

**PARTICIPATION OF RURAL COMMUNITIES IN THE NATIONAL  
POVERTY REDUCTION STRATEGIES: A CASE OF GAIRO DIVISION IN  
KILOSA DISTRICT**

**BY  
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**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE  
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## ABSTRACT

This study was carried out in four villages of Gairo division, Kilosa district, Morogoro Region to assess participation of rural communities in the national poverty reduction strategies. Focus group discussion and structured questionnaire were used to collect data. Descriptive statistics were used to obtain general characteristics of the study population. Bivariate and partial correlations of variables were used to describe the relationship between variables. Chi-square statistic testing was used to compare populations from more and less accessible villages. Results indicated that majority of rural community members participated in poverty reduction activities/programs through agriculture. However, the income of respondents increased with an increase of the number of income generating activities. Thus, the hypothesis that the annual income at household level has an association with the number of income generating activities undertaken was accepted. Poverty reduction opportunities listed in the document of the National Poverty Eradication strategy (1998) were relatively more known to rural communities in villages which were more accessible than in less accessible villages. Therefore, the hypothesis that accessibility of an area affects recognition of poverty reduction opportunities by the residents was accepted. Chi-square statistic test showed that there were statistical differences in awareness at  $P < 0.01$ . At household level, at least 80% of respondents reported to involve family members in household poverty reduction activities. Also, participation of the rural community members in poverty reduction activities was being affected by factors such as age of household head and household size. Hence, the hypothesis that participation of rural communities in poverty reduction strategies is influenced by some of household demographic factors was true. Recommendations: rural

communities should diversify their economic activities; availability of working capital and involvement of rural community members in community development activities should be improved. Also, community awareness on poverty reduction opportunities should be raised.

**DECLARATION**

I, EDITH TIBIITA KWIGIZILE, do hereby declare to the SENATE of Sokoine University of Agriculture that this dissertation is my own original work and has never been submitted nor concurrently being submitted for any degree award in any other University.

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Date

The above declaration is confirmed

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Prof. J..M. Msuya  
(Supervisor)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

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## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved husband, Dr. Jaffu Othniel Cholongola who always supported me and to my brothers who laid the foundation for my education and whose support and care have made a person in me today!



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
DECLARATION.....	iv
(MA. Rural Development).....	iv
COPY RIGHT.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	vi
DEDICATION.....	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xx
LIST OF APPENDICE.....	xxi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xxii
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background information.....	1
1.2 Problem statement and significance of the study.....	3
1.3 Study questions .....	4
1.4 Objective of the study.....	5
1.4.1 General objective.....	5
1.4.2 Specific objectives .....	5
1.5 Research hypotheses.....	5
1.5.1 Null hypotheses.....	5
1.5.2 Alternative hypotheses.....	6
1.6 Conceptual framework and definition of key variables.....	6
Figure 1. Conceptual frame work.....	7

Table 1: Definition of key variables according to this study.....	8
CHAPTER TWO.....	8
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	8
2.1 Overview.....	8
2.2 Poverty and participation: Definitions and concepts.....	9
2.2.1 Poverty.....	9
2.2.2 Participation.....	10
2.3 Poverty reduction strategies and policies in Tanzania.....	11
2.3.1 The national poverty eradication strategy and participation .....	12
2.3.2 Participation approaches in Tanzania.....	13
2.4 Involvements in poverty reduction activities/programs.....	15
2.4.1 Poverty reduction activities in rural areas.....	15

The major means of production in rural areas is land where most of the people depend on agriculture. However, available agricultural statistics tell us that, out of 44 million hectares of arable land available in Tanzania, only 0.1 million hectares are under medium and large scale farming (Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security, 2001). The ministry states that, despite abundance of unutilized land, Tanzanian agriculture is dominated by small-scale subsistence farming. Small holders who operate between 0.2 and 2.0 hectares and traditional agro-pastoralists who keep an average of 50 heads of cattle use approximately 85% of the arable land. ....15

The ministry indicates further that major limitation on the size of land holdings and utilization is the heavy reliance on the hand hoe as the main cultivating tool. This hand hoe syndrome among Tanzanian smallholder

farmers is both a cause and symptom of rural poverty. The 1998 Operations Evaluation Department (OED) report charges that well meaning effort in Tanzania by the Government, civil society and donors (including the World Bank) are not presently focused on the root causes of poverty, but on the symptoms. This issue interacts with agriculture to the extent that within the rural areas relatively better off persons typically get a higher share of incomes from non-farm sources (International Food Policy Research Institute, 1994). Constraints of economic activities in rural areas are described in the next part.....15

#### 2.4.2 Constraints of economic activities in rural areas.....16

Although resources are always limited, small holders appear to be more resource limited than large-scale farmers. They have less access to traditional resources and therefore face greater difficulties in overcoming constraints (Van Raay, 1989). The author explains more that the small holders are constrained in terms of land, labor, capital and management skills. Like all farmers in the developing world, Tanzania farmers/peasants are faced with a number of problems affecting their performance, consequently the output. The situation is worse in Tanzania because many farmers are peasants who mainly practice subsistence farming. The Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (2001) and IFAP (2000) argue that the most often cited reasons for rural poverty are: Low prices for farm products, insufficient access to credit and financing, lack of basic infrastructures in rural areas (clinics, roads), illiteracy and lack of education and problems of land tenure. Others are high costs of

agricultural inputs/limited access to inputs, lack of institutional support/good governance, warfare, armed confrontations, lack/slow transfer of agricultural research, poor agricultural marketing and price risk management and rainfall (adverse climatic conditions). Productivity in the pro-poor sectors, notably agriculture, is very low, which has in turn limited the income-generation capacity of the poor, considering the lack of opportunities for diversification of sources of income (International Food Policy Research Institute, 1994).The following section describes practicability of participation.....16

- 2.5 Putting participation in practice.....17
  - 2.5.1 Typology of participation.....17
  - 2.5.2 Participation in different stages of programs/activities.....20
  - 2.5.3 Principles of effective participation .....21
- 2.6 Factors influencing participation in development activities .....25
  - 2.6.1 Age of the household head.....25
  - 2.6.2 Sex and marital status of the household head.....26
  - 2.6.3 Education of the household head .....27
  - 2.6.4 Availability of supporting services and administrative structure.....28
- 2.7 Poverty eradication opportunities .....29
- CHAPTER THREE.....32
  - 3.1 Overview.....32
  - 3.2 Description of the study area.....33
    - 3.2.1 Location and climate.....33
    - 3.2.2 Socio-economic and population characteristics.....34
  - 3.2.1 Location and climate.....33
  - 3.2.2 Socio-economic and population characteristics.....34
  - 1.0 Figure 2: A map showing the research area.....34
  - 3.2.2 Socio-economic and population characteristics.....34

Table 2: Distribution of population in respective selected areas.....35

3.3 Study design .....35

    3.3.1 Sampling unit and sample size.....36

    3.3.2 Sampling technique and procedure.....36

3.4 Data collection.....37

    3.4.1 Research tools.....37

Figure 3: Tree diagram showing the sapling procedure .....38

    3.4.2 Pre testing the questionnaire.....38

    3.4.3 Types of data collected.....38

3.5Data analysis .....39

3.6 Limitation of the study.....40

CHAPTER FOUR.....40

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....40

4.2 Background characteristics of respondents.....41

    4.2.1 Age .....41

Table 3: Distribution of respondents according to age groups .....41

    4.2.2 Sex .....41

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by sex.....42

    4.2.3 Marital status .....42

Table 5: Distribution of respondents by marital status .....42

    4.2.4. Community leadership status.....42

    4.2.5 Household size.....43

Table 6: Distribution of respondents according to their household size .....43

    4.2.6 Education level.....43

Table 7: Distribution of respondents according to their education level .....	43
4.2.7 Occupation .....	44
Table 8: Distribution of respondents according to their occupation .....	44
4.2.8 Amount of total household annual cash income.....	44
Table 9: Distribution of respondents according to their annual income.....	45
4.3 Participation of community members in poverty reduction activities                    (at household level).....	45
4.3.1 Identified poverty reduction activities and sources of working capital for household cash income.....	45
Table 10: Distribution of respondents according to number and type of IGAs engaged in.....	46
Table 11: Distribution of respondents according to source of household working capital for cash income.....	47
2.0 Selling agric products.....	47
3.0 Loans .....	47
4.0 Own labor .....	47
5.0 From relatives.....	47
4.3.2 Participation of family members in household cash income.....	48
6.0 Results of assessment of participation of family members in household cash earning are presented in Table 12. The results show that at household level, many household heads (80% to 98.8%) involved family members at different stages of IGAs. The respondents (household heads) gave different reasons for involving their family members. The main reason given was mobilization of labor (69.4%) while the remaining 30.6% of household heads mentioned other reasons. Other reasons included need to provide training or capacity building on family members for ensuring sustainability of the IGAs and to increase transparency as well as providing opportunity for others to participate as it is their responsibility as part of the family. ....	48
Table 12: Participation of family members at different stages of IGAs.....	48
Table 13: Summary of problems of involving family members in IGAs.....	49
4.4 Participation in community development programs .....	49

4.4.1 Existing programs in the study area.....	50
Table 14: Identified community development programs in the four study villages. .	50
4.4.2 Participation in community development programs.....	51
Table 15: Participation of respondents in community development programs at different stages.....	51
7.0 Planning.....	51
8.0 20.6.....	51
9.0 76.9.....	51
10.0 2.5.....	51
11.0 100.....	51
12.0 Implementation.....	51
13.0 31.3.....	51
14.0 66.2.....	51
15.0 2.5.....	51
16.0 100.....	51
17.0 Evaluation.....	51
18.0 20.0.....	51
19.0 77.5.....	51
20.0 2.5.....	51
21.0 100.....	51
Table 16: Distribution of respondents according to reported kind of involvement .	52
4.4.3 Participation in community development programs through development committees.....	52
Table 17: Distribution of respondents according to their awareness about various aspects of development committees.....	53
4.5 Opinions of rural community members on opportunities for poverty reduction. .	54
The Government of Tanzania believes that it has the capacity to eradicate poverty if the available opportunities are utilized (URT, 1998). This consideration prompted a need to assess the opinions of the respondents about the importance of the opportunities claimed by the government for poverty reduction/eradication. Descriptive statistics and chi-square test were used to assess the opportunities. The results are shown in Table 18, Table 19 and Figure	

4 whereby the respondents were separated in two categories according to accessibility of their villages. Chakwale and Kwipipa villages were considered to be relatively more accessible while Ndogomi and Luhwaji were less accessible. Results of each of the eight government’s claimed opportunities are discussed in the next sections. The following table and figure show opinions of rural community members on the importance of the government claimed opportunities for eradicating poverty.....54

Table: 18: Opinions of rural community members on the importance of the government claimed opportunities for eradicating poverty.....54

Figure 4. Proportion of respondents who accepted the various government-claimed opportunities to be important in eradicating poverty.....55

Table 19. Summary for chi-square statistic testing for relationship between awareness of opportunities and type of accessibility by road.....56

4.5.1 Opportunity 1: Government commitment to eradicate poverty.....56

4.5.2 Opportunity 2: Peace and political stability.....57

4.5.3 Opportunity 3: Market liberalization.....58

4.5.4 Opportunity 4: Supportive international community.....59

4.5.5 Opportunity 5: Natural resources.....60

4.5.6 Opportunity 6: Participation of non-governmental institutions.....61

4.5.7 Opportunity 7: Information dissemination.....62

4.5.8 Opportunity 8: Multiparty democracy.....63

4.6 Identified poverty reduction opportunities in the study area.....63

4.7 Factors affecting participation in poverty reduction activities.....64

Table 20: Summary of the correlation tests.....65



22.0	* Significant at $P \leq 0.05$ ** Significant at $P \leq 0.01$	65
4.7.1	Age of head of household	65
4.7.1.1	Age and number of IGAs	65
4.7.1.2	Age and income level	66
4.7.2	Household size	66
4.7.2.1	Household size and number of IGAs	66
4.7.2.2	Household size and income level	67
4.7.3	Number of IGAs	67
Figure 5. The distribution of annual income of respondents with different numbers of IGAs		
	IGAs	68
Further analyses of different sexes (males and females of heads of households)		
showed two different trends (Figure 6). The annual income increased steadily with the number of IGAs among males. However, for women, income increased with number of IGAs up to two IGAs and then decreased with increase of number of IGAs. The observation may require further investigation to obtain explanation. Figure 6 bellow shows the annual income in the different sexes in relation to number of IGAs		
		69
Figure 6: Annual income in the different sexes in relation to number of IGAs		
		69
4.8	Summary of results	70
CHAPTER FIVE		
		72
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS		
		72
5.1	Overview	72
5.2	Conclusions	72
5.3	Recommendations	73
5.4	Areas for further research	75

REFERENCES.....76

    23.0 World Bank (2007). The World Bank Participation Sourcebook. ...82

APPENDICES.....83

    1.0 General information of the respondent.....83

    5.6 How are you involved?.....86

**LIST OF TABLES**

[Table 1: Definition of key variables according to this study.....9](#)

[Table 2: Distribution of population in respective selected areas .....34](#)

[Table 3: Distribution of respondents according to age groups.....Error: Reference source not found](#)

[Table 4: Distribution of respondents by sex.....Error: Reference source not found](#)

[Table 5: Distribution of respondents by marital status. .Error: Reference source not found](#)

[Table 6: Distribution of respondents according to their household size.....Error: Reference source not found](#)

[Table 7: Distribution of respondents according to their education level.....Error: Reference source not found](#)

[Table 8: Distribution of respondents according to their occupation.....Error: Reference source not found](#)

[Table 9: Distribution of respondents according to their annual income.....Error: Reference source not found](#)

[Table 10: Distribution of respondents according to number and type of \\_\\_\\_\\_\\_ IGAs engaged in.....Error: Reference source not found](#)

[Table 11: Distribution of respondents according to source of household working capital for cash](#)

income.....Error: Reference source not found

Table 12: Participation of family members at different stages of IGAs.....Error: Reference source not found

Table 13: Summary of problems of involving family members in IGAs.....Error: Reference source not found

Table 14: Identified community development programs in the four study villages.....Error: Reference source not found

Table 15: Participation of respondents in community development programs at different stages.....Error: Reference source not found

Table 16: Distribution of respondents according to reported kind of involvement Error: Reference source not found

Table 17: Distribution of respondents according to their awareness about various aspects of development committees.....Error: Reference source not found

Table: 18: Opinions of rural community members on the importance of the government claimed opportunities for eradicating poverty.....Error: Reference source not found

Table 19: Summary for chi-square statistic testing for relationship between awareness of opportunities and type of accessibility by road.....Error: Reference source not found

Table 20: Summary of the correlation tests.....Error: Reference source not found

## LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure 1: Conceptual frame work.....</u>	<u>Error: Reference source not found</u>
<u>Figure 2: A map showing the study area.....</u>	<u>33</u>
<u>Figure 3: Tree diagram showing the sampling procedure.</u>	<u>Error: Reference source not found</u>

- [Figure 4: Proportion of respondents who accepted the various government -  
claimed opportunities to be important in eradicating poverty.....Error:  
Reference source not found](#)
- [Figure 5: The distribution of annual income of respondents with different  
numbers of IGAs.....Error: Reference source not found](#)
- [Figure 6: Annual income in the different sexes in relation to number of  
IGAs.....Error: Reference source not found](#)

**LIST OF APPENDICE**

[Appendix 1: Questionnaire for respondents.....82](#)

**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

AFREDA - Action For Relief and Development Assistance

CBOs	-	Community Based Organizations
CCM	-	Chama Cha Mapinduzi
CHAYODE	-	Chakwale Youth Development
DHS	-	Demographic and Health Survey
GPRS	-	General Packet Radio Service
HH	-	Household
HIPC	-	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
IFAP	-	Information For Financial Aid Professionals
IGAs	-	.Income Generating Activities
MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organization
NPES	-	National Poverty Eradication Strategy
NSGRP	-	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
O&OD	-	Opportunities and Obstacles to Development
ODA	-	Oversea Development Agencies
OED	-	Operations Evaluation Department
PR	-	Poverty Reduction
PRSP	-	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Science
SUA	-	Sokoine University of Agriculture
TAS	-	Tanzania Shillings
TGNP	-	Tanzania Gender Networking Program
UPEAP	-	Uganda Poverty Eradication Action Plan
URT	-	United Republic of Tanzania

WAP - Wireless Application Protocol



## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background information**

Implementation of development activities and programs involve application of different approaches. Due to lauded benefits of participatory approach, participation has become one of the most widely used concepts in implementation of community development activities (Pretty, 1995). As a basic strategy of community involvement in community development, it has persisted after realizing that poor people are very often excluded and marginalized from both broader societal participation as well as from direct involvement in development initiatives.

