

**PERFORMANCE OF INTERVENTIONS UNDER ASDP IN TANZANIA:
THE CASE OF TEMEKE MUNICIPALITY**

BY

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**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE IN
AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION AND EXTENSION OF SOKOINE
UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE. MOROGORO, TANZANIA.**

2010

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted in Temeke Municipality. The general objective of this study is to assess the performance of the existing interventions implemented by small scale farmers under ASDP through the O&OD participatory planning process. A cross-sectional research design was applied for this study. A representative sample of 100 respondents (52 DADPs participants and 48 non-DADPs participants) was drawn from the sampling frame. The study revealed that there was no difference in living standards between DADPs participants and non- DADPs participants. Problems that face the interventions were: diseases of crops and animals, poor attendance of members in meetings, lack of technical know how, drought, lack of markets, high prices of agricultural inputs, misunderstandings among the group members and lack of permanent irrigation structures. The study recommends that there is a need to involve the small scale farmers and other development agencies in the area at the start of such interventions so as to integrate all the sectors; furthermore accountability and transparency would be strengthened by strengthening elected interventions committee to play their role more effectively; this should establish faster development and sustainability of interventions. It is recommended that interventions identification should be discussed regularly in the street assembly. Failure of interventions identified through the O&OD participatory process is a great disincentive to planning; PRA techniques should be employed to generate local awareness of how community resources, both human and financial, can be used to solve community problems. The District and Ward Facilitation Teams should make regular follow ups and monitor at street level; this will help to know what is really

happening at every stage of the participatory process and emerging problems and finding solutions to them. The Municipal Council should ensure that objectives set under DADPs interventions are achievable.

DECLARATION

I, Joseph Mvamba Mlungwana, hereby declare to the SENATE of Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) that this dissertation is my original work and that it has neither been submitted nor being concurrently submitted for a degree award in any other institution.

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.....

Date

The above declaration is confirmed by

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Date

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to first express my thanks and gratitude to the Almighty God for giving me the courage, ability, and guidance through the process of dissertation writing. I wish to acknowledge other researchers; a lot of ideas have been borrowed in the completion of this report. This research work would not have been successfully completed but for the assistance of a number of people. I must express my profound and sincere indebtedness and gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. A. Z. Mattee for his patience in making a thorough and critical review, guidance, moral support, comments and useful suggestions and understanding from the initial stage of writing the proposal up to the time of production of this dissertation. Without his dedication, this work would not have become a reality.

I owe a great deal of thanks to my entire course mates for their support and encouragement. I deeply appreciate the financial support offered to me and for granting me a study leave by the Temeke Municipal Director and a great appreciation to my head of sub-department the late Dr. Jonathan Warioba for his assistance. I say thank you for the support, without which it would not have being possible for me to undertake the study.

Furthermore special thanks go to my daughter Mikelina and my son Wenceslaus whose prayers, love, and care have been a source of strength and encouragement to me throughout the course of my study.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the memory of my late parents Mikelina Martin (Nashera) and Wenceslaus Kibwengo who some thirty three years ago took me to school.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOL

%	Percentage
ASDP	Agricultural Sector Development Programme
ASLMs	Agricultural Sector Leading Ministries
ATT	Animal Traction Technology
CBO	Community Based Organization
DADPs	District Agricultural Development Plans
DDP	District Development Plan
DFT	District Facilitation Team
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FSR&E	Farming System Research and Extension
GoT	Government of Tanzania
Ha	Hector
LGA	Local Government Authority
LGRP	Local Government Reform Programme
MALDO	Municipal Agricultural and Livestock Development Officer
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
NSSD	National Strategy for Sustainable Development
O&OD	Opportunities and Obstacles for Development
PAR	Participatory Action Research
PFC	Planning and Finance Committee

PO-RALG	President's Office-Regional Administration and Local Government
PPA	Participatory Poverty Assessment
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TMC	Temeke Municipal Council
Tsh.	Tanzania shilling
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VDP	Village Development Plan
WB	World Bank
WDC	Ward Development Committee
WDP	Ward Development Plan
WFT	Ward Facilitation Team

