolfensohn, President of the World Bank, who first suggested the initiative at the end of his visit to Africa in 1995. It was then designed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank in September 1996, but reviewed in September 1999 to provide special assistance for heavily indebted poor countries undertaking IMF and World Bank supported adjustment and reform programmes, and for whom tra-

ditional debt relief mechanisms are insufficient to deal with the external debt problems. The HIPC initiative aims at ensuring that no poor country faces a debt burden it cannot manage. HIPC has one central aspect, the country's continued effort towards macroeconomic adjustment and structural and social policy reforms.

The Process of Debt Cancellation in the HIPC Initiative

At present there are 43 countries, most of them in Sub-Saharan Africa (including Tanzania), which are categorized as heavily indebted and poor. However, the list may change from time to time as some country's external debt situation becomes sustainable. Any eligible country requesting HIPC initiative support should fulfill two basic conditions. First it must have formulated a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) through a broad-based participatory process by the decision point (when a formal commitment to reduce payments by all multilateral creditors is made). Secondly, it must have made progress in implementing the PRSP for at least one year by the completion point (when actual payments are reduced). There are two basic phases before a country can finally qualify for the HIPC assistance. In the first stage, the country has to adopt adjustment and reform programmes (supported by the IMF and World Bank)

and establish a satisfactory track performance record. The decision point comes at the end of the first stage during which a Debt Sustainability Analysis (DSA) is conducted to determine the current status of the country's external debt situation. If, after allowing for the traditional debt relief mechanism, the country's external debt ratio to the net present value of exports is above 150%, the country in question qualifies for the HIPC initiative. At the decision point the Executive Boards of the IMF and World Bank formally decide on a country's eligibility, while the international community commits itself to providing sufficient assistance by the completion point.

During the second stage and, once a country's eligibility for support has been established, the country has to establish a further track record of good performance under IMF/World Bank supported programmes, including the maintenance of macroeconomic stability and the implementation of the PRSP. This is the second stage, Bilateral and commercial creditors are now generally expected to reschedule maturing debt obligations with a 90 % reduction in the net present value. At the completion point the remaining assistance is provided. Bilateral and commercial creditors are expected to show reduction in the net present value of the debt stock in proportion to their HIPC commitments.

The multilateral creditors are also expected to show a reduction in the net present value of their claims sufficient to reduce the country's debt to a sustainable level.

Recently the Cologne Summit made some important changes in the HIPC debt relief initiative. The Summit recommended specifically the adoption of a floating completion point. This meant that the debt relief could be enjoyed by a country "depending on the depth and speed of implementing the agreed actions rather than wait for a fixed three year period". This change was considered a favourable move because it allowed for faster access to relief by those countries which showed greater determination and concerted efforts to reform. The Summit also recommended the adoption of front-loading of relief in the interim period, that is between decision and completion points.

Impact of HIPC and Debt Relief on Poverty Reduction

The HIPC initiative is significant in three main respects. First, it recognizes that the prevalence of poverty in the heavily indebted countries is the factor which limits their capacity to repay the loans. In that respect, it focuses its efforts on poverty reduction measures and most importantly on ensuring additional finance for social sector pro-

grammes - primary basic health, education, water, rural roads and HIV/AIDS, in the case of Tanzania.

Secondly, it emphasizes the broad participation of the stakeholders and thirdly it is a consultative approach involving the creditor and the indebted nations. However, the IMF and the World Bank acknowledge that the HIPC initiative is not a panacea. The debt and poverty problems of countries like Tanzania will not end with HIPC. If, for instance, all of the external debts of the heavily indebted countries were forgiven, most would still depend on concessional external assistance greater than their debt-service repayments. A follow-up of this point is made in a section analyzing the future prospects of HIPC.

Debt Cancellation Vs Poverty Reduction:

Is there any Relationship?

Debt is related to poverty in that the servicing of external debt (that is repaying the principal and interest) represents a "leakage" of resources away from poor countries. If the debt is cancelled, the resources currently being used to service the debt can be used in other programmes, including the importation of critically required foreign resources. It must be emphasized that if debt cancellation is to have any meaningful impact, poor governments should have a programme and a priority list which, if

implemented, could make a real 'dent' on poverty. The PRSP is such a programme.

The Various Voices on HIPC: Government, Civil Society, Intellectuals

Voice of the Government

Most governments, especially those of the heavily indebted countries in SSA including Tanzania, received the HIPC initiative with a lot of enthusiasm and hope and as an "exit strategy" for the debt and poverty problem. Their concern, however, was the "conditionalities" attached to the HIPC initiative, especially the one requiring them to continue to service outstanding debt obligations as a condition to qualify for the initiative. The condition requiring government to use the debt relief funds for poverty reduction activities has been favourably received by most governments, including Tanzania. So Governments view HIPC as a burden off-loader.

Voice of Civil Society

International co-operation to solve the problem of unpayable debt has focused on the problems of low-income countries, including Tanzania, many of which have been devastated by unsustainable debt burdens since the 1980s. HIPC has extended debt relief to more than 20 countries mostly in Africa. The initiative has succeeded in reducing the proportion of export earnings directed towards debt servic-

ing to an average of less than 10 % for these countries. However, creditors' demands still weigh heavily on national budgets. A number of countries still spend more on debt servicing than on primary education and on health services. Although the HIPC initiative has marked an important advance compared to past efforts, it is difficult to justify public spending priorities that prioritize debt servicing above investment in education and health services. This appears to be one of the major concerns of civil society on the HIPC initiative.

Voice of Intellectuals

The impact of the HIPC initiative on debt relief and poverty has been a notable topic in discussions amongst intellectuals in Africa and at the global forums. Opinions are sharply divided between the optimists and the pessimists. Optimists view the involvement of both multilateral and bilateral creditors as a plausible strategy for addressing the debt problem of heavily indebted poor countries. They cite the link between

the HIPC initiative and the pursuing of the reform programmes as another opportunity to assist poor countries in integrating in the globalizing world. Pessimists tend to dismiss the HIPC initiative as adding nothing really new into the existing initiatives or strategies for addressing the debt problem facing LDCs. They claim that the HIPC initiative is merely a strategy to ensure that the heavily indebted countries do not default on their outstanding debt obligations.

What are the Future Prospects as a result of Debt Cancellation and Rescheduling

There is virtually little (if any) opposition to the fact that the HIPC initiative, if properly implemented, will have an impact on poverty and indebtedness in poor countries like Tanzania. However, the HIPC initiative per se is not a panacea. LDCs like Tanzania will continue to solicit, and are likely to get, concessional and other types of borrowing from bilateral as well as multilateral creditors,

the on-going debt relief notwithstanding. The real dent in poverty will be made when the loan resources are used where they are most needed by the poor and where the poor are. The basic rule of the thumb where external borrowing is involved is that borrowed funds should be used in a manner that ensures that the cost of borrowing is at least equal to the marginal revenue. If such an avenue is found and it generates broad based pro-poor growth, external borrowing will have a real positive impact on poverty reduction in Tanzania. ■

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NOTES

CONSEQUENCES OF PRIVATISATION IN TANZANIA

By Mr N. K. Ngulla - Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCEA)

Government commitment to privatisation

The economic adjustment programmes formulated by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund for developing countries enhance the privatisation of public owned enterprises.

The Government of Tanzania has committed itself to privatising the public sector for renewed economic development. After independence, Tanzania had established more than 400 parastatal institutions. In order to further the process of privatisation, the Government established a legal framework by

enacting a Public Corporation Act of 1992 which, in effect, replaced that of 1969. The PCA of 1992 was the first serious step in the privatisation process in Tanzania.

Establishment of the Presidential Sector Reform Commission (PSRC)

The PSRC was established in 1993 with a view to:

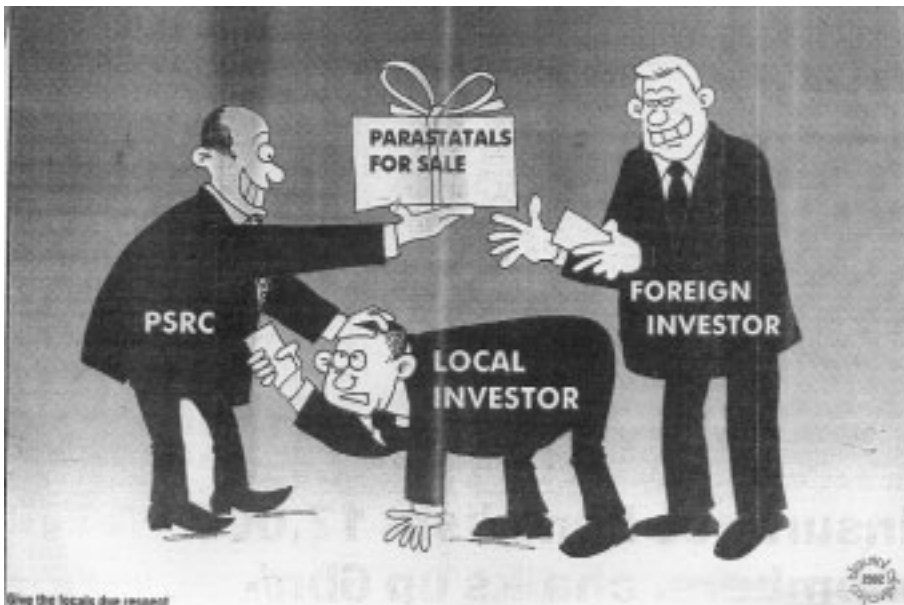
- Improving the operational efficiency of the parastatal enterprises
- Reducing the burden of loss making parastatals on the government's expenditure budget

- Expanding the role of the private sector in the economy and making it a powerful engine for economic development
- Freeing the government from controlling and managing the public enterprises

Policy implementation

The main thrust of the privatisation policy is to promote the participation of the private sector in the economy through the restructuring of the public enterprises. The restructuring exercise has the following objectives:

- To improve efficiency and utilization capacities



Source: The Guardian, Tuesday, April 9, 2002

- To offer new employment opportunities and enhance production
- To harness new skills and technologies
- To open up international markets
- To reduce losses incurred by parastatals and improve government revenue

Consequences of privatisation

The process of privatisation has had the following problems:

- Loss of jobs due to retrenchments, introduction of new skills and technologies
- Closure of loss making enterprises hence displacing

large numbers of workers with inadequate terminal benefits

- Emergence of private enterprises with hostile attitudes towards trade unions

Privatisation in Tanzania has caused insurmountable difficulties to the victims of retrenchment due to the absence of updated labour laws.

Retrenched workers are clearly disadvantaged due to their inability to negotiate adequate retrenchment benefits.

In addition, decisions made regarding the provision of benefits vary extensively

giving workers good ground to complain. Most of divested parastatals were specified under the PSRC Act of 1993. The Act's regulations and provisions do not allow workers to adequately negotiate terms and conditions for retrenchment. ■

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NOTES

5. CIVIL SOCIETY

THE IMPACT OF NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS IN DEVELOPMENT

By Mr R. G. Mutakyabwa, Resource Mobilisation & Management Centre (ROMME Centre)

INTRODUCTION

Civil society¹ as a concept is experiencing global revival both in the overburdened welfare states of Western Europe and in Africa with the demise of the one party state. The regional transition from authoritarian rule to multi-partyism has created a vacuum of experience in ensuring the comprehensive embodiment of democratic values and practices in the region. Civil society organisations (CSOs) in Tanzania have taken the role of promoting and consolidating democratisation processes and human rights. In Tanzania CSOs have emerged to fill the gap caused by the gradual withdrawal of the government from providing its citizens with basic services. However, persistent poverty reinforced by the HIV/AIDS pandemic, the absence of a viable middle class and a poor knowledge base, restricts the realisation of the potential capacity of civil society. Thus, in spite of the phenomenal growth of NGOs² in the country, they all operate under structural, material, financial and organisational capacity constraints

which hinder their effectiveness.

THE IMAGES, PERCEPTIONS AND IMPACTS OF NGOS

Despite all the efforts made by the NGO sector and the impact it has had on society there are people and some institutions/organisations who are not satisfied with the current state of affairs. They have not been able to see what socio-economic contributions have been made by NGOs to the development of the people. Not only are these contributions not visible to the public, they are not visible to the sector itself.

NGOs have been challenged by different authorities including the World Bank to demonstrate whether or not their interventions in supporting local institutions have had an impact on the lives of the people. It has not been easy to find clear evidence and to draw any conclusion on this matter. This is because, in most of cases, NGOs have not been asking this question and have had no baseline database before any intervention. At times, there are no monitoring and evaluation

systems from which an assessment can be made. This is an area that requires further research and action. Furthermore, NGOs have not been disseminating the results of their work.

According to recent studies carried out (in 2001/2002) by the author of this article, NGOs participate in thirteen different programmes. What follows is a brief of only a few programmes. Examples of impact as a result of NGO interventions are also cited.

Poverty Alleviation

Tanzania is one of the poorest countries in the world with an annual per capita estimated to be \$250³ and almost half of the population living below the basic needs poverty line (i.e. \$180 per year)⁴. A few years ago, the government formulated a strategy on the reduction of poverty resulting in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP). NGOs participated in the development of this strategy paper and are expected to take an active role in monitoring and evaluation during the implementation of PRSP. The NGO sector has been

recognised as one of the main actors in the country's struggle to overcome poverty. Poverty in Tanzania is characterised by low income and expenditure, high mortality and morbidity, poor nutritional status, low educational attainment, vulnerability to external shocks and aid dependency. Other poverty characteristics include lack of access to credit facilities, low prices for farm produce, and poor access to information. Poverty is widespread in rural areas, but is not insignificant in urban settings. Those most at risk include children and youths, the very old, women and those involved in subsistence agriculture and small-scale fishing. NGO poverty alleviation programmes have been designed to tackle these issues.

Agriculture

This sector has been given priority for two main reasons. One, the country's economy, and most of the population, is heavily dependent on agriculture. It accounts for half of the GDP and provides 85% of exports, as well as employment and incomes for most Tanzanians⁵. Two, the poor are concentrated in subsistence agriculture. Farmers and livestock keepers are provided with modern and appropriate knowledge and skills imparted through training workshops, including Land Use Management, Farmers Networking and Leadership Training, Marketing, Indigenous Knowledge and Women

Training. It is estimated, for example, that for the four-year period (1997 to 2000) INADES Formation imparted skills and knowledge to a total of 4,640 farmers who participated in its two training projects. Other services provided include the provision of agricultural inputs and other resources. *Through NGO support, we expect increased agricultural production in general, and food security in particular which will in turn lead to increased people's incomes.* ADP⁶ Mbozi Trust Fund, Isangati Trust Fund, Rural Resource Centre and Chama cha Maendeleo Vijijini Tanzania (CHAMAVITA) are other NGOs that support the community in the field of agriculture.

Economic and Micro Financing Activities

These activities involve financial, material and manpower support to small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and individual income generation projects (IGPs). Most of the NGOs taking part in economic and other poverty alleviation initiatives boast of creating jobs for the people and thus improving their livelihoods. These projects, which are intended to raise the incomes of poor people, also include training in relevant business skills and production techniques. It is expected that, through training, the management of economic resources will be improved and thus lead to increased incomes and the

wellbeing of the people. NGOs, therefore, come to the assistance of the most needy who cannot get financial help from the formal finance institutions (FFIs) such as commercial banks. NGOs that are providing savings and credit facilities include Women Advancement Trust (WAT), Poverty Africa (POA), Caritas Tanzania, Youth Self-Employment Foundation (YOSEFO), SATF and PRIDE Africa. In addition to employment creation, these projects enhance gender balance as they generate employment for women and thus enable them to improve their status. NGOs have facilitated women in establishing savings and credit facilities and women empowerment programmes. The recent study on Poverty Africa Credit Shops Program revealed a positive impact on the 5,204 direct beneficiaries of which 70% are women. The areas of improvement include the quantity and quality of food, nutrition and health status and increased incomes.

Human Rights and Governance

Mbilinyi (1996)⁷ calls NGOs "schools of democracy", "where members learn lessons of good governance and democracy or the opposite". These programmes involve raising awareness on peoples' rights (human, civil, legal, child, the elderly, and women rights, land and property rights) and obligations. Cam-

paigns against the abuse of power, domestic/gender-based and sexual violence have been conducted throughout the country. Through advocacy and lobbying, various NGOs such as TAMWA, TAWLA, TGNP, PAS⁸ and WAT have managed to influence the formulation of various bills such as those on sexual violence and land. The civic and voter education programmes have increased people's knowledge about how their country is governed and about citizen's rights and obligations in the election of leaders. For the October 2000 elections in Tanzania, about 68% of 41 institutions involved in civic education activities were NGOs⁹. Between 1997 and 2001, SAWATA¹⁰ Karagwe (concerned with the welfare of older persons) trained 776 paralegals in 73 villages in Karagwe District¹¹. Since then these paralegals have educated SAWATA members on their civil and legal rights. They have also assisted in the settlement of disputes and conflicts among and between older people¹². The settlement of conflicts out of court has promoted harmony, peace, trust and love in the villages. By their nature, NGOs have a potentially transformative role to play in strengthening civil society, providing space for women, youths, the poor and other disadvantaged groups to organise themselves around their own concerns and challenge the status quo. HAWA-

CODA¹³ and ENVIRO-CARE¹⁴ have been conducting campaigns against female genital mutilation (FGM) in addition to awareness programmes on human and women's rights.

With the assistance of NGOs, the voices of the voiceless and marginalised groups (older persons, children, women and disabled persons) have started to be heard and actions have been taken by appropriate authorities and bodies to take care of the interests of these groups¹⁵. The government has also taken protective and affirmative actions e.g. the inclusion of women in various decision-making bodies (Parliament, Regional and District leadership and legal bodies). Through campaigns, training and counselling activities, these marginalised people have also become aware of their rights and started to play an active role where appropriate in demanding their rights. Women and children, for example, have had audiences with the President of the United Republic of Tanzania. On their own initiative, women have started to stand for leadership positions in various fields including politics. Surely, NGOs have a played a crucial role in policy dialogue and presenting alternative opinions.

Health and Medical Services

Life expectancy in Tanzania has declined to about 50 years

while infant and maternal mortality rates are on the increase. NGO interventions include the provision of health and medical care/services, the supply of drugs and other working tools. Some organisations such as the Christian Social Services Commission (CSSC) are involved in the rehabilitation of infrastructures. Preventive measures, especially against the causes of illness and death, are a concern to all and are given priority. Training projects include reproductive health and primary health care (PHC).

HIV/AIDS

Most indicators suggest that the prevalence rate of HIV in Tanzania has steadily increased during the 1990s, rising from an average of 5.5% in 1992 to 9.4% in 1999. The gender gap in HIV prevalence has also widened: in 1992 the prevalence rate breakdown was 5.3% male and 5.9% female; in 1999 it was 8.7% male and 12.6% female. In Tanzania, HIV/AIDS is considered to be the single greatest threat to the country's security and socio-economic development, as well as to its citizens' survival and wellbeing. The problem of AIDS orphans is also extremely alarming. Data from the 1999 TRCHS¹⁶ survey reveal that about 9% of all Tanzanian children under the age of 15 are orphans mostly due to AIDS. ESAURP has estimated the total number of

HIV/AIDS orphans (in 2002) at 2,549,885¹⁷ and the number is projected to reach 4 million by 2010¹⁸. Orphans face a shortage of basic needs¹⁹, run the risk of not being enrolled in school²⁰, of being withdrawn from class²¹, of becoming working children, of living on the streets, and of being sexually abused. There are NGOs and CBOs that have been formed specifically to deal with the HIV/AIDS pandemic and AIDS orphans. They include, among others, WAMATA²², KIWAKKUKI²³, SWAAT²⁴, PASADA²⁵ and KOTF²⁶.

With regard to the HIV/AIDS epidemic and orphaned children, the NGO sector provides necessary services including:

- Caring for and supporting AIDS orphans in terms of education (fees, clothes, shoes and other educational requirement), medical and health care, food and general clothing. In 2002, SATF supported the education of 18,026 AIDS orphans at primary and secondary schools in 14 regions of Tanzania Mainland. The amount of money for this support has increased to Tsh. 350 million from Tsh. 300 million that was made available in 2001.

- Infected and affected persons are provided with relief supplies, medical/health care, socio-economic, spiritual and legal and human rights support. Counselling and Voluntary Testing (CVT) is another activity carried out. PASADA

and WAMATA also provide home based care services.

Through such initiatives some people living with AIDS have lived with confidence while others have managed to live longer and support their families.

Water and Sanitation

NGOs are involved in the provision of reliable, clean and safe water protection of traditional water sources (Caritas Kigoma and KADETFU), drilling shallow wells (Caritas offices in Shinyanga and Arusha) and piped water. The provision of sanitary and hygienic facilities helps combat communicable diseases such as diarrhea, one of the main causes of child mortality. Two water and sanitation projects completed by CHAMAVITA of Lushoto in 2001, for example, benefits 2,775 people and by 2019 the number will reach 4,300. PINO has assisted in the construction of pit latrines at primary schools and health units in Cholesamvura, Kisarawe District. NGO intervention in this field is expected to improve people's health status and reduce the burden of women and girls, the main water carriers/drawers.

Women and Gender Issues

Women have been marginalised and discriminated in almost every sphere of society. They contribute greatly to the socio-economic development of the country, yet they get

very little share when it comes to wealth, property and other resources. Gender based violence, such as sexual harassment, wife battery and female genital mutilation (FGM) are rampant. Gender inequalities and inequities have a negative effect on women. Reports have revealed that gender imbalances have important consequences for the overall HIV/AIDS infection rates in Tanzania (see the section on HIV/AIDS).

NGOs have played an important role in empowering women economically (through grants and credit facilities), socially and politically. Advocacy and human rights training and advocacy campaigns have been conducted extensively. Self-confidence among women has been developed and strengthened. There are good indications that progress is being made towards gender equality and gender equity.

Environment

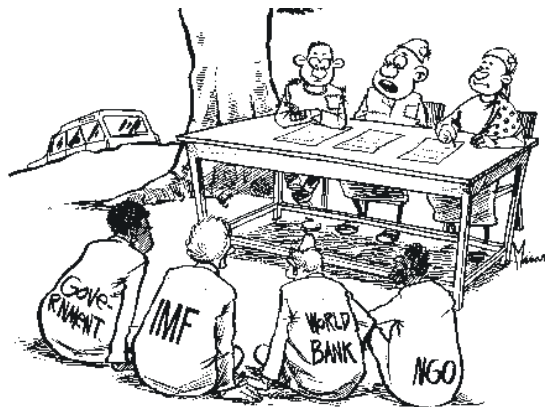
There are clear signs that the NGO's efforts to increase public awareness about the importance of environment management and conservation is bearing fruit. There are not less than 160 NGOs and CBOs devoted to environmental issues. They have become important government partners for implementing various programmes related to environment conservation, management and sanitation in both urban and rural areas. NGO activities in

this area include proper land use, soil conservation, establishing tree nurseries and the planting of trees. These efforts have been complemented by public education programmes on and awareness campaigns against deforestation, uncontrolled bush fires and soil erosion. Afforestation programmes have also been one of the ways of conserving the environment. MECA of Morogoro, for instance, is engaged in the preservation of Ulugulu Mountains, while Pelum Tanzania is engaged in proper land use. In 2001, KADETFU²⁷ distributed 1,000,604 tree seedlings to communities and institutions in Bukoba and Muleba Districts. Several NGOs are working in specific areas like Lake Victoria (LANESO), Lake Tanganyika (TACARE) and Lake Nyasa. These efforts are helping to raise public interest in, and commitment to, environmental conservation and management in Tanzania.

OPERATIONAL CONSTRAINTS AND PROBLEMS

Despite these apparent successes the NGO sector has realised it has operational problems and other weaknesses, which hamper its performance. The main constraints are related to management, personnel, financial management and non-financial resources.

- The Tanzanian NGO sector is young and there have



Source: Hakikazi Catalyst 2001, cartoon by Ali Masoud (Kipanya)

been no formal NGO management training programmes. As a result, there is widespread weak management which manifests itself in various ways, e.g. the low participation of the beneficiaries in most of the project cycles; the late accountability of funds by those who had received them. Board members in some NGOs are often inactive due to their lack of knowledge and the skills required to fulfil their roles and responsibilities.

- The lack or shortage of working staff leads to (a) the overstretching of the available staff; (b) jobs being carried out by unqualified people; (c) low quality services and products; and (d) lack of data/information (including financial records and reports) for decision-making. Inadequacy of staff also leads to inability to respond to needs immediately especially in emergency cases and effective staff development programmes are not easy to implement.

- Financial problems can result from inadequate funds and overdependency on foreign donors and sometimes on very limited sources. (Over 76% of NGOs are donor dependent and over 80% of their budgets come from overseas.) Problems also arise from the untimely and delayed disbursement of funds by donors which might be the result of late or lacking financial and narrative reports from the recipient NGOs to donors (due to lack of adequate financial/accounting skills and lack of staff to do the job). Financial management is a common problem in this sector as most NGOs have yet to put in place effective accounting systems and procedures for smooth operations.

- * The lack of proper working premises has led some NGOs to be termed “Briefcase” NGOs. The lack of or outdated office equipment and ineffective management information systems (MIS)

have also been a hindrance to timely decision-making.

Conclusion

There is no doubt that NGOs have a role to play in the improvement of the livelihoods of the Tanzanians. The continuing growing demand for NGO services, the interest shown by the government and the general public and the continued donor support is an indication that there has been satisfactory performance in this sector. In order to have more impact the NGO sector has to take positive steps in some areas.

- A quick analysis shows that NGO operations are concentrated in the wealthiest regions of Dar es Salaam, Kilimanjaro, Arusha and Mwanza. Very few NGOs work in the poorest and marginalised regions of Kagera, Kigoma and Lindi. There is need for NGOs to prioritise the poorest regions of the country. More efforts are needed to extend NGO services in rural areas where the most needy live.

- NGOs need to build and strengthen a culture of involving key stakeholders, especially direct beneficiaries, in their planning, implementation and evaluation processes. Members and working personnel, for example, have to take part in the formulation of vision and mission statements. They have to be accountable to their members, the general public, the donors as well as to the government.

- The introduction of a competitive environment (trade liberalisation and globalisation) in Tanzania will have an effect on the place of this sector. NGOs are now competing for contracts to undertake service provision. This could undermine the independence of the sector, which could in turn lead NGOs to compromise their role in advocacy and support for the grassroots. NGOs have to be cautious about this matter. This is a challenge to the NGO sector.

- There is a great need for intensification of training for CSOs in Tanzania. The government, the corporate sector and donors should help and provide CSOs with financial and material support to enable them to participate in various training workshops on issues which are of importance for CSOs' development. These should include NGO management, project management, counselling skills for mainly health and education personnel, local resource mobilisation, fundraising and other financial issues.

- There is need to empower the sector to be accountable and transparent, and to have sufficient communication and media skills for lobbying and advocacy.

- They must be broadly based. ■

1 Civil society has been defined as, "... an arena where manifold social movements and civic organisations from all classes ... attempt to constitute themselves in an ensemble of arrangements so that they can express themselves and advance their interests" (Bratton, 1990:417). It refers to

that sphere of more or less autonomous social organisations, which lie between family and the state.

2 The NGO definition used in this article is according to the 5th Draft of the National Policy on NGOs:

a voluntary grouping of individuals or organisations which is autonomous, non-political and not-for-profit sharing, organised locally at the grassroots level, nationally or internationally for the purpose of enhancing the legitimate economic, social and/or cultural development or lobbying or advocating on issues of public interest or interest of a group of individuals or organisations.

3 IDT/MDG Progress: International/Millennium Declaration Development Goals, URT February 2001.

4 The National Poverty Eradication Strategy, Vice President's Office, URT 1998

5 DFID, 1999

6 ADP: Agricultural Development Programme.

7 ESAURP, Tanzania's Tomorrow, Tema Publishers Company Ltd, Dar es Salaam.

8 Tanzania Media Women Association; Tanzania Women Lawyers' Association; Tanzania Gender Network Programme; Paralegal Aid Scheme for Women.

9 Records of the Elections 2000 Basket Fund at the Royal Danish Embassy, Dar es Salaam.

10 Saidia Wazee Tanzania

11 SAWATA Karagwe: The Improvement and Extension of the Civic and Legal Rights Education Project with Older People, Mutakyahwa, 2002.

12 During 1997/2001 period, 646 disputes were settled.

13 Hanang Women Counseling and Development Institute.

14 Environmental, Human Rights Care and Gender Organisation.

15 A policy on Elder Persons is in the pipeline.

16 Tanzania Reproductive and Child Health Survey.

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22 WalioKatika Mapambano na AIDS Tanzania

23 Kikundi cha Wanawake cha Kuzuia Ukimwi Kilimanjaro.

24 Society for Women and AIDS in Africa -Tanzania Chapter.

25 Pastoral Activities and Services for People with AIDS - Dar es Salaam.

26 Kagera Orphan Trust Fund

27 Kagera Development and Credit Revolving Trust Fund

THE SHORTCOMINGS OF THE NGO BILL

By Mr Chambo Max Kajege, *Kivukoni Academy of Social Sciences*

On 12 November 2002 the Parliament of the United Republic of Tanzania passed an Act to provide for the registration of Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the coordination of their activities.

The NGO community pointed out that the Bill had a number of shortcomings before it was passed. The reason for these shortcomings, according to the NGO community, is that the policy makers did not involve a wide spectrum of the stakeholders. Moreover, the Bill was drawn up very quickly thereby denying the NGO community sufficient time to present its input. The result is that it is not a "user-friendly" Bill.

Below I have highlighted those key issues which in the opinion of the NGO community, and indeed in my own opinion, still need attention for the proper execution of the NGO Bill. These issues remain in spite of the Government's move to amend and produce the Amended Bill supplement a few hours before it was enacted. On the whole, instead of promoting an enabling environment for NGOs, the enacted Bill stresses control and restriction, and this is contrary to the spirit of the NGO Policy.

Section	Legal mischief that may occur as a result of the provision	Recommendations
S.2 Definitions	The definition of "public interest" is not sufficiently inclusive. For example it does not include groups advocating for environmental concerns, human rights and the welfare of animals.	The definition should be amended to add: "or protection of the environment, promotion and protection of human rights or welfare of animals"
	"Community based organisation" is not defined. This is liable to cause unnecessary confusion at local levels.	Needs careful thought and must be defined in such a manner that overly bureaucratic requirements that may impede on people's efforts at community level are not imposed.
	Overall, the definition of NGO still remains problematic (e.g. it provides for peculiar conditions whereby a CBO can establish an NGO).	Needs further work and should reflect international best practice and keen understanding of local NGO situation.
S.3,4 and 4. The offices of the Director and Registrar of NGOs	The two offices of Director and Registrar remain causing unnecessary bureaucracy and expensive. The roles and functions of the Registrar remain unspecified and she/he seems to have been reduced to be a mere clerk of the Board.	The two offices should be streamlined into one so as to ensure the smooth and un-bureaucratic regulation of NGO affairs in the country.
S.6 and 7 Functions of the Board	The Board continues to have too many roles and responsibilities so as to make its functioning unwieldy and expensive, and also increase the likelihood for delays.	The functions of the Board should be streamlined and limited to focusing on few core areas only (make it learn and efficient).
S.7 (1) c	Requirement to "facilitate and coordinate activities of NGOs" is not appropriate and practically not possible. How can a Board that meets a few times a year coordinate the tens of thousands of activities of NGOs?	The Board should not focus on this. NGO activities can be facilitated and coordinated by the Council and the NGO networks themselves.