In trying to maximize success in poverty reduction, the Government of Tanzania has formulated a national strategy to address issues of poverty. The strategy is known as the National Poverty Eradication Strategy (NPES). Basically, the NPES employs 'Bottom-Up' (participatory approach) aiming at involving the people, especially the poor, in identifying, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating various poverty eradication programs that are directed to them (URT, 1998). The strategy supplements previous efforts and initiatives that have been undertaken since independence, in 1961. The efforts included adoption of socialism and self-reliance policy and rural development and basic needs strategy. Others were the Tanzania Assistance Strategy and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (URT, 1998; 2000). Among the current strategies is the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (URT, 2005).

All these efforts have been taken due to the magnitude and effects of poverty, which is deep and pervasive in Tanzania (URT, 1998). Poverty is persistent more in the rural areas than in urban areas. This is the result of unbalanced rural-urban development associated with the absence of basic physical, economic, social, financial and institutional infrastructure and services. This has prevented the poor from taking effective initiatives towards income generating opportunities and from gaining access to productive assets (URT, 2000). A number of pitfalls have been attributed to the failures of poverty reduction strategies. One main such pitfall is the mode and approach used in implementing the poverty reduction strategies. The level and kind of participation of the poor populations, both at community and individual levels is likely to be among the major factors influencing the success of the strategies and sustainability of the achievements. For example, it is not clear as to what extent the community members have been participating in the implementation of the strategies. In addition, the document of the NPES has listed considerable opportunities that community members can take advantage of in the implementation of poverty eradication programs (URT, 1998). However, it is not clear about awareness of the rural communities concerning those opportunities.

The current study has focused mainly on assessing participation of rural communities in poverty reduction programs/activities. It has also sought opinions of the rural community members on the opportunities recognized by the government for poverty reduction. Existing opportunities for poverty reduction as well as factors influencing the target group in participating in poverty reduction activities have also been identified together with measures for improving achievements in poverty reduction.

## **1.2 Problem statement and significance of the study**

Despite many efforts, poverty is still a major problem in Tanzania where the prevalence of income poverty is high. According to the Household Budget Survey of 2000/01, the proportion of the population below the national food poverty line was 18.7% and that below the national basic needs poverty line was 35.7% (URT, 2005). There is also a big disparity between urban and rural poverty for both food and basic needs poverty. There is sufficient evidence to indicate that poverty is more prevalent in rural areas relative to urban areas (URT, 1998). Eighty seven percent of the poor population lives in rural areas, and poverty is highest among households that depend on subsistence agriculture (URT, 2005).

Poverty eradication initiatives have been undertaken for a long time under different names such as poverty reduction, poverty alleviation, combating poverty and fighting against poverty (Kayunze, 2001). However, success has not yet been attained. Participation of the poor populations in poverty eradication strategies has been thought to determine the level of achievement (URT, 1998). All along, planning in Tanzania has been owned and led by experts from the government and development partners who have always believed that they have the control and that they know what the people need and that people do not know what they need (URT, 2004). This approach has led to many plans that have not been sustainable and which have had no relevance to the targeted communities. The situation has led to smothering of the sense of freedom to decide and therefore deleterious to the crucial issue of ownership of these activities/programs (URT, 2004).

To improve participation, one of the goals of the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) is to develop structures and systems of democratic governance that are participatory, representative, accountable and inclusive (URT, 2005). However, it has been reported that, Tanzania has relatively progressed significantly in re-establishing macro-economic stability in urban areas than the rural areas (URT, 2001). This disparity on the achievements of the urban and the rural communities on poverty reduction impose a series of questions directed to issues related to participation in poverty reduction strategies. Such issues include involvement of rural communities in poverty reduction activities, awareness and opinion of rural community members on various poverty reduction opportunities as well as factors influencing participation in poverty reduction activities/programs. This study has aimed at addressing these issues thus increase awareness of policy makers, development partners and the communities in general on the real situation concerning participation in poverty reduction strategies and therefore improve the approach for better results.

### **1.3 Study questions**

The following research questions have guided investigation in this study:-

- Are the rural communities aware of opportunities for poverty reduction?
- Do the rural communities have access to those opportunities?
- How do rural communities participation in poverty reduction activities and programs set?

- What are the factors influencing participation of the rural communities in the national poverty reduction strategies?

#### **1.4 Objective of the study**

##### **1.4.1 General objective**

The overall objective is to assess participation of the rural communities in the National Poverty Reduction Strategies in order to recommend measures for improving achievements.

##### **1.4.2 Specific objectives**

The above-mentioned general objective was achieved through the following four specific objectives:-

- (i) To characterize how the community members participate in poverty reduction activities / programs
- (ii) To assess opinions of the rural communities concerning poverty reduction opportunities identified by the government.
- (iii) To identify the existing opportunities for poverty reduction in the study area
- (iv) To determine factors influencing participation in poverty reduction activities/ programs

#### **1.5 Research hypotheses**

##### **1.5.1 Null hypotheses**

- The annual income at household level has no association with the number of income generating activities undertaken.

- Accessibility of an area does not affect recognition of poverty reduction opportunities by the residents.
- Participation of rural communities in poverty reduction strategies is not influenced by some of household demographic factors such as age of household head and household size.

### **1.5.2 Alternative hypotheses**

- The annual income at household level has an association with the number of income generating activities undertaken.
- Accessibility of an area affects recognition of poverty reduction opportunities by the residents.
- Participation of rural communities in poverty reduction strategies is influenced by some of household demographic factors such as age of household head and household size.

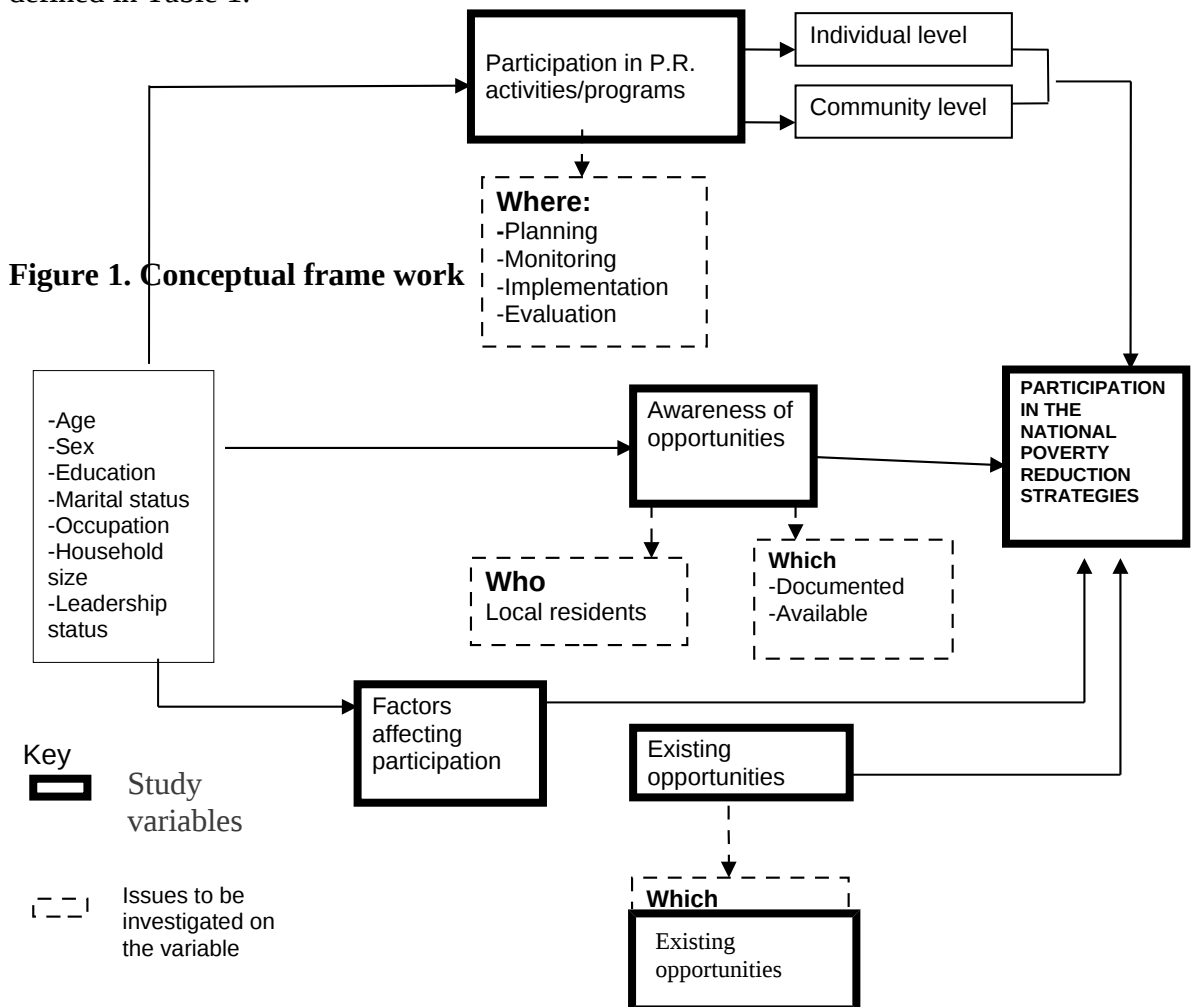
### **1.6 Conceptual framework and definition of key variables**

The conceptual framework proposed in this study is presented in figure 1. The variables in the framework are grouped in two major blocks as follows:-

- (i) Background and Independent variables which included age, sex, marital status, education, occupation, income level and community leadership. Others were participation in poverty reduction programs/activities and available opportunities for poverty reduction.

(ii) Dependent variable (participation in poverty reduction strategies)

The conceptual framework shows the relationship between various variables that affect participation. It also shows main issues that were considered in this study for each of the key variables. The main issues that were considered were as follows: Participation in poverty reduction programs/activities; involvement in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of poverty reduction activities/programs. Consideration of these issues was done at individual and community level. Awareness of local residents on poverty reduction opportunities; awareness on opportunities that were documented or available the study area. Existing opportunities; opportunities that were documented, mentioned and /or observed in the study area. In order to have a clear understanding, key variables of the study are defined in Table 1.



**Table 1: Definition of key variables according to this study**

<b>VARIABLE</b>	<b>DEFINITION</b>
Occupation	Main and legal activity that a person depends to earn his/her living
Involvement in poverty reduction activities	Undertaking of income generating activities
Involvement in poverty reduction programs	Taking part in planning, implementing and/or evaluating poverty reduction activities/programs
Existing opportunities	Resources available in the area, that can be used for income generating activities
Participation in poverty reduction strategies	Engagement in income generating activities measured by the number of income generating activities and the resulting income level

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Overview**

The chapter provides description of different aspects of participation. The description is based on different authors' views. Main issues that were considered important as far as this study is concerned, and therefore included in the literature include:



Poverty and Participation (definitions and concepts); poverty reduction strategies and policies in Tanzania; the National Poverty Eradication Strategy and participation; participation approaches in Tanzania; involvements in poverty reduction activities/programs and practicability of participation approaches. Others include: Typology of participation; participation in different stages of development programs/activities; principles of effective participation; factors influencing participation in development activities and poverty eradication opportunities listed by the Government of Tanzania in the National Poverty Eradication Strategy document (URT, 1998).

## **2.2 Poverty and participation: Definitions and concepts**

### **2.2.1 Poverty**

Poverty is a broad phenomenon. However, researchers have attempted to describe it using monetary and non-monetary measures of welfare. The terminologies ‘poor’ and ‘poverty’ have been described as a monolithic group and issue (World Bank, 2002). Sections on poverty profile still differentiate between subgroups of poor as rural, urban, women or minorities. However, strategic directions rarely pick this variance up subsuming the poor into one homogenous group if mentioned at all requiring uniform policy treatment. The phenomenon refers to a condition of living below a defined poverty line or standard of living (Bagachwa, 1994; Mtatifikolo, 1994). The line is subject to variation by socio-politico-economic cultural set up. Poverty manifests itself through hunger, illness and inability to get medical treatment, attend school or read and write. Furthermore, the phenomenon results from many mutually reinforcing factors, including lack of productive resources to generate material wealth, illiteracy, prevalence of disease, discriminative socio-

economic and political systems and natural calamities such as drought, floods and wars (URT, 1998).

### **2.2.2 Participation**

Participation is the process by which stakeholders influence and share control over priority setting, policymaking, resource allocations, and/or program implementation (World Bank, 2007). It is the act of taking part or sharing in the activities of a group. Sometimes, participation and involvement can be used as synonymous words. Participation can be seen as process of empowerment of the deprived and the excluded. This view is based on the recognition of differences in political and economic power among different social groups and classes (McGee and Norton, 2001). Sethi and Mathur (1986, 1983) defined popular participation as the involvement of the masses either directly or indirectly in the determination and the execution of decisions that affect them, and then in the direct and indirect selection as well as control of their leaders. There is a considerable variance among governments, donors, and non-governmental entities on the understanding of the what, the how, and the who of participation. Donors and most governments see it more as a means, or instrument, to facilitate implementation of projects or conduct poverty assessments, while NGOs opt for a rights-based view, seeing it as an end in itself, and thus calling for long, deep, and broad processes (McGee *et al.*, 2001). Countries generally indicate lack of capacity to host and manage participation up front whereas some have built on existing processes.