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

Efforts have been made by the government since independence, to have participatory planning in the economic planning process, with a view to attaining a bottom-up planning for the purpose of empowering the LGAs in respect of technical capacity in optimizing the functions performed by the Central Government (URT, 2007). Rural development has been the focus of attention of policymaking process. Having a majority of its people residing in rural areas, the political leadership has been adopting various measures in order to improve living standards of the rural population. Government efforts have generated rather mixed results over the years. The World Bank – backed plans of ‘transformation’ and ‘improvement’ approaches left the rural economy virtually unchanged. The improvement approach was geared to promoting rural economy through enhancement of cooperative unions, increased emphasis on agricultural extension and community development. Hand in hand with this, was the transformation approach that was set to reorganize the peasantry economy by creating settlement schemes where farmers could be introduced to ‘modern’ agricultural techniques and methods. However, it did not take long for the government to realize that these approaches were not producing the expected results (Andrew, 1982).

Further rural development policies were adopted after the 1967 Arusha Declaration that proclaimed the building of a socialist society. Through the ideology of ujamaa

and self-reliance, the rural sector was regarded as a fertile ground for socialist experimentation. Various policies and programmes were geared towards promoting the rural development. The most notable programmes that greatly transformed the rural economy and social relations were the collectivization policy. Under this policy, people were re-settled in ujamaa villages for mainly two reasons; namely increasing agricultural production through working in communal farms as well as enhancing the provision of social services (such as water, electricity, health services etc.) to the majority of people. Modernization-informed policies adopted in early years of independence did not yield much with regard to rural development.

The Local Government Reform Programme has been an engine to promote such decentralization by devolution policies that instituted the devolution of power to the grassroots and enhancement of service delivery for poverty eradication. Propelled by the reform, the Opportunities and Obstacles to Development (O&OD) planning process was initiated in 2002 to empower the people on the basis of the bottom-up approach and positive thinking.

According to URT (2006a), agriculture sector planning guide is intended to facilitate communities and Districts to plan for agricultural development whose objectives are to facilitate community members with skills on how to identify agricultural problems, their causal effects and possible solutions. Stepwise planning process starts at village level to district level; Planning and Finance Committee prepares the Village Agricultural Development Plan as part of Village Development Plan (VDP). In each village, focus groups will be identified to conduct participatory situation

analysis in order to identify opportunities and obstacles to development, including those from the agricultural sector. The village plan developed is presented to the Village Assembly by the Planning and Finance Committee for approval. At this level the plan will be discussed at length by the beneficiaries and judgment made based on agreed decisions. The Village Agricultural Development Plan (VADPs) will then be submitted to the Ward Development Committee (WDC). Then the Ward Development Plan (WDP) will be submitted in the District and approved by the Full Council after accommodating technical advice from the Regional Secretariat (URT, 2006b).

Temeke Municipality being one of the local government authorities in Tanzania has also been using participatory planning approaches in the preparation of the District Agricultural Development Plans (DADPs) since 2004/2005. Village (street)/Ward Agricultural development proposals are submitted to the DFT to formulate the DADPs then to the Full Council for approval. The DADPs have generally shown low community participation in planning meetings as evidenced by poor attendance in meetings. The Municipality has not been performing well in some agricultural interventions which need smallholder farmers' participation. Planned agricultural development interventions included were horticultural production through irrigation, dairy cattle production, local chicken; layers production; cashew nut production improvements, and use of animal power in crop production. However, the implemented projects grow at slow rate with unexpected gains contrary to goats production intervention implemented through top-down approach by the CARITAS (T) which shows good performance (MALDO, 2008). This study therefore aims at

assessing the performance of the existing interventions implemented by small scale farmers under ASDP through participatory planning process whether the intended outcomes of ASDP are being achieved or not at all levels from villages, wards and district level by small scale farmers in Temeke Municipality.

1.2 Problem Statement and Justification

1.2.1 Problem statement

According to Kallabaka (1989), in many developing countries public resources have been wasted on grandiose, overly complex and sometimes ill planned schemes, that were either beyond the implementation capacity of average citizens or which failed to meet their real need. However, with all efforts made by Temeke Municipality, participatory planning approaches have not gained significant outcomes as anticipated. Thus this situation necessitates for the study to be undertaken to assess the performance of the existing interventions implemented by small scale farmers under ASDP through participatory planning process (the Opportunities and Obstacles to Development (O&OD) - a bottom up approach) in influencing the setting up priorities to be achieved.