Section	Legal mischief that may occur as a result of the provision	Recommendations
S.7 (1) i.	Requirement to "provide policy guidelines to the NGOs for harmonizing their activities in light of the national development plan" is inappropriate and contrary to the very essence of many NGOs. This provision may lead to undue pressures that curtail NGOs providing critiques or alternatives.	The non-governmental nature of NGOs should be respected and there should not be an expectation that they may only work within the confines of government plans and policies.
S.7 (1)	The function of the Board "to investigate and to inquire into any matter regarding the performance of NGOs is too general and sweeping and could be abused by officers, employees or agents of the Board and increase opportunity for undue harassment and corruption.	Fraud, corruption and other penal offences that may be committed by NGOs or their officers can be adequately handled by existing law and institutions. The provision should be made more precise so that it applies only in extenuating circumstances. There must be adequate provisions for ensuring that it does not lead to harassment.
S.7 (1)m	This provision requires the Board "to perform such other functions as may be directed to it by the Minister" is too sweeping and broad.	The Minister's powers should be clearly specified and discretion should be limited to operationalising aspects of the Act.
S.7 (2) (b)	Delegation to "any member of the Board, public officer or employee of the Board, the exercise of any of the powers or the performance of any of its functions" is inconsistent with the principles of administrative law and is likely to usurp the intended effect of delegation.	This provision should be amended to reflect the following concerns: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Delegation should not be extended in this way. It should ensure that only a limited number of members of the Board (in a prescribed number) can be delegated such powers. • Serious matters should not be delegated. Power relating, for instance, to cancellation of NGOs registration cannot be well executed by a single employee or agent of the Board upon delegation.
S.12 (1) Registration requirement	<p>The compulsory registration requirement threatens to violate the constitutional freedom of association, particularly to infant and growing small NGOs and CBOs which do not have the immediate resources required for registration, but are still capable of undertaking initial activities.</p> <p>The requirement also contravenes the provisions of Item 2.0 of the National Policy on NGOs (2001), which insists on the regulatory law to assist "promotion and development of NGOs in Tanzania" (P5).</p> <p>The requirement defeats the spirit of the Policy objectives that aims at putting "in transparent, decentralized and which will facilitate better coordination of NGOs while safeguarding the freedom of association" [Item 4 (iii)].</p>	<p>The law should create an enabling environment that can guarantee freedom of association, development and the thriving of NGOs in Tanzania.</p> <p>Registration procedure should not attract penal sanction as stated in S. 44 of the NGO Bill, because, according to the policy, NGOs should be "formed, run, developed (and) terminated only through free and voluntary acts of individuals and associations" [Item 2.1.2, at p.5].</p> <p>Therefore, these provisions should be replaced by provisions that reflect the internationally recognized approach which is to encourage registration by prescribing a set of benefits that come with registration, and not criminalize non-compliance.</p> <p>Persons or bodies that may abuse the</p>

Section	Legal mischief that may occur as a result of the provision	Recommendations
		freedom of association to commit corrupt, dangerous or criminal acts can be squarely dealt with through existing penal legislation.
S. 12 (2) f	The requirement that the application form should accompany "any other particulars or information as may be required by the Registrar" is too vague and sweeping a provision, and it may be prone to abuse.	This provision is unnecessary and should therefore be deleted.
S. 15	The appeal process ends with the Minister.	Explicit reference to the option of an appeal to the Courts should be made if an applicant is dissatisfied with the decision of the Minister.
S. 17 (2) b	The requirement to state "the area of operation" is not appropriate at the level of the certificate of registration. It renders obsolete the freedom of NGOs to determine their own areas of operation.	Stating area of operation is not necessary.
S. 19 Work permits	The requirement for the Board to approve work permits for non-citizens unnecessarily adds to the work of the Board and is likely to cause undue delays to processing applications.	This provision should be deleted. Existing procedures should apply (as is the case with other legislation). The matter is best left to be handled in the Immigration Act.
S. 22 and 23	The requirements for registration at district levels, the powers of the public officer charged to carry out the responsibility and the time for response remain unspecified.	This is one of many examples of how the Bill contains provisions that require more time for further reflection, clarification and precision.
S. 24 (1)	In case of the suspected cessation of an NGO, the provision allows the Board to either write to the office bearers or provide a notice in newspapers. Time provided to give notice of one month is too little given the remoteness of many locations in the country.	The provision should be amended to ensure that notice in writing by registered or other secure means to the official address of NGO is always given first, failure of response to which should lead to notice in newspapers. The time should be extended to 90 days.
S. 29	The provision has excluded the Registrar from being served with the Annual Report of NGOs notwithstanding the fact that the Registrar is responsible for keeping records and reports of NGOs (4(1) (g)).	The provision should be amended to include the Registrar.
S. 29 (b)	Provision requires all NGOs to submit audited accounts on an annual basis, which many small and forming NGOs may not be able to do. For example, are accounts of each village government independently audited? Accountability is important, but regulations should be appropriate and not kill voluntary spirit.	Internationally accepted practice of having thresholds requiring auditing (for examples all NGOs with annual income over Tshs 10 million could be required to have accounts audited) be adopted. This is one of many examples of how the Bill contains provisions that require more time for further reflection, clarification and precision.
S. 31 (b)	This provision compels NGOs to respect all traditions that are not against the law. This is overly restrictive and curtails NGO action to bring social and legislative change. For example, since corporal punishment and capital punishment are both allowed under the law	This provision is entirely unnecessary and should be deleted. Existing provisions can take care of inappropriate acts by NGOs.

Section	Legal mischief that may occur as a result of the provision	Recommendations
	NGOs may not under this provision campaign against them.	
S. 31 (C) (iii)	The provision threatens the exercise of right to free participation of international NGOs with regard to modern spirit of competition among organizations. The provision to introduce fines and imprisonment as penalties can be used harshly to curtail the right to freedom of association. The sweeping provisions of many sections of the Bill means that harsh penalties may also be applied for minor infractions.	NGOs should be left free to participate in the development process of the country. The entire section S. 35 should be replaced by the following words, "Any person who contravenes the provision of this Act may be proceeded against under the provision of the Penal Code and any other penal law relevant to the offence".
S. 35	Existing provisions under this bill and existing laws of the land are sufficient to handle abuses by NGOs or its officers.	

NOTES

THEATRE FOR CHANGE

By Mrs F. Massey, Morogoro Paralegal Centre



Morogoro Paralegal Unit theatre group performing during ZIFF, 2001

Theatre is a method of communicating which can be used to bring about change.

Theatre is entertaining. It can make people become excited, feel sympathetic, cry, laugh, shout. In fact it can bring about all sorts of feelings in people, depending on how the performers reveal the message concerned, on the costumes used and on other equipment such as flutes, drums, spears, gourds and even loud shouting. The way performers dress can make a very big impression on the audience and it can stick in their minds and not be easy to forget.

Theatre performances bring together people of different ages, sex, status, beliefs and even ideologies. This mixture of spectators makes theater an effective learning institution, which does not discriminate against any group in society.

Well-prepared and well-performed theatre can bring about behavioral change. The action used by the performers can thrill the heart of an individual to the extent that it paves the way for new life skills and a new vision, and thereby a better life for the individual.

Theatre performance as a method can be used in con-

nection with feasibility studies. While the play is going on, the audience's reactions - such as when people shout, "It is true", "It has just happened" - can reveal the needs, problems and behavior of the society concerned.

The theatre performances conducted in Zanzibar and Pemba during the Zanzibar International Film Festival (ZIFF) by the Tanga Paralegal Aid Scheme for Women and the Morogoro Paralegal Centre thrilled the hearts of the people, especially the part where one performer fainted after receiving a letter from her aunt informing her that a man with whom she was having a love affair had just died of Aids complications.

Then the Aids virus appeared in a funny costume to describe how it can kill many people if they don't take care and use preventive measures, and at this stage the adults were quiet. The young children were shouting in fear of the Aids Virus and I also think those who really knew what AIDS is and the hazards it causes had different feelings and maybe some of them decided to change their life styles to avoid this killer.

Such is the contribution of theatre to development. ■

6. MEDIA

THE MEDIA COUNCIL OF TANZANIA

By Mr Anthony Ngaiza, Media Council of Tanzania

Introduction

The Media Council of Tanzania is a voluntary, independent and non-statutory organization. The Tanzania media practitioners believe that they are duty bound to serve the truth, guided by the principle of the public's right to information. The duty and responsibility of the Council is to ensure, enhance and defend the freedom of the press, guided strictly by the professional principles of accuracy, objectivity, honesty, fairness, decency and independence.

Vision

A democratic Tanzania with a free, responsible and effective media

Mission

To create an environment that enables a strong and ethical media contributes towards a more democratic and just society

Objectives of the Council

(a) To assist, safeguard and maintain freedom of the media in the United Republic of Tanzania
(b) To oversee that journalists, editors, broadcasters, producers, directors, proprietors and all those involved in the media industry in Tanzania adhere to the highest professional and ethical standards

(c) To consider and adjudicate upon complaints from the public and amongst the media inter se against alleged infringements of the code of ethics

(d) To encourage the development of the media profession in Tanzania

(e) To maintain a register of developments likely to restrict the provision of information of public interest and importance, keep a review of the same, and investigate the conduct and attitude of persons, corporations and governmental bodies at all levels towards the media, and make public reports on such investigations
(f) To involve members of the public in the work of the Council by granting them membership of the Council and constantly and reasonably keeping the public informed of the Council's operations, views and decisions

(g) To promote and defend the interests of readers, viewers, and listeners

(h) To promote gender sensitivity, equality and balance

(i) To raise funds for the purposes of the Council on such terms as are compatible with the autonomy of the Council and within the spirit of its mission and vision

(j) To publish papers, journals, newsletters and other materials to achieve these objectives

(k) To do such other things as may be in the interest of the Council, the media and the public as may be necessary to achieve these objectives

Membership of the Council

The Membership of the Council shall consist of the following:

(a) Media outlets

(b) Journalists' training institutions

(c) Professional journalists associations

(d) Press clubs

Associate members of the Council

The Council shall accord the status of associate membership to any professional association whose aims and objectives complement, support or relate to the Council's objectives.

Organs of the Council

A National General Convention (NGC), a Governing Board, the Secretariat, an Ethics Committee and a Finance and Administration Committee.

The NGC may establish any other committee or committees whenever it deems necessary.

The Governing Board

(1) The Governing Board shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, an Executive Secretary, seven media representatives and four public representatives, two of them being lawyers PROVIDED that a minimum of one third of the board members are women. (2) With the exception of the Executive Secretary, who shall be an ex-officio member of the Board and shall assume office on the basis of a special contract of service with the Board, and the Vice-President, who shall be elected by members of the Board from amongst themselves, the rest of the Board members shall be elected after every three years by the NGC. (3) Media Representatives shall be persons who at the time of election are actively engaged in publishing or other media activities in an administrative, editorial or journalistic capacity. They shall be elected by the NGC by secret ballot. (4) Public representatives shall be persons who at the time of appointment are not engaged in publishing or other media activities in an administrative, editorial or journalistic capacity. (5) Jurists of high standing shall be persons who are not employed as civil servants or in military service of the United Republic of Tanzania. (6) All members of the Governing Board shall be elected at the National General Convention. (7) No media organ, institution or organization

shall have more than one representative on the Governing Board. (8) The President shall be an eminent citizen of impeccable integrity and proven intellectual ability. (9) The President shall be the head of the Governing Board and shall chair all meetings of the Board and shall have a casting vote. (10) The Governing Board, in matters requiring expert advice, shall be at liberty to invite experts to render consultative services to it. (11) The Board from amongst its members shall elect the Vice-President. (12) Except as otherwise expressly provided by the Constitution or by any regulation made under the Constitution, the Governing Board may exercise all the powers of the General Convention and no regulation made under the Constitution shall invalidate any prior act of the Governing Board which would have been valid if such regulation had not been made. (13) The Governing Board may from time to time appoint sub-committees consisting of members of the Board, and may, except as otherwise expressly provided by the Constitution or by any regulations made under the Constitution, delegate to any such sub-committee all or any of the powers of the Board. (14) The procedure of the Board and of every sub-committee appointed as aforesaid shall be as may be prescribed by the Board from time to time. (15) The Governing Board

shall among other functions given to it by the constitution, enforce the Ethical Code and implement the Council's objectives.

Terms of Office

All members and their alternates may hold office for three years. A Board member may serve for four consecutive terms and may be re-elected after a lapse of one un-served term, provided that at any given moment at least one third of current Board members must have served the Council for at least one term.

Complaints procedure

If you have a complaint against a newspaper, radio or television you should first take it up with the editor or another higher authority of the concerned institution. If the complaint is not resolved, you may refer it to the Media Council of Tanzania. A complaint must be specific, in writing and accompanied by a cutting or clear photograph or recorded cassette of the matter complained of, with supporting documents of evidence of any.

Complaints must be lodged within 12 weeks of publication or broadcast. The Council will not hear a complaint subject to legal action or, in the Council's view, possible legal action unless the complainant is willing to sign a waiver of the right to such action.

Where to direct your complaint:
The Executive Secretary
Media Council of Tanzania
P.O. Box 10160, Dar es Salaam
Tel: 2775728/ 2771947
Fax: 2775728/27003720
Email: media@africaonline.co.tz

CODE OF ETHICS FOR JOURNALISTS

Extracts compiled from Codes of Ethics of TAJA, AJM and IFJ

Article 1

The Right to Truth

(a) Every journalist has a duty to tell, adhere to, adore and faithfully defend the truth.

(b) A journalist should make adequate inquiries, do cross-checking of facts in order to provide the public with unbiased, accurate, balanced comprehensive information/news.

Article 2

Professional Integrity

A journalist should not solicit, nor accept bribes or any form of inducement meant to bend or influence professional performance.

Article 3

Non-Disclosure of Sources

A journalist should not disclose sources or information given in confidence.

Article 4

Social Responsibility

A journalist shall, in collecting and disseminating information, bear in mind his/her responsibility to the public which means to educate citizens and others on matters affecting them and their surroundings, and consistently strive to put ahead of others, matters of public and national interest.

Article 5

Respect for Human Dignity

(a) A journalist should avoid violation of individual privacy and human dignity unless such violation is done for a provable public interest.

(b) A journalist should guard against libel, slander and defamation in general.

(c) A journalist should respect and consistently work for attainment of human rights and fuller freedom.

Article 6

Discrimination

A journalist should not engage in publication directly or indirectly or by implication, or stories, information, photos that injure, or discriminate against anybody for his/her colour, religion, origin or sex.

Article 7

Identity and the Underdog

(a) A journalist should not ridicule the underdog including minors, the old, the bereaved and any other underprivileged persons or communities.

(b) A journalist should avoid identifying victims of sexual assault unless the victim is dead and until a journalist secures consent from a living victim.

Article 8

Facts and Comments

(a) A journalist should

always draw a clear line between comment, conjecture and fact.

(b) A journalist should not plagiarise, and where other's material is used credit should be given to the source.

Article 9

Sensationalism

Sensationalism is mainly inherent in stories but a journalist must guard against highlighting incidents out of context, either in headlines or in reportage/narration.

Article 10

Correction and Right of Reply

(a) Any warranted corrections must be done promptly and with due prominence.

(b) Apologies should be published wherever appropriate and accorded due prominence.

(c) An individual, group or organisation who disputes a published report should be given an opportunity to reply.

Article 11

Working Together

Journalist should work together in safeguarding this Code of Ethics which is applicable to members in the state-owned media, private media and to local freelance journalists.

WHAT IS PUBLIC RELATIONS?

Public Relations (PR) is about relations between an organization - be it a business enterprise, a political party or an NGO - and the public. Such relations exist, whether we want them to or not. It is therefore wise to consider what image you wish the public to have of your organization and to work consciously on the promotion of that image.

An organization manifests itself to the public in many ways. It can be through its propagated political aims, the behaviour of its representatives and members, its public statements and activities, the atmosphere at its public meetings and press conferences, its transparency and its accountability.

The traditional “tools” of a public relations officer are:

- press conferences
- publications
- leaflets
- posters
- press releases
- public events

These tools must be used carefully. A public meeting held without being well prepared or a badly designed and written publication may do more harm than good!

PREPARING AND RUNNING A PRESS CONFERENCE

A press conference is an event to which members of the press are invited for a briefing by the host organisation or personality. The briefing is followed by an opportunity for the journalists to ask questions.

Often press conferences are held when the subject matter is intricate and further questions from journalists are expected and desired.

If the information/news to be given at the press conference is not sufficiently interesting, relevant or “meaty” for the invited media’s readers/viewers, then it is likely that the journalists will not show up.

Preparation

- Are the objectives clear and is the topic well defined?
- Which media are to be invited?
Remember, TV & radio may have special needs.
- Is the time/date well chosen and convenient for journalists?
Does it allow them to meet their deadlines?
Does it coincide with other important events?
- Who will chair the conference?
- Who will act as the organisation’s spokesperson/s?
- Is the opening statement well prepared?
- Are the major arguments well supported in the written handouts?
- Check the venue: make sure that there are enough chairs, tables and lights.
- Have handouts ready, e.g. press release. You might prepare a press folder that includes the most important statements, a report and background material.

Invitation

- The headline must clearly indicate the host organisation, the name of the person responsible

and how to contact him/her.

- State the subject matter clearly. (Who did/does what, when, where, why and how.)
- Provide information about the speakers.
- Provide details about the venue, time and date.
- Send out/deliver the invitation at least a week in advance.
- Send out a reminder one or two days before the event.

Running it

- Ask journalists to note their names and which media institution they represent on a prepared list. This is useful information for making follow-ups.
- Make the written handouts available for journalists when they arrive.
- The chairperson opens the conference and introduces the speakers and subject.
- The key presenter makes his/her statement clearly and concisely, and relates them to the handouts.
- The chairperson moderates the question and answer session.
- Answers must be brief, clear and concise. It is good to give practical examples to illustrate the message you want to give.
- Speakers must remain relaxed, friendly and forthcoming even when provoked.

A PRESS RELEASE

This is one of the most useful mediums through which an organization can make itself and its views known to the public. The contents might be:

- Statements on pertaining issues.
- Reports on activities or events you have organized.
- Announcements of forthcoming events.
- Reactions to statements made by others.

PROS AND CONS

Issuing a press release is a relatively cheap way of creating awareness about one's stand. However, badly written press releases and those dealing with unimportant issues will annoy the recipients and may create negative feelings towards your organization.

HOW TO WRITE IT

- The headline must state clearly the name of the organization issuing the release and the subject matter.
- State the most important themes first.
- Make clear why you are issuing the press release at this particular point in time.
- The journalist must be able to pick out relevant information easily and quickly.
- Use a typewriter or word processor, double-space and use only one side of the page.
- Give information about how to contact the person responsible: name, address, telephone, e-mail address.

INTERNET AND E-MAIL

The Internet

This is a computer network that joins other networks together e.g. those of academic and government institutions, schools, libraries and corporations, making them seem to be just one network to the user, who sits in front of her/his computer at home, in the office or at an “internet café”. The Internet provides access to information stored in different computers all over the world and it also provides the opportunity to engage in discussions and to share ideas and research with people connected to the network.

To access the Internet you need a computer with the adequate software, a telephone-line and a modem (modem = contraction of modulator/demodulator) to link your computer with the telephone. You also need to subscribe to an “internet provider”, (see our list of major internet providers in Tanzania).

World Wide Web (www)

Through the Internet, you can access the WWW. This is the name given to the apparently seamless “web” of many geographically separate sources of information. The mass of data available is overwhelming. There is no guarantee that it is accurate, up-to-date or even meant to be helpful. Anyone with access to the internet can publish his/her own material and

make it accessible on the web. Internet users must therefore approach websites with a very critical mind.

A web is distinguished by the prefix `http://` in its address, which you should write on top of the page of your “browser” software (e.g. Netscape, Internet Explorer). Each website has a unique address, known as URL. The FES Tanzania address is `http://tanzania.fes-international.de`

Take care when writing a web addresses for they are sensitive to punctuation and spaces (there are no spaces in electronic addresses), and are normally written in lower case.

Search engines and websites

When you are looking for information you might already know the website to look in and its address. If you do not know where to look, then you will have to use a search engine. A search engine helps you find information. To access the search engine you write `http://www.` and the name of the search engine, e.g. `www.google.com` OR `www.altavista.com` OR `www.yahoo.com`. These addresses open the websites of Google, Altavista and Yahoo. When you access a search engine, you will have to type some key words in the space provided. The search will be based on those words you

chose as the most important ones. Here is the secret: what sort of key words should you use, and how to combine them?

1. Be specific

The more specific your search is, the more likely you will find what you want. For example if you want to know how many international treaties Tanzania has signed, you should write “Tanzania international treaties signatories” or you even write “how many international treaties Tanzania has signed?” You’ll be surprised at how often this works!

2. Use the symbol + to add

If you want to be sure that the pages you will find contain not only one or another word you typed, but all of them, you should use the symbol +. For instance, you want to find pages where there are references to President Mkapa together with references to Mwalimu Nyerere. You should then type: `+Mkapa+Nyerere`. You can narrow down your search by adding more specific words.

3. Use the symbol - to subtract

If you want all the pages related to those key words but not the ones referring to a specific subject, you can use the symbol -. Using the above example, you want references to President Mkapa and Nyerere, but do not want ref-

erences to Ujamaa, you can type: +Mpaka+Nyerere-Ujamaa.

4. Use quotation marks to keep expressions together

If you want to find references to a special combination of words, you will have to write those words in quotation marks. For example, if you type+President+Mkapa, you'll get sites that make references to those words together or separated. But if you write "President Mkapa", you'll get only the references where both of the words appear in that same order.

5. Combining all of it

Try to use the different signs to be specific. For example: + "President Mkapa" + "Mwalimu Nyerere" + development - "international cooperation"

Here are the names of a few search engines:

- Google (www.google.com)
- Altavista (www.altavista.com)
- Yahoo
- Lycos
- WebCrawler
- HotBot
- Fast
- InfoSeek
- Dogpile
- MSN
- LookSmart.

You can also enter a search engine and search for specific search engines, for example, + "search engines" + Africa. Some of the specific search

engines for Africa are:

- Mosaique.com
- ClickAfrica.com
- Orientation Tanzania
- Woyaa.com
- Ananzi.com
- Zebra.co.za
- Siftthru.com
- Searchenginewatch.com
- Fishhoo.com.

E-mail

This refers to electronic mail as opposed to airmail or surface mail (today popularly known as "snail mail"). You can send messages to anyone with an Internet account, and it can include not only text, but also pictures and spreadsheets. Incoming messages are stored in your mail-box on your internet provider until you access it. E-mail is delivered very fast, in a matter of seconds or a few hours. This depends amongst other things on the amount of data being transferred and the quality of telephone lines and that of your modem. The cost of sending e-mail depends on the amount of data and therefore the length of time it takes to send it from your computer to the local server. It is relatively cheap: sending e-mail to the other side of the globe is not more expensive than sending one to a computer next door.

To send and receive e-mails you will need a dedicated program, such as Outlook Express, Microsoft Outlook, Eudora, Pegasus and others. You will have your own elec-

tronic address and will send your message to another address. If you have a connection to an internet provider you will receive an address which is composed of two parts: your-login-name + the symbol @ + the name of the internet provider. FES Tanzania's electronic address is fes@fes-tz.org

Chatting and conferencing

The Internet provides the possibility of communicating directly with others "on-line". In other words the people chatting or holding a conference are at their computers and are on the Internet at the same time. ■

NOTES

KISWAHILI NEWSPAPERS IN TANZANIA

Source: Registrar of Newspapers, September 2002

KEY

D Daily

W Weekly

M Monthly

BA Bi-Annual

BM Bi-Monthly

BW Bi-Weekly

Q Quarterly

***** Information not available

NAME	OWNER & EDITOR	ADDRESS
Academia W	Professional Publications Ltd Felix Kaiza	P. O. Box 14190 Dar es Salaam
Alasiri D	The Guardian Ltd V. Urassa	P. O. Box 31042 Dar es Salaam
An-Nuur W	Islamic Propagation Centre K. Charo	P. O. Box 55105 Dar es Salaam
Bahari W	The Tribune Press Agency W. M. Kachelele	P. O. Box 31912 Dar es Salaam
Champion W	Global Publishers & General Enterprises Ltd. Oliver Katto	P. O. Box 7534 Dar es Salaam
Dar Leo D	Dar Leo Publications S. Mkillla	P. O. Box 71439 Dar es Salaam
Dimba W	Salva Rweyemamu J. Mbwambo	P. O. Box 7277 Dar es Salaam
Habari za Tanzania Q	MS- Tanzania	P. O. Box 2579 Dar es Salaam
Hamu W	International Publishing Agency Ltd Sammy Polly	P. O. Box 2765 Dar es Salaam
Ijumaa W	Global Publishers Ltd. Oliver Katto	P. O. Box 7534 Dar es Salaam
Imara Q	Tanzania Association for Mentally Handicapped N. Jabir	P. O. Box 70236 Dar es Salaam
Kasheshe W	The Guardian Ltd O. Angetileh	P. O. Box 31042 Dar es Salaam
Kiongozi BM	Catholic Publishers Father Paul Haule	P. O. Box 9400 Dar es Salaam
Lete Raha W	The Guardian Ltd V. Urassa	P. O. Box 31042 Dar es Salaam
Maisha Tanzania W	Business Times Ltd J. Kulangwa	P. O. Box 71439 Dar es Salaam

NAME	OWNER & EDITOR	ADDRESS
Majira D	Business Times Ltd Mobhare Matinyi	P. O. Box 71439 Dar es Salaam
Msanii Afrika BW	Sahari Communication & Publishing Company Ltd	P. O. Box 1962 Mwanza
Msema Kweli W	WAPO E. Minja	P. O. Box 7740 Dar es Salaam
Mtanzania D	Habari Corporation Ltd J.Ulimwengu	P. O. Box 4793 Dar es Salaam
Mwadeta Q	AFREDA(Action for Relief & Development Assistance) D.Waijaha	P. O. Box 10014 Dar es Salaam
Mwafrika W	Afro Media Systems Ltd G. Mugumu	P. O. Box 11727 Dar es Salaam
Mwanaspoti D	Media Communications Ltd R. Makaranga	P. O. Box 32597 Dar es Salaam
Mwandishi W	Horizon Publications Ltd L. Mbwina	P. O. Box 33772 Dar es Salaam
Mzalendo W	Uhuru Publications Ltd	P. O. Box 9221 Dar es Salaam
Mzawa BW	Kwimba Commercial & Publishing Co. Ltd James Nhende	P. O. Box 10773 Mwanza
Nasaha W	Tanzania Muslims Professionals Association Ltd. TAMPRO I. M. Mtuwa	P. O. Box 72045 Dar es Salaam
Nipashe D	The Guardian Ltd V. Urassa	P. O. Box 31042 Dar es Salaam
Nyakati W	Ayubu P.Mwakangata Arnold Victor Msuya	P. O. Box 31423 Dar es Salaam
Rai W	Rai Publications Ltd S. Rweyemamu	P. O. Box 4793 Dar es Salaam
Spoti W	Dar Leo Publications Ltd Mobhare Matinyi	P. O. Box 71439 Dar es Salaam
Tamasha W	International Publishing Agency Ltd S. Polly	P. O. Box 79211 Dar es Salaam
Taifa Letu W	The Guardian Ltd V. Urassa	P. O. Box 31042 Dar es Salaam
Tunda W	Tunu Tanzania Ltd Catherine Nyokas Newa	P. O. Box 77444 Dar es Salaam
Uhuru D	Uhuru Publications Safe Guard Ltd	P. O. Box 9221 Dar es Salaam
Ukweli na Uwazi W	Jacob Kambili Young Africans Sports Club Ltd	P. O. Box 7534 Dar es Salaam

NAME	OWNER & EDITOR	ADDRESS
Yanga Imara W	Lucas Anthony Kisasa	P.O. Box 15202 Dar es Salaam
Bingwa	Habari Corporation Ltd J. Ulimwengu	P.O. Box 4793 Dar es Salaam
Mwananchi	Media Communications Ltd	P.O. Box 79356 Dar es Salaam

JOURNALS IN TANZANIA

Source: *Tanzania Information Services, September 2002*

NAME	OWNER & EDITOR	ADDRESS
Journal of Building and Land Development Q	Ardhi Institute Editorial Board	P.O. Box 35176 Dar es Salaam
Materials Management Journal Q	National Board of Materials Management	P.O. Box 5993 Dar es Salaam
Tanzania Christian Medical Association Journal Q	Tanzania Christian Medical Association Prof. P.H. Shao	P.O. Box 1949 Dar es Salaam
Alat Journal Q	Association of Local Authorities of Tanzania Eluminata Makwaya	P.O. Box 70039 Dar es Salaam
Cane and Sugar Journal A	Tanzania Society of Cane and Sugar Technologists Juma Kachemela	P.O. Box 5128 Dar es Salaam
The Accountant Q	National Board of Accountants and Auditors L.S.L Utouh	P.O. Box 5128 Dar es Salaam

NOTES

ENGLISH NEWSPAPERS IN TANZANIA

Source: Registrar of Newspapers, September 2002

NAME	OWNER & EDITOR	ADDRESS
Business Times W	Business Times Ltd B.B. Palela	P.O. Box 71439 Dar es Salaam
The African D	Habari Corporation Ltd J. Ulimwengu	P.O. Box 4703 Dar es Salaam
Daily News D	Tanganyika Standard Newspapers	P.O. Box 9033 Dar es Salaam
Family Mirror	General Publications Ltd	P.O. Box 6804 Dar es Salaam
Financial Times W	The Guardian Ltd	P.O. Box 31042 Dar es Salaam
Sunday News W	Tanganyika Standard Newspapers S. Kamuhanda	P.O. Box 9033 Dar es Salaam
The Arusha Times W	F.M. Arusha Ltd W. Lobubu	P.O. Box 212 Arusha
The East African W	National Newspapers Ltd	P.O. Box 8101 Dar es Salaam
The Guardian D	The Guardian Ltd	P.O. Box 31042 Dar es Salaam

NEWSLETTERS IN TANZANIA

Source: Tanzania Information Services, September 2002

ADVERTISING DAR

Owner: J.P. Muthali
P. O. Box 9890 Dsm

AGENDA

Owner: Business Care
Service Agenda Initiative
Editor: Theo Tunga
P. O. Box 71439 Dsm

AMANI

Owner: AMC Royal
Insurance Agency Ltd
Editor: Nyambona Masamba
P. O. Box 5560 Dsm

AMUA

Owner: Population Services
International
Editor: Semkae Kilonzo
P. O. Box 7099 Dsm
Tel: 2139765
0741-612623,
E-mail: amua@twiga.com

BUNGE NEWS

Owner: Clerk of the
National Assembly
Editor: R. F. Msaki
P. O. Box 941 Dodoma

DRUG INFORMATION

BULLETIN

Owner: Pharmacy Board
Editor: Rose Dhiji/ Mwashwa
P. O. Box 9083 Dsm

ELIMUYA AFYA

Owner: Muhimbili Health
Education Division
Editor: Kiluvia/Nchimbi
P.O. Box 65291 Dsm

HABARI ZA RELI

Owner: Tanzania Railways
Corporation

Editor: Winston Makamba
P. O. Box 468 Dsm
Tel: 2126241

HAM

Owner: Ministry of Health
Editor: Phares Masaule
P. O. Box 9083 Dsm

GAZETI LA HESAWA

Owner: HESAWA
Editor: E. E. Mahawi
P. O. Box 199 Dsm

HABARI MAALUMU YA

UZIMA TELE

Owner: Pentecostal Church
Editor: Marco Kisanji
P. O. Box 222 Tabora

ERB ENGINEERS NEWSBRIEF

Owner: Engineers
Registration Board
Editor: H.N. Ilahuka
P. O. Box 14942 Dsm

**TANZANIA SCIENCE AND
TECHNOLOGY NEWS**

Owner: Tanzania
Commission for Science &
Technology
Editor: T.E. Mlaki
P. O. Box 30 4302 Dsm

RUMULI

Owner: Catholic Diocese of
Bukoba
Editor: Father Mpambo
Private Bag Bukoba

MIOMBO

Owner: Wildlife
Conservation Society
Editor: Executive Committee
P.O. Box 70919, Dsm

SAUTI YA BILAL

Owner: The Bilal Muslim
Mission of Tanzania
Editor: D.O. Kiondo
P.O. Box 20033, Dsm

NYEGEZI WEEKLY

Owner: Nyegezi Social
Training Centre
Editor: Head Journalism
Dpt.
P. O. Box 307 Mwanza

MCT - NEWS

Owner: MCT
P. O. Box 1016, Dsm

EAC - NEWS

Owner: EAC
P. O. Box 1096, Arusha
Tel: 027 250453/8
Fax: 027 2504255
E-mail: eac@eachq.org

NOTES

MAGAZINES IN TANZANIA

Source: Tanzania Information Services, September 2002

ALAT MAGAZINE (Q)

Owner: Association of local
Authorities of Tanzania
Editor: Iluninata Maliwaya
P. O. Box 7912 Dsm
Tel: 2123551/7

BONGO (M)

Owner: J. S. Commodities
Editor: Sabbi Masanja
P. O. Box 77444 Dsm
Tel: 2181531

CHANGE

Owner: Change Publications
Ltd
Editor: Abdul Mtemvu
P. O. Box 3206 Dsm

CONTACT MAGAZINE

Owner: National Insurance
Corporation (NIC)
P. O. Box 9262 Dsm
Tel: 2126561/7

DAR ES SALAAM

GUIDE (M)

Owner: East African Movies
Ltd
Editor: Michael Lanfrey
P. O. Box 7429 Dsm
Tel: 2121472/3
Fax: 2111529
E-mail: eam@raha.com

FAITH MAGAZINE

- YESU NIJUBU (M)

Owner: Faith Centre and
Missions
Editor: Jackson Kisonda
P. O. Box 13196, Dsm

FEMINA MAGAZINE

Owner: East African
Movies Ltd.
Editor: Saidi Ibrahim
P. O. Box 7429 Dsm
Tel: 2121472/3, 2111529
E-mail: eam@raha.com

THE IMAGE

Owner: Images and
Communications Ltd
Editor: Richard Mgazija
P. O. Box 420 Dsm

SANI (M)

Owner: Saidi Bawji/Nico
Mbajo
Editor: Jabir R. Omari/
Yusuf Ahmed
P. O. Box 5370 Dsm

SAUTI YA SITI (Q)

Owner: Tanzania Media
Women Association
(TAMWA)
Editor: Leila Sheik Hashim
P. O. Box 6143 Dsm

TABASAMU (M)

Owner: Paunu Enterprises
Company Ltd
Editor: Ramadhani
Mkumbukwa
P. O. Box 868 Iringa
Phone: 0742 762618

UKULIMA WA KISASA

Owner: Ministry of
Agriculture
Editor: Cleophas
Rwechungura

P. O. Box 2308 Dsm
Tel: 2129047

WHAT'S HAPPENING IN DAR

Owner: Hakuna Matata
Travels Ltd
Editor: Christine Wolf
P. O. Box 33259 Dsm

NOTES

RADIO BROADCASTING IN TANZANIA

Source: Tanzania Broadcasting Commission, September 2002

RADIO TANZANIA DAR ES SALAAM - RTD (NATIONAL SERVICE)

P. O. Box 9191, Dar es Salaam

Tel: 022 2860760-5, Fax: 022 2865577

Owner: Government of the United Republic of Tanzania

Location: Nyerere Road/Mandela Road

Date of license issue: 1 January 1994

Frequencies:

Base Station (Dar es Salaam)

FM Frequencies

90.0 MHZ, 92.3 MHZ

MW Frequencies

531 KHZ, 657 KHZ, 837 KHZ, 1035 KHZ

SW Frequencies (IN KHZ)

9785, 5050, 5985, 6105, 7165, 7280, 9550, 9685, 9750, 15435.