Howlett and Nagu (2001) noted that development agencies (donor, government and NGOs) consider and use the term “participation” ranging from manipulative and passive participation where people are told what is to happen and what to do, to self-mobilization where people take initiatives largely independent of external agencies. It appears that the term participation should not be accepted without appropriate clarification. Participation is essentially a descriptive term including numerous different activities and situations therefore, there is more room for confusion about its causes and effect, and its extent and distribution. To be specific therefore, the following dimensions should be considered: the kind of participation that takes place, kind of participants, the way the process of participation takes place and the purpose for participation (Cohen and Uphoff, 1977). For instance, participatory processes in Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), includes information dissemination, dialogue, collaboration in implementing programs, (World Bank, 2007) and participatory monitoring and evaluation. In this case, the ultimate outcome of a PRSP is not the paper but public and community actions to reduce poverty. The next section describes poverty reduction strategies and policies in Tanzania.

### **2.3 Poverty reduction strategies and policies in Tanzania**

Since the Arusha declaration in 1967 various policies and sectoral programmes that aimed at improving living standards have been formulated. The sectoral programmes included water for all, universal primary education (UPE), “Siasa ni Kilimo” (that is politics is agriculture) and “Mtu ni Afya” (that is human being is health) (Kayunze, 2001). Tanzania Assistance Strategy is a medium term national strategy of economic and social development encompassing joint efforts of government and the

international community. The Tanzania Assistance Strategy covers all the development areas that have characteristically been supported by the international partners both within and outside the framework of the central government budget. Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) is a medium term strategy of poverty reduction, developed through broad consultation with national and international stakeholders in the context of enhanced Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative.

Founded within a broad policy framework, the vision 2025, stipulated the vision, mission, goal and targets to be achieved with respect to economic growth and poverty eradication by the year 2025. The National Strategy For Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) (URT, 2005) is a second national organizing framework for putting the focus on poverty reduction high on the country's development agenda (URT, 2005). Also, the government formulated the National Poverty Eradication Strategy (NPES), which provides overall guidance and framework for coordination and supervision of implementation of policies and strategies of poverty eradication. The NPES emphasizes on participation of the grassroots. Therefore, poverty as undesirable situation, poverty reduction strategies and policies were formulated as guidelines to improve the situation and participation is currently considered as the right process for successful implementation of the strategies and policies for poverty reduction.

### **2.3.1 The national poverty eradication strategy and participation**

Due to recognition of the importance of participation in development, currently, participatory approach is well featured in Poverty Reduction Strategies. Participatory

approaches increase the sense of ownership and sustainability of the plans. Most countries have drawn on previous processes of preparing national development strategies, and have followed with modest changes the Participatory Action Plan. For example, the 1997 Uganda Poverty Eradication Action Plan (UPEAP) in Uganda, while in Tanzania, it was the 1997 National Poverty Eradication Strategy (NPES) (World Bank 2002).

The National Poverty Eradication Strategy (NPES)'s main objective was to provide guidance to all stakeholders to identify, formulate, implement and evaluate their poverty eradication programs (URT, 1998). Specifically, it aimed at involving the people, especially the poor in identifying, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating poverty eradication programs. This objective is well reflected in the NSGRP under the cluster goals, targets and strategies, which include governance and accountability. The first goal of NSGRP under governance and accountability is to develop structures and systems of democratic governance that are participatory, representative, accountable and inclusive (URT, 2005). This is due to the fact that if stakeholders were not involved in development process, they lack the sense of ownership thus the process become unsustainable. The next part describes participation approaches used in Tanzania.

### **2.3.2 Participation approaches in Tanzania**

There are various approaches used in addressing development issues. Currently, Tanzania has opted for Opportunities and Obstacles to Development (O&OD) approach as the preferred participatory planning methodology for Local Government Authority (URT, 2004). The method has the following salient features: is a bottom

up planning process; starts with opportunities rather than obstacles; operates within the structures of Local Government Authority and in line with the overall national plans and budgets; enables the people to formulate their plans using targets of the Tanzania Development Vision 2025. It is also a multi-sectoral in nature. Involvements in poverty reduction activities/programs are described in the next section.

## **2.4 Involvements in poverty reduction activities/programs**

### **2.4.1 Poverty reduction activities in rural areas**

The major means of production in rural areas is land where most of the people depend on agriculture. However, available agricultural statistics tell us that, out of 44 million hectares of arable land available in Tanzania, only 0.1 million hectares are under medium and large scale farming (Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security, 2001). The ministry states that, despite abundance of unutilized land, Tanzanian agriculture is dominated by small-scale subsistence farming. Small holders who operate between 0.2 and 2.0 hectares and traditional agro-pastoralists who keep an average of 50 heads of cattle use approximately 85% of the arable land.

The ministry indicates further that major limitation on the size of land holdings and utilization is the heavy reliance on the hand hoe as the main cultivating tool. This hand hoe syndrome among Tanzanian smallholder farmers is both a cause and symptom of rural poverty. The 1998 Operations Evaluation Department (OED) report charges that well meaning effort in Tanzania by the Government, civil society and donors (including the World Bank) are not presently focused on the root causes of poverty, but on the symptoms. This issue interacts with agriculture to the extent that within the rural areas relatively better off persons typically get a higher share of incomes from non-farm sources (International Food Policy Research Institute, 1994). Constraints of economic activities in rural areas are described in the next part.

#### **2.4.2 Constraints of economic activities in rural areas**

Although resources are always limited, small holders appear to be more resource limited than large-scale farmers. They have less access to traditional resources and therefore face greater difficulties in overcoming constraints (Van Raay, 1989). The author explains more that the small holders are constrained in terms of land, labor, capital and management skills. Like all farmers in the developing world, Tanzania farmers/peasants are faced with a number of problems affecting their performance, consequently the output. The situation is worse in Tanzania because many farmers are peasants who mainly practice subsistence farming. The Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (2001) and IFAP (2000) argue that the most often cited reasons for rural poverty are: Low prices for farm products, insufficient access to credit and financing, lack of basic infrastructures in rural areas (clinics, roads), illiteracy and lack of education and problems of land tenure. Others are high costs of agricultural inputs/limited access to inputs, lack of institutional support/good governance, warfare, armed confrontations, lack/slow transfer of agricultural research, poor agricultural marketing and price risk management and rainfall (adverse climatic conditions). Productivity in the pro-poor sectors, notably agriculture, is very low, which has in turn limited the income-generation capacity of the poor, considering the lack of opportunities for diversification of sources of income (International Food Policy Research Institute, 1994).The following section describes practicability of participation.



## **2.5 Putting participation in practice**

Sethi (1983) and Mathur (1986) argue that stakeholder participation can prove useful as tool to identify poor people's own priorities and understanding, to introduce greater accountability into public institutions towards their clients, and to evaluate programmes according to participants' own perspectives. Governments have often been reluctant to adopt stakeholder participation because it is expensive to organize, it lengthens and complicates the process of program formulation. According to Cohen and Uphoff (1977), it is very difficult to employ methods that ensure fair representation of all stakeholders. The authors explain more that lack of commitment may be attributed to the need to ensure quick results and the paucity of development funds. In addition, participatory approach often requires more time and this can give rise to higher project supervisory costs. Bhatt (1995) argues that even when a socio-economic framework exists that is conducive to people's participation, there is still a requirement that the beneficiaries are aware of the consequences of their own decisions and are capable of implementing those decisions. Different types of participation are described in the next part.

### **2.5.1 Typology of participation**

Gow and van Sant (1981) identified four modes of participation. These include:

First, involvement of only the educated and moneyed people in the community without the participation of the "grassroots" or the majority. Second, the people or beneficiaries are asked to legitimize or approve projects identified as formulated by the government. Third, the people are consulted about the project but they do not

actually participate in the planning and management of projects. Fourth, the people or the beneficiaries are represented in the highest policy making body of the agency. Pretty (1995), Satterthwaite *et al.*, (1992) and Hart (1992) in Howlett and Nagu (2001) have identified seven types of participation in development programmes and projects. The seven types are namely: Manipulative participation; passive participation; participation by consultation and participation by material incentive. Others include: Functional participation; incentive participation and self-mobilization.

The author clarified that while manipulative participation is simply pretence, with people's representatives on official board but who are unselected and have no power, passive participation is whereby people participate by being told what has been decided, or has already happened. It involves unilateral decisions by project management without any listening to people's responses. Shared information belongs to professionals. Participation by consultation refers to the kind of participation such that people participate by being consulted or answering questions. External agents define problems and gather information and control analysis. This process does not concede any share in decision-making and professionals are under no obligation to take on board people's views. Further explanation on the types of participation was given that participation for material incentive is whereby people participate by contributing resources such as labor in return for food, cash or other material incentives. The process is often called participation, yet people have no stake in prolonging technologies or practices when the incentive ends. Functional participation is seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals. People may participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project. Such involvement may be interactive and involve shared decision making but tends to arise only after major decisions have already been made by external agents.

When people participate in joint analysis, development of plans and formation or strengthening of a local institution the kind of

participation is referred to as incentive participation. Participation is a right and not just the means to achieve project goals. The process involves interdisciplinary methods that seek multiple perspective and use of structured learning processes. As group take control over local decision and determine use of available resources they have a stake and ownership in maintaining practices, or project outcomes. Self-mobilization as another type of participation, people participate by taking initiative independently of external institutions to change systems. They develop contacts and projects with external institutions for resource and technical advice they need, but retain control over how resources are used. The next part describes participation in different stages of programs/activities

## **2.5.2 Participation in different stages of programs/activities**

### **(i) Participation in planning**

Planning can be defined in many different ways. According to Faludi in Van Raay *et al.* (1989) planning is a rational processes of thought and action which ultimately aims at promoting human growth. This definition is based on two main assumptions. First, each human being is rational and undertakes rational action. Second, this individual or micro-behavior can be extended to planning institutions each of which is composed of groups of individuals. In summary, planning is a rational process of arriving at decisions and implementing them. Makoyogo and Mutasingwa in Van Raay *et al.* (1989) explain that the program planning process includes a sequence of steps carried out in consultation with the group and individuals. The authors added that in planning, it is necessary to identify desires and needs of the community, to

determine the relative importance of various recognized needs and decide on priorities and identify the problems involved in satisfying the needs with the higher priority. It is also important to determine possible solutions to problems or alternative courses of solution and agree upon objectives. Participation in evaluation is explained in the next part.

### **(ii) Participation in evaluation**

Evaluation of implementation is a more comprehensive assessment than that arising from regular monitoring. Monitoring essentially lead to changes in action plan. Evaluation may lead to major re-formulation of the plan under implementation, or serves as a prelude to the formulation of the next plan (Van Raay *et al.* 1989). The next section describes principles of effective participation.

### **2.5.3 Principles of effective participation**

In order to be effective in poverty reduction, planning and budgeting for poverty eradication activities are important issues. However, the process of participatory planning and budgeting at the local level i.e *Kitongoji/Mtaa*, Ward and District levels should observe the principles of participation (URT, 2004), which include eleven key issues, namely: Consultation to reach consensus, transparency, facilitation, efficiency; empowerment, equitability, sustainability, accountability, inclusiveness, partnership and effectiveness. Each of these is briefly explained below.

First, consultation to reach consensus: Is a multifaceted process in which stakeholders through advocacy and lobbying exchange views and information as first

step. Then stakeholders deliberate openly through public hearings through presentation of issues in various community contexts. Second, Transparency: This refers to information flow. It can be achieved through effective use of formal forums to disseminate and share information. For instance local forums such as the Village Assembly, Village Council, Vitongoji/Mitaa, Ward Development Committee and District Council meetings should be publicised as much as possible for all stakeholders at each level to know and participate as required (URT, 2004). Stakeholders should share necessary information about issues that concern them and need their input before being called upon to make decisions. They should be given opportunity to share and exchange views and information; build common knowledge set priorities and strategies; plan for actions and budgets; and identify funding sources. Third, facilitation: The same author explains further that facilitation involves enabling local stakeholders to take leading role in doing things for themselves. It involves enabling local stakeholders to be the analysts, vision setters, planners, budgeters, implementers and evaluators. Facilitation implies handing over the stick to the rightful owners of the development process. Fourth, efficiency: This means executing planned and budgeted activities in accordance with the plans as laid down and agreed upon by the respective owners of the plan. At the end of the day, the final product or service provided should satisfy the owners of the activity. Fifth, empowerment: In this case, the author (URT, 2004) explained further that community should be capacitated with an intellectual skills and knowledge base, capacity for self organization and management of development actions and for gaining access for material resources/information and legal power to develop the productive base. Empowerment builds people's capacity to move from being object

and passive victims of social processes to the status of subject and active agents of change with power to decide, act and become the real owner of their plans.

Sixth, equitability: The planning and budgeting process should involve and reflect stakeholders' interests and priorities by considering gender, intergeneration (age groups) differences; social economic groups, religious and marginalized groups. All these need to jointly and positively explore and identify their resources and how to share, manage and use them appropriately and in a sustainable manner to ensure fair, just and reasonable room for full and active productive participation by all of them (URT, 2004). It is important to provide equitable access to information (Earth Summit, 2002). Seventh, sustainability: This is equally important in participation because participatory planning and budgeting should ensure development of socio economically viable plans thus not leading to degradation of the resource use. Rather, the process should address crosscutting issues that are often ignored or taken for granted by many, such as use of natural resources; land and water.

Eighth, accountability: The same author provided explanation that stakeholders should be accountable to the public and to each other for their shared decisions and the tasks they committed themselves to accomplish. Stakeholders should be the owners of not only the final plans but also of the origin and output of the whole process. Ownership of the development process empowers stakeholders to exert positive control and assume positive accountability. Accountability is associated with employing agreed, transparent, democratic mechanisms of engagement, position finding, decision-making, implementation, monitoring and evaluation (Earth

Summit, 2002). Ninth, inclusiveness: An efficient participatory process should provide an opportunity for representation of the majority of the target group providing for all views to be represented, thus increasing the legitimacy and credibility of a particular process (Earth Summit, 2002). Tenth, partnership: It is important to develop partnerships and strengthening networks between stakeholders; addressing conflictual issues; integrating diverse views; creating mutual benefits (win/win rather than win/lose situations); developing shared power and responsibilities; creating feedback loops between local, national or international levels and into decision makings (Earth Summit, 2002). In addition to that, Earth Summit (2002). Eleventh, effectiveness: This should be observed thus providing a tool for addressing urgent sustainability issues; promoting better decisions by means of wider input; generating recommendations that have broad support; creating commitment through participants, identifying the outcomes and thus increasing the likelihood of successful implementation.

Other principles of participation in poverty eradication were identified by URT (1998) as follows: Every individuals and families will earn a livelihood through socially, culturally and legally acceptable work; individuals/families will have the right to demand and consume services related to poverty eradication; communities will identify and use resources to eradicate poverty in their localities. Others included: To empower women to fully participate in decision-making processes at all levels of leadership; that every citizen will be legally permitted to carry out poverty related activities anywhere in the country as long as they do not contravene existing rules, laws, regulations and procedures. As far as this study is concerned, clear



understanding of principles of effective participation will assist in analysis of findings on participation of the rural communities in poverty reduction activities/programs.