1.2.2 Study justification

This study is in line with Millennium Development Goals that call for empowerment of small scale farmers and halving poverty by 2015. Undertaking this study will be useful for development planners, policy makers, and practitioners in relevant Ministries, LGAs, NGOs, CBOs and other bodies interested in small scale farmers to establish the factors for project performance through the O&OD approach and

factors affecting sustainability of the established interventions. Furthermore, it will help to contribute in designing new, or redesigning the best approach for farmers.

1.3 Objectives

1.3.1 General objective

The general objective of this study is to assess the performance of the existing interventions implemented by small scale farmers under ASDP through the O&OD participatory planning process.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

- i. To identify the types of interventions implemented during the DADPs process;
- ii. To assess the performance of interventions implemented through the DADPs process.
- iii. To assess the types of participatory planning used during the DADPs process.
- iv. To assess if the DADPs implementation process has improved small scale farmers' standards of living.

1.4 Research Questions

- i. What types of interventions were implemented during the DADPs process?
- ii. What was the performance of interventions implemented through the DADPs process?
- iii. What types of participatory planning were used during the DADPs process?
- iv. How did the DADPs implementation improve small scale farmers' standards of living?

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This Chapter consists of three sections; section one reviews the concept of participation generally; section two reviews participation in the context of the Tanzanian situation, while section three reviews the approaches to planning and the performance of top-down versus O&OD approaches.

2.2 The Concept of Participation

The term ‘participation’ is defined as a process through which stakeholders’ influence and share control over development initiatives and the decision and resources which affect them (Word Bank, 2002). Despite more than five decades of practicing participation still there is no common understanding of what participation really means. One reason as to why the participation concept is confusing is that participation is about people’s interaction determined by the behaviours of the interacting individuals or organizations. Giddens (2001) pointed out that human behaviour is complicated and many sided factors and it is very unlikely that single theoretical outlook could cover all its aspects. That is the reason why, for analysis purposes, the tendency has been to put more emphasis on one aspect while ignoring other aspects depending on who is doing the analysis.

The term ‘participation’ presents a number of difficulties in terms of its definition. White *et al.* (1994), cited by Dulani (2003), imagery of participation as “kaleidoscopic”, is perhaps most illustrative of the variety and diversity in these definitions, which, “just like the momentary image in the kaleidoscope, can be very fragile and elusive, changing from one moment to another”. The diverse nature of participation definition has perhaps caused participation process to achieve what most of the development interventions had not expected to achieve. The study conducted by Dulani (2003) for instance, showed that the nature of community participation in three case studies from the Malawi Social Action Fund (MASAF) revealed that what constitutes “community participation” in the three cases was very narrow and very limited while there have been limits on the space for local community engagement in the policy process. These findings also reveal that what constitutes ‘community’ can represent a narrow group of individuals who have captured the participatory process to have their interests promoted as those of the community.

This explains the fact that though there is wide acceptability of the effectiveness of participatory approaches among development practitioners, still there is an on going debate in literature which expresses the doubt that, mere participation in development initiatives cannot in itself guarantee that the poor will be able to voice their concerns, given the polycephalous nature of the existing institutional landscape (Mosse, 2001; Cleaver, 2001).

According to Oakley *et al.* (1991), there are three broad levels of power and control related to participation namely: participation as contribution, participation as organization and participation as empowerment. Firstly, participation as contribution level is whereby the control and direction are not passed to local people; they are just asked to contribute resources. Secondly, participation as organization is whereby the creation and/or the development of organizations and institutions are an important element in participation. Formal organizations (such as trusts) may result from a participatory process, as well as informal groupings. There is a distinction between organizations externally conceived and introduced, and organizations which emerge and take structure as a result of the process of participation. However, in both cases, the development of a new (or changed) organization will involve some delegation of power and control. Thirdly, participation as empowerment is whereby the relationship between power and participation is made explicit. However, participation is developmental where power and control are devolved.