Dodoma Booster Station 87.7 MHZ, 603 KHZ

Mbeya Booster Station 92.3 MHZ, 621 KHZ

Mwanza Booster Station 89.2 MHZ, 88.5 MHZ, 720 KHZ

Arusha Booster station 91.6 MHZ, 1215 KHZ

Nachingwea Booster Station 684 KHZ

Lindi Booster Station 107.1 MHZ, 93.5 MHZ

Masasi Booster Station 92.3 MHZ, 105.9 MHZ

Songea Booster Station 98.7 MHZ, 990 KHZ

Kigoma Booster Station 88.4 MHZ, 711 KHZ.

RADIO FREE AFRICA (RFA)

P. O. Box 1732, Mwanza

Tel: 028-2503262, 0741-640375

Fax: 028-2500713, 2561890

Owner: Anthony Diallo

Location: CPLC Building, Ilemela- Mwanza/Posta Road

Date of license issue: 6 September 1996

Frequencies:

Base Station Mwanza 89.9 MHZ, 1377 KHZ

Arusha Booster Station 89.0 MHZ

Shinyanga Booster Station 88.2 MHZ

Dar es Salaam Booster Station 98.6 MHZ

Mbeya Booster Station 88.8 MHZ

RADIO ONE

P. O. Box 4374, Dar es Salaam

Tel: 022- 277591, 022-2775916, 022- 2773980, Fax: 022-2779737

Owner: Reginald Mengi, Agapitus Nguma

Location: Plot No. 130- Mikocheni Industrial Area

Date of license issue: 3 February 1994

Frequencies:

Base Station (Dar es Salaam)	89.5 MHZ
Arusha Booster Station	99.3 MHZ
Mwanza Booster Station	102.9 MHZ
Dodoma Booster Station	100.8 MHZ
Moshi Booster Station	1323 KHZ

RADIO EAST AFRICAN FM

P. O. Box 4370, Dar es Salaam

Tel: 022-2775914, 022- 2775916, Fax: 022-2775915, 022-2119373

Owner: Reginald Mengi, Agapitus Nguma

Location: Plot No. 130- Mikocheni Industrial Area, Dar es Salaam

Date of license issue: 2 January 2000

Frequency:

Base Station (Dar es Salaam)	87.8 MHZ
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RADIO SAUTI YA INJILI

P. O. Box 777, Moshi

Tel: 027-252772

Owner: Tanzania Evangelical Lutheran Church

Location: Moshi (Off Arusha Road)

Date of license issue: 29 January 1996

Frequencies:

Base Station (Moshi)	92.0 MHZ
Moshi Booster Station	97.2 MHZ
Arusha Booster Station	96.2 MHZ
Same Booster Station	104 MHZ

RADIO KWIZERA

Ngara Field Office, P. O. Box 1154, Ngara

Tel: 028-223679, Fax: 028-222207, 028- 25560712

Owner: Jesuits Refugee Service Diocese of Rulenge-UNHCR

Location: Ngara

Date of license issue: 28 December 1995

Frequencies:

Base Station (Ngara)	93.6 MHZ
Kakonko Booster Station	97.9 MHZ

CLOUDS ENTERTAINMENT RADIO FM

P. O. Box 32513, Dar es Salaam

Tel: 022-2412060, Fax: 022-2112435

Owner: Joseph Kusaga

Location: NIC House, Dar es Salaam

Date of license issue: 12 December 1998

Frequencies:

Base Station (Dar es Salaam)	88.4 MHZ
Arusha Booster Station	98.4 MHZ
Mwanza Booster Station	99.4 MHZ

RADIO TUMAINI

P. O. Box 9916, Dar es Salaam

Tel: 022-231094, 0742-780887

Owner: Catholic Archdiocese Dar es Salaam

Location: 1 Bridge Street, Dar es Salaam

Date of license issue: 3 January 1994

Frequencies:

Base Station (Dar es Salaam)	96.3 MHZ
Kibaha Booster Station	91.6 MHZ

RADIO UHURU FM

P. O. Box 9221, Dar es Salaam

Tel: 022-2182224, 022-2182234, Telex: 41239

Owner: Uhuru Publication Ltd

Location: Lumumba Street Plot No.70

Date of license issue: 2 February 2000

Frequencies:

Base Station (Dar es Salaam)	95.2 MHZ
Arusha Booster Station	99.7 MHZ
Mwanza Booster Station	92.9 MHZ

RADIO 5 ARUSHA

P. O. Box 11843, Arusha

Tel: 027-278052, 027-254216-7, Fax: 027-4201

Owner: Didas D. Kavishe

Location: CCM Building

Date of license issue: 26 November 1999

Frequency: Base Station (Arusha) 105.7 MHZ

CHEMICHEMI RADIO SUMBAWANGA

P. O. Box 34, Sumbawanga

Tel: 027-22765, 027-2178, Fax: 027-0637, 027-2641

Owner: Catholic Archdiocese, Sumbawanga

Location: Plot No. 506 Block N, Sumbawanga

Date of license issue: 29 November 1999

Frequency:

Base Station (Sumbawanga)	92.2 MHZ
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RADIO MARIA

P. O. Box 152, Songea

Tel: 025-2602004, Fax: 025- 2602593

Owner: Catholic Archdiocese- Songea

Location: St. Joseph Building- Songea

Date of license issue: 3 May 1996

Frequency: FM 89.1 MHZ

TELEVISION BROADCASTING IN TANZANIA

Source: Tanzania Broadcasting Commission, September 2002

TELEVISHENI YA TAIFA (TVT)

P. O. Box 31519, Dar es Salaam
Tel: 022-2700011, 2700062, 2700464
Fax: 022-2700468

Owner: Government of the United Republic of Tanzania

Location: Kijitonyama, Off Bagamoyo Rd.

Date of license issue: 10 March 2002

Frequency: Base Station (Dar es Salaam)
Channel 5 (VHF)

COASTAL TELEVISION NETWORK (CTN)

P. O. Box 8983, Dar es Salaam
Tel: 022-2185240, Fax: 022-2185354

Owner: Shabbir Abji, Jayesh Shah, Ramesh Patel, Girish Chande, Bud Kassam & Mahmood Mawji

Location: Jamhuri/Zaramo Street, Dsm

Date of licence issue: 14 February 1994

Frequency: Base Station (Dar es Salaam)
Channel 7 (VHF)

DAR ES SALAAM TELEVISION (DTV)

P. O. Box 21122, Dar es Salaam
Tel: 022-2116341/6, Fax: 022-2113112

Owner: Shabbir Dewji, Murtaza Dewji, Franco Tramontano (Managing Director)

Location: Jamhuri/Zaramo Street, Dsm

Date of license issue: 20 May 1994

Frequency: Base Station (Dar es Salaam)
Channel 40 (UHF)

INDEPENDENT TELEVISION (ITV)

P. O. Box 4374, Dar es Salaam
Tel: 022-2775914, 2775916, 2773980
Fax: 022-2775915

Owner: Reginald Mengi & Agapitus Nguma

Location: Mikochoeni Industrial Area

Frequencies: Base Station (Dar es Salaam)
Channel 11 (VHF)

Arusha Booster Station

Channel 6 (VHF)

Moshi Booster Station

Channel 9 (VHF)

Dodoma Booster Station

Channel 11 (VHF)

Mwanza Booster Station

Channel 10 (VHF)

STAR TELEVISION

P. O. Box 1732, Mwanza
Tel: 028-2503262, 028-2560561
Fax: 028-2500713, 028-2561890

Owner: Anthony Diallo

Location: CPLC Building, Ilemela, Mwanza

Date of license issue: 19 June 2000

Frequencies:

Base Station (Mwanza)

Channel 31 (UHF)

Dar es Salaam Booster Station

Channel 42 (UHF)

Arusha Booster Station

Channel 34 (UHF)

Mbeya Booster Station

Channel 58 (UHF)

TELEVISHENI BURUDANI

P. O. Box 1528, Arusha
Tel: 027-2500400, Fax: 027-2500400

Owner: Didas Kavishe/ Anthony Glass

Location: Kijenge, Arusha

Date of license issue: 5 March 1999

Frequencies:

MMDS - Group X

(Channel 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 19, 22)

CABLE TELEVISION NETWORKS IN TANZANIA

Source: Tanzania Broadcasting Commission, September 2002

CABLE TELEVISION NETWORK (CTV)

P.O. Box 3774, Dar es Salaam

Tel: 022-2116594, 2116611

Fax: 022- 2112119

Owner: Hitesh Tanna (Director)

Bhasker Rughan & Harold Mgone

Location: Sewa Street, Dar es Salaam

Date of license issue: 13 June 1995

STAR CABLE TELEVISION LTD.

P.O. Box 1468, Dar es Salaam

Tel: 022-2151768, 0742-781837

Owner: Jahagir Hassan Dalvi (Director)

Karim A. Ladha

Location: Mfaume Road, Upanga West

Date of license issue: 15 December 1995

BHARAT VIDEO CENTRE

P.O. Box 2768, Mwanza

Tel.: 028 242475, 242200

Owner: Bharat Unadkati (Director)

Dhilu Jadawji

Location: Gurio/Nkurumah Rd.

Date of license issue: 18 July 1994

MWANZA SATELLITE COMMUNICATION LTD. (MSCTN)

P.O. Box 647, Mwanza

Tel: 028 42550, 2502187

Fax: 028 2500713

Owner: Rizwani Kanji (Director)

Hino/Moihin Barmeda

Location: Nkomo Street

Date of license issue: 8 February 1994

AYOUB CABLE TELEVISION CO. LTD

P.O. Box 333, Shinyanga

Tel.: 028-2762013

Owner: Ayoub Aziz (Director)

Location: Shinyanga town (by the Market)

Date of license issue: 24 August 1996

TABORA CABLE TELEVISION - TABORA

P.O. Box 506, Tabora

Tel: 026-2855

Owner: Shashikant M. Patel (Director)

Jagdish M. Patel

Location: Tabora town

Date of license issue: 23 January 1996

SPACE SATELLITE CABLE TELEVISION - MUSOMA

P.O. Box 946, Musoma

Tel: 028-2550675, 2255480

Owner: Geoffrey Kajanja (Director)

Location: Mkendo Street, Plot No. 36

Date of license issue: 27 July 1997

MILLAN VIDEO CENTRE

P.O. Box 10367, Arusha

Tel: 027-2506471

Owner: Sudha Millan (Director)

Millan T. Majithia & Mohamed Hassan

Location: Aman Road, Plot No. 112, (AICC staff house)

Date of license issue: 29 January 1994

INTERNATIONAL ENTERTAINMENT CABLE TELEVISION NETWORK - MOSHI

P.O. Box 757, Moshi

Tel: 027-2752307, 2752478

Owner: Shobhag D. Shah (Director)

Location: Mwanza Road 45 F Section 3

Date of license issue: 15 July 1996

BAHMAN SATELLITE CABLE TELEVISION - TANGA

P.O. Box 52444, Tanga

Tel: 027-242 911, Fax: 027-247041

Owner: Ally H. Said/Ahmed H. Said

Location: Bandari House, Tanga

Date of license issue: 11 May 1996

DHANDHO CABLE NETWORK

P.O. Box 161, Mbeya

Tel: 025-24479, 4329, 3453

Fax: 025-24079

Owner: Karim Dharsi (Director)

Location: Mbalizi Road

Date of license issue: 3 January 1997

CABLE TELEVISION NETWORK (CTN)

P.O. Box 88, Tanga

Owner: Hitesh Tanna, B.S. Rughan
& H. Mgone

Location: Taifa Road

Date of licence issue: 1 June 1999

ARUSHA CABLE TELEVISION (ACTV)

P.O. Box 7043, Arusha

Tel: 027 2506937, 2502284

Fax: 027 2502284

Owner: Abdi Abdulrasul (Director)

Location: Goliendoi Road, Arusha

Date of license issue: 13 June 1996

NOTES

7. TRADE UNIONS

TRADE UNIONS ACT OF 1998

By Mrs D. M. Uiso, Office of the Registrar of Trade Unions

Background

Tanzanian trade union history has passed through two major phases since the 1950s. The first workers' movement was the Tanganyika Federation of Labour (TFL) established in 1955. In the struggle for independence it worked hand in hand with what was to become the ruling party (TANU).

In 1964 the TLF was disbanded and the National Union of Tanganyika Workers (NUTA) took its place. Just like TFL, NUTA's main objective was to promote the policies of TANU.

Political changes in the country brought with them the need to have a trade union that would cater for the whole country. *Jumuiya ya Wafanyakazi Tanzania* (JUWATA) was established in 1979 and, as a mass organization of the new ruling party (CCM), it had to propagate party policies.

With the demand for multiparty democracy, JUWATA was replaced in 1991 by the Organization of Tanzania Trade Unions (OTTU). During the OTTU era some employees were able to organize within their own

trades e.g. The Tanzania Railways Workers' Unions (TRAWU), the Tanzania Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (TUICO) and the Tanzania Union of Government and Health Employees (TUGHE). Such unions were, however, not registered in their own right but as affiliates of OTTU.

The latest development is The Trade Unions Act No. 10 of 1998 that accommodates the demand for multi-trade unions. The Act became operational on 1 July 2000.

The Act

The Act makes provisions for the establishment of the Office of the Registrar of Trade Unions (Part II), the modalities of the registration of trade unions, the power of the registrar, the requirements for unions to be registered and appeal procedures by aggrieved parties (Part II), the formation of a federation of trade unions and consultative bodies (Part IV and V), the management of trade union funds (Part VI, IX and XI), rights and liabilities (part VII). It is important to note that in the new Trade Unions Act both employees and

employers are now free to form the trade unions of their choice.

• *The Registrar*

The Registrar of Trade Unions is vested with the functions of the overall administration of the Trade Unions Act.

• *Registration*

Every trade union should be registered with the Registrar in order to acquire legitimacy within a month of its being established. A trade union for employees must have at least twenty members, while a trade union for employers must consist of four or more employers. Registration can be cancelled for reasons elaborated under section 15 of the Act. The right of appeal is guaranteed by section 16 of the Act to the High Court of Tanzania.

• *Membership of a trade union*

By law members must be above the apparent age of 14 years.

• *Legal personality of a trade union*

Once a trade union or federation is registered it acquires legal personality capable of suing and being sued, owning property etc.

• *Expenditure of trade*

union funds

By law such funds are for strictly trade union matters only, e.g. payment of salaries, legal consultancy, affiliation fees and service charges.

- *Inspection of accounts*

The law allows any member of a trade union, including the Registrar, to inspect the account books. Any obstruction or impediment is a criminal offence.

- *Clients under this law*

Any employed person even from the Government Service, save for members of the military forces, police force and prisons are clients, under this law. These categories are exempted probably for security reasons.

- *Offences*

All offences mentioned in this Act can be tried in the court of a resident magistrate. Some of the offences include, failure to register a trade union, operating while not registered or when the certificate of registration is cancelled.

Tanzania and the ILO

As a member of International Labour Organization (ILO) Tanzania has ratified Convention No. 87. The provisions of the Trade Unions Act are in line with this convention.

Federation of Trade Unions and consultative bodies

An important event that took place after the Act became effective is the formation of the Trade Unions' Congress of

Tanzania (TUCTA) as a federation replacing OTTU. TUCTA was registered on 18 May 2001.

Two or more trade unions may form a federation. Furthermore, a trade union, with the consent of its members, may affiliate with a registered federation and notice thereof must be given to the Registrar. A trade union may also affiliate with consultative bodies registered within or outside Tanzania with the approval of members and notification thereof must be given to the Registrar within sixty days.

Members of TUCTA are: Tanzania Union of Industrial and Commercial Workers (TUICO)

Tanzania Plantation and Agricultural Workers' Union (TPAWU)

Teachers' Trade Union (CWT)

Tanzania Seamen's Union (TASU)

Researches and Academicians Workers' Union (RAAWU)

Trade Union of Government and Health Employees (TUGHE)

Communication and Transport Workers' Union (COTWU)

Tanzania Mining Workers' Union (TAMICO)

Conservation Hotels and Domestic Workers' Union (CHODAWU)

Tanzania Railways Workers' Union (TRAWU)

Tanzania Local Government Workers' Union (TALGWU)

Conclusion

Trade union leaders are urged to be proactive and innovative in handling grievances and disputes with their employers so as to promote good industrial relations at the workplace.

Despite the fact that employers have not registered their unions yet, they are urged to respect trade union rights like other basic human rights, taking into account that the fundamental objective of trade unions is to ensure the development of the social and economic wellbeing of both workers and employers. ■

NOTES

INFORMATION ON TRADE UNIONS IN TANZANIA 2001

Source: Compiled by Mr D. M. Uiso, Office of the Registrar of Trade Unions in Tanzania, September 2002

UNION	ADDRESS	LEADERSHIP	MEMBERSHIP	STATUS AS AT 31ST AUG. 2002
TANZANIA UNION OF INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL WORKERS (TUICO)	PO. BOX 5680 D'Salaam Tel: 2866910 Ilala Shariff Shamba	Chairperson Vacant Secretary General Mr B.Y. Nkakatisi Ass. General Secretaries Mr Hassan Mchamzim Tamimu Salehe	34,700	REGISTERED
TANZANIA LOCAL GOVERNMENT WORKERS UNION (TALGWU)	PO. BOX 6097 D' Salaam Tel: 2121380 2185633 Lindi/UWT St.	Chairperson F.M. Musita General Secretary Mr J.S. Makongwa Ass. General Secretary Mr: Kimei	34,888	REGISTERED
TANZANIA TEACHERS UNION (CWT)	PO. BOX 2196 D' Salaam Tel: 2120206 Fax: 2120206 Kivukoni Rd.	Chairperson Mrs Sitta General Secretary Mr Yahaya Msulwa Ass. General Secretary Mr. Ezekei Oluoch	118,000	REGISTERED
RESEARCHERS ACADEMICIANS AND ALLIED WORKERS UNION (RAAWU)	PO. BOX 22532 D' Salaam Tel: 2138114 Lindi/UWT St.	Chairperson Mr N.O Masaki General Secretary Mrs Mgaya Deputy General Secretary A. Mgaya	10,113	REGISTERED
TANZANIA SEAMEN'S UNION (TASU)	PO. BOX 75034 D' Salaam Tel: 180036 Cell: 0741-327162 Aggrey/Sikukuu St.	Chairperson Nassoro B. Mtupa General Secretary Mchafu Chakoma Ass. General Secretary G. R. Kimbute	310	REGISTERED
TANZANIA FISHING AND ALLIED WORKERS UNION (WAMEUTA)		Chairperson Capt. Ligunda General Secretary Khalid Shelukindo Ass. Vice Chairperson Ambari Kapilima Ass. General Secretary Waziri Mbwana	409	REGISTERED
CONSERVATION HOTEL	PO. BOX 15549 Dar es Salaam	Chairperson Ms M.C. Castico	22,000	REGISTERED

UNION	ADDRESS	LEADERSHIP	MEMBERSHIP	STATUS AS AT 30TH AUG. 2002
DOMESTIC AND ALLIED WORKERS UNION (CHODAWU)	Tel: 2110559, 2110823 Lindi/UWT St	General Secretary Mr S.S Wamba Ass. General Secretary Mr Mansur		
TANZANIA RAILWAYS WORKERS UNION (TRAWU)	P.O. BOX 78459 D'Salaam Tel: 2114847 Cell: 0741-618509 Fax: 2110559 Lindi/UWT St	Chairperson Mr J.J. Mbogo General Secretary G.N. Machengo Ass. General Secretary Mr Mihayo, G. Makula	10,340	REGISTERED
TANZANIA COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORT WORKERS UNION (COTWU)	P.O. BOX 13920 D'Salaam Tel: 2118154/5, 2118271 Cell: 0742-763185 Fax: 2111170 Lindi/UWT St	Chairperson Mr M.H. Misanga General Secretary C.M Samang'ombe Cell: 0742-763185 Ass. General Secretary Mr Mjema Mr Robert Akili	10,954	REGISTERED
TANZANIA UNION OF GOVERNMENT AND HEALTH EMPLOYEES (TUGHE)	P.O. BOX 4669 D'Salaam Tel: 2118152, 2118271 Cell: 0742-782206 Lindi/UWT St	Chairperson Dr Diwani Mrutu Deputy Chairperson Ms Maclean Chitete General Secretary Mr J.S Rutatina Ass. General Secretary Mrs Kaganda Laurent Mr X.K. Msaliboko	29,328	REGISTERED
TANZANIA PLANTATION AND AGRICULTURAL WORKERS UNION (TPAWU)	P.O. BOX 77420 D'Salaam Tel: 2182496/7 2184848/9 Cell: 0741-132211 Aggrey/Sikukuu St	Chairperson Mr K.N. Kabengwe General Secretary Mr G.P Nyindo Ass. General Secretary Mr H.M Issa	28,000	REGISTERED
TANAZANIA MINES AND CONSTRUCTION WORKERS UNION (TAMICO)	P.O. BOX 72136 D'Salaam Tel: 2119200, 2110569/70, 2115524 Cell: 0741-616732 Lindi/UWT St	Chairperson Mr F. M. Masasi General Secretary Mr Makwaya Pingu Ass. General Secretary Mr Kasian	7,228	REGISTERED

UNION	ADDRESS	LEADERSHIP	MEMBERSHIP	STATUS AS AT 31ST AUG. 2002
INDUSTRIAL & GENERAL WORKERS UNION TANZANIA (IGWUTA)	PO. BOX 72174 D'Salaam Tel: 0744 370503	Chairperson Ms Sarah Wanyancha Vice Chairperson Mr S.K. Makongoro General Secretary Mr S.S. Marenda Ass. General Secretary Mr Kasian	86	REGISTERED
TANZANIA SOCIAL INDUSTRIAL WORKERS' UNION (TASIWU)	PO. BOX 7151 D'Salaam	Chairperson Mr S.K. Kikule General Secretary Mr S. Chaila	384	REGISTERED
TANZANIA UNION OF JOURNALISTS (TUJ)	PO. BOX 33772	Chairperson Mr J. Kwayu General Secretary Mr G. Kambenga	80	REGISTERED
DOCK WORKERS UNION OF TANZANIA (DOWUTA)	PO. Box 50143 D'Salaam	Chairperson Mr Hamisi Kapilima General Secretary Mr Johnathan Msoma		REGISTERED

FEDERATIONS UNDER THE TRADE UNIONS ACT 1998

UNION	ADDRESS	LEADERSHIP	MEMBERSHIP	STATUS AS AT 31ST AUG. 2002
TRADE UNION CONGRESS OF TANZANIA (TUCTA)	PO. BOX 15359 D'Salaam Tel: 2130036 Telex: 41205 Fax: 2130036	Chairperson Ms M. Sitta General Secretary Mr N.K. Ngulla Deputy General Secretary Hassan Raha	350,000	REGISTERED

NOTES

TANZANIA'S RATIFICATION OF CORE ILO LABOUR STANDARDS

Compiled by Mr C. M. M. Kajege, Kivukoni Academy of Social Sciences

Tanzania, like other members of ILO, has been in the process of ratifying core ILO labour standards, which are intended to establish a friendly relationship between the Government, business community and the labour force. The move is in line with the commitments Tanzania accepted in Singapore in 1996 and Geneva in 1998 in the WTO Ministerial Declaration and in the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at work adopted in June 1998.

These core international labour standards fall into 4 categories:

- Freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining.
- The elimination of all forms of forced compulsory labour.
- The effective abolition of child labour.

- The elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation.

The conventions are:

- **Freedom of Association and Rights to Collective Bargaining.**

Convention No. 98 (1949), the Right to Organize and to Collective Bargaining Convention I 1962. On February 2000, the Parliament of Tanzania ratified ILO Convention No. 87 (1948), the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention.

- **Forced labour**

In 1962, Tanzania ratified ILO Convention No. 29 (1930); the Forced Labour Convention and ILO Convention No. 105 (1957); the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention.

- **Child Labour**

In 1998, Tanzania ratified ILO Convention No. 138

(1973), the Minimum Age Convention. Also Convention No. 182 (1999), the worst Forms of Child Labour was ratified in October 2000.

Tanzania has yet to ratify the *Discrimination and Equal Remuneration*, ILO Convention No. 100 (1951), and ILO Convention No. 111 (1958).

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NOTES

THE HISTORY OF THE TRADE UNION MOVEMENT IN ZANZIBAR

By Mr Talib O. Mbwana, Zanzibar Local Government Workers Union (ZALGWU)

Historical background to the formation of trade unions in Zanzibar

After World War II socio-economic activities in Zanzibar were limited in scope and employment opportunities were minimal. The few employed felt the pain of poor working conditions and poor pay. The few workers in different work places knew their problems, but they had no institution that united them and gave voice to their grievances. In 1948 the dock workers of Zanzibar staged a strike to demonstrate to the colonial authorities how great was their dissatisfaction with the poor working environment and wages that in no way tallied with their output.

The strikers succeeded in getting across a message to the colonial government that organized workers are a force to be reckoned with. In the same year the British colonial government established a Labour Department whose main task was to look after labour activities in Zanzibar.

The first trade union to be established in Zanzibar was the Seamen's Union. This union opened a new page in the history of trade unionism and politics on the Zanzibar Island. From 1955 a number of unions for craftsmen were

formed. These unions had few members because at this point in time, Zanzibar was not very densely populated and the socio-economic activities were few. Trade unions were therefore not very active and they had not enough economic power and numerical strength to effectively face the employer. The union that catered for workers in the building sector and other related activities were joined together to form a trade union called "Building and Construction Workers' Union". This attempt at unifying and strengthening trade unions and trade union activities continued unhindered for quite a long time, and in the process some of the unions became absolute and new ones were born to take the place of the ones that died.

Efforts to intensify trade union cooperation

Up to 1956 Zanzibar had about thirty trade unions. In their endeavour to present a stronger united front, the leaders of these unions met with a view to charting out the modalities and strategies needed to form a federation. The leaders agreed in principle to form a federation and the Tanganyika Federation of Labour was contacted for

assistance in attaining this goal. This was the start of cooperation between Zanzibar trade unions and those of the mainland.

Mr Mpangala, and later, in 1956, Mr R.M. Kawawa, were dispatched to Zanzibar by TFL to join force with their Zanzibar counterparts in their struggle for the registration of the Zanzibar Workers' Federation.

As Zanzibar was under foreign domination any attempt that signified the strength of the working class was viewed as a threat towards the foreign rulers. As a result, a number of strategies were worked out that were aimed at frustrating leaders, weakening the unions, and workers' solidarity. This included the refusal to register the federation on the grounds that the trade unions that formed the federation were deemed registered. Despite all those set backs, the Federation of Zanzibar and Pemba Trade Unions (ZPFU) was formed and discharged its duties and responsibilities with utmost efficiency and courage.

Trade unions during the revolutionary period

During the whole of the sixties, trade unions in Zanzibar were supported by the major-

ity of the working population to the extent of organizing a very successful strike that lasted for about six days. Furthermore workers in conjunction with the peasants of Zanzibar were successful in staging the 1964 Revolution. After the Revolution the Revolutionary Government, in its endeavour to create an environment within which it could work efficiently, banned the trade unions in Zanzibar. In its stead a supposedly strong federation was formed by the Revolutionary Government with the name the "Federation of Revolutionary Trade Unions" (FRTU). Trade union activities were to be run in the spirit of the Revolution. In that light, trade unions in Zanzibar were represented in the higher organs of the ruling Afro-Shirazy Party (ASP) and had two places in the Revolutionary Council. Again FRTU fully participated in different national affairs, including the preparation of the ASP constitution in 1965.

In 1966, however, after the completion of the work of preparing the ASP constitution, FRTU was disbanded by the government and the new Department of Labour was instituted, directed by the ASP. The department was supposed to look after labour matters and the heads of this department were appointed by the ASP. In 1968 the activities of the department were scrapped and the office was closed altogether.

The formation of JUWATA and later OTTU/TFTU

A period of about ten years (1968 - 1978) elapsed before trade union activities resumed in Zanzibar. It was because of an historic accident that trade union activities were allowed to continue in Zanzibar. In 1977 a political decision was taken to merge the ruling party in Zanzibar, the ASP, and the ruling party on the mainland, TANU, to form a single political party Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM). In the CCM Constitution, Sec 87, it is stipulated that apart from the Party there would be five Party wings in the form of mass organizations which included Jumuiya ya Wafanyakazi Tanzania (JUWATA) whose responsibilities apart from those of a trade union were to propagate the party's policy of socialism and self-reliance. As CCM transcended the territorial boundaries, the Zanzibar government had to accept, however reluctantly, the formation of JUWATA in order to fulfil the constitutional obligation of Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM). As a result trade union activities surfaced again in Zanzibar though in a different form under the umbrella of CCM. The JUWATA was confronted with the great task of organizing workers afresh under very harsh conditions:

1. Trade Unionism was again a new phenomenon, (trade

union activities had ceased in 1966 and started anew in 1978 when JUWATA was formed).

2. Workers who had witnessed their unions being dismantled without sound reasons by the very government (Zanzibar Revolutionary Government) that now let them start organizing themselves again, had every reason to query the seriousness of the move.

The wind of change in the international political scene had an impact on the labour scene in the whole United Republic of Tanzania. The cry for democracy was heard and in the end the ruling political party, the Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM), succumbed to the pressure of workers and allowed workers to choose their own system of running the labour movement in Tanzania. The movement felt greatly relieved to hear such news and wholeheartedly welcomed the move and the prospect of more democracy. The two governments set in motion the process of democratization in every sector of life. Workers seized the opportunity to reorganize its labour movement. The sectorial industrial units had to become autonomous trade unions. Such sectorial industrial units were set at eleven. However, in order to transform the labour movement and allow such changes, a constituent congress was held in September, 1991 and it for-

malised the establishment of the Organization of Tanzania Trade Unions (OTTU). It was later backed up for its legal existence by an Act of Parliament known as OTTU Act of 1991 which became operational in December 1991. In the same vein, OTTU was given legal strength in Zanzibar by the Act of the House of Representatives No. 1 of 1991. OTTU thus became national, embracing both Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar. OTTU was charged with two big responsibilities:

- to continue with its obligation as a trade union to fight for the rights of its members
- to supervise and spearhead democratization process within the trade union movement in Tanzania.

The latter task was partially accomplished in August 1995, when eleven fully-fledged unions completed their formation and the TFTU, the national apex organization, was put in place. For the workers of Zanzibar and Tanzania in general, liberation

was, however, far from being achieved. They banked their salvation and hope on their newly formed unions.