## **2.6 Factors influencing participation in development activities**

### **2.6.1 Age of the household head**

Age is one of the factors that can influence performance of individuals in development activities. It has many implications as livelihood exists. This is because it has an impact on access, ownership and control of resources such as land, cash and labor. According to Maunder (1973), it is perceived that young people are less conservative than their elders, and hence are more likely to participate in agricultural programmes. Participation has been observed to be at optimum between 25 to 34 years (Nanai, 1993) where it then decline with the increase of age beyond the optimum. The author argues that the age above 34 years is pre-occupied with home and community based obligations. According to Mandara (1998), the economically productive group ranges from the age of 15 to 65 years old. This shows that the population aged below and above this group rarely participate in poverty eradication strategies thus is economically dependent. Since the head of the household is the major breadwinner, his/her age reflects both the income generating capacity of their household and its demographic position, which in turn reflect participation in poverty eradication activities (Ifraan, 1989). Sex and marital status of the household head as factors influencing participation in development activities are described below.

### **2.6.2 Sex and marital status of the household head**

Sex of the household head is an important dimension of the locus of responsibility and authority in a household. Majority of population mainly face special obstacles, which prevent them from participating in rural development programs. Such obstacles include heavy labor demands, prevailing cultural restrictions such as not speaking at open meetings, inferiority of women's work and interests and patriarchal cultures (Havercort, 1991). In rural areas, the basic resource for production is land, thus participation in poverty eradication strategies is closely associated with land ownership. However, ownership of land differs among women and men. For example, one of the factors mentioned as making women victims of poverty is lack of access to productive resources in the rural areas (World Bank, 1983) in Mandara (1998). At local level people lack power, access to resources and skills to help themselves (FAO, 1986). Women are more likely to be affected most due to lack of ownership rights of land from their husbands (Mitter, 1994). On the other hand, Nanai (1993) argues that men generally have opportunities to participate in agricultural programs than women due to their slightly less workload in the communities as compared to women workload. Mngondo (1996) observed a more or less similar situation in Sub-saharan African countries where men have double roles (productive and managerial) and women carry out triple roles (reproductive, productive and managerial) hence low participation of women in development activities. Bagachwa (1994) noted that empirical evidence from many studies maintained that female-headed households are more likely to be in poverty at any point of time than male headed households. Kennedy (1989) cited by Katapa (1994)

found that the poorest households with respect to annual per capita incomes were female headed households in Kenya.

Access and control of resources and capital through diverse cultural, political, economic, ecological and agricultural settings and the nature of the relation between the access and control of diverse assets allows individuals to negotiate their livelihood strategies and improve their well being in rural areas (Valvidia and Gilles, 2001). The next part describes education of the household head as a factor influencing participation.

### **2.6.3 Education of the household head**

Education and literacy are key factors affecting community participation (Plummer, 2000). The author explained further that one can not clearly separate education from related factors such as economic and social status, aspirations, attitudes and skills. Chambers (1983) observed that levels of literacy affect the choice of strategies and mechanisms used to facilitate participation. Mobilization of communities is said to be much easier in areas where education and literacy levels are higher. Education has also been successfully used for imparting knowledge, raising awareness and changing attitudes. In addition to that, education broadens horizons beyond habit and traditions of individuals encouraging participation of an individual in development activities.

People's level of education has positive relationship with the level of participation (Nanai, 1993). Furthermore, it was noted by Levinger and Drahman (1980) that poor

and less educated people generally lack confidence in their ability to improve their lives. Rodgers (1989) reported that lack of education is an important dimension of poverty. Levels of education are usually low in developing countries and more so in the rural areas (Chambers, 1983). DHS (1997) observed that there are more women who did not attend schooling than men. The education level of the household head is important since he/she is the one who makes the major decisions concerning the household, especially production decisions (World Bank, 1996). Having an educated household head is therefore expected to have a positive implication on participation in poverty eradication strategies hence to the household socio-economic status. Availability of supporting services and administrative structure is described in the next part.

#### **2.6.4 Availability of supporting services and administrative structure**

Availability of Socio-economic services such as credit facilities, input supply and extension services affect participation of rural communities in poverty eradication strategies (Freeman, 1985). Lack of such services affect involvement of rural community members in poverty reduction activities. In addition to that, the administrative structures of the developing countries lack the capacity for supervision and implementation of desired change and are therefore not ideal for sustaining participation. Their development plans are usually statements intent to lead to economic growth (Freeman, 1985). They lack essential resources required by the target group for change such as skilled manpower. The resources include technicians, planners, managers and administrators. In most cases these resources are located at the headquarters' and are actively involved in the initial stages of the program like planning and decision-making.

At the implementation stages, farmers are physically involved to perform the task, while administrators are just giving directives. Farmers lack close supervision to enable them participate fully in development programs. Many government policies aimed at alleviating rural problems are formed at the headquarters and most of them do not address the real rural situations Shayo (1991), cited by Nanai (1993). This result in failure of farmers to participate in rural development programs. Furthermore, inadequate financial resources limit a number of farmers participating in the projects. Most of projects take off well but can not be sustained due to lack of recurrent expenditure after the initial development costs as well as proper administration. Part 2.7 below describes poverty eradication opportunities as listed by the Government.

## **2.7 Poverty eradication opportunities**

The Government of Tanzania believes that it has the capacity to eradicate poverty if the available opportunities are utilized (URT, 1998). Among many opportunities available in Tanzania, the following are recognized by the government: government commitment to eradicate poverty, peace and stability, natural resources and multiparty democracy. Others are economic reforms and market liberalization, supportive international community, participation of non-government institutions, and enhanced information dissemination. However, the government states categorically that people have to understand that the prime actors in poverty eradication are the people themselves. The government role is more on facilitating and complementary to people's efforts. Each of the stated opportunity is briefly described below.

First, government commitment to eradicate poverty: Since independence in 1961, poverty eradication has dominated the country's political and development agenda (URT, 1998). The current initiatives have an opportunity to evaluate past strategies, assess their impact and build on lessons learned from those efforts in the design and implementation of new development programs. Second, peace and political stability: The existing peace and stability allows for the participation of the people in decision-making process, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of poverty eradication programs. Third, natural resources: Tanzania is endowed with rich natural resources, which can be utilized to eradicate poverty. These include ample arable land, a wealth of mineral resources and game reserves. There is also abundant of untapped water sources, which could be used for irrigation, electricity and for domestic use (URT, 1998). Fourth, multiparty democracy: The current multiparty democratic process creates and strengthens among Tanzanians culture of self-expression and reaching consensus on critical national development issues. It also provides opportunity for people's views and concerns to be heard at the highest level of leadership; and for these views to be reflected in to policy formulation and design of development programs. Fifth, economic reforms and market liberalization: Economic reforms and market liberalization has brought many changes in the country. One of the major changes is the withdrawal of the government from direct production, processing, manufacturing and marketing while at the same time promoting private sector participation in production and distribution of goods and services. Sixth, supportive international community: During recent international forums, agreement has been reached to support poverty eradication initiatives worldwide. This encourages increased flow of international resources to meet the

needs of poor countries including debt relief (URT, 1998; Nyerere, 1999). Opponents of debt relief, however, argue that debt relief is like a 'blank cheque' to governments, and fear savings will not reach the poor in countries plagued by corruption. Others argue that the money would be far better spent in specific aid projects, which actually help the poor (IMF and World Bank, 2005).

However, according to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank (2005), countries that received limited debt relief under existing programs have doubled poverty-reducing expenditures from 1999-2004. According to the same source, for example, 54% of the money saved through debt relief in Benin has been spent on health, including on rural primary health care and HIV programs. Debt relief in Mozambique enabled free immunization to all children and in Uganda, 2.2 million people have gained access to clean water. It has been reported that in Tanzania, debt relief enabled the government to abolish primary school fees, leading to a 66% increase in enrollment (IMF and World Bank, 2005). Seventh, participation of non-governmental institutions: Non-governmental institutions such as Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and Grassroot Organizations (GROs) have a long experience and capacity to work with grassroot communities (URT, 2005). If adequately involved, they can greatly contribute to the success of poverty reduction initiatives and achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Non governmental institutions play a “watchdog role” for governments, offering constructive criticism whenever necessary (TANGO, 2004).

TANGO noted further that non-governmental institutions also mobilize, monitor and carry out campaigns for poverty reduction undertakings. Many NGOs intervene in several initiatives that are relevant to the MDGs. For example, Tanzania Gender Networking Program (TGNP) is actively involved in lobbying and advocacy, research and information dissemination and equal allocation of resources for men and women (TANGO, 2004). Eighth, enhanced information dissemination mechanism: Recently, there have been rapid improvements in information technologies in Tanzania, especially media and digital information systems. According to the Tanzania government, there is an increase in broadcasting media such as radios and televisions as well as newspapers and magazines that have resulted to increased efficiency of information dissemination (URT, 1998). Modern communication technologies include internet services, mobile phones, WAP, pagers and GPRS (Ndamagi, 2005). All such technologies can be used to raise people's understanding and awareness on poverty issues, including information on poverty reduction opportunities that exist for them to enrich their livelihood. The media will certainly enhance efforts for social mobilization and integration in program planning and implementation (Ndamagi, 2005).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Overview**

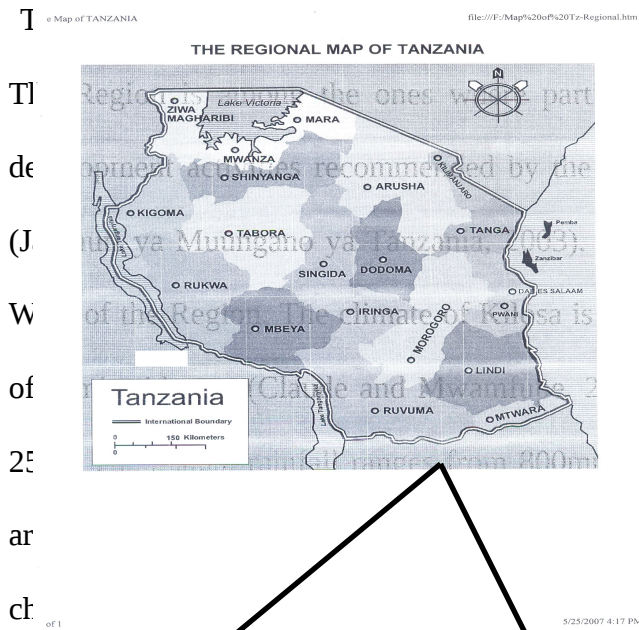
This chapter describes the study area and the methodology employed in the study. Description is given of the location, climate, socio-economic activities as well as the population characteristics of the study area. The chapter also provides clarification on the study design, sampling unit, sample size and sampling techniques and



procedures employed. Description of data collection instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures are also given.

### 3.2 Description of the study area

#### 3.2.1 Location and climate

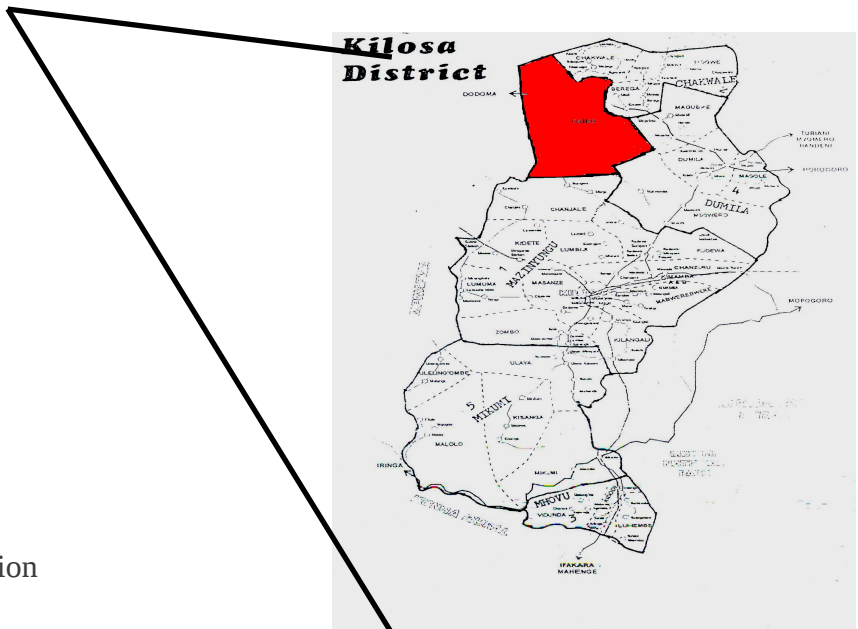


losa district) in Morogoro Region. tory methodology for community ernment has already been adopted osa district is located in the North aracterized by a dry tropical climate ). The mean annual temperature is 1300mm in low and high altitude e socio-economic and population

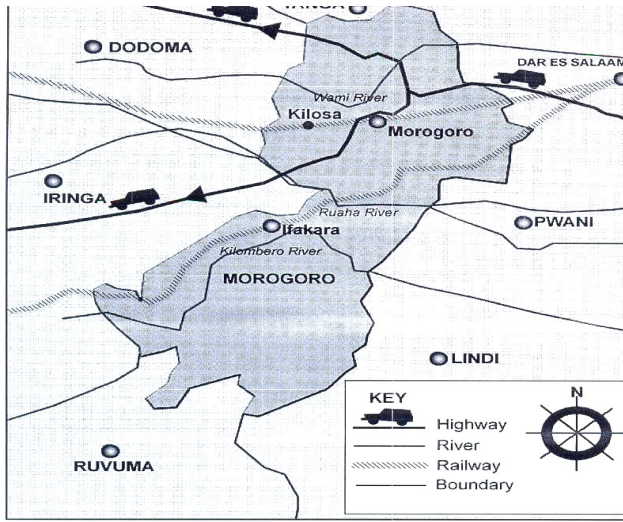
Key:



Gairo Division



Location of Kilosa district on the map of Morogoro Region



**Figure 2: A map showing the research area**

### Characteristics

The study area are crop farming and livestock keeping. Others include forestry, beekeeping, fishing and trading. Crops grown include sunflower, simsim, cotton and pigeon peas (URT, 2002). Others are maize and sweet potatoes. In some villages of Gairo, the majority of the population (over 75%) live in critical poverty and their access to socio-economic services is limited (Intermon Oxifarm, 2003).

According to URT (2002) and village reports, the population size of the district is 489 513. The population of wards and villages of the study are shown in Table 2. Data from Table 2 shows that the distribution of population in villages is such that while Chakwale is the most populated village among the study villages, Kwipipa is the least populated one. However, this study did not go further to identify the reasons for such distribution characteristics. Among the major ethnic groups in the district are Pogoro, Kaguru, Sagara, Gogo, Maasai and Barabaig (URT, 2002).

**Table 2: Distribution of population in respective selected areas**

<b>Ward</b>	<b>Population per ward</b>	<b>Village</b>	<b>Population per village</b>
Chakwale	29,513	Chakwale	9,884
		Ndogomi	3,404
Rubeho	17,020	Kwipipa	2,231
Gairo	35,638	Luhwaji	2,606

Source: Ward and Village records

### 3.3 Study design

A social survey was conducted whereby a cross sectional research design was adopted. The design enabled collection of data at one point in time. According to Bernard (1996) and Babbie (1990), this design provides useful information for simple statistical description and interpretation. It allows determination of relationship between different variables that are focused in the study. The sampling unit and sample size are described in the next part.

### **3.3.1 Sampling unit and sample size**

Households were the ultimate unit of analysis. Total sample size was 160 respondents who were all household heads from four villages. The number was arrived by considering that a minimum of 30 cases is considered as a reasonable sample size for studies in which statistical data analysis is to be done (SAS Institute, 1999). The household heads were considered as appropriate persons for interview because in most cases they are the ones responsible for households' welfare. Procedures used in the sampling are described in the next section.

### **3.3.2 Sampling technique and procedure**

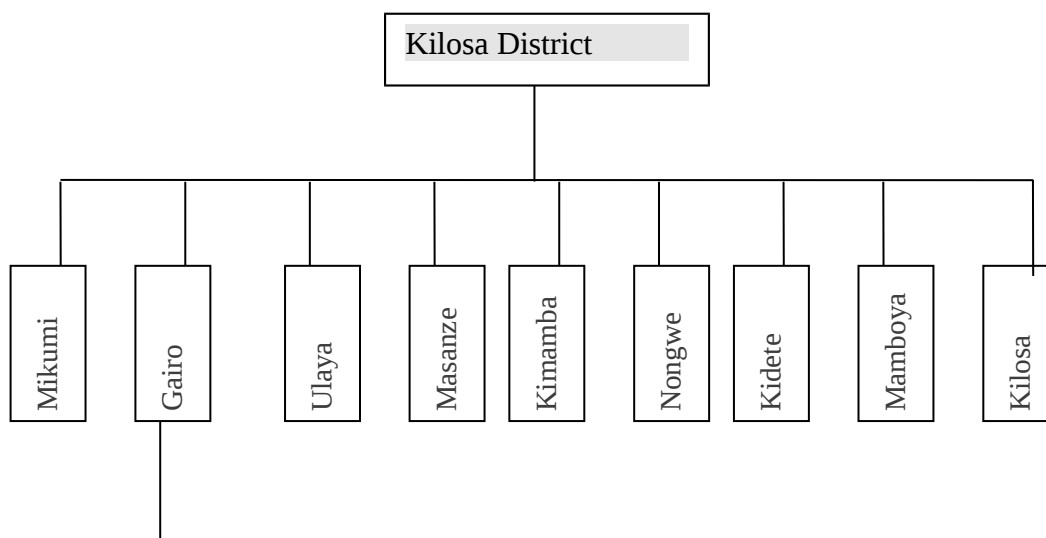
Purposive sampling was applied to obtain a study division whereby Gairo division was chosen among nine divisions of Kilosa district (Figure 3). It was important to employ purposive sampling technique so as to eliminate the possibility of ending up with the division that had no important characteristics as far as this study is concerned. Gairo division was chosen because it is one of the divisions where participatory planning process of identifying opportunities and obstacles to development (O&OD), which has been currently recommended by the government, has already been implemented. Also most of its villages have rural characteristics whereby most of the people depend on agriculture. In addition, some of its villages are easily accessed by road while others are not, which allowed for comparison. The mentioned characteristics were also used to obtain three study wards out of five wards of the division. From the three wards, four villages were selected purposively to include villages which took part in the O&OD activities, and which differed in accessibility by road. This sampling process allowed selection of two villages

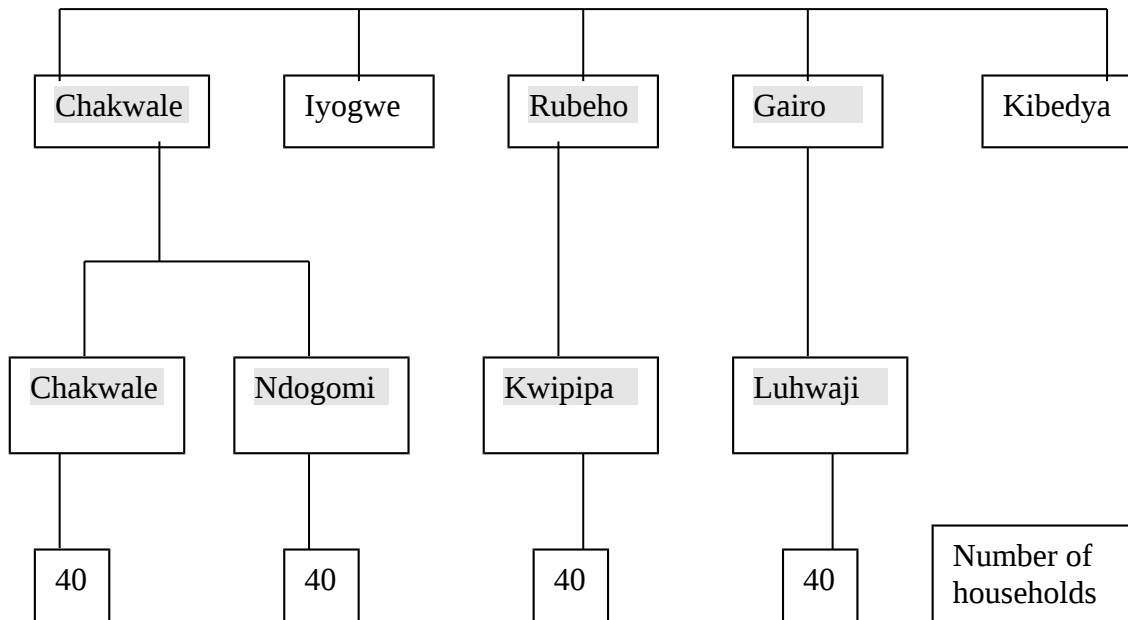
(Chakwale and Kwipipa), which are located along the road, and Ndogomi and Luhwaji villages located in remote areas (less accessed by road). A list of all households from the village register was used as a sampling frame whereby random selection was used to obtain 40 households from each village. The next section describes the data collection procedures.

### 3.4 Data collection

#### 3.4.1 Research tools

A questionnaire was designed and used to interview respondents to get both qualitative and quantitative data. The questionnaire was composed of open-ended and closed-ended questions (Appendix 1). The type of questions was determined by the kind of information needed. The two types of questions provided an opportunity to obtain information from respondents through specific and non specific answers. The questionnaire was formulated in English and then translated to Kiswahili language to allow for easy communication during the interviews. Face-to-face interviews were conducted in administering the questionnaire. A checklist or semi-structured interview guide was prepared to facilitate focus group discussions. The next part describes pre testing of the questionnaire.





KEY:

■ Sampled area

**Figure 3: Tree diagram showing the sapling procedure**

### 3.4.2 Pre testing the questionnaire

A preliminary survey was done to pre-test the questionnaire and check relevance and validity of the questions to the intended respondents. This was done under field condition to ensure that the questions were clear to the respondents thus allowing obtain relevant answers. Then, few questions were revised to make them easily understandable by the respondents.

### 3.4.3 Types of data collected

#### (a) Primary data

A questionnaire was used for individual interviews and a checklist was used to guide focus group discussions. For the focus group discussions, the groups did not exceed 10 people and the groups were composed of village leaders and key informants from respective villages. One focus group was involved in discussion for each of the four study villages. The groups were interviewed so as to supplement information obtained from the other respondents as well as to be able to obtain specific information concerning village issues, which might not be clear to common villagers. Participant observation was also done to supplement the information.

**(b) Secondary data**

Secondary data were collected from different documents, from district to village level. The data included; number of divisions, wards and villages and population size. While the number of divisions was obtained from the district, the number of wards was obtained from the division. From the wards, population of the wards and the number of villages per ward were obtained. Populations of the villages were obtained from the respective villages. Other information obtained was on socio-economic characteristics.

**3.5 Data analysis**

Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer software was used to analyze the data. Under this analysis, descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages and means were determined. While correlation analysis was used to study the relationship between variables, Student t-test was used to compare means among variables.

Content analysis was used to analyze information resulted from focus group discussions. This method of analysis has been defined as a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding (Stemler, 2001). Berelson (1952), Krippendorff (1980) and Weber (1990) offer a broad definition of content analysis as, "any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages". The method enables researchers to sift through large volumes of data with relative ease in a systematic fashion. The most common notion in qualitative research is that a content analysis simply means doing a word-frequency count. The assumption made is that the words that are mentioned most often are the words that reflect the greatest concerns.

### **3.6 Limitation of the study**

Responses of interviews mostly depended on individual's memory whereby respondents rarely kept written records of their activities. There were therefore notable difficulties for respondents to give some answers for example on household's income. Because of such limitation some of the household incomes reported by respondents might not be the exact figures/amounts rather were round figures.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1 Overview**

This chapter shows results of the study and their description. The results are based on the study objectives as well as background characteristics of the respondents. The background characteristics included; age, sex, marital status, education level,



occupation, community leadership, household size and income levels. Based on this study, description has been provided on participation of community members in poverty reduction activities at household level, participation in community development programs, opinions of the rural community members on opportunities for poverty reduction (that have been listed by the Government of Tanzania). Also, explanation has been given on poverty reduction opportunities that existed in the study area as well as the factors affecting participation in poverty reduction activities.

## 4.2 Background characteristics of respondents

### 4.2.1 Age

Results are presented in Table 3 whereby the ages ranged between 20 and 77 years grouped as young (20- 34), grownup (35-74) and old (75 –77). The overall results reveal that the ‘grown up’ age group consisted of the majority of the respondents (65.6%), whereas the ‘old’ group was only 3.1%. Since random sampling was used to obtain the respondents who participated in this study, it implies that the majority of household heads in the study area were adults aged between 35 and 74 years.

**Table 3: Distribution of respondents according to age groups**

<b>Age group</b>	<b>Age range</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
Young	20- 34	50	31.3
Grownup	35-74	105	65.6
Old	75 -77	5	3.1
<b>Total</b>		<b>160</b>	<b>100.0</b>

### 4.2.2 Sex

Most of respondents (83.8%) were men and only 16.3% were women (Table 4). Since the study was focusing on heads of households as respondents, this unequal

proportion is not surprising. This is because under normal circumstances in most Tanzanian ethnic groups, men are used to head households.

**Table 4: Distribution of respondents by sex**

<b>Respondent sex</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
Male	134	83.8
Female	26	16.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>100.0</b>

#### 4.2.3 Marital status

The majority of the interviewed respondents (91.9%) were married (Table 5). The rest of the respondents were widowers, separated and widows.

**Table 5: Distribution of respondents by marital status**

<b>Marital status</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
Married	147	91.9
Separated	5	3.1
Widows (women)	2	1.3
Widowers (men)	6	3.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>100.0</b>

#### 4.2.4. Community leadership status

Results indicated that only 15% of interviewed respondents held different positions of leadership in the community while the majority (85%) had no leadership role in the community. The community leadership status considered in this study were based on religions, development programs, village governments and political parties. Out of the 24 leaders, 4 of them were religious leaders (pastors and catechists) while 6 were involved with development programs (water and education programs). On the other hand, eleven leaders held different positions in the village governments and three were involved with CCM and market leaderships.

#### 4.2.5 Household size

The number of people per household ranged between 2 to 20. The majority of the households (51.3%) consisted of 5-8 people per household (Table 6). While about a quarter of households (27.5%) consisted of 1-4 family members and 20% consisted of 9-12 people, very few households (1.3%) consisted of extremely large number of 17-20 people.

**Table 6: Distribution of respondents according to their household size**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1-4	44	27.5
5-8	82	51.3
9-12	32	20.0
7-20	2	1.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>100.0</b>

#### 4.2.6 Education level

Results are presented in Table 7 whereby most of the interviewed respondents (63.1%) attained primary school education while 8.8% of respondents attained only a pre- primary education. Thirteen percent of the interviewed household heads were illiterate. Only a very small proportion of the respondents had attained either secondary or college education. This indicates that generally, majority of the community members in the study area had low level of education.

**Table 7: Distribution of respondents according to their education level**

Education categories	Frequency	Percent
Pre Primary school only	14	8.8
Primary school only	101	63.1
Secondary school	6	3.8
College	2	1.3
Adult education only	16	10.0

No formal education	21	13.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>100.0</b>

#### 4.2.7 Occupation

All of the interviewed respondents were involved in agriculture whereby 45.6% practiced crop farming only and 51.9 % practiced both crop farming and livestock keeping (Table 8). Crops cultivated include maize, ground nuts, sunflower, sweet potatoes and pigeon peas. Animals kept include cattle, goats, chicken and pigs. On the other hand, 2.5 % of respondents were also involved in trading together with agriculture.

**Table 8: Distribution of respondents according to their occupation**

<b>Occupation</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Crop farming only	73	45.6
Crop farming and livestock keeping	83	51.9
Agriculture and trading	4	2.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>100</b>

#### 4.2.8 Amount of total household annual cash income

With reference to the incomes of year 2004, the annual cash income ranged between TAS 40 000 and 800 000. The results in Table 9 show that 27.5 % of the households earned between TAS 100 001 and 200 000 while 22.5% earned between TAS 200 001 and 300 000. Others were 21.3% who earned between TAS 300 001 and 500 000. Only few households (13.8%) earned more than TAS 500 000. Focus group discussion indicated that the annual incomes of the majority were smaller compared to expenses, which the earned cash was used for. The respondents reported that

sometimes they failed to meet some of the basic requirements such as medical costs, clothing, school fees for their children and food in case of food shortages.

**Table 9: Distribution of respondents according to their annual income**

<b>Income category (in TAS)</b>	<b>Percentage (%) of respondents</b>
	<b>(n=160)</b>
Less than 51 000	1.8
51 000-100 000	13.1
100 001-200 000	27.5
200 001-300 000	22.5
300 001-500 000	21.3
500 001-600 000	6.3
600 001-800 000	7.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

### **4.3 Participation of community members in poverty reduction activities**

**(at household level)**

#### **4.3.1 Identified poverty reduction activities and sources of working capital for household cash income**

Results for the identified poverty reduction activities that were practiced by the interviewed respondents are shown in Table 10. Generally, the results are not very different from the findings of the occupations shown in section 4.2.7. The only difference was that for this particular section, it was important to consider even

minor economic activities provided that they were contributing to the income of the household. The activities included crop farming only (45.6%), crop farming and livestock keeping (51.9%), while 2.5% were involved in combination of crop farming, livestock keeping and trading. In this particular study, trading refers to off-farm income generating activities (IGAs) such as brewing, masonry, carpentry, tailoring and seasonal casual wage employment.

**Tale 10: Distribution of respondents according to number and type of IGAs engaged in**

<b>Number of IGAs</b>	<b>Type of activities</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
One	Crop farming only	73	45.6
Two	Crop farming and livestock keeping	83	51.9
	Trading and crop farming	3	1.9
Three	Crop farming, livestock keeping and trading	4	2.5

On the other hand, an assessment of sources of household working capital revealed that respondents obtained capital for the IGAs from different sources (Table 11). The sources included selling of agricultural products (61.9%), loans (5.6%), own labor (45.6%) and support from relatives (14.4%).