These newly formed unions, however, and the Federation worked under the OTTU ACT and as such almost everybody questioned their legality. In December 1998 the Tanzania Parliament passed a piece of legislation – the Trade Unions Act, 1998 – that allow, among other things, the registration of unions and federations. The most interesting thing about this Act is that it prohibits the lifelong marriage between the workers of Tanzania Mainland and those of Zanzibar. In the same vein the Zanzibar House of Representatives sent the Trade Unions Bill to be debated and endorsed as law in April 2001. The law is called Trade Unions Act No. 4 of 2001 and it allows the registration, running and regulation of employers and workers' unions.

Up to February 2002 nine workers' unions and one employers' union have been formed and registered. The

nine registered trade unions are:

- Zanzibar Local Government Workers Union (ZALGWU)
- Tanzania Union of Government and Health Employees (TUGHE - Z)
- Communication and Transport Workers of Zanzibar (COTWU (ZNZ))
- Researchers, Academicians and Allied Workers' Union, Zanzibar (RAAWU(Z))
- Zanzibar Plantation and Agricultural Workers' Union (ZPAWU)
- Tanzania Seamen's Union, Zanzibar (TASU- Z)
- Zanzibar Teachers' Union (ZATU)
- Zanzibar Tourism, Hotel, Conservation Workers' Union (ZATHOCODAWU)
- The Employers' Organization in Zanzibar is called Zanzibar Employers' Association (ZANEMA). ■

NOTES

8. WOMEN AND CHILDREN

MAJOR LAWS RELATING TO WOMEN'S LIVES

By Ms Helen Kijo-Bisimba, Legal and Human Rights Centre



Participants who attended the workshop organised by WLAC on Women and Children Without Inheritance Rights, posing for a group photograph in 2001. Supported by FES.

Women are citizens of the country in their own right and they are therefore covered by all of the laws of the land. There are, however, laws which specifically affect women. Women are therefore vulnerable, if they do not know about these laws.

Reports from legal aid clinics in Dar es Salaam (WLAC, LHRC and TAWLA) show that the realms where women have most frequent legal problems are: inheritance, matrimony,

child maintenance and custody, land and employment. There are also problems caused by patriarchal customs and traditions.

LEGAL STRUCTURES RELATED TO WOMEN'S LIVES

1) The Constitution of the Land

Under the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977 all people are protected against discrimination as all people are said to be

equal before the law, [Article 13 (1)]. There should be no law which is discriminative [Article 13 (2)] and it is forbidden to discriminate any person on any ground [(Article 13(4)]. Discrimination is defined under Article 13(5) and among the categories mentioned is gender. Gender discrimination is expressly forbidden under the United Republic of Tanzania Constitution.

2) Education

The Education Act of 1978

provides for the education of all children of Tanzania irrespective of their gender. Although there is a general trend, especially in village, not to allow girls to go to school, this is against the law. The law provides for the punishment of parents who do not send their children to school or who allow their children to drop out of school. The law can therefore be used to protect girls who are forced to drop out of school to get married or for any other reason.

3) The Law of Marriage Act Number 5 of 1971

- Two types of marriage are recognized: monogamous and polygamous. The ceremonies can be religious, civil or traditional.
- The age of marriage is 18 years and above. Girls, however, can be married at an age of below 18 years but not below 15 years with the consent of the father and where there is no father, then the mother. Marriage for girls below 15 years, but not below 14 years, can be permitted by court order.

This has been challenged as discriminatory towards girls and as a violation of the Rights of the Child.

- A husband is obliged to maintain his family i.e. wife and children. Where a husband is not able to do so for reasons beyond his control then a wife is supposed to maintain the family.
- Each party in the marriage

can have his/her own property and can enter into contracts etc.

- The law prohibits the infliction of corporal punishment on a spouse.
- Where a man dies before his wife, the wife has the right to stay in the matrimonial home.
- The law recognizes “a presumption of marriage” when a couple have lived together as wife and husband for more than two years and people around them have recognized their relationship. They have all the rights of a married couple.
- Divorce can only be granted by a Court of Law and the court must be satisfied that the marriage in question has broken down beyond repair. A couple cannot go to court for divorce before going to a reconciliation board.

Accepted reasons for the breakdown of a marriage beyond repair are amongst others: adultery, brutality, desertion, separation for more than 3 years, sodomy, irresponsibility, being jailed for more than 5 years.

It is presumed that a child under seven years has to live with his/her mother unless good reasons are given that this should not be so.

4) The Land Law of 1999 The Land Act No.4 of 1999 and The Village Land Act No.5 of 1999

The new law came into operation on 1 May 2001. One of the most significant new prin-

ciples is “The right of every woman to acquire, hold, use and deal with land shall to the same extent and subject to the same restriction be treated as the right of any man”. [Part II Section 3 (2)].

The law recognizes two types of land ownership: “personal occupancy” and “co-occupancy”.

Co-occupancy can be:

- (a) Occupancy in common where in the case of the death of one of the co-occupiers his/her shares goes to his/her heirs.
- (b) Joint occupancy where in the case of the death of one occupier the other party has the right of survivorship - meaning the property goes to him/her.

5) Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act 1998 (SOSPA)

This is a law which amends several written laws and makes special provisions in those laws with regard to sexual and other offences, to further safeguard the personal integrity, dignity, liberty and security of women and children. Under this law sexual offences against women and children have been elaborated and sentences have been broadened to protect women and children. Examples:

- Rape has been defined to cover children below 18 without consent being material in the defense.
- The offence of trafficking in women is provided for.
- Female Genital mutilation

has been criminalized where it is performed to children under the age of 18.

The law provides for compensation in cases of sexual offences.

6) The Employment Ordinance

Amongst other things the Employment Ordinance gives women the right to maternity benefits:

- Pre-natal maternity leave of 42 days to be taken at any time after the completion of the seventh month of pregnancy and before delivery or before the completion of the seventh month of pregnancy, if a medical officer recommends that such leave is necessary or desirable in the inter-

est of the employee's health.

- Post-natal leave of 42 days commencing on the day of delivery:
- Maternity leave is with full pay at the expense of the employer.

Restrictions can be found in Section 25 (k) and 25 (b) and (c). A woman who gets the maternity leave forfeits her annual leave in the year of the maternity leave. This is being challenged as taking away part of the maternity leave.

7) The Affiliation Ordinance

This is a law that provides for children born out of wedlock. The mother of the child can make an application for the

maintenance of the child from the putative father. The amount of maintenance, however, needs to be revised as it is too little to support a child and the burden for maintaining the child is therefore still on the mother.

8) The Inheritance Laws

There are three laws relating to inheritance in the country: Islamic Customary Laws, Customary Inheritance Laws and the Indian Succession Act, which is a civil law. There is a major debate on harmonizing these laws in the interest of women, as most of them are discriminative towards women. ■

BASIC GENDER INDICATORS FOR TANZANIA

By Ms Sherbanu Kassim, Women's Research and Documentation Project

Introduction

United Republic of Tanzania, being a member of the United Nation, is a party to the Global Platform for Action adopted at the Beijing 4th UN World Conference in 1995. The GPA reflects the review and appraisal of the progress made by women since 1985 in terms of the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women to the Year 2000.

The GPA lists 12 Critical Areas of Concern identified as obstacles to the advancement of women. The 12 areas are:

- (1) Poverty
- (2) Education
- (3) Health
- (4) Violence
- (5) Armed and Other Conflicts
- (6) Economic Participation
- (7) Power-sharing and Decision-making
- (8) National and International Machineries
- (9) Human Rights
- (10) Mass Media
- (11) Environment and Development
- (12) The Girl Child

In presenting its commitment to the implementation of the GPA, the Tanzanian Government noted that gender inequality was prevalent and cited a number of factors that contributed to this state

of affairs -social cultural norms, values, traditional practices and customs, unequal access to decision-making processes, legal inequalities and poverty. The Government of Tanzania committed itself to eradicate gender inequality.

In its development vision 2025, the country aims at achieving a high quality livelihood for its people, at attaining good governance through the rule of law and developing a strong and competitive economy. In doing so, gender equality and the empower-

ment of women in the socio-economic, political, and cultural areas is emphasized and implemented.

By the year 2000, the population projection is that the total population is 33.7 million and the female population comprises of 50.4% of the total. Thus women form more than half of the Tanzanian population, and hence their contribution in the socio-economic development is crucial.

Tanzania Government Commitment

The Post-Beijing era, has seen efforts by the Government and other stakeholders in the implementation of the GPA generally and Tanzania's commitment to the implementation of GPA specifically, as hereunder:

1. Enhance Women Legal Capacity

There is discrimination against women and this is to be seen in the multiplicity of laws (customary, religious and statutory) in areas of marital relationships, inheritance and ownership rights. Another area is the discriminatory application of statutory laws. There are inadequate and insensitive mechanisms in the legal system to handle cases sensitive to women and children e.g. involving violence and defilement.

(2) Economic Empowerment of Women and Poverty Eradication

In Tanzania about 60% of women live in absolute poverty. This is a result of the increasing poverty among the rural and urban population generally, the growing gap between the rich and the poor; women and men, women and women. In both rural and

urban settings women lack property rights and knowledge on available credit facilities. Again their low education level and use of poor technology further drowns them in poverty.

(3) Women Political Empowerment and Decision-Making

Traditionally the position of women in Tanzania has been low compared to men. Women were not expected to influence the decision-making processes from domestic to national level basically because of the patriarchal structures which are in operation.

(4) Improve Women's Access to Education, Training and Employment

• Education

Women face numerous constraints to access education and training at all levels. The problems include the

SOME STATISTICAL GENDER INDICATORS

	1990	1995	2000
Population			
Total (millions)	25.5	29.6	33.7
Females as % of total	50.6	50.5	50.4
Adult illiteracy rate (% of people aged 15+)			
Male	24.4	20.0	16.1
Female	49.0	41.1	33.5
Labour force participation			
Total labour force (millions)	13	15	17
Female labour force (% of total)	50	49	49
Education Access & Attainment: Net Enrollment Rate			
Male	51	47	47
Female	52	48	48
Youth illiteracy rate (% of people aged 15-24)			
Male	10.7	8.5	6.7
Female	22.7	17.0	12.1

Source: World Bank Gender Statistics for Tanzania, 2002

unfriendly pedagogy especially in the teaching of mathematics, technical and science subjects, which require competitiveness and some degree of assertiveness which girls often lack. Truancy, pregnancy, economic hardships and early marriages constrain girls from completing their schooling. Existing patriarchal attitudes favour and promote boys' education and pay less interest in the education of girls.

- **Employment**

The major constraints facing women in employment are low education, poverty and lack of required productive skills. Another hindrance is that the formal work places are sometimes gender insensitive. ■

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EDUCATION AND GENDER

By Ms P. Okeyo, Education Office, Kinondoni Municipality

BACKGROUND

Traditionally women were not expected to go to school. The school system of the colonial period allowed few girls to enrol in schools. The little education they received was to confine them to the kitchen or to white-collar jobs at shop floor level. This created a gender gap between boys and girls. The majority of Tanzanian women remain illiterate.

After independence, a number of measures were introduced to improve the educational system. The Educational Ordinance of 1961 was the starting point for equal opportunities for girls and boys, women and men. Major changes came with the Arusha Declaration and the Musoma Resolution on Universal Primary Education (UPE). The Education Act

No.25 of 1978 emphasises that every citizen has the right to receive education to the best of her/his ability.

Current situation

Primary education

Primary education is compulsory and universal. Enrolment in primary schools for female and male pupils reached parity in 1977 after the introduction of UPE. Primary education covers the first seven years of schooling (Std. I-VII), and usually starts when a child is seven years old. It aims at giving pupils a permanent ability in literacy and numeric knowledge.

Secondary education

Secondary education is terminal and it aims at equipping students with skills, knowledge and attitudes that will enable them to pursue further

studies and work independently for the service of their community.

The number of female students who enrol at this level is less than the number of their male counterparts. Furthermore, women tend to concentrate on arts subjects, leaving science subjects for men.

Higher education

Female enrolment in higher institutes of learning is lower than that of men. Nonetheless the enrolment of women at this level is increasing.

The effects of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs)

SAPs have had effects on the quality and availability of education. Enrolment in primary schools for both sexes has dropped since 1987. The reduction in public spending

on primary education tends to affect girls more adversely than boys. Cost sharing in secondary and higher education has the same impact. This has long-term implications since the lack of education is both a cause and effect of women's low status.

The impact of science and technology on women's lives

Gender stereotyping in our society is so strong that the achievements, aspirations and interests of girls are conditioned by how society views men and women's activities. Tanzanian women, irrespective of their intellectual aptitude, tend to shy away from science and technology as these fields are seen to be reserved for men.

Primary education from a gender perspective

Tanzania has gender problems in the education sector. They can be seen in the education and training policy of 1995. They include a high dropout rate for girls, 25% at primary level. The performance of girls is lower in the final examination than that of boys. Figures from the Ministry of Education and Culture show that out of a total of 5,646,293 children registered for Class One in the year 2000, 50.09% were girls. The gross enrolment ratio (GER) was 78.5 for boys and 76.7 for girls. The net enrolment ratio (NER) was 58.6 for boys and 59.1 for girls. The dropout

rate for boys was higher than that of girls.

Although the statistics show that the enrolment rate for boys and girls is equal, there are nonetheless disparities when the gender statistics are analyzed taking the geographical locality, school type and family income group into consideration. Increasing enrolment does not ensure equitable access. Disparities will not decrease if education resources are not equality distributed in accordance with gender needs.

The main areas of concern are:

- Persistently high dropout rate for both boys and girls pupils
- Inadequate space in class rooms
- Most of the teaching staff still has low qualifications and competency
- A low, and sometimes demoralizing, selection rate of primary school leavers for continued earning at higher levels.
- Inadequate school materials

Primary Education Development Program (PEDP)

The Primary Education Development Programme is an outcome of various sector reviews and it makes provision for primary education especially in the areas of concern. The priority investments are:

- The expansion of enrolment

- The construction of class rooms
- Teacher engagement and deployment
- In service quality improvement
- The provision of pre-learning materials
- The monitoring of management
- Improvement of evaluation systems

The Primary Education Development Programme is a 5 year programme for the period 2002 - 2006. PEDP takes measured enrolment steps so as to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) gradually. It gives high priority to an increase in overall gross and net enrolment of both boys and girls. This will be done by increasing enrolment in all groups of children, using existing teachers and classrooms more effectively and by recruiting new teachers and constructing classrooms.

The PEDP has abolished the parents' contribution at primary education level. Instead each pupil gets 10 USD annually as capitation grant from the government. During the first year of PEDP implementation new classrooms have already been constructed, textbooks have been purchased and teachers have been recruited. This any citizen can observe. The abolishment of the parents' contributions has boosted the enrolment rate of pupils this year, especially for girls. ■

GENDER EQUALITY AND THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN THROUGH EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Extract from the speech made by Hon. Dr A. Migiro (MP), Minister for Community Development, Women Affairs and Children, 19 November 2001, at the TFTW Alumni Workshop, Karimjee Hall, Dar es Salaam

“Gender equality means the equal visibility, empowerment and participation of both sexes in all spheres of public and private life”. It has now been empirically proved that gender equality is a development imperative. If development means the improved wellbeing of people and the process by which this wellbeing is achieved, then gender equality becomes an important variable of development.

The main reason is that development can only be sustainable where material benefits (of development) are fairly distributed, especially to the most in need - the disadvantaged and the most vulnerable. Women fall in one or both of these categories. Studies have shown beyond doubt that in societies where there is gender equality development indications have a better record.

A World Bank study conducted in 2000 clearly showed that addressing gender issues is an important strategy in stimulating development, in alleviating poverty and strengthening good governance. It is for these reasons that gender equality is now on the agenda in many countries of the world especially developing ones.

How can gender equality be attained?

There are obviously many ways but for the purpose of this workshop I wish to talk about women's empowerment and affirmative action as a means to attaining gender equality.

Generally speaking empowerment is an element of development. It has been defined as a process by which people take control and action in order to overcome obstacles. It especially means collective action by the oppressed and deprived to overcome the obstacles of structural inequality which have previously put them in a disadvantaged position.

Women's empowerment is a necessary process to enable women to overcome obstacles which have led to the circumstances of being disadvantaged or marginalized.

Education and training is one way through which women can be empowered. The Training Fund for Tanzania Women (TFTW) has been providing education & training to women so that, once qualified, “they would occupy decision making positions in both the private and public sectors, in order to influence development strate-

gies and long term policy planning issues”.

Affirmative action as another way of bringing about gender equality

The Government of the United Republic of Tanzania has so far done well in this. It has done so in Parliament as well as in local government authorities.

Looking at these statistics one can only realize that had it not been for affirmative action women's representation in Parliament would be very, very marginal. Even though we have had affirmative action in various forms either as a specific number or as percentage, that alone has not worked as a catalyst to bring women into leadership and decision making positions. It is a well-known fact that a good number of women MPs have been doing well, but that does not seem to have convinced the rest of society that given equal opportunity women have been and can be very good leaders. Thus, even though we have had affirmative action for twenty years now, only affirmative action has been able to guarantee women's participation in Parliament and local government authorities.

Now that we know which way to go in education and training, has not the time come to “attack” other structures that would give these “trained, education and qualified” women real, and not theoretical, opportunity to take part meaningfully in decision making bodies? Let’s debate this point.

As part of women’s empowerment we might also wish to focus our attention on those women who are already in leadership positions. How do we give them training which is relevant to the positions they currently occupy? Women MPs did have a very useful

course recently on parliamentary procedures and practices. I think that is one practical way of empowering women which shows affirmative action as a strategy that has to go hand in hand with other empowering activities. If I may once again quote the National Assembly Clerk, having a big number of women is desirable, but having them empowered through training is even crucial. I have used the Parliament as an example, but similar steps have to be taken in respect of women leaders in the village.

On the other hand, even if women are educated and

trained, that alone will not suffice to ensure that gender inequality is done away with. That alone is not enough to ensure that they have equal access to leadership positions or representative bodies like Parliament, councils or village authorities. There is a dire need to “educate” and “train” society in general as well as other authorities that are key in deciding what affirmative action should be taken, how and for how long. ■

Source: Ministry of Community Development Women’s Affairs and Children, Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women through Education and Training.

CONSTRAINTS ON GIRLS’ EDUCATION

SOCIO-CULTURAL CONSTRAINTS

- School is sometimes seen as an alienating force that undermines cultural values.
- Traditional attitudes towards marriage view investment in girls’ education as “watering another man’s garden” - any benefits will go to another family!
- Socialization patterns assume that girls should be docile and passive, while boys are expected to be aggressive, adventurous and outgoing. This is to the disadvantage of girls when they have to share facilities and equipment with boys. Girls are also expected to suppress their brilliance or be subjected to ridicule.
- The social status of women



Source: Art in Politics, 1st E.A. competition on political caricatures & cartoons, FES 2001 Cartoon by Ali Masoud (Kipanya)

in society and negative attitudes to women as subordinates influence decision making on investment in girls' education.

- Traditional practices, e.g. early marriage and initiation rites, interfere more with the education of girls than that of boys.

SCHOOL CONSTRAINTS

- The inadequacy of facilities in schools hinders access, particularly in rural areas and arid and semi-arid lands.
- Gender bias pervades the curriculum - teachers, syllabuses, textbooks and delivery

systems.

- Education is of low quality and lacks relevance and practical application.
- A hostile learning environment is characterized by the lack of sanitary facilities, the exploitation of girls' labour and sexual harassment.
- Female role models are lacking.
- School management practices discriminate against girls.

POLICY CONSTRAINTS

- Policies exclude pregnant schoolgirls and adolescent mothers.
- Policies do not articulate

goals for achieving gender equity.

- Policies support, or do not prevent, inequitable practices in resource allocation.
- Policies are gender blind in the selection and posting of teachers.
- Policies for monitoring gender equity in education are inadequate. ■

Source: Gachukia, Eddah "Accelerating the Education of Girls and Women in Sub-Saharan Africa", FAWE News, Vol.7, No.2, 1999.

THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR IN TANZANIA

By Dr Rwegoshora Hossea, Institute of Social Work

INTRODUCTION

Today, child labour continues to present a serious challenge to the courage and imagination of nations and the cooperation of the international community. The recent Rapid Assessment studies made in Tanzania in a few selected sectors¹ indicate that there is a significant number of children working in various sectors of the economy. It is therefore envisaged that, with the increasing level of poverty, the incidence of the worst forms of child labour is likely to increase. Within this context there has been a growing national and international

consensus that targeting the worst forms of child labour is not only morally right, but also a major step towards breaking the vicious circle of poverty and eliminating child labour in a long run.

THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR IN TANZANIA

Unacceptable forms of exploitation of children at work exist, but they are particularly difficult to research due to their hidden, sometimes illegal or even criminal nature. Slavery, debt bondage, trafficking, sexual exploitation,

the use of children in the drug trade and in armed conflict, as well as hazardous work are all defined as Worst Forms of Child Labour. In Tanzania, the worst forms of child labour involve activities that are invariably detrimental to the children's physical, social and psychological development. The findings of the rapid assessment studies in selected sectors in Tanzania (e.g. mining, commercial agriculture, child prostitution and the informal sector) revealed that the main causes of the worst forms of child labour included poverty, food insecurity and land shortage in some

areas, labour demand, imperfect marketing of agricultural products, social factors and HIV/AIDS.

• **Poverty** The study findings revealed that most of the working children in the informal sector, prostitution, mining and commercial agriculture in Tanzania came from families whose incomes were very low. The majority of the poor depended on agriculture as the main source of income, while in the urban areas the poor depended mainly on their children's labour in the informal sector. In tobacco plantations for example, it was found out that 84% of the parents of the children came from poor and very poor socio-economic backgrounds. Their parents were found to earn an average of 87,000/= Tshs. (just less than 100 US dollars) per year. In coffee and tea plantations in Karatu and Lushoto districts, children worked to support their families and parents were noted to highly value their contributions.

• **Land shortage and food insecurity:** The problem of land shortage was most prevalent in Lushoto and Iringa Rural Districts. In these districts, villagers did not have enough arable land to grow food and cash crops. Most of the areas in Lushoto was mountainous and not fertile, while in Iringa Greek farmers occupied most of the fertile land, while indigenous people (who had migrated from the neighbouring areas to look for employment in tobacco plan-



tations) owned small plots of land. Since the majority of people were unable to produce enough food for their own consumption, most of them, including children, resorted to looking for employment in the plantations in order to get money to buy food and other necessities.

• **Imperfect marketing of agricultural products:** A bunch of banana worth 2,000/= Tshs in urban areas, could be sold at 200/= Tshs in the rural areas. Fluctuations in the world prices of commercial crops such as coffee make the story worse. A sharp decline of coffee prices from 350/= Tshs to 40/= Tshs per one kilogram in Kagera region for example, meant that a farmer had to sell 15 kilograms of coffee in order to buy a kilo of sugar. The low income earned from cash crops and the rising cost of living is the background for child labour. Children have to earn money to augment the family income.

• **Labour demand:** The demand for labour was related to the poorly development labour market and low level of technology generally employed in production Tanzania. Most of the activities carried out by children, such as the preparation of farms, planting seedlings, attending the farm and picking tea or tobacco leaves, were in most cases manual. These tasks demanded a lot of manpower in a given period of time. The findings suggest that as the plantations were assured a good supply of labour, children were preferred because they were lowly paid as compared to adults. In addition, child workers were easier to exploit than adult workers because of their docility and weak bargaining power.

• **Social factors:** Marital separation, home violence, peer influence, children living with either a single parent, stepmothers and stepfathers, and lack of parenting skills were some of the reasons

causing children to flee from their families. Children lacked love and affection from both parents. Constraints in financial resources facing female-headed families, where relatives/guardians failed to meet their children's needs further forced children to join child labour activities.

• **The Impact of HIV/AIDS:** The impact of the AIDS pandemic has affected young parents. The death of the breadwinner, or their inability to work due to illness, has continued to create severe hardship for children. In Tanzania today we have at least one million HIV/AIDS orphans. Today, with the disintegration of the traditional social security system, the traditional extended family safety nets cannot take care of such a huge burden. As a result a good number of such orphans have ended up fending for themselves through child labour, including its worst forms such as commercial sex, working in the mines and commercial agricultural activities.

• **Nature of hazards**

The hazards to which working children are exposed include: long working hours, with heavy workloads, exposure to unfavourable climatic conditions, exposure to poisonous pesticides and other agro - chemicals, sexual abuse and high probability of being infected with Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS/HIV) and other sexually transmitted diseases

(STDs). The nature of hazards and risks by and large emanated from the working environment i.e. the nature of surroundings, working conditions, and tools used. Other hazards and risks emanated from the nature of the materials used, the constraints and abuses, emergency and personal care, and physical and mental stress.

In the mining sector for example, children were involved in a number of activities including the actual mining process (i.e. 88.5 percent boys). Children as young as 10 years old were involved in the drilling of rocks, washing of rock dust, and collecting and carrying pieces of crushed rocks. Hence children performed tasks which were over and above their ability let alone the fact that they worked in hazardous conditions predisposing themselves to a number of health problems. There were also health risks, which were subtle and indirect, making the adverse effects, which were not immediately noticeable. This was especially true in the case of exposure to mercury. Children were exposed to mercury in the amalgamation process, and mercury was also disposed of into rivers thereby contaminating water sources. This could have adverse effects not only on the children, but also on other members of the community. This was detrimental to their normal growth and development.

• **Initiatives to Combat the**

Worst Forms of Child Labour

Tanzania has taken a number of measures in the global campaign against child labour. In 1994 the Government of Tanzania signed a memorandum of understanding with the ILO, and started implementing a national programme of action on child labour with the support of the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC). Since then Tanzania has made impressive strides in its efforts to combat child labour especially its worst forms, primarily through the adoption of a multi-pronged approach that has brought on board several key players. General awareness has risen and there is social mobilisation to eliminate child labour in Tanzania.

Tanzania's commitment towards the elimination of hazardous child labour has been amply demonstrated. In consultation with the social partners and the Labour Advisory Board, the government ratified convention No. 138 in November 1998 that set the minimum age for non-hazardous work at 14 years. Further commitment is reflected by the ratification of Convention 182 in 12 June 2001. In addition the Government has been reviewing legislation and policies relevant to child labour of which the most promising is the development of a national child labour policy. The policy is intended to facilitate a coordi-

nated effort by various actors in order to harmonize and consolidate sectoral policies addressing the problem of child labour. ■

1 The number of children estimated to be working as scavengers in Dar es Salaam at

the Vingunguti dumpsite and at the Arusha Municipal garbage sites was 30 - 70 and 80 - 100 children per day respectively. In quarrying activities at Kunduchi quarrying sites in the city of Dar es Salaam the estimate number of children working was approximately 200 - 320 per day. Working children in fishing and fish processing activities in the city of Mwanza were estimated to number 30 - 40 at

Igombe Beach and 25 - 30 at Mwaloni Beach. As far as garage activities are concerned, in the city of Mwanza there were approximately 12 working children in the Pamba Road key location area and 25 in Mabatini key location area, while in Arusha it was estimated that 48 children were working in the four selected key location areas.

CHILD ABUSE

By Ms Helen Kijo-Bisimba, Legal and Human Rights Centre

The main source of information for this article is a survey of incidents reported in Tanzanian newspapers from January 1996 - June 1997. The types of abuse reported were shocking: defilement, sodomy, rape, dumping, abandonment, child labour and even the stealing of children.

Child abuse has been singled out by LHRC since the center started talking about human rights. A child who has not enjoyed human rights cannot be expected as an adult to observe the human rights of others.

The incidents reported in the newspaper are those that were reported to the police or the courts. It is significant that very few cases involving genital mutilation, incest and parental cruelty are reported. Such practices exist, but are widely accepted. For example, there are societies in Arusha, Dodoma and Mara regions that take pride in the practice of genital mutilation and it only becomes an issue when a child dies from bleeding. With regard to such practices what is reported is only the tip of the iceberg.

If we really want to talk of a culture based on human rights, then the public must address the issue of child abuse. The protection of human rights must begin with the protection of the rights of our children. Therefore the awareness of the general public must be raised so that ordinary people understand how important it is to report incidents of child abuse whenever they come across them. People must not look away when they see a parent mistreating his or her child. Children's matters should be of concern to all.

LHRC commends the efforts made by different groups in the area of children's rights, groups such as KULEANA in Mwanza, The DOGODOGO CENTRE in Dar es Salaam and the UMATI YOUTH CENTRES¹.

Tanzania has ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. This obliges both the government and the people to look into ways of assuring that children enjoy their rights as described in the convention.

LHRC would very much appreciate any information on cases of human rights abuse. Our address is:

Legal and Human Rights Centre

P.O. Box 75254, Dar es Salaam

Tel./Fax: 022 - 2113 177

e-mail: lhrcetz@raha.com

Office: Tanzania Ocean Road, Tulyer House, 2nd floor.

1. We add the Kwetu-Mbagala Girls' Home which opened in December 2000 in Mbagala, Dar es Salaam. This is the first home catering for street girls.

MEASURES TAKEN BY THE GOVERNMENT ON CHILD ABUSE

- The Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children has established a particular section to deal with child abuse issues.
- The Ministry of Labour has established a special unit that deals with the worst forms of child labour.
- The Government has issued the Child Development Policy (Sera ya maendeleo ya mtoto) which in principle has a special focus on child abuse.
- Various laws have been passed to defend children from abuse:
 - Sexual Offences Bill of 1999 (which amongst other things is to protect girls and young women from genital mutilation).
 - Sexual Offences against Minors.
 - Corporal Punishment Regulations of 1979.
 - Marriage laws on the issues of forced marriages and the minimum age for marriage. (These are still in the process of being developed.)

Source: Kuleana, Mwanza, November 2001

THE GIRL RAPE IN KILIMANJARO

By Mr R. Lindboe and Ms A. Bertelsen, MS Tanzania

Sometimes there are stories you wonder whether should be told or not. This story is one of that kind: the unspeakable act of a father, afraid of having caught AIDS, molesting his six year old daughter.

She screamed. Screamed and called for her mother. Her shouts drifted out of the dark hut and were swallowed up by the banana trees and the palms surrounding the home before they could roll down the slopes of the mountain.

But she kept screaming and crying while her father took abuse of her. Only six years of age, Bahati had never experienced a horror like this. Why was her own father causing her this unknown form for pain? Had she misbehaved and had to be punished?

Bahati's mother, buried among the palms just a few days earlier, could do nothing to help her daughter. Tears trickled down her cheeks as her father finished his deed and returned to his bed.

The unspeakable act committed against the girl Bahati is not an isolated incident in Tanzania today. No official statistics tell of this terror that the government has done little to stop or even to shed light on.

A newspaper survey by the Legal and Human Rights Centre in Dar es Salaam recorded 12 cases of child rape nationwide during a six-month period in 1997. The actual figure is suspected to be much, much higher. The girl, Bahati, was raped by her own father, who heeded the ill advice of the local witch doctor. The father was trying to rid himself of HIV - the disease inflicting, and ultimately killing, more and more Tanzanians. The advice was to have sex with a virgin.

FES thanks MS Tanzania for permission to publish this extract. The full story is in HABARI ZA TANZANIA, MS Tanzania Newsletter, issue No.1/2001

THE SITUATION IN THE REMAND HOMES AND THE APPROVED SCHOOL IN TANZANIA

By Mrs M. Njimba and Mr D. Chanila, Social Welfare Department

Definition

A Remand Home is a fit institution where children and young persons under the age of 16 years, who are charged with some offences and who have been unable to be released on bail, are kept in care and custody while awaiting their verdict in the court of law. The duration of their stay depends on how fast or slow the court proceedings are carried out, and the nature of the offences.

An Approved School, on the other hand, is a legal institution established by the law to care for children who are sentenced by courts to this institution after being found guilty in a court of law. Children are sentenced to this institution for a period of one to three years.

The management of the institutions

Both institutions are the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour, Youth Development and Sports. In practice it is the Social Welfare Department of this Ministry that runs them. They have as their objective the modification of the behaviour of children who are in conflict with the law.

There are 5 Remand Homes: in Mbeya, Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Dar es Salaam

and Arusha regions. The process is underway to establish two more in Mwanza and Mtwara. There is only one Approved School in Tanzania. It is in Mbeya and it is for boys only.