The findings indicate that the majority of the rural community members were earning their incomes from agricultural related activities. This is because majority of the rural community members involve themselves in agriculture as land is the main resource available to them. Very few depended on non-agricultural activities as a source of income. One of the reasons for only the few to involve themselves in non-agricultural activities may be lack of capital and skills to undertake off farm income

generating activities. According to URT (2000), poverty is persistent more in the rural as a result of unbalanced rural-urban development associated with the absence of basic physical, economic, social, financial and institutional infrastructure and services. This has prevented the poor from taking effective initiatives towards income generating opportunities and from gaining access to productive assets.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (2001) and IFAP (2000) have pointed out the most often cited reasons for rural poverty (Section 2.4.2). The results show that only few respondents obtained capital from external sources such as loaning institutions or other people. This is similar to observations by Van Raay (1989) that small holders are constrained in terms of land, labor, capital and management skills. This implies that the income level of the majority in rural areas is associated with factors affecting the agricultural sector. Freeman (1985) noted that availability of Socio-economic services such as credit facilities, input supply and extension services affect participation of rural communities in poverty eradication strategies.

**Table 11: Distribution of respondents according to source of household working capital for cash income**

Source of capital	Frequency	Percent (%)
Selling agric products	99	61.9
Loans	9	5.6
Own labor	73	45.6
From relatives	23	14.4

### 4.3.2 Participation of family members in household cash income

Results of assessment of participation of family members in household cash earning are presented in Table 12. The results show that at household level, many household heads (80% to 98.8%) involved family members at different stages of IGAs. The respondents (household heads) gave different reasons for involving their family members. The main reason given was mobilization of labor (69.4%) while the remaining 30.6% of household heads mentioned other reasons. Other reasons included need to provide training or capacity building on family members for ensuring sustainability of the IGAs and to increase transparency as well as providing opportunity for others to participate as it is their responsibility as part of the family.

**Table 12: Participation of family members at different stages of IGAs**

<b>Involvement stage</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent (%)</b>
Planning	128	80.0
Implementation	158	98.8
Evaluation	144	90.0

Assessment to uncover problems associated with the involvement of family members revealed that the majority of respondents indicated to have no problem (132 out of 160 or 82.5%) while 28 or 17.5% reported to face different problems. The reported types of problems are summarized in Table 13. It appears that the largest proportion of those who indicated to face some problems (28.57%) were those who felt that many of their family members had low capacity of understanding or may require them to provide very close supervision. It is interesting to note that some respondents



complained about frequent pregnancy by women (and therefore need for children care) to be hindering involvement of women in productive activities. The respondents explained that in most of the time women at the reproductive age were either pregnant or taking care of their young infants/children and thus could not participate fully in production. Some men were concerned so much that one man in Chakwale village was planning to divorce his wife because he felt she was not having substantial contribution in production. This indicates that some community members were not aware of different gender roles in the society. Gender analysis shows clearly that while men have double roles that is productive and community management roles, women have triple roles that is productive, reproductive and community management roles (ODA, 1995). It is suggested that failure to include gender considerations can lead to serious unforeseen effects on men, women and their households (ODA, 1995).

**Table 13: Summary of problems of involving family members in IGAs**

Identified problems	Frequency (n =28)	Percent(%)
Many family members are too young	2	7.14
Children spent most of the time in school	3	10.71
Children spent most of the time in school	3	10.71
Many family members require very close supervision	8	28.57
Polygamy (low cooperation from multiple married wives)	2	7.14
Frequent pregnancy of women and need for children care	2	7.14
Selfishness of family members (want to do their own activities)	5	17.86
Some family members are not faithful in handling cash	3	10.71

#### **4.4 Participation in community development programs**

This section begins by identifying the development programs that were existing in the study area. Then the extent to which the respondents were involved in different

stages of the programs is presented. Community development programs considered in this study were the ones which existed for the benefit of the majority of the community members.

#### 4.4.1 Existing programs in the study area

Results for the identified development programs that existed in the four study villages are presented in Table 14. The programs included education programs (classrooms construction); water program (wells construction and management); community cattle dip; health service facility (center) and communal land renting to farmers for crop production.

**Table 14: Identified community development programs in the four study villages**

Village	Number of programs	Type of programs
Ndogomi	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Education (class rooms construction)</li> <li>• Water wells</li> <li>• Cattle dip</li> </ul>
Chakwale	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Health center</li> <li>• Renting communal land for farming</li> <li>• Education (class rooms construction)</li> </ul>
Kwipipa	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Renting communal land for farming</li> <li>• Water (tap water)</li> <li>• Local skins /hides processing</li> </ul>
Luhwaji	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Renting communal land for farming</li> <li>• Water (tap water)</li> <li>• Education (class rooms construction)</li> </ul>

#### 4.4.2 Participation in community development programs

Results of how respondents reported to participate in three stages of development programs (i.e planning, implementation and evaluation) are summarized in Table 15. For all the three stages, the majority of the respondents did not participate (about two thirds for implementation and more than three quarters in either planning or evaluation). It is interesting to note that consistently, 2.5% of the respondents reported not to know how they participated in any of the three stages of development programs. The results clearly show that generally there is poor participation of community members in development programs particularly in planning and evaluation stages.

**Table 15: Participation of respondents in community development programs at different stages**

Stage of program	Percent (n = 160)			Total
	Were involved	Were not involved	Not sure/Do not know	
Planning	20.6	76.9	2.5	100
Implementation	31.3	66.2	2.5	100
Evaluation	20.0	77.5	2.5	100

Further analysis revealed that 11.9% of respondents participated in community development programs as decision makers while only 6.8% participated as leaders and 22.5% reported to participate as beneficiaries (Table 16). Up to 3.8% of respondents were not sure of how they participate in the existing community development programs. However, although most of the community programs found in the study area were those serving majority of the community members, for example education, health and water programs, still many respondents reported not

even benefiting from them. This finding requires further studies to characterize the situation.

**Table 16: Distribution of respondents according to reported kind of involvement**

Kind of involvement	Percent responses (n = 160)			Total
	Yes	No	Not sure or Do not know	
As decision maker	11.9	85.6	2.5	100
As a leader	6.8	89.4	3.8	100
As a beneficiary	22.5	73.7	3.8	100

#### **4.4.3 Participation in community development programs through development committees**

Through interviews with key informants, it was established that each village had four village development committees. The committees were namely committee for economic planning, committee for labour, committee for security and committee for social welfare. Assessment of awareness of respondents about development committees showed that 57.5% were aware of the presence of the development committees while 42.5% did not know (Table 17). The table also shows that only 46.9% were knowledgeable about who forms the committees. This indicates that the process of forming the committees was not clear enough to the villagers. In addition to that, only 37.5% of respondents were satisfied with performance of the committees, including the way the committees provided feedback to the villagers.

This situation can be caused by villagers themselves by not attending to the community meetings. It may also be caused by poor process of forming committees, which might have allowed for non-committed individuals. However, this study did

not go further to identify what exactly caused the gap between development committees and villagers. With reference to URT (2004), one of the basic elements to transparency in participatory approaches is information flow and the effective use of formal forums to disseminate and share information. For instance, local forums such as the Village Assembly, Village Council, Vitongoji/Mitaa, Ward Development Committee and District Council meetings should be publicised as much as possible for all stakeholders at each level to know and attend as required.

**Table 17: Distribution of respondents according to their awareness about various aspects of development committees**

Study item	Percent (n = 160)		
	Yes	No	Total
Aware about presence of various development committees	57.5	42.5	100
Aware about who forms the development committees	46.9	53.1	100
Satisfaction with performance of committees	37.5	62.5	100

#### 4.5 Opinions of rural community members on opportunities for poverty reduction

The Government of Tanzania believes that it has the capacity to eradicate poverty if the available opportunities are utilized (URT, 1998). This consideration prompted a need to assess the opinions of the respondents about the importance of the opportunities claimed by the government for poverty reduction/eradication. Descriptive statistics and chi-square test were used to assess the opportunities. The results are shown in Table 18, Table 19 and Figure 4 whereby the respondents were separated in two categories according to accessibility of their villages. Chakwale and Kwipipa villages were considered to be relatively more accessible while Ndogomi and Luhwaji were less accessible. Results of each of the eight government's claimed opportunities are discussed in the next sections. The following table and figure show opinions of rural community members on the importance of the government claimed opportunities for eradicating poverty

**Table: 18: Opinions of rural community members on the importance of the government claimed opportunities for eradicating poverty**

Opportunity	Relatively more accessible villages (Chakwale and Kwipipa) (n = 80)			Remote and less accessible villages (Ndogomi and Luhwaji) (n = 80)		
	Important	Not important	Not sure	Important	Not important	Not sure
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Opportunity (1)	73.75	10.00	16.25	58.75	22.50	18.75
Opportunity (2)	78.75	6.25	15.00	63.75	21.25	15.00
Opportunity (3)	53.75	35.00	11.25	27.50	46.25	26.50
Opportunity (4)	33.75	16.25	50.00	27.50	20.00	52.50
Opportunity (5)	70.00	6.25	23.75	45.00	23.75	31.25
Opportunity (6)	57.50	10.00	32.50	38.75	18.75	42.50
Opportunity (7)	70.00	18.75	11.25	57.50	3.75	38.75
Opportunity (8)	51.25	36.25	12.50	53.75	35.00	11.25

**Key:**

Opportunity 1 = Government commitment to eradicate poverty

Opportunity 2 = Peace and political stability

Opportunity 3 = Market liberalization

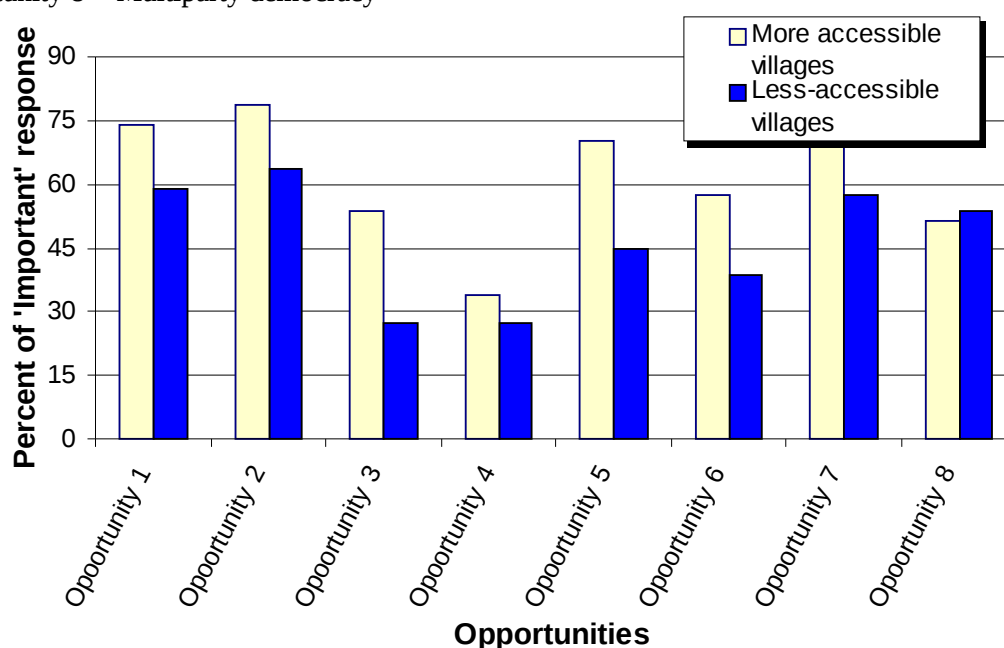
Opportunity 4 = Supportive international community

Opportunity 5 = Natural resources

Opportunity 6 = Participation of non governmental institutions

Opportunity 7 = Information dissemination

Opportunity 8 = Multiparty democracy



**Figure 4. Proportion of respondents who accepted the various government-claimed opportunities to be important in eradicating poverty**

**Key:**

Opportunity 1 = Government commitment to eradicate poverty

Opportunity 2 = Peace and political stability

Opportunity 3 = Market liberalization

Opportunity 4 = Supportive international community

Opportunity 5 = Natural resources

Opportunity 6 = Participation of non governmental institutions

Opportunity 7 = Information dissemination

Opportunity 8 = Multiparty democracy

Generally, the figure above (Figure 4) shows proportions of respondents who accepted the various Government claimed opportunities to be important in eradicating poverty. Generally, it can be observed from the figure that higher

proportion of community members in more accessible villages accept that the opportunities are important for poverty eradication as compared to communities in less accessible villages.

**Table 19. Summary for chi-square statistic testing for relationship between awareness of opportunities and type of accessibility by road**

<b>Opportunity</b>	<b>Chi square value</b>	<b>Level of Significance (P value)</b>
Opportunity 1	5.348	0.0690
Opportunity 2	7.589	0.0225*
Opportunity 3	12.831	0.0016**
Opportunity 4	0.643	0.7252
Opportunity 5	13.333	0.0013**
Opportunity 6	6.119	0.0469*
Opportunity 7	28.482	0.0001**
Opportunity 8	0.131	0.9370

Degree of freedom (df) was 2 throughout.

\* Significant at  $P \leq 0.05$  and \*\* Significant at  $P \leq 0.01$

The different opportunities were:

Opportunity 1 = Government commitment to eradicate poverty

Opportunity 2 = Peace and political stability

Opportunity 3 = Market liberalization

Opportunity 4 = Supportive international community

Opportunity 5 = Natural resources

Opportunity 6 = Participation of non governmental institutions

Opportunity 7 = Information dissemination

Opportunity 8 = Multiparty democracy

#### **4.5.1 Opportunity 1: Government commitment to eradicate poverty**

Results in Table 18 show that 73.75% of the respondents from the more accessible villages agreed that government commitment to poverty reduction was important for poverty reduction. That opinion was given by only 58.75% of those from less accessible villages. On the other hand, 16.25% of respondents from more accessible villages and 18.75% from less accessible villages were not sure whether the



government is important for poverty reduction or not. However, chi-square test (Table 19) revealed that there was no statistical difference in awareness of the opportunity between respondents from more accessible villages and those from less accessible villages ( $X^2 = 5.348$ ) at  $P > 0.05$ . It was very interesting to know that some people know their role in poverty reduction. They said that government commitments to reduce poverty can have much effect if people themselves make efforts to reduce poverty. Similar to respondents' comment, the government has made it clear that people themselves should make efforts to eradicate poverty and the government role is more of facilitating and complementing to people's efforts (URT, 1998). The respondents further explained that government commitment could have more effect on poverty reduction if it would support farmer's production in various ways including provision of working capital, ensuring proper expenditure of development funds and facilitating access to supports provided for poverty reduction.

#### **4.5.2 Opportunity 2: Peace and political stability**

More than three quarters (78.75%) of respondents from the more accessible village and 63.75% from less accessible villages, indicated that peace and political stability were important for poverty eradication (Table 18). On the other hand, 15% from each group were not sure of its importance for poverty eradication. There was statistical significance difference at  $P \leq 0.05$  between the two locations (Table 19).