Dar es Salaam Remand Home Pilot Project

Because the provision of services at the Dar es Salaam Remand Home was inadequate the Social Welfare Department initiated a pilot project to improve the situation. The project was inaugurated on 1 June 2001 and it has brought together local community members, diplomatic groups, NGOs and individual persons who wish to offer their services to the Dar es Salaam Remand Home. There have been a number of achievements so far:

- A teacher has been recruited to teach children basic literacy
- Volunteer teachers come regularly to teach a variety of subjects
- The nearby Regency Hospital offers free medical services
- The Rotary Club of Bahari, Dar es Salaam offers funds for medicine
- Gardening facilities and activities have been improved.
- Parents and various com-

munity members frequently come to visit the children

- The Remand Home has adequate and relevant staff
- There is a close co-operation with street children NGOs and there has been frequent visits to these institutions in order to exchange experience
- Staff members are very close and they associate with children

Offences

Of all offences committed by children, stealing and related offences constitute the highest proportion of the crimes. For example, of all the 209 cases at the Dar es Salaam Remand Home in 1999, 99 cases were stealing offences. Likewise, at the Mbeya Remand Home out of 86 cases in the same year, 62 cases were related to stealing. The main reason for this is poverty at household level.

The National Programme

Encouraged by the success of the pilot project, a national programme is being implemented in order to replicate what has been done at the Dar es Salaam Remand Home at the other Remand Homes and at the Approved School. This programme seeks to involve various government departments,

NGOs, CBOs, faith organisations, diplomatic groups and individuals in the promotion of child rights and the improvement of services so that the key objective of

Remand Homes and Approved school, i.e. behaviour modification/rehabilitation, is met. ■

WHO IS ANAELI?

Anaeli has no home
Anaeli has no bed
Anaeli is alone
Anaeli is small
Anaeli is hungry
Anaeli feels cold
Anaeli is scared
Anaeli has wounds
Anaeli has pain.

Who takes care of Anaeli?
Who gives food to Anaeli?
Who takes Anaeli to the
doctor?
Who consoles Anaeli?
Who sends Anaeli to
school?
Who hugs Anaeli?

People say:
Street-children are dirty
they are little thieves,
they stink,
and they are lazy
they are garbage
just useless.
You may do with them what
you want
nobody bothers

Anaeli is alone

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NOTES

9. HIV/AIDS

HIV AND AIDS: GOVERNMENT POLICY AND ACTION

By Mr M.G.S. Masaure, Tanzania Network of AIDS Service Organization (TANASO)

Introduction

The actual number of HIV/AIDS cases in Tanzania is not known. All figures given through annual surveillance reports by the NACP and other institutions are based on estimates. By the end of 1995 the number of people carrying the HIV was projected at 2.4 million. Research indicates that currently the number of HIV/AIDS carriers is estimated at more than 3 million.

For the last 19 years Tanzania has been a battleground for HIV/AIDS. Today, while the war still wages on, the social and economic impact of the epidemic is being felt in every corner of the country. Families have been disrupted and scattered by AIDS. Villages have been abandoned and there has been a shift away from labour intensive crop farming. Families have to hire labour because of the shortage of hands within their own families. Food and industrial production have been seriously affected by the rising mortality in the labour force. Rising health care expenditure due to AIDS have constrained the financial resources both at family and at the central government levels. The number of new HIV

infections and AIDS cases has continued to rise. With little or no prospect of a curative vaccine in the near future, many communities in the country may lose whole generations of their productive workforce.

Furthermore, the impact of HIV/AIDS has been worsened by the existing social and economic problems already affecting the Tanzania society. Poverty, food insecurity, inadequate sanitation, subordination of women and girls and the global structural adjustment policies, which deny sufficient resources to the social sector, are some of the key problems. Under such conditions, many people are powerless to protect themselves against infections. Inadequate health facilities and poor nutritional status may further exacerbate the spread of HIV and accelerate the progression from HIV to full blown AIDS.

Government Policy

Given the massive social and economic implications of HIV infection and AIDS related deaths, it is evident that the Government of Tanzania has a vital role to play in instigating awareness and prevention programmes and

determining a policy framework for coordinated measures to combat the pandemic. The Government should take measures to address HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) at policy level with a view to responding effectively. This the Government must do by:

- Supporting and promoting broad preventive action in public institutions, the private sector, workers and community bodies such as the civil society.

- Improving the public cum private co-ordination process, e.g. public services/ authorities responsible for responding to the pandemic and the private sector.

- Reforming legislation and support services focusing on anti-discriminatory tendencies, improving the status of women, children and the marginalized groups of society.

Policy issues regarding HIV/AIDS are complex, and may change as the pattern and the impact of the pandemic evolves. Policies must, therefore, remain responsive to the evolving needs.

The Government has enacted a national policy on HIV/AIDS. The general aim of the policy is to provide the following guidelines:

- An integrated and comprehensive approach to the pandemic must be based upon an understanding of the way it affects personal, social and economic development.

- The policy must encompass and be accepted by all sectors in society, and those affected by the pandemic must be involved in the policy dialogue.

- Collaboration and coordination among all stakeholders is essential for an effective national response.

- For a programme to succeed, it must take into account and explore each culture's ability to change in response to the challenge of the pandemic.

- The power imbalance in interpersonal relationships and in society which create women's subordination must change if women are to be able to protect themselves from HIV/AIDS infection.

- The means of reducing the risk of HIV/AIDS transmission must be affordable for and accessible to everyone.

- HIV testing must be carried out with the specific informed consent of those being tested. Voluntary Counselling and Testing (VCT), with pre- and post-counselling and with guaranteed confidentiality.

- The rights of people with HIV/AIDS must be respected and those affected and infected must remain an integral part of the community.

The National AIDS Policy has taken into account the above principles. The Government through the Tanzania

Commission for AIDS - TACAIDS and NACP, has developed national strategies in response to HIV/AIDS in the form of national plans.

Government Action

Having a national policy on HIV/AIDS is not enough. It must be followed by strategic action. A number of actions have been undertaken by the government. The national response from the early 1980s consisted of the development of strategies to prevent, control and mitigate the impact of the pandemic through decentralization, multi-sectoral response and community participation. These initiatives were constrained by a number of factors such as inadequate human and financial resources, ineffective coordination mechanisms and inadequate political commitment and leadership. Some of these constraints have now been addressed.

Political commitment at the highest levels makes the critical difference. There is now strong political commitment and leadership from the highest level. The culture of denial prevents effective action and can only be overcome by strong leadership and broad partnership. The leadership must strive to bring on board partnerships, international institutions, public agencies, employers, workers organizations, NGO's and CBO's including faith groups to share specialized knowledge and skills in addressing the pandemic.

Through its various agencies the Government has mounted comprehensive prevention, care and support initiatives in the areas mentioned below:

- The ensuring of safe blood transfusion.

- The adequate management of STIs.

- The active involvement of people in their communities' practical interventions against HIV/AIDS, including workplace and school interventions.

- Capacity building of Local Government Councils in the management of HIV/AIDS interventions in their locations.

- The promotion and popularization of VCT at all levels.

- The reduction of the risk of transmission of HIV among high risk and vulnerable groups.

- The improvement of the quality care and support of PLHAs.

- The promotion of an environment for the open discussion of issues pertaining to HIV/AIDS and the fight against stigmatization and discrimination.

- The reduction of the impact of the epidemic.

- The prevention of Mother to Child Transmission

The inadequacy of resources, particularly human and financial, and their poor distribution and/or mismanagement are current critical issues to be addressed, if the Government is to provide an effective national response to HIV and AIDS. ■

MAJOR CHALLENGES IN HIV/AIDS PREVENTION AND A LOOK AT THE SITUATION IN SOME SPECIFIC GROUPS

by Rev. C.J. Mabina, NGOTAC

General Overview

Over two-thirds of all the people in the world now living with HIV - nearly 21 million men, women and children - live in Africa south of the Sahara, and 83% of the world's AIDS deaths have been in this region. Since the start of the epidemic, HIV in sub-Saharan Africa has mostly spread through sex between men and women.

An even higher proportion of the children living with HIV in the world are in Africa - an estimated 87%, (UNAIDS Report on the global HIV/AIDS Epidemic of June 1998).

Situation in Tanzania

HIV/AIDS is a major development crisis that affects people in all walks of life, particularly women and men between the ages of 20 and 49 years.

The first AIDS cases were reported in 1983. Initially the disease was limited to populations living in urban areas and along highways. By 1986 all the regions in Tanzania mainland had reported AIDS cases. The NACP HIV/AIDS/STD surveillance report Number 11 of 1996 confirmed that the disease was spreading rapidly in

rural communities. Males and females were equally affected, but the peak number of AIDS cases in females was at the age 25-29 years while most affected males were in the age group 30-34 years. Generally, the data indicate that females acquire the HIV infection at an earlier age than males. Most acquire it during late adolescence.

Heterosexual transmission accounts for 77.2% of all cases. Of all cases diagnosed during the year, 44.2% were married people while 24.2% were single individuals. [The remaining cases were: divorced (6.6%), separated (4.2%), cohabiting (1.9%), widow (1.3%) and marital status not stated (12.6%).]

Mortality data from several regions in the country indicate that less than 40% of all adult deaths occur in hospitals. Some AIDS patients are not reported as they die before the diagnosis is made. NACP estimates the true number of cases in Tanzania to be about 5 times the number reported. Some diseases such as TB, which had been previously under control some years back, are on the increase. AIDS is now among the top 4 killers in many hospitals. In some hospitals up to

50% the beds are occupied by patients with HIV/AIDS related illnesses.

Children

Children make up the most vulnerable group. The HIV infection progresses quickly to AIDS in children. Most of the close to 3 million children under 15 who have been infected since the start of the epidemic have developed AIDS and most of these have died. Further, of the 1.5 million people who died of AIDS in 1996, 350,000 were children under the age of 18. Even more relevant is the estimate that by mid-1996, about 9 million children under 15 had lost their mothers to AIDS, and more than 90% of these children live in Sub-Saharan African countries. In Tanzania, the National AIDS Control Programme (NACP) estimated in 1995 that there were 200,000 children orphaned by AIDS, with projections for the year 2000 of 800,000.

Youth

If HIV/AIDS were capable of standing trial in the International Criminal Court, it would be guilty of conspiring to wipe out youth as a distinct social group. No age group



has suffered more from HIV/AIDS than youth. Not only are young people the most sexually active members of society, but also the most energetic and productive. This is a threat to the very existence of humanity.

Women

Despite constitutional guarantees of equality between sexes and affirmative action in favour of women, the position of women has remained unchanged because of cultural beliefs and practices, poor education, economic disempowerment, polygamy, concubinage and prostitution.

These factors have compromised women's reproductive freedom and health and they impinge on the intervention/ prevention strategies of HIV/AIDS.

Refugees

When civil war broke out in the spring of 1994, hundreds of thousands of Rwandans fled, and HIV inevitably followed them into the hastily constructed refugee camps in Tanzania. The conditions of refugee life greatly increase the risk of exposure to HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases (STDs). The

destruction of families, deterioration of social structures and unravelling of social mores, loss of homes and incomes, crowding and the commercial sex trade within refugee camps are just some of the factors that lead to increased risk-taking behaviour and susceptibility. Women and adolescent refugees, vulnerable to violence, rape and coercive sex, are at especially high risk.

Truck Drivers and Commercial Sex Workers

Unprotected sexual behaviour among mobile population groups with multiple partners makes them vulnerable to

HIV infection. These include commercial sex workers, truckers, sailors and construction workers. The big challenge is the promotion of non-discriminating attitudes among health care providers in order to encourage such groups to attend clinics for early diagnosis.

Conclusion

The impact of HIV/AIDS on Tanzania is enormous:

- There are increasing number of orphans to be taken care of.
- More and more HIV/AIDS victims occupy hospital space.
- Life expectancy is expected to fall from 52 to 47 years by the year 2010.
- Losses in economic production are overwhelming.

HIV/AIDS is a challenge to every one: politicians, planners, economists, religious leaders, businessmen, etc. The fight against HIV/AIDS requires the joint efforts of all stakeholders. ■

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10. DEMOCRACY

AGENDA: PARTICIPATION 2000 IN TANZANIA TEN PRINCIPLES FOR A DEMOCRATIC CULTURE



Short background to the program

The current project arises from the successful implementation of the project: *Agenda Participation 2000 for Free and Fair Elections*. The evaluation of that project spurred the launching of a similar project to enhance the realization of democracy in the country.

Participation 2000 focuses

on informing and educating the citizens of Tanzania. It includes experiences taken from policies of the government and of selected NGO groups, as well as experiences of outstanding public figures, opinion leaders and generally accepted personalities of Tanzanian society.

The underlying concern of the project on a *Code of Conduct for Democratic Culture* is **CONFLICT REDUCTION**.

The focus is on the experience of conflict in the transition to a plural democratic system: conflict between and within political parties, conflict between the state and civil society, gender and social class based conflict, conflict within generations and conflicts between and within religious groups.

Activities

The Agenda Participation



Source: Caricatures & Cartoons, E.A. 1st Exhibition, by G. Mwampembwa, Kenya 1999

2000 on the Code of Conduct for Democratic Culture will be implemented through two mutually reinforcing activities: a set of promotional activities based on the Ten Principles and a Civic Education Program.

The principles

- Participation, Consensus, Transparency, Rule of Law, Human Rights, Truthfulness, Culture of Competition, Civic competence, Integrity, Equal Opportunity.

The public is required to sign a memorandum on Ten Principles for a Democratic Culture to demonstrate their consent, support and commitment to conflict reduction and the realization of a democratic culture.

Major target groups for the promotional activities

- Leaders of political parties

and party activists, potential candidates and their supporters

- Youth leaders, student leaders from selected schools
- Leaders of civil society
- Leaders of academic institutions
- Policy makers, researchers
- Public figures
- Grassroots groups

The Civic Education Program includes:

- Workshops on “Democratic Culture and Conflict Reduction”
- Media initiatives
- Expert hearings
- “Theatre for Democracy”
- Manuals and booklets

The civic education activities promote political and civic awareness on the need for conflict reduction and the realization of a democratic culture. The dissemination of the contents of the civic edu-

cation program is undertaken via a network of groups in order to reach a wider audience. Such a network includes opinion leaders from political parties, trade unions, journalists, religious institutions and other partner NGOs, (women, human rights, youths), on the mainland and on Zanzibar.

NGO framework

The whole program is now coordinated and carried out under the auspices of the newly formed NGO: Agenda Participation 2000. All activities will be conducted in close collaboration with the Friedrich-Ebert Foundation and the Swiss Agency for Development and Co-operation. The management of the NGO is responsible for fundraising, management and implementation of its activities. ■

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE AP 2000 ACTIVITIES

During the year ending September 2002 a number of activities were successfully implemented. These include:

• Production of materials

Two manuals on conflict resolution were produced and distributed:

1. Coping with conflict
2. Conflict in Tanzania

• Training of multipliers

“Training of Trainers” workshops were held in Dar es Salaam, Mwanza and Pemba.

Paralegal training was carried out for units from Morogoro and Tanga.

Democracy clubs on conflict reduction were launched in Pemba and Unguja.

• Erection of billboards

Billboards bearing the Ten Principles of a Code of Conduct were erected: three in Dar es Salaam, one in Zanzibar town and one in Chake Chake, Pemba.

• Student competition

A competition for the best essay on “the principles for a code of conduct for a democratic culture” was organised for secondary school students and the winners will be awarded their prizes at a special ceremony in December.

• Other promotional activities

Besides the above, a number of promotional items were produced and distributed such as t-shirts, car stickers, banners and khangas.

MILESTONES IN THE DEMOCRATISATION PROCESS IN TANZANIA

By Prof. Max Mmuya, University of Dar es Salaam

There have been a number of developments in the democratisation process in the aftermath of the 2000 General Elections. There has been both progress and decline.

THE YEAR 2001

Progress

10 October 2001

Following the impasse after the elections in Zanzibar, CCM and CUF signed a peace accord to end the animosity between their parties. In contrast to the accord of 10 June 1999 that the Commonwealth had brokered, the October peace accord was negotiated by the two parties themselves without an external mediator.

November 2001

Two new political parties received permanent registration certificates during the second week of November. These were CHAUSTA (Chama cha Ustawi Tanzania), led by James Mapalala, the founder and one time Chairman of the Civic United Front (CUF), and Chama cha Demokrasia Makini, led by a professor of mathematics and one time member of the Executive Committee of the National Convention for Constitutional Reform (NCCR-

Mageuzi). This means that Tanzania now has a total of 15 fully registered political parties.

Decline

A Reversal to a de facto One Party System

Following the conclusion of the 2000 elections, there has been a general decline of interest in and for the opposition movement and parties. This has been demonstrated by, among other things, the leaders of the opposition parties abandoning the parties they founded to join the incumbent party. This was naturally followed by massive shifts of their followers from their parties to alternative political parties, especially towards the incumbent party, CCM. Besides this trend, with the exception of five of the more than 115 district and municipal councils, the organs of popular representation at both territorial and district levels are dominated by the incumbent party CCM, a situation that restricts debate in those organs.

The waning of a culture of tolerance and competition: the unauthorised demonstration of 27 January 2001

While CCM and CUF reached a self brokered accord

on 10 October 2001, underlying it was the widely recognised lack of tolerance and culture of competition that had led to conflict between the party in government and the main opposition party in Zanzibar, CUF. The conflict degenerated into a confrontation in an unauthorised rally between the police and CUF followers on 27 January 2002, a confrontation that resulted in at least 23 deaths in Zanzibar and about 2000 Zanzibari exiles in Kenya.

THE YEAR 2002

The year 2002 also saw progress and decline.

Progress

Implementation of the Second Peace Accord (Mwafaka 2)

On the positive side of the scoreboard, after a slow start and surrounded by an initial mood of scepticism as to whether or not the Mwafaka would resolutely be implemented, by October 2002 it was pronounced that 90 per cent of its provisions had been implemented. The most notable ones are:

- the release of CUF members who had been charged on politically motivated counts
- the creation of an independent electoral commis-

sion, through amendments 8 and 9 of the Constitution of Zanzibar

- the appointment of a commission to investigate the events of 26 & 27 January in Unguja and Pemba
- the appointment of a CUF member to the Union Parliament

Alongside this process, the Chama cha Mapinduzi has been running elections for officials of its various branch organs and will conclude in October with the election of

the national chairperson and the two vice-chairpersons who will serve for a five year term until another election is held.

Decline

The public disillusionment with the new parties continued as underlined by the conflicts in the new political parties which often had to do with the legitimacy of their leaderships. One such crisis took place in the United Democratic Party (UDP) and it led to the subsequent non recognition by the Registrar

Political Parties of its founder and chairman, John Momose Cheyo. But more dramatic was the deregistration of two of the very early political parties. These are the Tanzania Peoples' Party (TPP), which was led by Dr Alec Humphrey Che-Mponda, and the Peoples' National Party (PONA), which was founded by the late Wilfred Mwakitwange. The number of formally registered political parties has stabilised at fifteen. ■

SEPARATION OF POWERS: THE CASE OF TANZANIA

By Prof. M. Mmuya, Department of Political Science and Public Administration, University of DSM

Up to 1992, before the introduction of the multiparty democratic system, state power was wholly integrated under the overall control of the political party, Chama cha Mapinduzi. Various regulations, conventions and political decisions influenced the way individual officers of the three branches of state were appointed and discharged from their duties. The President of the United Republic had to be a member of the only party in order to run for president. After his election he went on to form a cabinet from parliamentarians of the only party or his personal appointees. Members of the judiciary as well as civil servants were required to sign a statement of allegiance to the

party leadership code. In sum, under the single party system, there was unification of power under the party. There was no separation of powers.

Following the introduction of the multi-party system, Tanzania is on the way to adopting the principles of separation of powers following the British model.

Firstly, political control of the bureaucratic affairs of government has been removed through the constitutional amendments that provide for the multi-party system. This provision also removes the monopoly the single party had over political processes in the country.

Secondly, the state constitution has separated the three branches of government and

spells out the roles of each one of them as follows: the government's executive powers; the parliament's legislative powers; and the judiciary's adjudicative powers.

Thirdly, under the ongoing Civil and Judiciary Service Review Programmes an attempt is being made to create independent service commissions that will be responsible for the appointment and removal of respective branches of government as the means of developing the autonomy of each branch.

Fourthly, the parliamentary rules and regulations are being amended to give parliament more autonomy from the executive branch and underline its supremacy over other branches of government.

Issues in the principle of separation of powers

Apart from the fact that the entire political system in Tanzania is in a process of change, the direction of that change on the question of the separation of powers will generate the same issues raised above, notably that the executive branch is part of and not separate from parliament. This is

due to the adoption of the English model. For example, cabinet ministers (members of the executive branch) are obtained from parliament.

In addition to that limitation, it is not very likely in the immediate future that the members of the judiciary will have access to privileges that give them protection from government interference as

enjoyed by their English counterparts.

However, as the reform process takes its course, there is every reason to expect that arrangements will be in place whereby power will no longer be monopolised by a single branch or be subjected to undue political influence. ■

DEMOCRATIC CONSOLIDATION IN ZANZIBAR: ONE YEAR AFTER THE MWAFKA

By Dr Mohammed Omar Maundi, Centre for Foreign Relations

Following the controversies of the 1995 and 2000 elections, it is obvious that Zanzibar's democratic transition had started on a shaky foundation. The outcome of both elections was bitterly contested by the major opposition party, the Civic United Front (CUF). During the 1995 elections CUF accused the Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM) of rigging the presidential election. Subsequently, it rejected the official results that gave the CCM incumbent presidential candidate victory with 50.2% of the votes. In the legislative election CCM won 26 out of the 50 seats while CUF got 24 seats.

The rejection of the election results forced CUF to boycott the House of Representatives and refuse to recognize the legitimacy of the gov-

ernment. The relations between CCM and CUF further deteriorated during a legislative by-election in November 1997 when 18 CUF members were arrested and charged with treason following CUF's victory in the by-election. There was hope that the political deadlock would abate when the Commonwealth succeeded in brokering an agreement in June 1999.

The Commonwealth-brokered agreement had proposed the establishment of an Inter-Party Committee (IPC) to work out the modalities of implementing the agreement that, among other things, had provided for constitutional, judicial and electoral laws reforms. When the agreement was signed, CUF's boycott of the House of Representatives was finally called off.

THE 2000 ELECTIONS

The Isles went into their second multi-party elections before the Commonwealth-brokered Agreement was fully implemented. Like the 1995 elections, those of 2000 were not free of controversy. On Election Day, 29 October, sixteen constituencies in Unguja did not vote due to logistical problems. A re-run was arranged for a week later. CUF's position was that it would take part only if the electoral process was repeated in all of the Zanzibar Constituencies and not just in the sixteen constituencies.

It threatened not to recognize the election results if its demands were not met. The Zanzibar Electoral Commission (ZEC) stuck to its guns. The re-run was held only in the sixteen constituencies. When the results were



Signing of the MWAFKA between CCM Secretary General, Mr Philip Mangula and CUF Secretary General, Seif Sharrif Hamad. Photo by Selemani Mpochi

announced, CCM had once more defeated CUF in both the presidential and legislative elections, this time by a big margin.

As expected, and as in 1995, CUF refused to accept the results and to recognize the government. The political impasse reached its climax on 27 January 2001 when CUF decided to demonstrate peacefully in order to press for three principal demands: firstly, a repeat of the whole general elections in Zanzibar; secondly, the re-writing of the Union and Zanzibar constitutions with a wider participation; thirdly, the reconstitution of the Tanzania National Electoral Commission (NEC) and the Zanzibar Electoral Committee (ZEC) in order to make them independent.

The demonstrations turned

violent in Zanzibar and Pemba, resulting in more than twenty deaths and the first crop of Tanzania's political refugees to Kenya.

Efforts towards political reconciliation

The political impasse and the events of January 27 obviously hurt Tanzania's pride and tarnished its image as an island of peace. They threatened the country's political stability and peace. It was on this background that CCM and CUF initiated direct talks in February 2001, aimed at finding a lasting solution to the political crisis. The talks culminated in a reconciliation agreement, the Mwafaka that was officially signed on 10 October 2001 by the two political parties.

The following were some

of the highlights of the reconciliation accord:

- Making changes to the Zanzibar Electoral Commission to ensure that the institution's autonomy is in line with standards applicable in other Commonwealth countries
- Setting up a permanent voters' register and a review of the Zanzibar Constitution and election laws to make them conform to multi-party democracy
- Reforming the state-owned media institutions to end favouritism in their coverage of the activities of political parties
- Reforming the judiciary in Zanzibar to enhance its freedom, professionalism and its dignity in the eyes of the society.

To ensure the earnest implementation of the accord, the

two parties had agreed on the formation of a Joint Presidential Supervisory Committee (JPC). The JPC was to be constituted by an Act of Law. After the implementation of the accord, when an atmosphere of understanding and trust was adequately realized, by-elections would be held in the un-represented constituencies in Zanzibar.

Implementability of the Accord

In the face of the half-hearted implementation of the 1999 accord, some pessimists doubted whether the second accord would be implemented. There were, however, a number of indicators to suggest that the accord would be implemented. The first was that both parties had recognized that the political impasse was a threat to peace and political stability. Secondly, they both recognized that durable peace and political stability could only be guaranteed by sustained efforts to resolve their underlying political differences through peaceful and reconciliatory politics rather than through political violence. Thirdly, the accord was negotiated not only in an atmosphere of confidence, trust and understanding, but it was also negotiated without the assistance of outside intermediaries. Fourthly, unlike the 1999 accord, the current accord had legal backing. Lastly, history was likely to condemn whoever was

responsible for undermining the accord. The fear of condemnation would motivate both parties to play positive roles in implementing the accord.

ONE YEAR AFTER

THE MWAFAKA

Democratic consolidation in Zanzibar depended more on the implementability of the *Mwafaka*. One year since the signing of the *Mwafaka* on 10 October 2001 much ground has been covered in its implementation. Many of the agreed instruments and institutions for its implementation have already been established. These include the establishment of the Joint Presidential Supervisory Commission to oversee the implementation of the *Mwafaka* and the establishment of an independent Commission of Inquiry to investigate the events of 26 and 27 January 2001.

Other steps taken include the release of the CUF members who were accused of treason and the nullification of the cases and accusations against those who were accused in association with the events of 26 and 27 January 2001.

The hallmarks of the steps to implement the *Mwafaka* have been the review of the Zanzibar Constitution and the Electoral Law of 1984 in order to meet the requirements for multi-party democracy. The most important has been the establishment of an

Independent Zanzibar Electoral Commission (ZEC). This is a positive development towards harmonizing the political situation in Zanzibar because the old ZEC was accused of partisanship.

The new Electoral Commission has been welcomed by the major contending parties and endorsed by the majority of the Zanzibaris. Actually, there is an air of optimism now in Zanzibar. The major source of the optimism is the integrity of the individuals appointed to form the new Commission.

The new Electoral Commission is different from the old in that:

- Its members are individuals who command respect in society.
- Three of its members are lawyers.
- It includes two members from the major opposition party, CUF.
- It is supported by all the Stakeholders, particularly the main political parties, CCM and CUF.

The true measure of the independence of the new Electoral Commission is not in the respectability of its members. Neither is it in its national character. Its independence will be measured by its future behaviour and the manner in which it performs its functions. The challenges facing the new commissioners include the following:

- They have to demonstrate

that they are able to organize free and fair elections.

- They have to work without succumbing to political pressure.
- They have to operate in such a way that they can serve the political interests of all the people of Zanzibar instead of serving their own individual political interests.

The first test of the new Commission's credibility will be during the forthcoming by-elections in the 17 vacant constituencies in Pemba in the

first quarter of 2003. Sixteen of the seats became vacant following the expulsion of its CUF members from the House of Representatives for contravening the House regulations including abstaining themselves from the House sessions. The 17th seat belonged to Hon. Ali Mohammed Shein of CCM, who has been nominated to the post of Vice-President following the demise of the late Dr. Omar Juma.

How the Commission is going to supervise the by-elections

will provide indicators for its efficiency, independence and difference from the old Commission. The Herculean test will obviously be the 2005 general elections.

The future of democratic consolidation in Zanzibar lies to a great extent in the hands of the new Electoral Commission. It must draw lessons from the mistakes of the past and chart out a positive course that will put Zanzibar on the track that guarantees democratic consolidation. ■

RESOLVING CONFLICTS IN ZANZIBAR

by Mr Hassan Mitawi, Television Zanzibar

Zanzibar conflicts have historical roots going back to the colonial era which caused racial, ethnic and regional divide.

The Isles underwent a political change from being a Sultanate in 1932 to being a republic in 1964, when the Zanzibar revolution took place.

Before the revolution of 1964, the landed aristocracy was regarded as the first social group promoting the interests of the colonial master; who later protected the landed aristocracy in return.

The situation changed after the 1964 revolution due to a land reform, whereby three acres were distributed to each family in Zanzibar, par-

tially equalizing the haves and the have nots.

The emergence and formation of political parties came after the peasant uprisings, commonly known as Vita vya Ngombe, in 1954. Almost all political parties reflected the political heritage. -The hatred remained.

The Zanzibar Nationalist Party (ZNP) originated from the Arab Association which catered for the interests of the Arabs, while the Afro Shiraz Party reflected the interests of the Africans. Both sides accused one another and called each other names: "Gozi" meaning ASP, and "Hizb" meaning "ZNP". This sort of behaviour continues today between the Chama

Cha Mapinduzi, (CCM), and the Civic United Front, (CUF).

The re-introduction of multi-partyism in Zanzibar does not seem to be changing the mentality of party followers: they still stick to the past political structure, which is influenced by political rivalry between different ethnic groups and party membership.

How can the situation be resolved especially under the growing globalization and the prevailing winds of democratization?

Those who believe in democracy will always find democratic elections to be the solution to crisis as elections

are considered to be the peaceful means of transforming conflicts. Of course elections could play that role but is not at all the only means in developing countries such as in Africa, where elections often end up in post election conflicts. Some losing parties do not accept the results and the winners defend their victory at any cost and by any means.

Zanzibar has been experiencing post election conflicts since the sixties starting with the 1961 general elections, independence, in 1963 and the 1995 and 2000 elections.

Taking the 1995 elections as an example, the opposition claimed that the elections were rigged and decided to boycott the parliament. The elections reflected the unchanged balance of political power since colonial times. There was political division especially between Pemba and Unguja.

While the opposition won all seats in Pemba, the ruling party enjoyed victory in Unguja.

The political situation caused by the election was

intolerable and the first political accord between CCM and CUF was considered to be the solution, but this was in vain.

In spite of the mediating effort of the Commonwealth no compromise was reached. The lack of confidence between the parties, and between the parties and the mediating team, affected the impact of the accord.

The situation became worse when foreign countries and international donor agencies boycotted Zanzibar, hindering the socio-economic development. At the time the Zanzibar government budget of 1998/1999 relied heavily on external donors for about 81% of the total budget. Different people interpreted the decision differently. Some took it as interference in Zanzibar internal affairs.

Solving Zanzibar conflict requires a socio-economic as well as a political process. It needs the long term implementation of a plan of action with the participation of the people concerned, who need to win the trust of their counterparts.

Contrary to the first politi-

cal accord, the second one was established without an external initiator or specialist. It came into existence on the initiative of CCM and CUF.

Unfortunately the second accord recognized the 1995 election as the source of the political crisis in Zanzibar, ignoring the contribution of Zanzibar history. The two parties have agreed to forget the past and work for building a strong democracy thereby stimulating the socio-economic development.

A joint body for the supervision of the implementation of the accord has been established involving five members from each party.

The Zanzibar Electoral Commission, (ZEC), has been reformed according to the demand of the accord, and it will later prepare a permanent voters' register.

While others expect positive results from the implementation of the accord some go further wishing the agreement not only to include the two main political parties in Tanzania, but also the remaining ones, of which there are thirteen. ■

COPING WITH CONFLICT IN TANZANIA

By Prof. Max Mmuya, University of Dar es Salaam

The concept of conflict

Conflict is a situation of confrontation or lack of consensus between two or more sides within an organisation or society. There are two major ways of understanding conflict.

The first is to look at conflict as an evil. More often than not a conflict turns into a confrontation, which in turn leads to destruction, injury or the general rupture of orderliness, peace and stability. An example of such a conflict is the one that took place between ethnic groups in Mara Region resulting in the destruction of property, such as houses and cattle. The conflict in the National Convention for Constitutional Reform (NCCR-Mageuzi) in 1996 resulted in the rupture of the party itself.

The second considers it to be an inherent feature of an organisation or society. This second way of understanding conflict assumes that there are conditions in an organisation or society that generate tension and lack of consensus. Such conditions may include factional or group differences, the growth of an organisation or the adjustment of a goal. An example of one such conflict is taking place in Dar es Salaam and other cities elsewhere. The city of Dar es Salaam is growing very fast as

a result of the annual migration of youths from the rural areas into the city. This puts excessive stress on the city's existing resources and the city officials find it difficult to cope. As a result there are conflicts around the city every day: violence, theft, etc.