This implies that majority of rural community members recognize the importance of peace and political stability in poverty reduction. Those who indicated that the opportunity was important had an opinion similar to the government's opinion that

peace and political stability allows for the participation of the people in decision-making process, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of poverty eradication programs (URT, 1988). The few who thought that the mentioned opportunity was not important for poverty reduction argued that peace and political stability has been there for most of the time but their poverty situation has remained high. In addition, they also complained that they were not enjoying the peace and political stability claimed by the government due to the problems that they face due to their poverty. They mentioned some of the problems such as diseases, food shortages and poor education services. Although this study did not go further to assess the magnitude of the mentioned problems, it showed that in order to make rural community members appreciate the importance of peace and political stability, the government should strive to address problems associated with poverty facing rural communities.

#### **4.5.3 Opportunity 3: Market liberalization**

Results in Table 18 show that while almost half (53.75%) of the respondents from more accessible villages agreed that market liberalization was contributing to poverty reduction, only 27.5% from less accessible villages argued the same. On the other hand, 11.25% of respondents from more accessible villages and 26.5% from less accessible villages were not sure whether market liberalization was important for poverty reduction.

The results indicate that more people in more accessible villages appreciate the contribution of market liberalization to poverty reduction as compared to those from less accessible villages. Chi-square test (Table 19) showed that the difference in

appreciation of the importance of the opportunity between respondents from more and less accessible villages was statistically significant ( $X^2 = 12.831$ ) at  $P < 0.01$ . In all the villages (more and less accessible), the respondents who recognized the importance of market liberalization gave a reason that such a situation allows a farmer to have a wider choice of selling and buying. This opinion is in line with the government (URT, 1998) strategy.

The observed difference in realizing the importance of market liberalization between the more and less accessible villages is not surprising. It is obvious that transport services affect production, processing, manufacturing, marketing and distribution of goods and services, which are important outcomes of the market liberalization. These were less likely to be enjoyed in less accessible villages.

#### **4.5.4 Opportunity 4: Supportive international community**

From Table 18 and Figure 4, results indicate that from both the more accessible and less accessible villages, only less than half of the respondents (33.75% and 27.5%, respectively) agreed that supportive international community have substantial contribution to poverty reduction. On the other hand, about half of the respondents from each of more accessible as well as less accessible villages (50% and 52.5%, respectively) were not sure whether the supportive international community was an opportunity for poverty reduction. This implies that in both types of villages (accessible and less accessible) the supportive international community was not clear as an opportunity for poverty reduction. The majority of respondents who indicated that the international support was not important or were not sure of its importance

had the opinion that in most cases, rural community members did not access support provided by the international community. Similar to this opinion, opponents of debt relief argue that debt relief is like a 'blank cheque' to governments, and fear that the savings may not reach the poor in countries plagued by corruption. Others argue that the money would perhaps be far better spent in specific aid projects which actually help the poor (IMF and World Bank, 2005). This is contrary to the government's argument (URT, 1998) that supportive international community encourages increased flow of international resources to meet the needs of the poor.

#### **4.5.5 Opportunity 5: Natural resources**

Results showed that more than half of the respondents (70%) from more accessible villages support government opinion that natural resources are important for poverty reduction compared to 46% of the respondents from less accessible villages (Table 18 and Figure 4). Furthermore, results indicated that 23.75% from more accessible villages and 31.25% from less accessible villages were not sure whether the mentioned opportunity was important for poverty reduction or not. Chi-square statistic test showed statistical significance ( $X^2 = 13.333$ ) difference at  $P \leq 0.01$  between people from more accessible villages and those from less accessible villages (Table 19). This implies that many people in more accessible villages compared to those in less accessible villages are aware of the importance of natural resources in poverty reduction. The difference in understanding the importance of natural resources among more and less accessible villages can be associated with higher interaction of villagers in the more accessible villages, with people from different parts of the country, therefore more exposed to the resources and their utilization.

However, majority of those who appreciated the importance of the opportunity mentioned land as the main natural resource accessed and used by the majority of rural community members. Similar to this observation, the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (2001) noted that despite abundance of unutilized land, Tanzanian agriculture is dominated by small-scale subsistence farming. The Ministry explains further that major limitation on the size of land holdings and utilization is the heavy reliance on the hand hoe as the main cultivating tool. This indicates that, the less accessible villages can hardly obtain services from other people. Such services include tractors during farming seasons and other inputs to improve production. Focus group discussions indicated that rural community members had low understanding on types of natural resources and their utilization; therefore, they were not utilizing the resources efficiently and sustainably. URT (1998) emphasized that sustainability in participatory planning and budgeting should ensure development of socio-economically viable plans thus not leading to degradation of the resource use. On the other hand, the government believes that the country of Tanzania is endowed with rich natural resources, which can be utilized to eradicate poverty (Section 2.7).

#### **4.5.6 Opportunity 6: Participation of non-governmental institutions**

Results indicate that while 57.7% of respondents from more accessible villages accepted that non-governmental institutions contributed to poverty reduction, only 38.75% of respondents from less accessible villages recognize the contribution of those institutions (Table 18). Likewise, 32.5% of the respondents from accessible villages and 42.5% from less accessible villages were not sure whether these institutions contributed to poverty reduction. The differences were statistically

significant (Table19) at  $P \leq 0.05$ . During focus group discussions, respondents felt that some non-governmental institutions were formed for the owners' interests but making use of use of rural communities' problems to justify project funds from donors. They explained that some institutions undertook programs that were not suitable with conditions of the rural communities such as high interest rates associated with loans provided by some institutions.

General observations showed that more accessible villages received higher number of non-governmental institutions for developmental support compared to less accessible villages. For example, although Chakwale and Ndogomi were villages from the same ward, Chakwale had received more non-governmental institutions for different community development programs compared to Ndogomi. Chakwale village was categorized to be more accessible than Ndogomi. The institutions which were reported to have worked in Chakwale village included AFREDA (food security and nutrition program), and CHAYODE (cultural activities). In Ndogomi only an opposition political party (Demokrasia Makini) was reported to have reached the community during the campaigns for election.

#### **4.5.7 Opportunity 7: Information dissemination**

Results in Table 18 indicate that more than half of the respondents (70% from more accessible villages and 57.5% from less accessible villages) agreed that information dissemination contributed to poverty reduction. The difference in response showed to be statistically significant at chi- square 28.482 and P-value less than 0.01 (Table 19). Furthermore, 38.75% of respondents from less accessible villages and 11.25% from more accessible villages were not sure whether information dissemination was

important for poverty reduction. Focus group discussions revealed that rural communities were hardly accessing information media like newspapers, televisions and radio, therefore they mostly either missed or received outdated information. This argument appears to be contrary to the government opinion (URT, 1998) that there is now good communication media to reach every one that can be used to rise people's understanding and awareness on poverty reduction issues. Through this study, it was observed that rural communities especially those in interior areas hardly access information particularly through newspapers and other publications.

#### **4.5.8 Opportunity 8: Multiparty democracy**

About half of respondents from both the more accessible and less accessible villages (51.25% and 53.75% respectively) agreed that multiparty democracy was important for poverty reduction (Table 18 and Figure 4). Only 12.5% from more accessible and 11.25% from less accessible villages were not sure. Those who indicated that multiparty democracy was important for poverty reduction gave a reason that opposition political parties were challenging the government thus making it more active. Those who disagreed felt that many political parties were not for helping people but rather were for personal interests. Generally, rural community members in more accessible villages were more aware of the opportunities listed in the NPES document as compared to community members in remote areas.

#### **4.6 Identified poverty reduction opportunities in the study area**

From the focus group discussions together with observations by the researcher, the main opportunities for poverty reduction in the study area were agricultural land and

the resulting markets for agricultural products. On the other hand, majority of respondents (97.5%) said that the main opportunity they saw around in the area was farming. About eighteen percent (18.1%) mentioned loans as opportunities available in the area. Very few respondents (6.3%) mentioned opportunities other than the listed ones. These were namely markets, employment and mining. These results imply that poverty reduction in the study area is mostly dependent on land use. The mentioned and observed opportunities were among those listed by the government for poverty reduction that is sections 4.5.1 through 4.5.8 above. However, general observation showed that the opportunities mentioned by the government are not very clear to the rural community members. Also, it might be that the rural community members do not realize the direct contribution of some of the mentioned opportunities.

#### **4.7 Factors affecting participation in poverty reduction activities**

Correlation tests of several independent variables with two dependent variables were determined using Pearson's correlation coefficients. The two dependent variables, which reflected the extent of participation in poverty reduction, were namely number of income generating activities (IGAs) undertaken by a respondent and income level. Results of the correlation tests are summarized in Table 20, and descriptions are given in the sections that follow. All the test independent variables appeared to have statistical significant correlation with both indicators of participation in poverty reduction.



**Table 20: Summary of the correlation tests**

<b>Indicator of participation</b>	<b>Independent Variables</b>	<b>Pearson's Correlation coefficient</b>	<b>Level of Significance</b>
<b>(Dependent variables)</b>			
Number of IGAs	Age (overall)	-0.1851	P = 0.0210*
	Household size	+0.1458	P = 0.047*
	Age (overall)	-0.0993	P = 0.013*
	Household size	-0.1730	P = 0.0450*
Income level	Number of IGAs	+0.2385	P = 0.002**

\* Significant at  $P \leq 0.05$ \*\* Significant at  $P \leq 0.01$ 

#### **4.7.1 Age of head of household**

##### **4.7.1.1 Age and number of IGAs**

Results in Table 20 indicate that there was a significant negative correlation between the age of the respondent (head of household), and the number of IGAs the household had. The correlation coefficient for this relationship was  $r = -0.1851$  ( $p < 0.05$ ), which indicates that as the respondents' age increased, the number of household IGAs decreased. This can be due to the fact that older people are less active in production activities as compared to the more active young people. Nanai (1993) observed that participation was optimum between 25 - 34 years and declined beyond 34 years with increase of age. It is likely that age has many implications as far as livelihood is concerned. Likewise, Ifran (1989) argues that since the head of the household is the major breadwinner, his/her age reflects participation in poverty eradication activities.

#### **4.7.1.2 Age and income level**

On the other hand, there was also a negative correlation coefficient ( $r = - .0993$ ) between household annual income and age of the respondent at  $P \leq 0.05$  level of significance. This implies that income dropped as the age of household head increased. These results can be justified by explanations given above on the relationship of age and number of IGAs.

#### **4.7.2 Household size**

##### **4.7.2.1 Household size and number of IGAs**

From Table 20, results show that household size correlated positively with the number of IGAs ( $r = +0.1458$ ) at  $P \leq 0.05$  significance level. The results indicate that the number of IGAs was increasing as the size of the household increased. This can be related with the fact that majority of household heads were involving family members in IGAs as source of labor, meaning that the higher the number of household members the higher the availability of labor for IGAs and vice versa. Further analysis was done to distinguish between male and female-headed households separately. It was interesting to note that while results for the male headed households maintained the same general relationship (positive), female-headed households showed negative Pearson's correlation ( $r = -0.18$ ) implying that as the family size increased the number of IGAs decreased and vice versa. However, the relationship was not significant at similar level ( $P = 0.379$ ). These results can be associated with gender division of labor whereby women actually do have many other responsibilities apart from productive ones as compared to men. Nanai (1993) noted that men were more likely to participate in productive activities than women

due to their slightly less workload in the households. This implies that as family size increases a woman who is heading a household devotes much of her time and energy to caring the family members than participating in productive activities. The next section describes the effect of household size to income level.

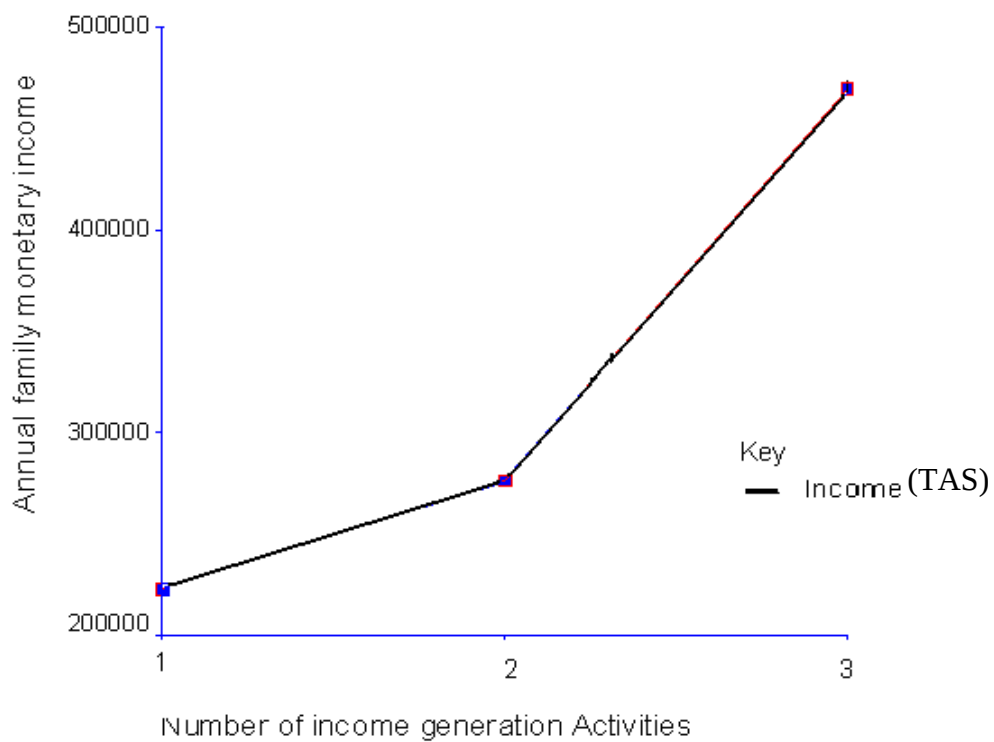
#### **4.7.2.2 Household size and income level**

Results in table 20 show that there was negative Pearson correlation coefficient ( $r = -0.173$ ) between household annual income and household size at the 5% level of significance. The results imply that as the household size increased the income dropped. The results appear to be due to the fact that large families are likely to consist of more young, school children and disabled or elderly individuals who are dependants. Participation of these groups in poverty reduction activities (if any) is generally minimal. In addition to that, according to DHS (1997) observations, the age dependency is found to be higher in rural as compared to the urban areas. In Tanzania, child dependency was found to be 48.7% and 41.1% for the rural and urban respectively. The current study did not quantify such unproductive groups in the study population. The effect of the number of IGAs is described in the next part.