The first view of conflict implies that it must be fought against. The second view suggests that men and women must always remain alert to potential cases of conflict by creating mechanisms within an organisation or society that can absolve conflict before it takes place. In other words society must learn how to cope with conflict.

Types of conflict

There are different types of conflict. There are "violent" and "non-violent" conflicts. Violent, sometimes also referred to as confrontational, conflicts manifest themselves in actual physical encounter between groups, very probably resulting in injuries, deaths and destruction of property. On the other hand, non-violent conflict is mild. It can assume mere verbal exchanges and/or go slows and boycotts.

Conflicts can also be "endemic or perennial", "sporadic or occasional". Endemic or perennial conflict is frequent, repetitive or recurring to the extent that it can be

institutionalised. Sporadic or occasional conflict is situational.

Endemic or perennial conflicts are more destructive and take longer to cure than occasional conflicts even when they are not violent. This is because a conflict that has been going on for a long period of time deflects the organisation or society from its objectives. It takes an equally long time, if not longer, to reconstitute the organisation that has had its goals disrupted.

Causes of conflict

Here are some of the causes that have been identified for conflicts in Tanzania:

- *Mistrust amongst the various parties in the conflict - a situation where one party lacks confidence in and may be suspicious of the other side*
- *Stratification - a situation in which there is segmentation in a hierarchical way with those on top looking down upon the others in the hierarchy*
- *Exclusion - a situation in which one person, or a group of people, is excluded from participation in the affairs of the society or organisation*
- *Absence of effective mechanism for resolution of disputes - a situation in which an organisation or society lacks regular and institutionalised procedures for consultations and adjudica-*

tion of cases

- **Misuse of power** – a situation in which those in authority apply the rules wrongly or for the wrong purpose

- **Lack of transparency and accountability** – where decisions are made behind closed doors and the responsible officials are not subject to taking responsibility for wrongs arising

- **Inequality based on gender** – the exclusion from participation and especially access to resources and benefits on the basis of being a woman or man

- **Differences on the basis of ethnicity, (tribal, racial) and/or social class** – people can take on a sense of superiority based on their tribal or racial origin, or their wealth

- **Differences on the basis of religion** – people can be excluded or included on the basis of their religion

- **Scarcity of, competition over, and unequal access to resources** – if there are not enough resources to go around, different individuals will fight one another to gain access to them. Competition is not evil, if it follows the rules prescribed for it. Competition that generates conflict operates outside the rules. It is not open and excludes others from it.

The case of conflict between political parties in Tanzania

The democratisation project in Africa has had varied results. In the case of Tanzania it has led to the emergence of new feeble political parties that are institutionally unsta-

ble, conflict ridden, and intolerant to opposing and competing views from within. The internal organization of the new parties is based on neo-patrimonial relations with a personalised and singular leadership that often enjoys sweeping discretion in decision-making on party matters. Like any neo-patrimonial regime, the leadership formally subscribes to broad democratic attributes, constitutionalism and the rule of law while in practise it employs non/and/or extra-constitutional means to enhance its grip over the party. This provides the seeds of conflict within and between the parties.

There are five types of inter-party conflicts in Tanzania since the reintroduction of competitive multi-party politics in Tanzania in the early 1990s.

The incumbent party and the lead opposition party

Up to 1996 there was conflict between the CCM and the National Convention for Constitutional Reform (NCCR-M). Following the major crisis in the NCCR-M and its demoted leadership position thereafter, the conflict shifted. It is now between the Civic United Front (CUF) as a new lead opposition party and the incumbent party CCM.

The incumbent party against all of the opposition parties

The conflict between the

incumbent party and the entire opposition began in the early 1990s when the CCM fought the demand for constitutional dispensation that would recognize the latter's role in the governing process.

An emerging lead opposition party against a competing lead opposition party

This featured the CUF and NCCR-Mageuzi in the early to mid 1990s. It then featured the CUF and United Democratic Party (UDP) which formed a coalition Shadow Cabinet in the Union Parliament following the 1995 elections. Later it was between CUF and Chama Cha Demokrasia na Maendeleo (Chadema) who decided on collaboration efforts up to the 2000 elections.

The rest of the opposition parties against the lead opposition party

This is a new phenomenon. The rest of the opposition parties went against the CUF under the framework of the 2001 peace accord between the CUF and CCM. This was ostensibly due to the perception by the rest of the opposition parties that CUF had claimed too many of the gains in what was otherwise a common struggle for increased political space.

One group of opposition parties against another group of opposition parties

This has involved the group of parliamentary political parties against the non-

parliamentary political parties over two major issues:

1. How best a new constitution can be achieved, with the non-parliamentary group demanding the prior withdrawal from parliament by the parliamentary political parties as a symbol of the non recognition of the existing constitution.

2. The basis for the public funding of political parties on the basis of party representation (number of seats) in the organs of political representation: Parliament, Councils and House of Representatives.

Strategies and methods for conflict management

Conflict Prevention

To prevent conflict from taking place within or between organisations and societies, the relevant organisations and societies must be built on principles that make it unlikely that conflict will occur.

If an organisation or soci-

ety is founded on the principles of a democratic culture, then the chances of conflict taking place are greatly reduced. These principles are: Participation, Consensus, Openness, Rule of Law, Respect for Human Rights, Truthfulness, Culture of Competition, Civic Competence, Integrity, Equal Opportunity.

Once the principles have been grounded in the foundations of the organisations/society, to prevent conflict from taking place, a system must be put in place whereby the organisation or society monitors its adherence to the principles. Such mechanisms will alert the respective organisation and/or society so that preventive measures can be taken before conflict takes place. Among the strategies for an early warning system are:

- Monitoring of good governance practices
- Human rights monitoring

- Development and protection of the underprivileged and minorities
- Strengthening of multi-ethnic structures
- Sustainable and just socio-economic and political development
- Empowerment of disadvantaged groups
- Creation of conflict management institutions

Conclusion

The most meaningful means of ensuring that a society or organisation is insulated from conflict is to prevent it from taking place. It is recommended that all societies and organisations are grounded in the principles of democracy. These will assure that a sense of inclusion, fairness, equal treatment and respect is accorded to each member of the organisation and of society. ■

NOTES

GOOD GOVERNANCE: DEFINITION AND IMPLICATIONS

By Dr Palamagamba John Kabudi, Faculty of Law, University of Dar es Salaam

Good governance as a concept has steadily entrenched itself in the political and development discourse. It has permeated all sectors and become part of the common shared principles and virtues of different countries in the world. It has attained universality as an indicator of adherence to democracy and rule of law.

There is a danger, however, that good governance has become a catchword and that few bother to consider its implications. Good governance is given a broad definition that encompasses an array of issues in the sociopolitical and economic order of a country.

The United Nations Committee for Development Planning in its report issued in 1992 entitled "Poverty Alleviation and Sustainable Development: Goals in Conflict?" identified the following as being part of the attributes of good governance:

1. Territorial and ethno-cultural representation, mechanisms for conflict resolution and for peaceful regime change and institutional renewal;
2. Checks on executive power, effective and informed legislatures, clear lines of accountability from political leaders

down through the bureaucracy;

3. An open political system of law which encourages an active and vigilant civil society whose interests are represented within accountable government structures and which ensures that public offices are based on law and consent;

4. An impartial system of law, criminal justice and public order which upholds fundamental civil and political rights, protects personal security and provides a context of consistent, transparent rules for transactions that are necessary to modern economic and social development;

5. A professionally competent, capable and honest public service which operates within an accountable, rule governed framework and in which the principles of merit and the public interest are paramount;

6. The capacity to undertake sound fiscal planning, expenditure and economic management and system of financial accountability and evaluation of public-sector activities;

7. Attention not only to central government institutions and processes but also to the attributes and capacities of sub-national and local government authorities and to the issues of political devolu-

tion and administrative decentralisation.

It encompasses a broad agenda that includes effective government policies and administration, respect for the rule of law, protection of human rights and an effective civil society. However, it is imperative to point out that it is not confined only to political and social issues but also includes proper management of the economy as well as transparency and fair competition in business. In this broad definition of good governance sustainable development, especially in relation the utilization of natural resources and environmental management, is also part of it.

Good governance, to be effective and sustainable, must be anchored in a vigorous working democracy which respects the rule of law, a free press, energetic civil society organizations and effective and independent public bodies such as the Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance, Prevention of Corruption Bureau and the Fair Trade Commission. The Commission is important in ensuring the promotion and protection of human rights, but also in ensuring both transparency and accountability on the part of the govern-

ment. Good governance requires transparency and efficiency also in different government agencies.

At the political level democratic practices, including transparency in policy making and administration, are important aspects of good governance. This is signified by a pluralistic political system that allows the existence of diversity in political and ideological opinions. No wonder that good governance is said to be more easily achieved and guaranteed in a multi-party system than in a mono-party system. It also means the holding of regular elections applying the principle of universal franchise. In order to qualify as democratic, elections must be free and fair.

Good governance deals with the nature and limits of state power. The doctrine of the separation of powers is therefore relevant in the establishment of whether or not a country has a political system that is responsive to good governance. The doctrine of the separation of powers is based on the acceptance that there are three main categories of government functions: legislative, executive, and judicial. Corresponding to these are the three main organs of government in a state - the Legislature, the Executive and the Judiciary. The doctrine insists that these three powers and functions of government in a free democracy must be kept separate and exercised by separate organs of the state.

Today the doctrine should be taken to mean checks and balances based on a constitutional scheme. What is important today is not the separation of powers *strictu sensu*, but checks and balances. It is one of the functions of the Parliament to check the Executive. This is done by various means, including the authorisation of the budget, the scrutiny of government expenditure and the questioning of the government in parliament to account for its actions. It is the duty of the Judiciary to protect the constitution by seeing to it that the laws of the country are not contrary to the constitution. The Judiciary stands between the citizens and the state as a balance against executive excesses or abuse of power, the transgression of constitutional or legal limitations by the Executive as well as the Legislature. This is why the Judiciary, as the custodian of the constitution, is empowered to declare an Act of Parliament as unconstitutional and therefore null and void. It also has the power of finding government action to be an infringement of the constitution. This has been brought about by the incorporation of fundamental freedoms and rights of the individual popularly known as the Bill of Rights in the constitution. This has resulted in the Constitution being supreme to the extent that powers of the judiciary extends to examining the validity of even an amend-

ment to the constitution as it has been repeatedly held that no constitutional amendment can be sustained which violates the basic structure of the Constitution. The structure of the constitution includes separation of powers.

Another equally important part of good governance is the promotion and protection of human rights. For this to be effective the rights and freedoms must be enshrined in the Constitution. This covers political and civil rights and they range from the right to life to freedom of expression. The courts of law should be independent to be able to enforce the rights of the individual vis-à-vis the state. The establishment of the Human Rights Commission is commendable and long overdue. However, there is a need to seize the opportunity, despite the inherent problems resulting from the Constitution and the Act, to advance further the protection and promotion of human rights in Tanzania.

Currently the issue of good governance is widely regarded as one of the key ingredients for poverty reduction and sustainable development. It can be achieved in an enabling economic environment responsive to the basic needs of the people. It requires sound economic management and the sustainable use of resources as well as the promotion of economic and social rights. ■

CONCEPTUALISING CONFLICT AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION

By Dr Mohammed Omar Maundi, Centre for Foreign Relations

CONFLICT

A conflict is a dispute between parties on specific issues. It arises from differences in outlook, opinions and values with regard to those specific issues. The issues themselves can be cultural, social, political or economic. They can be at individual, community, national or international level.

CONFLICT PREVENTION

Popularly known as “preventive diplomacy”, this is a combination of efforts and actions directed at containing, managing and resolving disputes before they become violent. The major underlying assumptions are that early intervention, both political and humanitarian, can save lives and avoid disaster; and that if action is taken early enough, human tragedies can be avoided with little cost or risk.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

This is preventing a dispute from erupting into a violence crisis or cooling a crisis that has already turned violent by eliminating, neutralizing or controlling the means of pursuing the conflict with violence. This can be done by denying the parties the means of combat, or by increasing the means of one party in

order to neutralize the others, or by separating the parties in space and time. Conflict management by use of force is referred to as using the “military track”.

CONFLICT RESOLUTION

A conflict is not resolved until its root causes are eliminated. This cannot be done by force. Although force has been used in many conflicts as a means of resolving them, the immediate effect of force has always been to intensify and escalate the conflicts.

The only effective way of resolving conflicts is through dialogue. This is the application of negotiation. Negotiation is a peaceful procedure through which the involved parties in a conflict explicitly try to resolve their conflicting interests. Negotiation can be done directly by the parties themselves (as in the case of CCM and CUF where negotiation led to the *mwafaka* of October 2001), or through a third party or an intermediary (as in the case of the Arusha peace talks on Burundi).

While there are various forms of third party negotiation (such as conciliation and arbitration), the most popular one is mediation. Mediation is actually an assisted negotiation. Often direct negotiations are impossible due to the intensity of the hostilities

between the parties in a conflict. An intermediary or a third party plays the role of a bridge between the conflicting parties to facilitate communication between them.

THE THIRD PARTY AGENTS OR ACTORS

The intermediary role in assisting negotiation between conflicting parties can be played by: states (like Tanzania in the Arusha peace talks on Rwanda); inter-governmental organizations (like the Commonwealth in the peace negotiations between CCM and CUF that led to the first *mwafaka* in 1999); NGOs (like the Mwalimu Nyerere Foundation in the Burundi peace talks in Arusha); and eminent personalities (like Mwalimu Nyerere’s and Nelson Mandela’s facilitation of the Burundi peace talks in Arusha).

THE MOTIVATION OF THIRD PARTIES

Playing a third party role is not a simple thing. It needs a lot of energy, resources, time, patience and endurance. It is a very frustrating assignment indeed. Why then would a state, an inter-governmental organization, an NGO or an eminent person want to play such a role? There are a number of factors that motivate an

intermediary to play that role. Among them are self-interest, moral convictions and humanitarian, strategic, socio-economic and security considerations.

TANZANIA AS AN AGENT OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Since its independence Tanzania has been active as an agent of conflict management and resolution within the Southern African, East African and Great Lakes regions. This is a reflection of the usefulness of the proximity approach in conflict resolution.

The support given to the armed liberation struggles was

indicative of Tanzania's involvement in conflict management through the military track. This was equally true of Tanzania's war with the dictator Idd Amin Dada of Uganda when he invaded Tanzania in the late 70s.

Tanzania's support of the negotiations that finally brought independence to Angola, Zimbabwe, Namibia and ended apartheid in South Africa was indicative of its participation in conflict resolution through the diplomatic track.

Tanzania's most active and effective participation in conflict resolution through the

diplomatic track has been in the resolution of the violent conflicts in Rwanda and Burundi.

Tanzania played a formal intermediary role (Track One Diplomacy) as the facilitator of the Arusha peace negotiations that culminated in a peace agreement for Rwanda in August 1993.

In the Burundi case Tanzania played an informal intermediary role (Track Two Diplomacy) by supporting the former president, the late Mwalimu Julius Nyerere in his efforts in mediating the Arusha peace negotiations for Burundi. ■

NOTES

WOMEN, DEMOCRACY AND POLITICAL LEADERSHIP IN THE 2000 ELECTIONS

By Ms Sherbanu Kassim, Centre for Foreign Relations, Dar es Salaam

Introduction

The importance and necessity of women's participation in decision-making for sustainable development has been echoed in many circles. All the conferences on gender, women and human rights have time and again deliberated on the matter. One of such gatherings was the Beijing 4th World Women Conference which included women's participation in decision-making as one among its 12 areas of concern in the Global Platform for Action (GPA). The GPA pointed out that without women's participation in decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace could not be achieved. Thus it proposed

that the governments should commit themselves to establishing gender balance in governmental bodies and committees.

Under the mono-party system, although women were mobilised under UWT (the then women's wing of the party), the participation of women continued to be minimal in the constituency seats. This prompted the ruling party and the government to set aside affirmative seats in the parliament for women. It was anticipated that this in addition to the possible election of women from constituencies, would increase the number of women in the Parliament.

Categories of Representation

In Tanzania, members of parliament are categorized as follows:

- a) members elected to represent constituencies
 - b) women members not less than 20% of the elected representatives from the constituencies
 - c) 5 members elected from the House of Representative members
 - d) The Attorney General
 - e) 10 nominated Members of Parliament by the President
- The procedure for the election of women Members of Parliament is provided for by s. 26 of Act No. 4 of 1992:
- For the purposes of the election of women Members of

TOTAL NUMBER OF WOMEN CONTESTANTS IN PARTY FOR THE 1995 ELECTIONS

PARTY	WOMEN CONTESTANTS	ELECTED	PARTY	WOMEN CONTESTANTS	ELECTED
UDP	11	-	TLP	5	-
PONA	3	-	TPP	2	0
NCCR-M	9	-	UMD	2	0
TADEA	8	-	CCM	8	7
UPDP	1	-	CHADEMA	5	0
CUF	8	1	NLD	1	-
NRA	4	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	-	-	-	67	8

Source: TEMCO, 2000, p.152; Bunge statistics, 2002

WOMEN CONTESTANTS IN THE CONSTITUENCIES FOR THE UNION PARLIAMENTARY SEATS: 2000 ELECTIONS

PARTY	WOMEN CONTESTANTS	ELECTED	PARTY	WOMEN CONTESTANTS	ELECTED
UDP	9	0	TLP	9	0
PONA	6	0	TPP	3	0
NCCR-M	5	0	UMD	2	0
TADEA	2	0	CCM	13	12
UPDP	6	0	CHADEMA	5	0
CUF	6	0	NLD	4	-
NRA	0	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	-	-	-	70	12

Source: NEC Reports, in The 2000 General Elections in Tanzania, Report of the Tanzania Election Monitoring Committee, TEMCO, p.151.

Parliament mentioned in Article 66(1)(b), political parties which take part in the election shall in accordance with the procedure laid down propose to the Electoral Commission the names of women on the basis of proportional representation among the parties which won elections in constituencies and secured seats in the National Assembly.

In the 1995 Elections 13 political parties participated and a total number of 67 women contestants and the table on page 172 shows the representation by political parties.

In the year 2000 elections the women contestants were from 11 political parties only. This means that the number of political parties that participated is less than in 1995. A total of 70 women were contestants from the constituency

as is reflected in the table above.

It is evident that the number of women candidates from the constituencies decreased in the year 2000 elections. Out of the 70 candidates from different political parties only 12 women from CCM party were elected. However, in the 1995 elections out of 67 women candidates, only 7 were elected - 6 from CCM and 1 from CUF. It is worth noting that of the 16 candidates from CCM who were unopposed in the constituencies, one of them was a woman - (Lulindi Constituency).

The year 2000 results, being those of the second multi-party elections, show the general scenario of the gender dynamics within the electoral process, both within the political parties and the constituencies. Another factor

may be the affirmative seats, which may have affected the results of women contestants in the constituencies. The end result is the maintenance of the status quo i.e. minimal female representation in decision-making.

Another important development was that two women from the opposition party intended to present themselves as presidential candidates, one for the Union Presidency and the other for Zanzibar. Both were disqualified on technicalities.

It is evident that with the increase in the number of special seats for women from 15% to 20%, the number of women parliamentarians has increased from the previous 37 in 1995 to 48. However, the distribution is in accordance with the performance of the party in the parliamentary elections. Thus CCM has 40 special

seats and 7 seats have been distributed to CUF (4), TLP (1), UDP (1) and CHADEMA (1). One seat has yet to be allocated. Thus only 47 women have entered the Parliament through the affirmative seats.

In line with the constitutional provisions, the President can nominate 10 people to be Members of Parliament. After the 2000 elections, the President has appointed 6 members of Parliament so far, i.e. 4 men and 2 women.

Again amongst the 5 representatives from the House of Representatives in the Parliament, 1 is a woman. All these efforts are taken to increase the number of women in the Parliament, yet the composition of the President's appointees also depicts the current status quo of low women representation in decision-making.

Composition of Parliament

The table below provides an illustration of the current state of affairs:

SPECIAL SEATS/AFFIRMATIVE SEATS: 2000 ELECTIONS

PARTY	UNION PARLIAMENT	HOUSE OF REP. ZANZIBAR	TOTAL
CCM	40	6	46
CUF	4	3	7
TLP	1		1
UDP	1		1
NCCR -M			
TPP			
NRA			
CHADEMA	1		1
UMD			
NLP			
UPDP			
PONA			
TADEA			
TOTAL	47	9	56

Source: NEC Reports 2000 in 'The 2000 General Elections in Tanzania, Report of the Tanzania Election Monitoring Committee', TEMCO, p.151, Bunge Statistics, Dodoma, 2002.

PARTY	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
CCM	3	2	5
CUF	1	0	1
TOTAL	4	2	6

Source: Bunge Statistics, Dodoma, 2002 and TEMCO Report

PARTY	NUMBER		TOTAL
	MEN	WOMEN	
CCM	203	55	258
CUF	19	04	23
CHADEMA	04	01	05
TLP	04	01	05
UDP	03	01	04
NCCR	01	00	01
TOTAL	234	62	296

Source: Tanzania National Website, Bunge Statistics, Dodoma, 2002.

THE YOUTH LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAMME (YLTP)

“Good Leaders are made, not born”

Youth is the future of every nation. It is therefore important to enhance the capacity and moral standing of youths so that they become capable and reliable leaders in the future.

The Youth Leadership Training Program I (YLTP) run by the FES and its local partner organizations, was a pilot project aimed at contributing to the building of a cadre of committed and responsible leaders in Tanzania.

The YLTP I was launched in November 2000 and ended in July 2002 with the final examination of the trainees. The 18 months program was made up of 17 regular sessions, which included excursions to the House of Representatives in Zanzibar and to the Secretariat of the East African Community and the International Criminal Tri-

bunal for Rwanda in Arusha.

The program's main objectives were:

- Enhancement of the capacity and moral standing among the youths, so that they become future capable and reliable leaders;
- Contribution to the efforts towards the creation of good governance nationally and within institutions and
- Creation of a network of collaborators among the youths and future leaders from different sectors of society.

To realize those objectives, the program conducted one session monthly. The course was designed to enhance knowledge within a wide range of topics in politics, economics and allied social sciences as well as to train participants in practical skills related to the challenges faced by leaders in contemporary times.

The Trainees

Trainees for the program were drawn from institutions that deal with youth affairs. These include political parties, government ministries and commissions as well as non-governmental organizations. The selection procedure consisted of a written exam, an essay by each applicant and an interview.

The program started with 17 trainees between 21 and 35 years who were nominated by their institutions from both mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar. Female applicants were promoted in order to achieve gender balance and to support and encourage women to become future leaders. Out of those 17 trainees 12 completed the program successfully.

The Trainers

The program was conducted by a core team of trainers from various institutions of higher learning such as the University of Dar es Salaam, the Center for Foreign Relations, the Economic and Social Research Foundation (ESRF) and the Tanzania School of Journalism.

Training Methods

The participatory method whereby trainers initiate the process and the trainees bring input from their own experience on the different subjects was fundamental to the program. Sessions included pre-



YLTP trainees during one of the discussions in the year 2002

sentations by representatives of civil society, the state, and disciplines like economics, political and social sciences. Other methods used during YLTP I were group work, plenary and group discussions, case studies and presentations by the trainees, who were challenged to take part in the sessions in an active and committed way.

This approach was also used for setting up of the curriculum of YLTP I, which was the result of a participatory development process involving the trainers, the FES collaborators, participating organizations and the trainees.

The focus of the program was on three main areas:

- Basic knowledge on a variety of topics: politics, economics, administration, social sciences, human rights, gender, etc. The objective was to establish a common base from which the trainees could move on to address more specific areas.
- Techniques and instruments for effective leadership including computer training and instruments of management and organization.
- Ethics in leadership where personality and behavioral issues fitting of a leader were addressed. Trainees dealt with different leader profiles and had discussions on a code of conduct for a good leader.

In order to improve the program, there was an evaluation at the end of every session both from the side of the trainees and the trainers. It

was also important for the future of the project that there was an ongoing and systematic collection of all lessons learned in the implementation of this first program.

At the end of the program, the trainees were evaluated according to their performance in the final exams (both written and oral) and to the leadership skills that they had put forward during the program and they were given certificates and awards a graduation ceremony in September 2002.

A website on the YLTP has been produced and currently serves to present information on the program, its objectives and its results. The website is also a forum for the trainees to present themselves and to exchange their ideas and experiences.

YLTP II

Since the Youth Leadership Program I proved to be a very successful pilot project, FES in Germany and in Tanzania decided to have a follow up program in 2003, the YLTP II. Though slightly modified regarding the institutional set-up, the curriculum, evaluation procedures and methods of training, the objectives of the program stay the same.

Having taken the findings of the evaluation of YLTP I into consideration, it was decided to change the institutional set-up so that the roles of the different people involved in YLTP are more clearly defined. There will be two main bodies:

- The Working Group consisting of the Resident Director of FES, the coordinator of YLTP and the YLTP secretary.
- The Team of the Trainers, which will include a core team of trainers and guest trainers and tutors. The tutors are four former trainees of YLTP 1 who attained distinctions. The core team will include a political scientist, an economist and experts from other professional fields.

Responsibilities in the administration of the program will be clarified and the filing system improved and systematized. The duration of the program will be reduced from 18 to 12 months.

Regarding the curriculum new topics will be added, such as environment and poverty reduction, and other topics will be extended (more fundamentals in economy and more computer training). Leadership as a concept will be more thoroughly discussed.

The methods of training will be improved by enhancing the utilization of visual support, by including more practical study cases and by developing the trainees' abilities to reflect critically and express themselves.

There will be evaluation guidelines and indicators in order to systematize evaluation procedures and more emphasis will be put on the trainees' own ability to evaluate. YLTP II will gain from the experiences learned during the first program. ■

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Source: Tanzania Information Services, as of 21st November 2002.

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SUMMARY LIST OF FULLY REGISTERED POLITICAL PARTIES IN TANZANIA

Source: Registrar of Political Parties in Tanzania, September 2002

NAME OF POLITICAL PARTY	CERTIFICATE OF FULL REGISTRATION NUMBER AND DATE OF ISSUE	CHAIRMAN	SECRETARY GENERAL	LOCATION/POSTAL ADDRESS OF HEAD OFFICE AND TEL. NUMBER
Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM)	001/92 of 1/7/92	H.E. B.W. Mkapa	Phillip Mangula	Kuu Street Box 50, Dodoma Tel: 2180575
Civic United Front (CUF) Chama Cha Wananchi	002/93 of 21/1/93	Prof. Ibrahim H. Lipumba	Seif Sharif Hamad	Box 3637, Zanzibar Tel: 0744 294 609
Chama Cha Demokrasia na Maendeleo (CHADEMA)	003/93 of 21/1/93	Bob N. Makani	Hon. W.A. Kaborou	Ufipa St., Kinondoni Box 5330, DSM Tel: 2668866
The Union for Multiparty Democracy (UMD)	004/93 of 21/1/93	Salim S. Ally	Hassan Y. Hussein	Itungi St. Magomeni Box 298, DSM Tel: 2170785
National Convention for Construction & Reform (NCCR-M)	005/93 of 21/1/93	James F. Mbatia	Mwaiseje S. Polisyia	Kilosa St., No.2 Ilala Box 72474, DSM Tel: 0744 318812
National League for Democracy (NLD)	006/93 of 21/1/93	Dr. Emanuel J. E. Makaidi	Vacant	Sinza Box 352, DSM
United People's Democratic Party (UPDP)	008/93 of 4/2/93	Fahmi Nassoro Dovutwa	Abdullah Nassoro	Box 3121, Zanzibar
National Reconstruction Alliance (NRA)	009/93 of 8/2/93	Rashid Mtuta	Masoud Ratuu	Bububu St., Tandika Box 45197, DSM Tel: 0744 496724
Tanzania Democratic Alliance Party (TADAEA)	011/93 of 5/4/93	John Dastan Lifa Chipaka	Charles Doto Lubala	Buguruni Malapa Box 482, DSM Tel: 2865244
Tanzania Labour Party (TLP)	012/93 of 24/11/93	A. L. Mrema	Harold Jaffu	Argentina, Manzese Box 7273, DSM Tel: 2443237
United Democratic Party (UDP)	013/94 of 24/3/94	Amani J. Nzugile A. Kwikima	Mussa Hussein	Magomeni, Mkaramo St. Plot 109, Block R Box 12356, DSM
Chama cha Demokrasia Makini (MAKINI)	PJ 2000 No. 00000053	Godfrey Hicheka	Dominick Lyamchai	Kibo Ubungo Box 75636, DSM Tel: 0744 295670
Movement for Justice & Prosperity (CHAUSTA)	PJ 2000 No. 00000053	James K. Mapalala	Joseph D. Mkomagu	Drive-In, Oysterbay Box 5450, DSM Tel: 0741 247266
The Forum for Restoration of Democracy (FORD)	016/02 of 18/1/02	Ramadhani M. Mzee	Gideon A. Mjema	Rufiji St., Kariakoo Box 15587, DSM Tel: 0741 292271
Democratic Party (DP)	00000057 of 7/6/02	Rev. C. Mtikila Bado	Sweetbert Kasala	Shariff Shamba Box 63102, DSM Tel: 0741 430516

MAJOR POLICY CONCERNS OF A SELECTED NUMBER OF POLITICAL PARTIES

Source: Interviews with political leaders of selected parties, September 2002

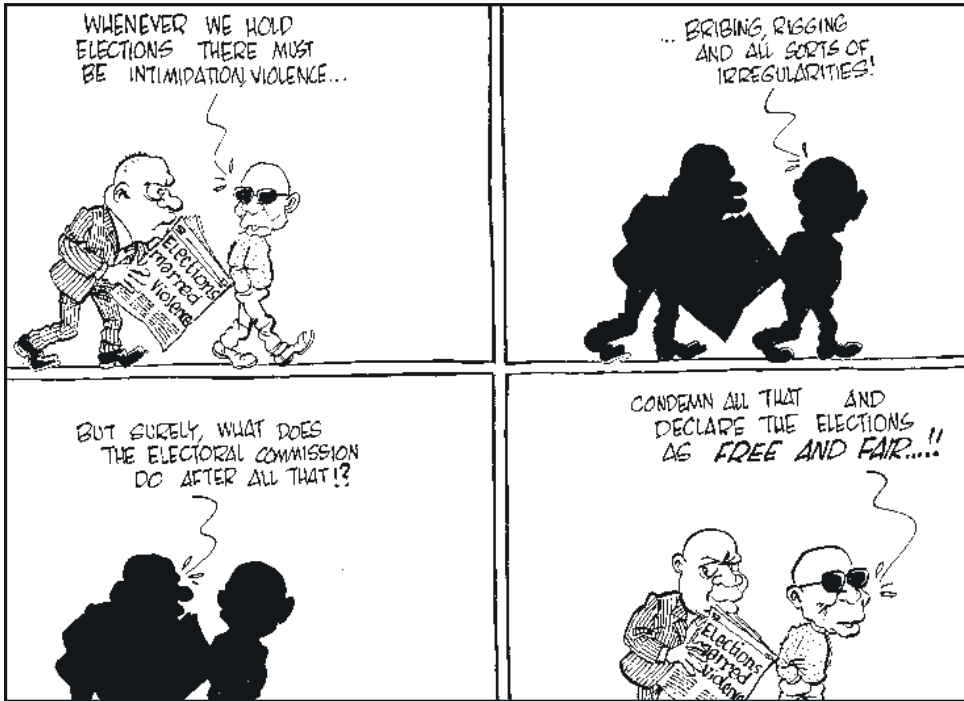
POLICY	CCM	TLP	UDP	CUF	NCCR MAGEUZI
POLITICS 1. The political system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multiparty democratic system • Promote good governance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social democracy • Pluralistic multi-party system • Believes in the rule of law 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People powered democracy • Rule of law is essential 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accountable system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pluralistic multi-party democratic system
2. Ideology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ujamaa and self reliance • At present self-reliance is the main focus 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Labour oriented social democracy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Harmony for all forever • Focus is on personal freedoms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enrichment (UTA)IRISHO) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social democracy
3. Constitution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Amendment of aspects of current constitution to 'fit' prevailing political & economic changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Amend current constitution to be more pluralistic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A new constitution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advocates a constitution that gives citizens freedom of choice & equal rights to the peoples of Tanganyika and Zanzibar 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A new constitution
4. Government System	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Two governments i.e. Union Government of Tanzania and Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A three government system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A federal government with sub-state governments of Tanganyika and Zanzibar 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three governments of Tanganyika, Zanzibar and the Union. • Promote popular local governance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three governments and division of powers: government, parliament and judiciary
ECONOMY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion of economic empowerment to the people • Promote modernization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Private ownership. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion of economic use of natural resources Land to be owned by indigenous people • Encourages investors via liberalized markets • Reduction of government expenditure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Building of strong economy which will benefit all citizens 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Liberal economic system around personal initiatives. • Government to participate where necessary • Promote private sector
1. Privatization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Privatization and investment activities. Investors to build new industries and hotels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Favours indigenous people • Strategic economic ventures to be controlled by the State 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Privatization in line with national interests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indigenisation of the economy • Source funds to promote private indigenous enterprises
3. Cooperatives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reconstruction and regulation of cooperative societies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More economic activities to be carried out under cooperatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peasants should form and own cooperatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Privatized parastatal organizations to be returned to cooperative societies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotion of private cooperative enterprises

POLICY	CCM	TLP	UDP	CUF	NCCR MAGEUZI
3. Land and Agriculture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Land to be owned by the government Farmers to increase production Farmers to form agricultural cooperatives Introduce new technology on the use oxen and tractors Promote agricultural research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effective use of natural resources Search for markets Prices of products should relate to the cost of production Agricultural extension officers to be given training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Land to be owned by the indigenous people and not by the government More animal husbandry and source markets for animal by products Farmers' produce to be paid on the spot 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus on food and cash crops production Use of science and technology in agriculture Government and financial institutions to help farmers/peasants To enhance agricultural research Reduce tax/duties on agricultural products 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Non-citizens to own land in partnership with citizens Indigenous land rights to be enhanced Women to own land Remove all taxes on agricultural inputs
4. Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tourism services to be promoted Attraction to tourists should go hand in hand with environmental care Tanzanians to participate in tourism services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase tourist attraction Prevent illegal activities in fishing and forestry 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote tourist potential aggressively Manage tourism programmes in the national interests 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Develop, publicize and utilize tourism as an economic resource without affecting the cultures and traditions of the citizens 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote the sector by creating more infrastructure External investors to cooperate with indigenous people
5. Taxation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Develop in liaison with stakeholders, preferable tax regimes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Every Tanzanian will pay according to what he earns Remove dypt levy and remain with income tax 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> More tax collected to be used for education, health, water and roads Cancel school fees and health contributions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cancel other taxes like development levy Effective tax collection Local government to search for other sources of tax 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Favorable tax regimes for indigenous businesses Tax education for businessmen & women Lower income tax to investors in primary industries
6. Industry & Commerce	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enhance and promote industrial infrastructure Promote research and development institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for external aid Emphasis on efficient use of aid 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establish more agro-industries Encourage FDIs especially in agriculture 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Commercial competition to be given first priority 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Invite investors - indigenous citizens to be involved in building industries Industrial research institute to be introduced Enhance commerce in and outside the country Establish steel and iron industries by private and state
SOCIAL 1. Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Education will be used creatively through the use of science and technology Budget will focus on increasing partnership with those who can help like the 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Remove corruption in education system Increase educational budget Free education from standard one to form four 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Primary school education free for all Focus on total education to enable school leavers to engage in economic activities effectively 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote education from primary school to university where IT services will be provided Remove unnecessary expenditure by the government 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote science and technology Universal secondary school education 30% of the national budget to finance education To substantially increase the

POLICY	CCM	TLP	UDP	CUF	NCCR MAGEUZI
SOCIAL 1. Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> NGOs Contribution of education costs by parents will continue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Educate parents on the importance of education for their children 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 25% of the budget to be used for education especially in secondary schools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> enrolment of students in secondary schools, colleges and universities Swahili to become the media of learning at all levels Expand vocational training facilities
2. Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote public health paid by private and public agencies Fight AIDS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mother/child health to be spread all over the country Fight AIDS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fight major diseases, eg AIDS, malaria, TB, more aggressively 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Train more health experts Construct and maintain new hospitals, health centres and dispensaries Fight AIDS Emphasis on preventive measures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote health services Establish more pharmaceutical companies Enhance training of specialized personnel Traditional medicines and practices to be promoted
OTHER 1. Women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote progress of women in many ways such as regulation of laws that segregate them Participate in political, administrative systems, leadership and emphasis on being educated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Equal rights for men and women No harassment of women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Avail health promotion programmes for women and children under the age of 7 years free of charge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women are a major part of the society They should be involved in education, agriculture, mining, industry etc 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote rights of women Women to be allowed to establish NGOs Women to represent 20% of leadership, property ownership, senior employment
2. Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maintenance of all infrastructure such as roads, airports, harbors etc 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No privatization of railway, harbors, airports, but will allow partnership with investors Promote infra-structural services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emphasis on infrastructure, particularly roads 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Build and administrate infrastructure especially roads, railways, electricity, water; telephone services Take care of environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Link all regional centres with tarmac roads Develop northern /western road infrastructure Central line rail track to be modified to meet TAZARA standards Encourage private investment in air & water transport

Friedrich Ebert Stiftung (FES) is grateful to the following political leaders who provided the synopsis of their party policies:

Mr Singo Kigaila Benson – UDP
 Mr F. S. Rugaimukamu – CCM
 Mr Mwaiseje Polisy – NCCR-MAGEUZI
 Mr Shaibu Akwilombe – CUF
 Mr Harold Jaffu – TLP



Source: Caricatures & Cartoons, E.A. 1st Exhibition, by G. Mwampembwa, Kenya 1999

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 2000

Total number of people who registered	10,088,484
Number of people who voted	8,517,598 = 84.43%
Votes that were spoiled	345,314 = 4.05%
Legal votes	8,172,284 = 95.95%

PARTY	CANDIDATE	NUMBER OF VOTES	PERCENTAGE
CCM	B. W. Mkapa	5,863,201	71.7
CUF/CHADEMA	Ibrahim Lipumba	1,329,077	16.3
TLP	A. L. Mrema	637,115	7.8
UDP	John M. Cheyo	342,891	4.2

Source: National Electoral Commission, Dar es Salaam, November 2002

ELECTION RESULTS FOR THE UNION PARLIAMENT 2000

PARTY	NUMBER OF SEATS WON	PROPORTION OF WOMEN SEATS	NOMI-NATED	TOTAL
CCM	202	41	10	243
CUF	17	4	-	21
TLP	4	1	-	5
UDP	3	1	-	4
CHADEMA	4	1	-	5
NCCR-M	1		-	1
TOTAL	231	48	10	279

THE ZANZIBAR PRESIDENCY 2000

Total number of people who registered	446,112
Number of people who voted	366,333 = 82.12%
Votes that were spoiled	12,259 = 2.75%
Legal votes	354,074 = 79.37%

PARTY	CANDIDATE	NUMBER OF VOTES	PERCENTAGE
CCM	Amani A. Karume	248,095	67
CUF	Seif Sharrif Hamad	122,000	33

Source: National Electoral Commission, Dar es Salaam, November 2002

- 10 Presidential nominated MPs are not included in the total statistics registered by the National Electoral Commission.
- Opposition parties have 14 constituencies in mainland Tanzania and CUF has 15 constituencies in Zanzibar, making a total of 29 seats.
- CCM has 87.45 % of the Union Parliament seats and the opposition has 12.55 %.
- By-Elections in 17 constituencies in Pemba, May 2003

Source: Report of the National Electoral Commission on the 2000 Presidential, Parliamentary and Councillor Elections

BY-ELECTIONS

SOLWA - 22 APRIL 2001

Registered Voters	51,759
Actual Voters	35,797
Spoilt Votes	1,427

Candidates	Political Party	Votes	%
Mr Buzuka Robert Jacob	CCM	22,254	62.1
Mr Lugeye Shashu Masselle	CUF	12,116	33.8

BUSEGA - 1 APRIL 2001

Registered Voters	47,349
Actual Voters	41,459
Spoilt Votes	903

Candidates	Political Party	Votes	%
Mr Chegeni Rapheal Masunga	CCM	22,512	54.3
Mr Cheyo John Momose	UDP	18,044	43.5

LUDEWA - 6 MAY 2001

Registered voters	26,042
Actual Voters	22,298
Spoilt Votes	210

Candidates	Political Party	Votes	%
Mr Stanley H Kolimba	CCM	16,815	75.4
Mr Aleck H Chemponda	TLP	5,273	23.6

Note: In 2001 the Elections ACT No. 1 of 1985 was amended to allow the nomination of candidates to take place in a period of not less than 24 months and not more than 25 months from the occurrence of the vacancy. Following that amendment Parliamentary by-elections could not be held in 19 constituencies.

Source: National Electoral Commission, November 2002

II. BUSINESS

WHAT IS THE PRIVATE SECTOR?

By Ms G. Sembuche Shayo, Department of Economic Studies, Krvukoni Academy of Social Sciences

Broadly speaking, the economy can be seen as operating within two sectors: the public and the private. The private sector is that part of the economy that is owned by private individuals and private companies while the public sector is government owned.

Whether the economy of a nation should be driven by state run enterprises or by private enterprises in a free market is a question of ideology. The former has been fast losing terrain and recent developments in Tanzania are a case in point.

One of the arguments for private enterprise is that it is thought to be more efficient than public enterprise because it has to be profitable to survive. Costs are therefore kept low and competition with other producers, it is argued, also keeps down prices. Furthermore the struggle for survival is a strong incentive for innovation. All this leads to higher quality products and better services for the consumer.

In a state run economy with state owned enterprises and no free market there is little or no competition. Bankruptcy is not seen as a risk because the national treasury is there to

inject capital when there is a crisis. The result is that there is no struggle for survival. The future of the enterprise and the jobs is secure, so there are few external forces that make efficient production necessary.

The arguments for a strong private sector economy have been winning the day throughout the world and this is also the case in Tanzania. They have been strongly promoted by The World Bank and market-friendly government interventions have been made a condition in the granting of World Bank loans. The ideology seems to be that the free market is neutral with regard to the welfare of the people: it neither works for good nor for evil.

A regulated private sector

In fact unregulated markets can both be inefficient and cruel. So under what conditions can markets work efficiently and at the same time benefit the people?

There are several ways:

- The government should provide the legal framework and maintain law and order, including the enforcement of contracts, property rights etc.
- The government should pursue macro-economic policies

which respect exchange rates, wage rates, trade policy, employment policy etc.

- The government must safeguard competition through anti-monopoly and anti-restrictive practices legislation, the setting up of competitive enterprises in the public sector, trade liberalisation, etc.

- The government can intervene in processes of price formation, production and finance in ways that make markets work better for all.

- The government has a special role to play in
 - developing human resources
 - improving the national infrastructure
 - designing and strengthening institutions (e.g. land reform, credit support etc.)

President Benjamin Mkapa of Tanzania puts it this way:

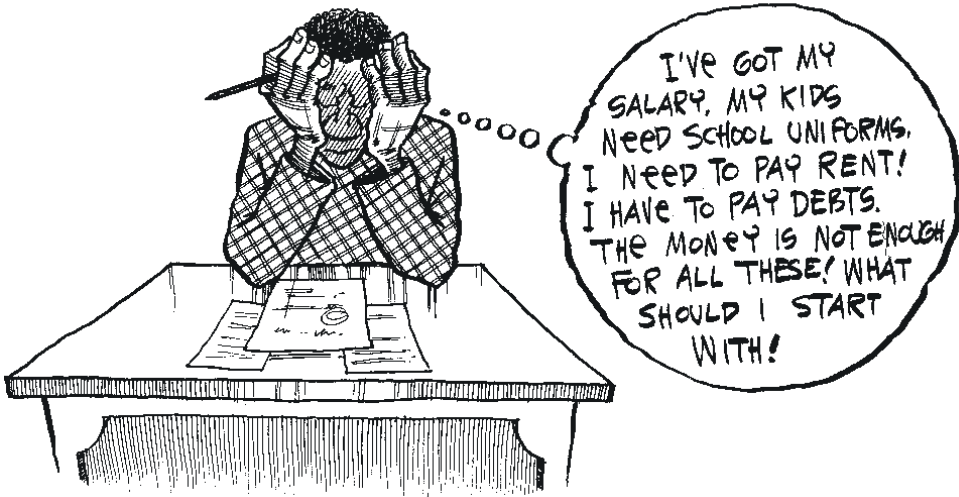
“Government has withdrawn from business. The tax system has been simplified and strengthened, public spending reorganised, inflation lowered and the exchange rate stabilized...”

Privatisation is a powerful form of partnership. It makes governments free to govern and managers free to manage. Our goal to which we are

Tanzania the most investor-friendly country in Africa. ...”

The Tanzanian Government is in the process of cre-

ating an environment where the private sector and the market can operate efficiently for the benefit of the people. ■



Source: Hakikazi Catalyst, cartoon by Ali MAsoud (Kipanya) 2001

EDUCATION AND THE DEMANDS OF THE MARKET

By Mr J.R. Kashaija, College of Business Studies, Dar es Salaam

The provision of education in Tanzania is emerging from an era of total government dominance to one where the private sector plays an active role and costs are shared by the beneficiaries. For political and economic reasons the government has abandoned its long practice of guaranteeing employment to secondary and tertiary institution graduates, leaving them to rely on market forces.

The education provided has two major weaknesses: it has limited relevance to the

demands of the labour market; its effectiveness is limited because of poor funding and poor facilities.

Chief characteristics

Much of the curriculum is modelled on conventional education programmes inherited from the British system. Education has been provided for its own sake and the output and quality has been left to the whims of the providers. There has been no coordination with the private and public sectors except in connec-

tion with examinations and certificates where there are bodies for particular trades and professions.

The inadequacies of the system is demonstrated by the fact that several organisations have set up their own institutions to train people. There are institutes in the power, cement, sugar and bank sectors, to name but a few. This shortfall has since been acknowledged by the Government and in 1999 a policy document was drawn up to make higher education

responsive to the needs of the new liberalised economy and to global developments in science and technology.

Adjustments in the wake of new challenges

To make training for the private sector more effective the government has introduced cost sharing in training institutions and has encouraged private sector participation in the provision of education.

According to the National Higher Education Policy of 1999 the government is to coordinate higher education and improve the enrolment ratio for subjects with relevance to science and technology.

Noteworthy in the endeavour to develop partnership between the private sector and training institutions is the establishment of the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). VETA was set up in 1994 after a consultative process that brought together the government, the business community, vocational education providers and other stakeholders to develop a demand driven vocational training system. By law the business sector, NGOs, trade unions and other stakeholders must be represented on the central and regional VETA boards. Employers with a workforce of four or more must contribute to a special

fund that supports vocational training education.

The College of Business (CBE) in Dar es Salaam hosts the Centre for International Business Development Studies (CIBDS) which offers training and consultancy services to local business people to improve their skills in export trading and the penetration of markets.

Colleges offering business subjects are reforming their curricula to better address the needs of business. Education now focuses more on marketing than on simple trading and distribution. All major institutions offer evening classes to assist business people improve their skills. ■

NOTES

12. ENVIRONMENT

THE ENVIRONMENT: SOME KEY ISSUES, INSTITUTIONS AND REGULATIONS IN TANZANIA

The Tanzanian environmental policy was formalized in December 1997 by the Vice-President's Office. In 1999 a process was initiated to develop and finalise legally binding guidelines and the framework for Environmental Impact and Assessment in the country. When these guidelines become legally binding, as is expected by the end of 2001, they will form the pillar for environmental management in the country.

Environmental Impact Assessment

One of the most effective policy instruments for the achievement of sustainable development is the requirement that environmental impact assessment (EIA) shall be undertaken for all proposed activities that are likely to have significant adverse impact on the environment and which are subject to a decision of a competent national authority.¹ The National Environmental Action Plan perceives the objective of EIA as "allowing maximisation of long-term benefits of development while maintaining the natural resource base."² However, the objectives of EIA are broader as they seek to protect the

environment in the wider sense, and not just the natural resources. Thus, an activity which would raise noise levels near a hospital or school or which can affect the human-made environment such as archaeological sites, historic towns, monuments and artifacts or relics, may also be subjected to environmental impact assessment. Such assessment forms the basis for the refusal of permission to undertake a particular activity or the granting of permission with conditions necessary to minimise the effect on the environment.

Key Environmental Issues

When the word "environment" is mentioned, often a vision of farmers planting trees comes to mind. However, "environment" has a broader meaning. It encompasses such diverse issues as worker health and safety in factories and appropriate uses of pesticides and export of live animals. Environment should be viewed as the whole of the natural and the human environment. What follows is a look at key environmental issues in important sectors of the Tanzanian economy, at institutions that are responsible for overseeing them and

laws relating to the environment.

Agriculture and Livestock *Key issues*³

- Poor agricultural techniques (failure to conserve soil and water) such as cultivation in marginal and sensitive areas like hillsides, hilltops, riverbanks, roadsides, deserts, wetlands, etc.
- Large-scale farming, employing irrigation, fertilization and fumigation techniques that are environmentally unfriendly
- Small-scale farms that overuse pesticides, herbicides, fungicides and fertilizers
- Livestock ranching impacts on land fertility from over-stocking
- Urban agriculture with improper disposal of animal wastes, over-grazing of public areas, etc.

Institutions

National Land Use Planning Commission
Local Governments
Ministry of Agriculture
Ministry of Water, Energy and Minerals
Tropical Pesticides Research Institute
Director of Public Prosecutions
Ministry of Lands
Ngorongoro Conservation

Area Authority
Laws and Subsidiary Legislation
 Local Government (District Authorities) Act
 Tropical Pesticides Research Institute Act
 Town and Country Planning Ordinance
 National Land Use Planning Commission Act
 Water Laws
 Penal Code
 Range Development Management Act
 Cattle Grazing Ordinance
 Grass Fires Control Ordinance
 Land Ordinance
 Ngorongoro Conservation Area Ordinance

**Forestry and Marine/
 Fisheries Resources**

Key issues
 Forests sector
 1. Over or mis-exploitation of forests resulting in:
 • degradation of water sources with impacts on human health, wildlife and fisheries, water supply to towns, etc.
 • degradation of wildlife habitat
 • depletion of fuel wood and other forest produce supplies with resulting consequences for rural, wood-dependent Tanzanians
 • effects of global warming
 • loss of biodiversity
 2. Over or mis-exploitation of fisheries and marine resources resulting in:
 • loss of fish and fisheries products for fisheries-dependent Tanzanians
 • loss of biodiversity

• loss of critical coral reef habitat and shoreline protection
 • water pollution with impact on human health and the environment
Institutions
 Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources
 Divisions of Forestry, Fisheries and Wildlife
 Ministry of Lands District or Local Government
 Ministry of Energy and Minerals
 Tropical Pesticides Research Institute
 Ministry of Foreign Affairs
 Director of Public Prosecutions
 Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority
 TANAPA
 Ministry of Water
Laws and Subsidiary Legislation
 Forests Ordinance
 National Parks Ordinance
 Ngorongoro Conservation Area Ordinance
 Wildlife Conservation Act
 Protected Places and Areas Act
 Public Land (Preserved Areas) Ordinance
 Local Government Acts
 Mining Act
 Land Ordinance
 Fisheries Act
 Business Licensing Act
 Explosives Act
 Tropical Pesticides Research Institute Act
 Penal Code
 Territorial Sea and Exclusive Economic Zone Act
 Town and Country Planning

Ordinance
 Water Laws

Wildlife Utilization

Key issues
 • Over-hunting and non-sustainable hunting methods not based on reliable data regarding reproduction or over-all survival of species
 • Over-capture and non-sustainable capture of live animals for export
 • Poor export conditions in holding companies or with intermediate traders
 • Illegal hunting
Institutions
 Tanzania Wildlife Corporation (TAWICO)
 Ministry of Tourism, Natural Resources and Environment, Division of Wildlife
 TANAPA
 Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority
Laws and Subsidiary Legislation
 Wildlife Conservation Act
 National Parks Ordinance
 Ngorongoro Conservation Area Ordinance
 Marine Parks Act

Industry

Key issues
 • Water pollution from industrial processes
 • Hazardous and toxic waste from industrial processes
 • Land degradation and pollution from industrial processes
 • Waste by-products from use of industrial products
Institutions
 Commercial Law, Registration and Industrial

Licensing Department,
 Ministry of Trade and
 Industries
 Tropical Pesticides
 Research Institute
 Ministry of Water,
 Energy and Minerals
 Tanzania Bureau of
 Standards
 Local Governments (District
 and Municipal Authorities)
 National Urban
 Water Authority
 Investment Promotion Centre,
 President's Office
 Factories Inspectorate,
 Ministry of Labour
 Principal Water Officer
 or Regional Water Engineer
 Pharmacy Board
 National Land Use Planning
 Commission
 Director of Public
 Prosecutions
 National Food Control
 Commission
 Dairy Board
*Laws and Subsidiary
 Legislation*
 Local Government (District
 and Urban Authorities) Acts
 Town and Country Planning
 Ordinance
 National Land Use Planning
 Commission Act
 Water Utilization
 (Control and Regulation) Act
 Waterworks Ordinance
 National Urban Water
 Supply Act
 Public Health (Sewerage and
 Drainage) Ordinance
 National Industries (Licensing
 and Registration) Act
 Protection from Radiation
 Act
 Explosives Act
 Tanzania Bureau of Stan-

dards Act
 Factories Ordinance
 Investment Promotion Act
 Pharmaceuticals and Poisons
 Act
 Tropical Pesticides Research
 Institute Act
 Penal Code (offensive trades,
 fouling of water and air, pre-
 vention of common nuisance,
 negligent spreading of dis-
 ease)
 Fair Trade Practices Act
 Land Ordinance
 Food Control of Quality Act
 Dairy Industry Act
 Petroleum Conservation Act
 (For detailed information about other sec-
 tors and about the laws and legal require-
 ments, see: Environmental Law Hand-
 book for Businesses, LEAT Publications:
www.lead.or.tz.)

Public Participation

Recognition that public participation is necessary for any environmental protection strategy to succeed is increasing. Both the Rio Declaration¹ and the Tanzanian National Environmental Action Plan⁵ admit that environmental issues are best handled with the participation of all citizens.

Public participation in government decision making pertaining to environment requires access by the people to all relevant information and the institution of a process of notification on proposed activities, option to comment, representation in the relevant decision making bodies, and effective access to judicial bodies as well as administrative disputes settlement bodies.

The National Environmental Management Council has a library open to the public Monday - Friday 8.00-16.00. Tel. 022 - 2127817, e-mail: nemc@nemctz.org

NGOs dealing with environmental issues

Lawyers Environment
 Association of
 Tanzania (LEAT)
 Journalist Environment
 Association of Tanzania
 (JET)
 Wildlife Conservation
 Society (TWCS)
 Frontiers (T) Ltd.
 WWF Tanzania
 INFORBRIDGE
 Capacity Building for
 Environmental Management
 of Lake Victoria
 Tanzania Gender Network
 Programme (TGNP)
 Jane Goodall Institute
 (JGI - TACARE)
 Tanzania Women in
 Agriculture and Environment
 4H Clubs of Tanga
 Leadership for Environment
 and Development (T)
 (LEAD)
 Abantu Film (Environment)
 Producers

Sources:

Article by Anne Maembe, National Environmental Management Council in FES Handbook 2001;
 Environmental Law Handbook for Businesses, LEAT Publications

1 See Principle 17 of the Rio Declaration
 2 NEAP, p. 3, para 8(a).

3 From National Conservation Strategy for Sustainable Development, GoT, 1995, and National Environmental Action Plan, GoT, 1994.

4 Rio Declaration on Environment and Development.

5 See paragraph 8(3), relevant level.

THE CONSEQUENCES OF URBANISATION

Adapted from an article by Ms P. Okeyo, Kinondoni Municipality

The migration of people from the rural to urban areas is a global phenomenon. In ideal circumstances authorities can cope with urban growth by good planning and the stringent administration of good environmental legislation. In reality this, however, is rarely the case.

In Tanzania urban areas are growing very fast. The estimated total population growth rate for 2001 is 2.61%¹. The growth rate of the urban population was 5.1% in 1998-1999.² In 2000 the urban population was 32.9% of the total population which is estimated to be 33.7 million.³

In urban areas various stakeholders compete for land. Land is needed for a multitude of purposes: housing, industry, commerce, institutions, social activities, recreational activities, infrastructure, services, to name some of them. Available urban land is becoming scarce and this is leading to chaotic development with land speculation and the illegal occupation of marginal and ecologically fragile land. The result is further environmental degradation which in turn aggravates the unhealthy living conditions of economically vulnerable groups.

In Mwanza city, for exam-

ple, illegal settlements have been put up in hazardous areas where rock and landslides are regular occurrences. In Dar es Salaam, in the Msimbazi valley and keko, there have been massive encroachments by settlers on the river valleys, the river catchments area, the springs and forest area. There are no provisions for liquid and solid waste disposal in these areas and the untreated waste pollutes the very environment that the settlements are built on, which in turn makes them even more unhealthy and dangerous to live in.

Waste management

Waste management is a priority issue for all Tanzanian municipalities whether the waste is from legal or illegal sources. In principle it is the local authorities that are responsible for its disposal. The Local Government Urban Authorities Act of 1982 states that it is the responsibility of urban authorities "to remove refuse and filth from public or private places".

In practice most residents discharge their waste onto the streets, open spaces and into the drains. The city of Dar es Salaam has been confronted with growing volumes of solid waste for many years without

having adequate provisions for its collection and final treatment. The City Council By-laws of 1993 allow for the privatization of the refuse collection service and today there are a number of contractors who clean and collect waste in various areas of the city in collaboration with the municipal councils.

Kinondoni Municipality is estimated to generate 1000 tons of solid waste per day, while the average for Temeke Municipality is 500-600 tons. Only about 30% of the total amount generated in Dar es Salaam is collected and disposed of at an approved refuse dump. In Kinondoni Municipality it was only 12.5% in 2000!⁴ ■

1 CIA - The World Factbook - Tanzania: www.odci.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/tz.html, Dec. 2001

2 The World Bank Group. Compare this rate with the rate for all developing countries which is 2.6% in same period.

3 The World Bank Group: World Development Indicators database, July 2001

4 Source: Kinondoni MWMO-November 2001, Temeke MWMO-November 2001

Source: Kinondoni MWMO-November 2001, Temeke MWMO-November 2001

5 In tons

ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION IN TEACHING SCIENCE

Dr C. J. Sawio, Department of Geography, University of Dar es Salaam

Why bother about Environmental Education?

Environmental Education (EE) is now recognized in the Tanzanian school system. But why should we bother about EE? The reasons are numerous.

- It is a response to new developments in science, technology and communication.
- There is a need to increase the understanding of environmental issues and the risks resulting from misuse of the environment.
- There is an increasing global emphasis on teaching about the care of natural resources and environmental conservation practices.
- There is a need to educate Tanzanians about ecological, social, commercial and economic importance of sound environmental resource use.
- There is a need to impart to all children at all levels of learning, basic environmental knowledge for them to use as stewards of the planet earth.
- There is a need to solve development problems effectively through applied EE.

Concept of Environmental Education

“Environmental Education (EE) is a process aimed at developing a population that is aware of, and concerned about the total environment and its associated problems, and which has the knowledge, skills, motivation and commitment to work individually and collectively toward solutions of current problems and the prevention of new ones” (Belgrade/ Tbilisi).

Incorporation of EE in School Curricula

World educational systems have acted differently in incorporating EE in their school curricula. EE can be about learning to understand the environment and developing attitudes (Osaki, 1999).

There are three spheres of environmental education:

- (a) Formal, designed for a specific target group with definite purposes and executed through the formal education system
- (b) Non-formal, designed for specific target groups with definite purposes but executed outside the formal educational system through extension services, NGOs and CBOs programs and religious activities
- (c) Informal, usually acquired through advertising, the media, conversations, friends, peer groups, traditional indigenous knowledge experiences and personal observations.

The Teaching of EE in Tanzania

EE is now an essential component incorporated in primary, secondary and tertiary curricula in Tanzania. After a serious review during 1996-97, the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) overhauled the syllabi at all levels: pre-primary, primary, secondary (O & A Levels), Teacher Training Colleges and Vocational Training and ensured that EE was incorporated. Today several courses and training seminars and workshops are carried out among educators to exchange knowledge and experiences in EE within the formal education sector. EE is being implemented as a multidisciplinary (Fig. 1) subject.

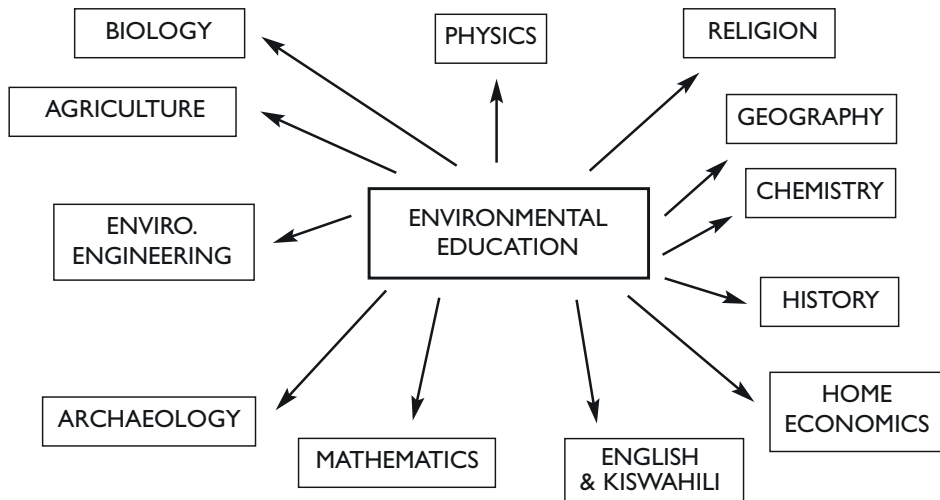


Fig. 1: The Multidisciplinary Approach in EE

(Adapted from Mwinuka, S.M, 1999)

Subjects such as chemistry, biology and physics have been incorporated to form a “unified science”. History, geography and civics now include EE. The 1995 Education and Training Policy (ETP, 1995) stipulates that EE must be incorporated into the science syllabi, the goal being to enable the rational use, management and conservation of our environment.

Teaching EE in Science in Tanzania

The teaching of EE in Science in Tanzania takes place from primary school level through secondary to the tertiary level. Here we will look at EE components in science at the primary level, (Standards V to VII) and at the secondary, (O-level (Forms I-IV) and A-level (Forms V-VI)) with emphasis on geography. For the teaching of science in primary school, St. V-VII, see Table 1.

TABLE 1: SELECTED EE COMPONENTS IN THE PRIMARY SCIENCE SYLLABUS (1996)

STD	EE TOPIC	OBJECTIVE: PUPILS SHOULD BE ABLE TO:	THE TEACHER SHOULD GUIDE PUPILS TO:
V	Our environment: Balance of nature Changes in living things	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain how living things depend on the environment • Relate changes in living things to the environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discuss how living things depend on the environment • Discuss the reasons for adaptation in plants
VI	Appropriate living environment Environmental conservation e.g. water land forests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain qualities of a good place to build a house • Explain how sources of water are conserved; how to conserve fertility of land, and how to conserve plants and forests at school and in the community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discuss qualities of a place, the school, qualities of a good house that promotes health and safety • Discuss how sources of water can be conserved • Use of modern agriculture methods which conserve soil fertility • Practise conserving plants and forests at school and in the community
VII	Our environment: natural resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain changes taking place with regard to natural resources • Describe positive and negative changes in natural resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arrange a study tour for pupils to observe and find out the effects of environmental degradation by human beings, animals and natural forests • Discuss positive and negative changes in those areas and suggest remedies

The EE components shown above in the primary science syllabus set teachers the task of studying their school and community environments and selecting creatively practical examples for demonstration in their lessons with regard to EE. Local communities also contribute in substantial ways as evidenced in the following section.

Support from Local Communities: Example of ABCP:

Individuals and local communities support the teaching of EE at primary school level. One good example is the *African Blackwood Conservation Project (ABCP)*, established in 1996 by James Harris, a woodworker from Texas USA, and Sebastian Chuwa, a botanist from Kibosho, Moshi, Tanzania. The aim of the project is to replenish the population of the African Blackwood (*mpingo*). *Mpingo* is extensively used in carving, instrument making and the woodworking trades. Because it is such a precious tree and seems to have been harvested almost to extinction, the project aims at conserving the wood, and multiplying it by creating many tree nurseries to produce seedlings for local communities and schools.

Mr Sebastian Chuwa has worked hard with local leaders, teachers and government officials in Kilimanjaro, Tanga and Arusha Regions to build up a network of EE community support. He has held in training sessions to instruct teachers to include conservation studies in their curriculum. Mr Chuwa's strategy is very inspiring. He has used his knowledge and influence to inspire thousands of children and adults to take initiatives to protect the delicate resources of Tanzania. How has he done it?