#### **4.7.3 Number of IGAs**

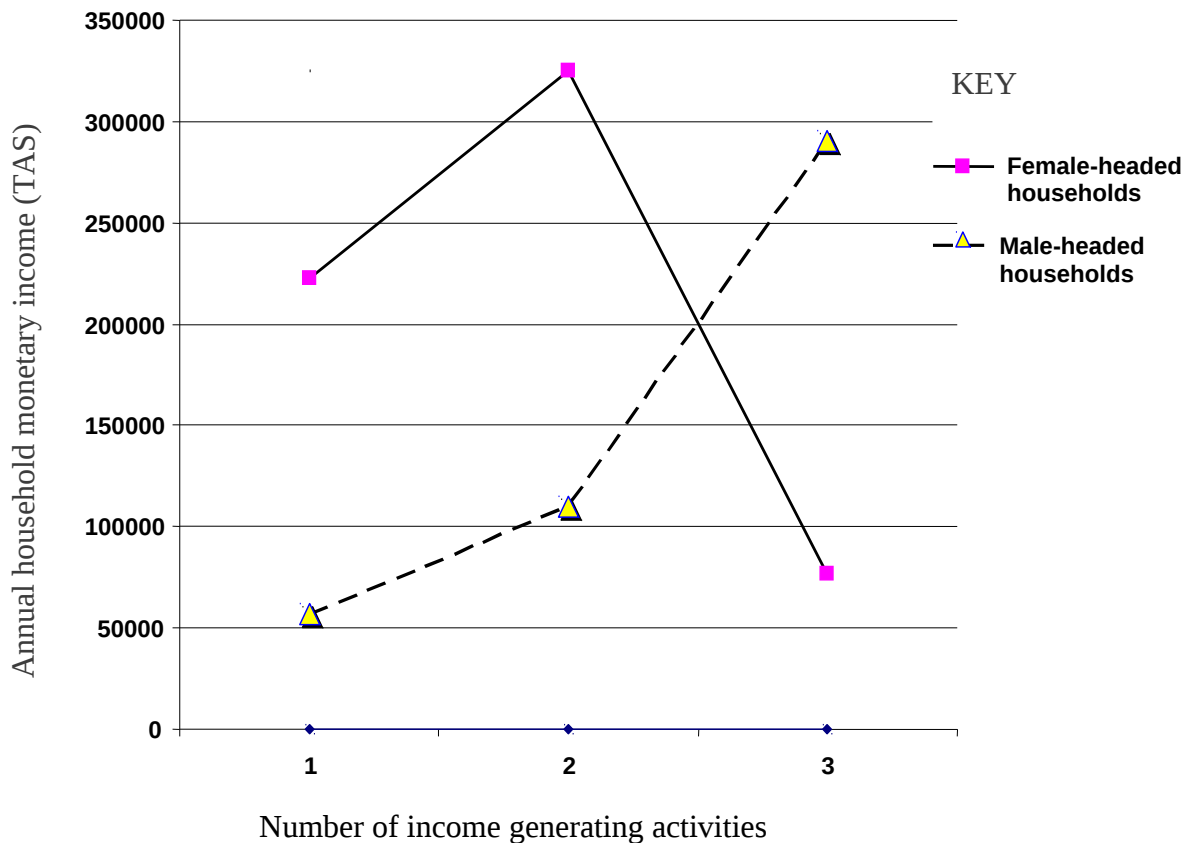
Correlation test was also done on the number of income generating activities (IGAs) as independent variable with income level. Results are presented in Table 20 and Figure 5. The number of IGAs was positively correlated with family income  $r = 0.2385$  at  $P < 0.01$ . This indicates that as the number of IGAs increased, income increased too. This finding suggests that since majority of rural community members depend on agriculture, which is associated with high risks and uncertainties, having

variety of IGAs to supplement income from agriculture, become advantageous. URT (2005) reported that poverty was highest in households that depend entirely on agriculture. Also, investing in variety of activities provides opportunity to minimize the risks of a particular activity therefore maintain the level of the income earned. In relation to the findings, Hart (1994) argues that households tend to diversify their sources of income and increase the share of total income generated by off-farm activities. The following figure (Figure 5) shows distribution of mean annual income of respondents with different numbers of IGAs.



**Figure 5. The distribution of annual income of respondents with different numbers of IGAs**

Further analyses of different sexes (males and females of heads of households) showed two different trends (Figure 6). The annual income increased steadily with the number of IGAs among males. However, for women, income increased with number of IGAs up to two IGAs and then decreased with increase of number of IGAs. The observation may require further investigation to obtain explanation. Figure 6 below shows the annual income in the different sexes in relation to number of IGAs.



**Figure 6: Annual income in the different sexes in relation to number of IGAs**

Basing on this particular study, it can be concluded that the number of IGAs decreased as the age of the household head increased. Likewise, household annual incomes decrease with an increase of the age of the household head. Although the

number of household IGAs increased with an increase of the household size, household annual income decreased with an increase of household size. The household annual income increased with an increase of the number of household IGAs.

Therefore using household annual income and the number of IGAs as indicators of participation of rural communities in poverty reduction strategies, participation is affected by household size and age of the household head. Also, number of IGAs as a variable affects positively participation of the study population in poverty reduction strategies.

#### **4.8 Summary of results**

In summary, results show that the age of respondents ranged between 20 and 77 years and most of them (83.8%) were men. The majority of the respondents (91.9%) were married. Also, results revealed that only few respondents (15%) held different positions of leadership in the community. The number of people per household ranged between 2 to 20 people. Most of the respondents (63.1%) attained a maximum of primary school education.

Further assessment showed that the main opportunity for poverty reduction in the study area was land. All the interviewed respondents in one way or another involved themselves in agriculture. With reference to the incomes of year 2004, it was found that the annual cash income of respondents ranged between TAS 40 000 and 800 000. Also, it was found that rural community members involve themselves in poverty reduction activities in different ways. The activities included crop farming only (45.6%), crop farming and livestock keeping (51.9%) and 2.5% involved themselves

in combination of crop farming, livestock keeping and trading. Generally, results indicate that the income increased with the number of IGAs, therefore, the hypothesis that the annual income at household level has an association with the number of income generating activities undertaken was true. However, only few respondents (5.6%) had ever attained capital for household income from external source. Furthermore, results revealed that although many household heads (80 to 98.8%) involved family members at different stages of household IGAs for different reasons, there were few household heads (17.5%) who reported some problems associated with such involvement. In the study area, there were also different development programs going on. However, majority of the respondents (about two thirds to three quarters) did not participate in planning, implementation or evaluation of the programs. Some of the respondents (2.5%) did not know how they participated in the programs.

In addition, results showed that generally, higher proportion of the respondents from the more accessible villages, accept that the opportunities listed by the Government of Tanzania were important for poverty reduction. This is in comparison with respondents from the less accessible villages. This resulted into accepting the hypothesis that accessibility of an area affects recognition of poverty reduction opportunities by the residents. It was also found that age of household head and household size affect participation of rural communities in poverty reduction strategies. Based on these results, the hypothesis that participation of rural communities in poverty reduction strategies is influenced by some of household demographic factors such as age of household head and household size was accepted.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Overview**

This chapter describes conclusions and recommendations made after analysis of the data gathered in this study. The conclusions and recommendations were drawn based on findings in relation to the study objectives. The recommendations show measures that can contribute to improving participation of the rural communities in the National Poverty Reduction Strategies through development programs and activities. Areas for further research are also reflected at the end of this chapter.

#### **5.2 Conclusions**

This study concluded that participation of the community members in Gairo Division in Kilosa District had the following characteristics: First, the majority of members are involved in agriculture (crop farming and livestock keeping) as their main economic activities. This means that agriculture served as the main income generation activity. However, community members with other sources of income (additional to agriculture) had relatively higher income. Second, the majority of household head obtained working capital for household cash income from selling their own agricultural products and own labor. Very few obtained capital from alternative sources. Third, many household heads involved family members in undertaking household poverty reduction activities. Fourth, the majority of the community members were not involved in planning and evaluation of community development programs. The community members were also not satisfied with the way their representative committees were working for them.



Assessment of the opinions of the community members regarding the eight opportunities set forward by the government for reduction of poverty in Tanzania revealed that, generally rural communities in the more accessible villages were more positive of the opportunities than the communities in remote areas. Such opportunities included especially market liberalization, natural resources and information dissemination. It was also concluded that the main poverty reduction opportunity identified in the study area was land. It follows, therefore, that participation of the rural communities in poverty reduction strategies depended largely on land use. This implies that land availability and productivity are important factors that affect the participation of the rural community members in poverty reduction activities in the study area.

Furthermore, determination of the factors influencing participation in poverty reduction activities revealed that: First, the increase in number of economic activities with the inclusion of off-farm economic activities plays an important role in increasing the level of incomes of the rural community members. Off-farm activities in the study area were however, minimal. Second, households with many people tend to have bigger numbers of IGAs. Household size, however, has negative influence on the household income. Also, as the household head gets older, the income of his/her household drops gradually.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

This study recommend that: First, in order to improve participation of the rural communities in poverty reduction strategies, the rural community members should be

supported to diversify their economic activities so as to minimize the effect of risks and uncertainties associated with agricultural sector. To achieve this, development actors should direct their efforts to improving involvement of the rural communities in non-agricultural activities in order to supplement their incomes from agriculture. Second, in order to enable the rural community members improve production, there should be improvement in availability of working capital. This can be achieved through increased access to credit facilities by the rural community members. Third, participatory approach as a rational process for administering development activities should be emphasized particularly at community level. Village governments should improve involvement of community members in formation of village development committees and ensure the provision of feedback to community members regarding committee assigned activities/responsibilities. Fourth, for enhancing participation of the rural communities in poverty reduction strategies, the government and other development agencies should raise awareness of rural communities on poverty reduction opportunities. Awareness rising should focus on kind of opportunities, accessibility, utilization and sustainability of the opportunities.

In addition to that, awareness rising should include issues such as effective and sustainable use of land, available sources of capital and procedures for accessing services that are provided. Also, rural communities should be facilitated to form farmer groups so as to improve their power for solving some of their problems like meeting costs for transporting their products to the markets where they can sell the products at relatively higher prices. Fifth, development supporters should provide knowledge and skills of entrepreneurship to the rural communities so as to enable

them utilize effectively off-farm seasons by involving themselves in off-farm activities thus raising their income.

#### **5.4 Areas for further research**

Based on this study, the following areas remain unclear thus need further research. First, how best information dissemination can be achieved with respect to specific groups in relation to their environment and information services available. Second, what are the causes of gaps between development organs such as village development committees and villagers themselves. Third, what kind/type(s) of participation is dominant in Tanzania; and its strength and weaknesses. Also, it is important to assess awareness of rural communities on participation, as it is a rational process for sustainable development.

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**APPENDICES**

**Appendix 1: Questionnaire for respondents**

Division.....  
Ward.....  
Village.....  
Sub-village.....  
Date.....

**1.0 General information of the respondent**

- 1.1 Name of respondent.....
- 1.2 Gender [ i ] Male [ii ] Female
- 1.3 Age.....Years
- 1.4 Education [ i ] No formal education  
[ ii ] Pre- primary education  
[ iii] Primary education.....years  
[ iv] Secondary education.....years  
[v ] College.....years  
[ vi ] Others (specify).....years
- 1.5. Household size.....people.
- 1.6. Marital Status (Tick)
  - [ i ] Single.....
  - [ ii ] Married.....
  - [ iii ] Divorced.....
  - [ iv ] Widowed.....
- 1.7 Leadership status in the community
  - [ i ] Have leadership position Yes.....  
.....No.....
  - [ ii ] If yes, what are they? .....

## 2.0 Awareness/ opinion on opportunities for poverty reduction

2.1 Do you think that the following are important for improving your life standard?

- [ i ] .....Government commitment to eradicate poverty
- [ ii ] .....Peace and political stability
- [ iii ] .....Natural resources
- [ iv ] .....Economic reforms and market liberalization
- [ v ] .....Supportive international community,
- [ vi ] .....Participation of non government institutions
- [vii ] .....Enhanced information dissemination
- [ viii ] .....Multiparty democracy
- [ ix ] .....Others (specify). .....

## 3.0 Opportunities existing in the study area

3.1 What kind of opportunities is available for poverty reduction in this area?

- [ i ] .....Land
- [ ii ] .....Capital (loans)
- [ iii ] ..... Equipment/agricultural implements
- [ iv ] .....Market for products
- [ iv ] .....Others (Specify).....

## 4.0 Involvement in poverty reduction activities (at individual level)

4.1 What are your main economic activities?

- [ i ] .....Agriculture
- [ ii ] .....Trading
- [ iii ] ..... Employment
- [iv ] ..... Others. Specify... ..

4.2 Where did you get capital for the economic activities?

- [ i ] .....Selling agricultural produces
- [ ii ] ..... Loan
- [ iii ] .....Own labor
- [ iv ] ..... Others (Specify).....

4.3 How many Income Generating Activities (IGAs) do you have? .....

4.4 Do you involve family members in the IGAs? Yes..... No.....

4.5 If yes, where did you involve them?

[ i ] .....In planning

[ ii ] .....In implementation

[iii ] .....In monitoring and evaluation (Tick the correct answer)

4.6 Why did you involve them? i.....ii.....

iii.....iv.....

4.7 How many family members did you involve? .....

4.8 What is the average income (amount in Tsh) earned?

[ i ] Per day per .....

[ ii ] Per month.....

[ iv] Per year.....

## **5.0 Involvement in poverty reduction projects/ programs (at community level)**

5.1 How many projects /programs exists for community development? .....

5.2 What are they about?

[ i ] .....

[ ii ]

.....

[ iii ]

.....

[ iv ] .....

5.3 Who initiated the notion of the project?

[ i ].....Villagers

[ ii ] .....Government leaders

[ iii ] .....Politicians

[ iv ] .....Donors

[ v ] .....Others (Specify.....)

5.4 Are you involved in any way in the project? Yes..... No.....

5.5 If yes, where are you involved?

[ i ].....In planning

[ ii ].....In implementation

[ iii ].....In monitoring and evaluation

5.6 How are you involved?

[ i ] .....Decision maker

[ ii .] .....Implementer

[ iii ] .....Beneficiary

[ iv ] .....Incentives

[ ii ] ..... Organization

5.7 Why did you participate in development programs?

ii..... ii.....

iii.....iv.....

5.8 Are there committee for management of community development activities?

Yes..... No.....

5.9 When was the committee (s) formed?

[ i ] .....Early during project implementation

[ ii ] .....At the end of the project implementation

[ iii ] .....After project completion

5.10 Does the committee meet? Yes.....No.....

5.11 How often does the committee meet?

[ i ] .....Ones in six months

[ ii ] .....Twice in six months

[ iii ] ..... Others. (Specify).....

5.12 Does the committee provide feedback to the villagers on progress of the activities they perform? Yes.....No.....

5.13 Who formed the committees?

[ i ] .....Villagers

[ ii ] ..... Village government

[ iii ] ..... Others (Specify).....

5.14 How were the committees formed.....

6.0 Factors affecting participation of community members in poverty eradication programs/activities

6.1 What kind of problems do you encounter in your IGA?

[ i ].....[ ii ] .....[ iv ]

.....

6.2 Are you satisfied with income earned from your IGA? Yes/No

6.3 If not, why don't you diversify / expand your IGAs?

[ i ].....

[ ii ].....

6.4 What are the problems associated with involvement of different groups of people

in planning, monitoring and evaluation of programs/projects?

[ i ].....

[ ii ].....

[iii ].....

[iv ].....

[iv ].....