- Since 1996 he has organized government officials to hold World Environment Day celebrations in village areas.
- He has encouraged people to plant trees and care for the environment
- He organizes grass-root conservation efforts with local gardeners by getting them to volunteer space to grow and tend mpingo seedlings
- He has founded 48 conservation groups called Malihai (Wealth Alive) Clubs in school areas. These clubs average 300 members a piece and each has a tree nursery where various native trees are nurtured. The clubs have a dual function: they are sports clubs as well as conservation clubs.
- Mr Chuwa's primary focus is on children and their environmental conservation education. The individual and local enthusiasm he has planted has produced an example of a lively and promising EE at the primary school level.

Environment Education in Secondary Schools (O-Level).

Environmental Education components have been incorporated into science subjects in secondary schools at ordinary and advanced levels. We present here selected EE contents in science subjects, i.e. physics, chemistry, mathematics, biology and also in geography and agriculture (Table 2):

TABLE 2: EE SELECTED RELATED COMPONENTS TAUGHT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FORMS 1-1V.

SUBJECT	TOPIC / THEME	EE RELATED COMPONENTS
Physics	Energy and Power	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Natural sources of energy from waves, wind, water, solar, biogas and geysers• Promotion of renewable energy• Law of energy conservation from rural energy sources• Use efficient and inefficient energy stoves: energy waste and conservation
	Frequency, wave & motion	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Alternative sources of energy• Energy crisis and dam construction• Concept of noise pollution

SUBJECT	TOPIC / THEME	EE RELATED COMPONENTS
	Degrading Environment Heat & Thermodynamics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effect of noise pollution and control • Pollution, radiation, dynamites users (stone blasting) warfare and discarded machinery • Concept of radiation and environmental spectra • Ozone layer depletion & effects • Global warming & greenhouse effects with examples from Tanzania
Chemistry	Soil Chemistry Pollution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Origin, composition, acidity, alkalinity, trace elements • Pollutants of soil (industrial and nuclear waste, smog, dust, and oil spill on soil, acidification of soil, use of fertilizer pesticides, insecticides & fungicides) • Acid rain, global warming, green house effect, air pollution
Biology	Energy flow and nutrient Circulation in ecosystems Population growth & control Natural Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concept of food contamination, food webs/ chains; national parks, lake reserves and biomass consumption • Irreversibility of food chains • Loss of biodiversity • Habitat niche (national parks, lakes, marine parks) • Impact of pollution • The halophytes, xerophytes, environmental quantity, growth & distribution and extinction of plants due to use of irrigation and chemicals • Aquatic, forest and wildlife resources • Differences between living and non-living things • Extinction of plants and animals (poaching and environmental degradation)
Maths	Handling data, ratios, function of numbers and interpretation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resources as linked to population • Loss of bio-diversity and what it means over time to the environment

Maths		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explanations and predictions of what is taking place now on the environment • Interpreting environmental statistics • Learning how to solve problems using environmental examples • Estimating environmental projections and probabilities in various events
Geography	<p>The Atmosphere</p> <p>Economic activities</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The damage of the atmospheric quality - air pollution, acid rain, global warming and green house effects • Destruction of the ozone layer • Their impacts on the environment (degradation, pollution, loss of biological diversity etc) • Use of solar energy and conservation of the environment • Conserving underground water sources; understanding sources of water pollution, their effects and ways recycling waster waters • Forests and problems of exploitation of forest resources and solutions • Effects of mining on the environment • Industrial pollution etc

The foregoing shows the efforts that have been made to incorporate Environmental Education themes in the formal science syllabus in secondary schools. The teaching methodologies vary considerably. They encompass: discussions, experiments, field trips/tours and projects. All, however, capitalize on certain environmental issues. Teachers use practical examples to deliver EE messages.

N.B. Further source of information is the Vice-President's Office - Minister of State, Hon. Arcado Ntagazwa (MP).

Environmental Education in A-Level: The Case of Geography

EE components in the geography syllabus at A-level are incorporated in numerous areas. In Table 3 we only highlight a few that bring the EE message up-front.

TABLE 3: SELECTED EE COMPONENTS IN A-LEVEL GEOGRAPHY

FORM V	TOPIC / THEME	EE COMPONENTS
	External geomorphic and earth shaping processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weathering and erosion • Types of weathering and erosion, factors for erosion human activities • Agents of erosion and other processes e.g. running water, wind, ice, wave, human beings • Involved processes: e.g. mass wasting, river action, wind action, wave action etc. • Significance of erosion for human beings
	Fieldwork, surveying and mapping of environmental processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actual conducting of fieldwork to understand environmental resources: soil, water, forests, etc. • Using scientific instruments to carry out surveys and identify and map spatial environmental phenomena • Using maps and aerial photos to identify and describe environmental processes and resources as well as human activities on landscapes and environments
FORM VI	Water masses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Features of surface and ground water • Drainage basins and their development and use by human beings and their impacts • Marine and coastal processes: coral reefs and the formation, and exploitation by humans. • Water pollution & water conservation practices
	Soils	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nature and formation of soils, constituents and factors leading to soil formation • Soil profiles as studied in the field, soil classification • Soil fertility • Soil degradation • Soil conservation processes/ practices
	Environmental conservation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification of common environmental problems facing different countries in the world • Specific attention to: deforestation, desertification, global warming, greenhouse effect, acid rain and global climatic change • Water pollution, air and soil pollution and abatement strategies • World illegal trade in fish and wildlife, etc.

As at O-level, the inclusion of EE components in A-level subjects as discussed here in geography aims at demonstrating the impact of human beings on nature, the consequences and what should be done to redress any negative impacts that threaten the sustainable use of natural resources.

Environmental Education in Other Higher Learning Institutions

EE is inculcated in Teacher Training Institutions, Vocational Training Centres and in Higher Institutions of Learning including Colleges and Universities. Although there are few university level EE programmes, nonetheless EE has been introduced in the University of Dar es Salaam in the MSc in Environmental Studies in the Faculty of Science. It is featured in the Department of Geography, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences full time GEM, MA (Geography and Environmental Management, Masters of Arts) programme. EE is offered through Civil Engineering in the School of Engineering and the Built Environment. In the Faculty of Science much of Environmental Physics is incorporated in its courses. The University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UCLAS) features components of EE in its courses in the Faculty of Lands and Environmental Engineering especially in the Department of Environmental Engineering. The Open University of Tanzania (OUT) offers an undergraduate course in EE. Most of the materials have been modified from those inherited from the University of Nairobi.

Conclusion

Environmental Education in Tanzania has been incorporated into the national syllabi at primary, secondary and the tertiary levels. EE is not an independent subject. Themes or topics of environmental education significance are integrated and taught practically where teachers and learners carry out various activities. There is observation, recording and experimenting and discussions. It is encouraging to observe that there is a greater degree of awareness now on developing skills and strategies for inculcating environmental education in the entire Tanzania school system.

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13. USEFUL TOOLS

HOLDING A WORKSHOP, SEMINAR OR CONFERENCE

Planning and Budgeting

1. Develop the idea

Identify:

- The main objectives
 - The target group
 - The intended outcome
- Write the outline.

2. Develop the program

Decide:

- Which topics
- The time frame
- The organisational style (conference, lectures, working groups)
- How much time is needed for the various elements, not forgetting recreation
- Who will act as resource persons
- Whether or not to seek media coverage of the event

Try to involve participants in developing the program.

3. Calculate the budget

- Preparatory meetings
- Hall charges
- Catering
- Refreshments during sessions
- Accommodation
- Travel
- Stationery
- Secretariat/organising team
- Reception (if necessary)

4. Income and expenditure

Record all income - donations, participants' fees etc.

Record all expenditure, remembering to keep receipts for each item

Organising

1. A checklist

- Book the venue & accommodation
- Hold preparatory meetings
- Prepare PR (public relations) activities if relevant
- Make agreements with resource persons
- Prepare the invitations
 - State the objectives clearly
 - Give information about the program, venue, dates, resource persons and participants
 - If participants have to do homework beforehand, make this clear
 - Explain financial and other conditions clearly
- Make the necessary travel arrangements
- Hold a joint session with all resource persons
- Prepare the necessary materials, forms, documents
 - Stationery
 - Registration forms
 - Claims forms for allowances
 - Printed program
 - Papers and teaching materials
 - Workshop documentation

2. Terms of reference for resource persons

- Discuss subject, objectives and duration of their input
 - Explain how these fit in with the overall objectives and program for the workshop
 - Discuss the desired method of presentation
 - Give information about the venue and the facilities/equipment provided for the workshop
 - Request a written paper and or hand-outs if they are considered necessary
 - State the terms of payment for the persons services
- Try to hold preparatory meetings with resource persons.

Implementing

1. Arrival

Organisers should be in place well before the participants

- Check the venue and the technical facilities needed
- Give resource persons a final briefing
- Prepare for the registration of participants
- Display the program and other documents, if relevant

2. Registration

3. Welcome

Explain:

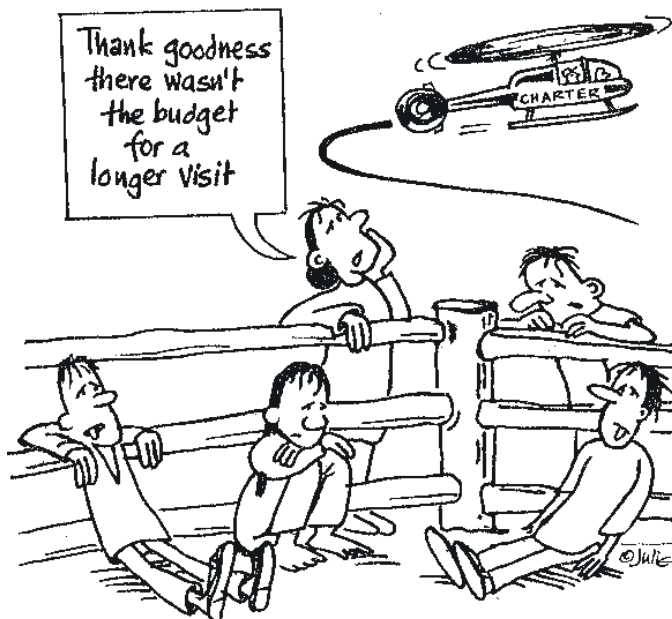
- Subject of the meeting
- Who are the organisers and sponsors
- Objectives
- Logic and timing of

- programme
- Methodological approach
- Expected outcome

4. Holding the sessions
- Handle transport claims etc. during tea breaks only

5. Departure
- Collect all that is necessary before people leave
- Signed registration forms/list of participants
 - Signed allowance claims
 - Original detailed invoices and receipts for venue, food, drinks, accommodation, travel, stationery, etc.

6. After the event
- As soon as possible take care of
- Accounting
 - Report writing
 - Any other follow-ups needed



Source: Bridging the Gap: A Guide to Monitoring and Evaluating Development Projects by Bernard Broughton & Jonathan Hampshire

8 TIPS ON HOW TO SUCCESSFULLY CHAIR A CONFERENCE

1

It is the conference chairperson's responsibility to see that the atmosphere during the discussion is always friendly, communicative and fair.

2

The conference chairperson introduces the topic in an objective and informative way. He/she formulates the discussion goals for each item on the agenda. During a discussion, he/she must not initially express his/her own opinion or assessment as this would bias the discussion.

3

The chairperson speaks as little as possible in order to give maximum time to the conference participants. Conference chairmanship principally entails raising questions and giving the floor to different speakers.

4

Questions from the chairperson should always be designed to stimulate dialogue and consequently should never be answered by the chairperson himself/herself.

5

Preference should be given to open questions (W-questions: who, why, where, when, etc.) and information questions. Closed questions (which can only be answered with a “yes” or “no”) can be fatal to a discussion.

6

Should a discussion peter out it is up to the chairperson to get it moving again by means of (open) questions, thought-provoking remarks and a summary of the proceedings so far.

7

The chairperson should make interim summaries to emphasize the thread of the discussion. At the close, the chairperson gives a general summary and his/her evaluation as to which of the goals formulated at the outset have or have not been achieved.

8

At the end of the conference, it is also up to the chairperson to formulate and delegate tasks to individual participants. Nobody ought to leave the conference without precisely knowing:

- a. what has been achieved in today's discussion,
- b. what is my specific assignment until the next conference/meeting,
- c. where and when is the next conference/meeting?

Source: Schulte, Carla (1997) Talking Politics (and being understood), Kampala: Fountain Publishers.

HOLDING EFFECTIVE INTERNAL MEETINGS AND PLANNING SESSIONS

Starting the meeting

1. Who is chairing the meeting? (It is best to have agreed on this in advance.)
2. Who is going to write the minutes?
3. If the agenda has not been prepared in advance, then the chairperson, (you), should collect the issues that need to be discussed from the participants. They should be written up on a board or a flipchart, so that everyone can see them.

Remember the issues that might have cropped up at the previous meeting.

4. In collaboration with the participants decide how much time it will take to discuss each issue. Confirm at what time the meeting has to close. Ask if anyone has to leave early.
5. Then ask participants which issues they wish to concentrate on at the meeting and which ones can be postponed

(if necessary). After that ask which issue should be dealt with first, second, third and so on. This should not take more than five minutes!

During the meeting

1. Follow the agreed agenda, discussing the issues in turn. The chairperson or moderator must see to it that the agreed time frame is adhered to. If this proves difficult, then the group must be asked to decide whether to continue the discussion of the issue in ques-

tion and therefore extend the meeting, or whether to stop the discussion and continue it at an agreed time.

2. Never move on to the next issue before making a decision on the one being discussed.

Closing the meeting

1. Quickly repeat the decisions that have been made.

2. Decide when and how the minutes will be distributed.

3. Decide who will chair the next meeting.

4. Close the meeting at the agreed time.



Source: Bridging the Gap: A Guide to Monitoring and Evaluating Development Projects by Bernard Broughton & Jonathan Hampshire

NOTES

PROJECT OUTLINES

by Meike Meyer

Should be short, clear and promising.

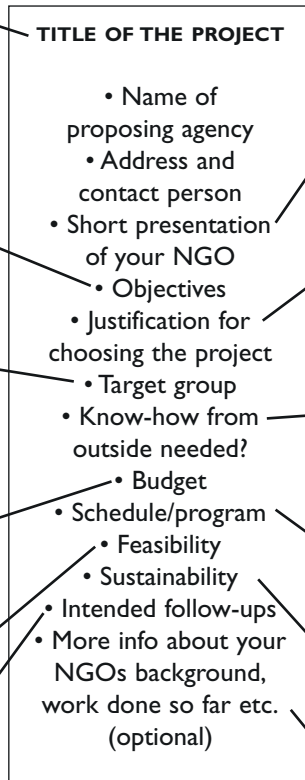
Those who really know what they want can usually do with 2-3 objectives. Be as concrete as possible.

Who takes interest in this project?
Who shall be involved?
Who profits from the project and how?

Detailed list of expected expenditures (personnel material, travel, etc.).

Do you foresee any prohibitive difficulties or problems?

Any workshops about maintenance and organisation of the project?



Explain briefly aims, general objectives, former projects!

Convince the reader of the need for this project!
Explain the idea of the project and how you want to fulfill the objectives, describe the impact!

Do you need to contact other persons to fulfill your objectives? Specify their capacities or know-how!

Be precise about the venue, duration methodology!

Which further impact does it have?

By whom? List names.

✓ Practical advice

- use white, clean sheets of A4 - paper
- present your project in a typewritten version if possible
- write on one side of the paper
- make sure you have a clear structure
- attach a covering letter

QUALITIES OF A MODERATOR

THE MODERATOR

Moderation techniques can best be used in groups of up to 15 participants. How to be a good moderator is not something to be learned quickly and easily, but is a matter of guided experiences, self reflection and continuous learning. A moderator's tasks are to:

- help the group to know and appreciate their own knowledge and strengths
- help the discussion process to be coherent and result-oriented
- be expert at guidance as far as the “how” of the discussion process is concerned, and not the “what”
- visualise and thus

document the steps of the discussion process and its immediate results

- ask the right questions and break deadlocks

Usually two people can fulfill these tasks easier than one...

THE IDEAL MODERATOR IS A PERSON WHO IS...

- regarded as neutral by all participants
- therefore an outsider to the discussion group and
- able to use visualisation techniques, such as pinboards, flipcharts and blackboards

HOW TO PREPARE A MODERATION

- The issue, the main objective, and the quality of the intended results have to be very clear
- Be aware of the participants' composition, background, knowledge, interests and potential conflicts
- Determine the duration of the process, the facilities available and their limitations
- Identify clear-cut objectives and goals for every session, what methods to use and the amount of time needed
- Make sure that sufficient visualisation materials are available

NOTES

THE MODERATION METHOD

The typical steps in moderating a discussion

1. OPENING

- Warm-up with participants (explain your role, make them get to know each other).
- Discuss and agree on time-frame and organisational matters.
- Collect the expectations of participants.
- Discuss and agree on expectations that shall/can be objectives for the workshop.
- Agree on methodology.
- How will minutes be taken?

2. COLLECT ISSUES/SUBJECTS

- Phrase the guiding question carefully and in a very focused manner and visualise it!
- Collect all answers/ideas of participants, without discussing them first!
- Visualise answers/ideas as they come.
- Group them into clusters and give a name/title to each cluster.

3. SELECT ISSUES/SUBJECTS

- Phrase a guiding question carefully and write it down visibly.
- Allow participants to prioritise clusters according to their individual preferences.
- The agenda will then be determined by the number of “votes” per cluster, going through as many clusters as time or workshop-concept allows.
- In doing this, every participant gets the same number of “votes” which he can use on the clusters as he wishes. (One way of doing this is to hand out little markers of some sort to every participant so that they can all jot down their preferences at the same time.) If possible avoid “voting” by raised hands.

4. WORK ON THE ISSUE AND FIND A WAY TO SOLVE THE PROBLEM

- Find a method of how to discuss or “solve” the prioritised subject/s.
- The method has to depend on the kind of issue at hand and the intended results.

5. PLAN ACTION/DETERMINE THE FOLLOW-UPS

- Visualise the activities regarded necessary by the group.
- Write down who will be in charge and by when different tasks need to be done.

6. CLOSING

- Find out, whether participants’ expectations have been fulfilled,
- Whether they are satisfied with the process and the result.

Always come up with a result!

Always pin down which task is assigned to whom!

Always ascertain if you have addressed the needs and expectations of the participants!

THE STRUCTURE OF YOUR SPEECH

The aim of a discursive is to convince the listeners of the correctness of the speaker's opinion on the subject in question. Such speeches should not last longer than 30 minutes.

How do you most effectively structure such a speech?

AUDIENCE RELATED INTRODUCTION

(max. 1 minute)

- Create the right atmosphere for the speech by referring to the audience, the venue, the occasion, etc.

SUBJECT-RELATED

OPENING REMARKS

(max. 3 minutes)

- Begin with a provocative proposition, a rhetorical question, a current event, etc.

PREVIEW THE MAIN POINTS OF YOUR SPEECH

(max. 1 minute)

MAIN BODY

(max. 20 minutes)

- Discuss the current situation/the facts/the problem.
- Discuss a variety of possible solutions.
- Discuss the pros and cons of these solutions.

- Present your own evaluation.
- Prove the accuracy of your assessment.

SUBJECT-RELATED CONCLUSION

(max. 4 minutes)

- Summarise the main argument in a maximum of three points.

AUDIENCE RELATED CONCLUSION

(max. 1 minute)

- Close your speech by, for instance, thanking the audience for their attention.

Source: H. Hess: Party Work in Social Democratic Parties

ARGUMENTATION TECHNIQUES

Good argumentation techniques are always beneficial. Your chances to win others over are higher if you can:

- present effective arguments and
- refute your opponent's arguments.

PRACTICAL TIPS

- Try to understand the position of your counterpart first, then react to it.
- If your counterpart's argumentation is weak, repeat your own good arguments.
- If you are interrupted, insist on the right to finish what you were saying.
- Anticipate your counterpart's arguments by including them in your own argumentation.
- Use the persuasive power of examples. Ask your counterpart to provide concrete examples of how to apply his theories.
- Expose generalisation and inaccuracies.
- Stick to the facts of the issue.
- If somebody evades the issue, return to the subject.

Source: C. Schulte, 1997, Talking Politics (and being understood): Kampala, Fountain Publishers



Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere during an interview with the German magazine "Der Überblick" in Hamburg in April 1999.

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HOW TO USE BLACKBOARDS AND FLIPCHARTS

Blackboard

Useful in gatherings of up to 25 people.

- + It is easy to write information & easy to correct it.
- Information is wiped off, it disappears and it is hard for participants to retrieve.

TIP If the chalk squeaks - this always makes participants uncomfortable - break the chalk and continue writing using the broken end.

Flipchart

Useful in gatherings of up to 35 people.

- + Sheets can be prepared in advance.
- Information can be displayed for a long period by removing sheets from the flipchart and posting them on the wall.

TIP Useful for a wide range of information e.g. displaying the day's agenda, important overviews, central statements, flowcharts, participants' contributions.



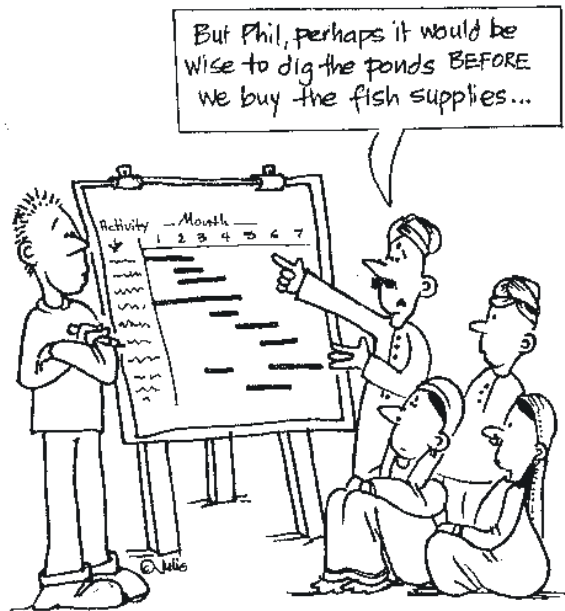
General rules

- Do not write down too much: concentrate on key issues only.
- Give the audience time to copy the contents of the presentation OR give it to them as a hand-out afterwards. If you intend to distribute a hand-out, tell the participants so. Otherwise it is likely that they will spend time making unnecessary notes.
- Do not talk with your back turned to participants (e.g. while writing on the blackboard or flipchart).
- Do not stand in front of your presentation - the participants will get irritated at not being able to read what is written.

NOTES

THE CHECK LIST FOR GOOD IMPLEMENTATION OF ACTIVITIES

1. Important: plan step by step. What should be done first?
2. Consider all improbabilities and plan alternatives.
3. Fix deadlines for you and for your partner.
4. Follow-up the results before the deadline.
5. Keep an eye on the indicators to be achieved.
6. Hire assistants, delegate, mobilize people.
7. For seminars & workshops, check everything in advance on loco.
8. Take care of the documentation (dates of receipts, use of materials, tasks of people involved ...)
9. Support partners in the learning process. Sell the idea "on-the-job learning".
10. Take care of the financial settlement and reporting as soon as possible.
11. Evaluate with the partners the achievement of objectives and indicators. Write recommendations. File documents. Release important papers. Inform other related institutions.
12. Write a reminder for following-up the results sometime later. Document it.
13. Keep your colleagues informed and updated.



Source: Workshop Report
Management Skills for
Decision-Makers - August 1999

Source: Bridging the Gap: A Guide to Monitoring and
Evaluating Development Projects, by Bernard Broughton & Jonathan Hampshire

TIME MANAGEMENT - SELF MANAGEMENT



Participants in one of the seminars supported by FES, discussing issues of “Time Management” in 2001

Most people bristle at the idea of becoming a slave to time: “The Swiss have clocks, but we have time”, said a wise old man in Bhutan. A certain degree of time and self- management is nonetheless necessary if you wish to be effective and to achieve your goals.

Many people rely on their memory as their management tool, but most find that at some point their memory lets them down. “Sorry, I forgot” is not an uncommon statement. This is not necessarily a catastrophe, but in some instances forgetting can have unfortunate consequences. You might lose an important contract, you might lose your job, you might even lose your husband/wife to-be!

RULE 1: Write things down - use a diary and a calendar, (e.g. the FES diary/calendar).

- Keep a “things to do” list.
- Enter all your appointments and deadlines, putting in a reminder maybe a week before the deadline falls.
- Review your appointments and deadlines regularly, informing those involved in good time if you want to change them.
- Plan your week: Make the “things to do” list, get an overview over your appointments and deadlines.
- Plan your day.
- At the end of each day and at the end of each week make a review. Did you do all that you had planned to do? Did you meet your deadlines? Did you attend the scheduled meetings? Were you late? Why?

RULE 2: Be realistic about what you can manage to do

- Do not get overloaded: you have to be realistic about what you can overcome in the given amount of time.
- Prioritise: decide what are the most important issues.
- Say no, if the task is beyond what you are capable of doing.
- Remember to make time for your private life - family, friends, hobbies and your own relaxation. This is where you renew your energy.

TWELVE STEPS TOWARDS CONFLICT RESOLUTION

By Dr M. O. Maundi, Centre for Foreign Relations

1. **Understanding** the conflict

- its type
- its sources
- its intensity
- its impact

2. **Identifying** the parties to the conflict

- whether bilateral or multilateral conflict

3. **Identifying** the issues involved

4. **Determining** the method of resolution

- Conflict prevention: Preventive diplomacy
- Conflict resolution: Negotiation
 - Direct negotiation between the conflicting parties
 - Assisted negotiation: Use of a third party
 - Mediation/Facilitation
 - Conciliation
 - Good offices
 - Arbitration

5. **Determining** the mechanism of resolution

- The actors/agents
 - States
 - NGOs
 - Individuals: Eminent personalities
 - Inter-governmental organizations

6. **Determining** the venue and dates for negotiation

7. **Negotiating** rules of procedure

8. **Setting** the agenda

9. **Launching** the substantive negotiations

10. **Reaching** a compromise agreement

11. **Implementing** the negotiated settlement

12. **Guaranteeing** and monitoring the implementation of the agreement

14. MISCELLANEOUS

SOME HIGHLIGHTS FROM THE ACCOUNTING RULES OF FRIEDRICH EBERT STIFTUNG FOR SEMINARS AND TRAINING COURSES

When financially dealing with FES, certain rules have to be followed in order to ensure the individually agreed refund for activities. The basic facts are listed here for easy reference.

The Budget

Expenditures for any activity have to be in line with the budget agreed upon in writing. *Any overspending can only be accepted by prior consent* so you should check your correspondence carefully prior to the activity. If you have already received advances, make sure they are in line with and part of the budget mentioned.

Receipts

Any payment whatsoever can only be done against proper receipt whose wordings should be legible and no white-out or Tipp-Ex should be used on it.

Receipts have to be issued *by the person/company which delivers the service or goods* e.g. for stationery from the shop-keeper, a hotel or restaurant for lodging, rental or seminar facilities, meals etc. and should be written in or translated into English.

A proper receipt must include:

- Name and address of payee
- Date
- Name and address of payer
- Amount paid
- Reason for payment
- Signature of payee

Transport charges should be accounted for through the presentation of *original* bus tickets, airline tickets or likewise. In the normal case, the original ticket will be kept for the FES-files and you have to add the name of the person(s) travelling on the front side. If only a copy can be taken, the reason for this change of procedure has to be given in writing. In case a *motor vehicle* is used, the petrol bills can be presented *if and as far as agreed upon* beforehand.

For proper accounting, the petrol bill has to show:

- Purpose of the trip
- Name of the traveller(s)
- Name/address of petrol station
- Date of filling
- Distance travelled
- Car's owner and registration number
- Amount paid/litres

Allowances

Allowances (imprests, per diem) for participants and seminar staff have to be paid on a daily basis only. A proper allowance form has to show:

- Event title, date & location
- Name of payee
- Address of payee
- Amount paid per person
- Signature of payee
- Total amount paid
- Signature of organiser

Honorarium

For the payment of honorarium to the seminar staff, FES provides a form. The seminar staff can only receive honorarium for one single function at the seminar, either coordinator or lecturer, typist etc. in case of combined functions, decide for one. The honorarium form has to include:

- Title of the activity, date and venue
- Proper address of recipient
- Amount due and currency
- Signature of recipient

Other documents required for proper accounting

- Complete list of participants
- Complete list of seminar staff

- Program of the seminar
- Handouts during/after the seminar
- Seminar report of the organiser
- event
- Number of participants
- Short summary on the course of events
- Important results
- Resume of the organiser as to success of the event
- Outlook of future activities/follow-up

How to write a seminar report

A proper seminar report has to contain:

- Title, date, venue of the

WRITING A PROPOSAL TO FES FOR A CONTRIBUTION TO AN ACTIVITY

The Friedrich Ebert Stiftung contributes to partner organization's activities after receiving and going through a written/detailed proposals from them.

Before writing your proposal, please crosscheck whether the activity you wish to organize falls within our objectives or not. If it fits in, then your proposal should include the following:

1. Give a brief introduction to your organization (including organizational objectives).
2. State the objectives of the planned event.
3. State the expected outcome/indicators.
4. Indicate the topics to be covered or the theme of an activity.
5. Specify the target group/beneficiaries.
6. State the tentative dates and venue for an activity to take place.
7. Give a rough idea about the programme.
8. Indicate the budget in details.

N.B. Please always remember to make a follow-up on your request either by telephone or an e-mail message.

Ahsante! !

NOTES

LIST OF FES PUBLICATIONS IN TANZANIA

TITLE	AUTHOR/EDITOR	YEAR
The New EU-ACP Partnership: Consequences for Eastern and Southern Africa	Francis Matambalya	2001
Art in Politics: 1st East African Caricatures Competition	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2001
Gender and Land Laws in Tanzania	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2001
Code of Ethics for Media Professionals	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2001
FES Activities Report 2000/2001	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2001
Political Handbook & NGO Calendar 2002	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2001
HIV/AIDS A Challenge for All Nations	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2001
Tuwape Haki Watoto na Tuwajibike (Children's Rights)	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2002
Ten Principles for Democratic Culture (Agenda Participation 2000)	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2002
Coping with Conflict (Agenda Participation 2000)	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2002
Sheria za Ardhi na Jinsia Tanzania (Gender and Land Laws)	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2002
Participate in Democracy	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2002
Diwani na Maendeleo (Local Government Handbook)	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2002
Ujue Mkataba wa Jumuiya ya Afrika Mashariki (Short version EAC Treaty)	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2002
Who is Who	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung	2002

For the list of publications before 2001, please consult our website:
www.tanzania.fes-international.de
 or the FES offices (festanzania@raha.com)

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All facts and figures presented in this NGO Calender are correct to the best of our
knowledge. However, FES bears no responsibility for oversights, mistakes or omissions.*

The Friedrich Ebert Stiftung

The Friedrich Ebert Stiftung,¹ or FES, was founded in 1925 as a political legacy of Germany's first democratically elected President, Friedrich Ebert, who died in that year. Ebert, a Social Democrat of humble origins, had risen to hold the highest office in his country despite considerable opposition from his political adversaries. He assumed the burden of the presidency in a country which was crisis ridden following its defeat in World War I. His own personal experience led him to propose the establishment of a foundation with a threefold aim:

- to further a democratic, pluralistic political culture by means of political education for all classes of society.
- to facilitate access to higher education for gifted young people by providing scholarships.
- to contribute to international understanding and co-operation in order to avert a fresh outbreak of war and violent conflicts wherever possible.

Today, the Friedrich Ebert Stiftung is a political non-profit making, public-interest institution committed to the principles and basic values of social democracy in its educational and policy-oriented work.

Development Co-operation

In the Foundations offices in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Oceania approximately 80 German staff and 600 local nationals are involved in projects in the fields of economic and social development, social-political education and information, the media and communication and in providing advisory services.

The Friedrich Ebert Stiftung sees its activities in the developing countries as a contribution to:

- the improvement of political and social framework conditions
- the democratisation of social structure
- the empowerment of women and the promotion of gender
- the strengthening of free trade unions
- the improvement of communication and media structures
- regional and international media co-operation
- regional co-operation between states and interest groups
- the resolution of the North-South conflict

This calendar is intended to provide not only an individual tool for purposes of time planning but also a day-to-day handbook for quick reference on issues that may be of interest to people in NGOs and to other politically active Tanzanians.

¹ Stiftung is the German word for "foundation"

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North-South Dialogue: Julius Nyerere, former President of the United Republic of Tanzania and Willy Brandt, former Chancellor of the Federal Republic of Germany

WILLY BRANDT:
"International co-operation is far too important to be left to governments alone."