Kyessi (2002) asserts that empowerment has been practiced in the past but then from the perspective of means to an end rather than an end in itself. Such a conception probably has resulted in most of development actors inducing people to participate without equipping them with necessary tools for participation. Mattee (1994) contended that community empowerment is one of the keys to participation. Giving farmers the lead in identifying their needs and setting their own priorities is a key. On the other hand, participation without empowerment is an untenable proposition. In order for participation to occur the poor must first be empowered. Participation is also about bringing groups, often deprived groups, to the table (Fatterman, 2005).

Participation has been discussed since the 1960s or before, but it is generally referred to people's involvement only on a small scale such as in particular projects. The importance of participation in holistic development processes has been promoted by a school of thought initially arguing that "culture" should be analyzed for people. This idea later transformed to the idea that "culture" should be analyzed by the people for their own development processes. The initially proposed method in the 1970s to the 1980s was Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), in which outsiders analyzed people's culture mostly for specific projects. In the 1980s and the 1990s, this idea was replaced by Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) with the argument that people or the poor should be the main analyzers of their own situation and that outsiders should have a role only as facilitators or animators. Later on, Participatory Action Research (PAR) has been sought especially in Latin America to actively involve people in generating knowledge about their own conditions and how conditions can be improved; it aimed at stimulating social and economic changes based on the awakening of common people and empowering the oppressed (Chamber, 1994).

In Africa, theater became one of the methods for the people to express their situations; theater was also utilized by development organizations such as UNICEF (1997). UNDP (1993) also took up "participation" as the annual theme in *Human Development Report 1993* and defined participation as people "closely involved in the economic, social, cultural and political processes that affect their lives". According to Mallya (1998), cited by Kumiko (2002), participation can be *top-down* in "traditional participation" or "consultative participation" with agenda set by

outsiders, *mutual* in “partnership participation” with agenda set jointly, or *bottom-up* with agenda set by challengers. Seven types of participation are: manipulative participation, passive participation, and participation by consultation, participation for material incentive, functional participation, interactive participation, and self-mobilization. The question of “participation in what?” is paused; especially focusing on how the agenda is set.

2.3 Participation in the Context of Tanzania

During colonial rule the majority of Tanzanians were denied opportunities to participate fully in economic activities. When the country became independent in 1961, political power was attained but the economy remained mostly in the hands of settlers and a few citizens. This was a source of political disenchantment and was one of the major factors behind the Arusha Declaration of 1967. The Declaration was an important strategy to ensure that the majority of Tanzanians, through the state, take command of the economy.

Prior to and after independence, there existed institutions which facilitated local participation in economic activities. These included Cooperative Societies and Local Government Authorities. In 1972, the Local Government Authorities were disbanded due to various reasons but measures were taken in 1982 by the Government to re-establish Local Government Authorities. Recognition of the central role of Local Government Authorities in facilitating and fostering the participation of Tanzanians in economic activities was of paramount importance (URT, 2004a).

London and Powell (1996) found that participation of farmers in extension process began to change in mid – 1980s with the new approach, Farming System Research and Extension (FSR&E). FSR&E contributed to widespread understanding that farming systems are complex, farm-level constraints do limit adoption and the role of farmers is key. Experience in agricultural extension and development indicates that there must be change to the traditional approaches in order to have sustainable development programmes.

Rolling and Pretty (1997) have indicated that participatory learning process needs to be incorporated where farmers and other development beneficiaries have real decision-making power and are part of the problem analysis and solution generation. People's participation is perceived as a joining of forces amongst stakeholders in decision making process. Pretty and Vodouhe (1997) found that conversely on increasing number of projects, analyses have shown that participation by local people is one of the critical components of the success in agriculture, livestock and irrigation. In the context of Tanzania (Green, 2000) questioned the belief that change of method with participation will bring about social change based on people's own knowledge and she argued that institutional structure change for participation is necessary for agency to be effected.

However, the Government of Tanzania has adopted the basic principle of decentralization by devolution that cuts across all sectors. This means that the local government is autonomous, representative, accountable and participatory. The relationship between central government and local government becomes one of legal

accountability as opposed to past administrative set up. The roles of central government ministries become that of policy-making, guidance, standard setting and monitoring.

2.4 Approaches to Planning

Cooksey and Kikula (2005) found that there are two approaches to planning namely top down and bottom up approaches.

2.4.1 The Top-down Approach

The term ‘top-down’ implies that a strategy is conceived by an authority (usually government) and is developed by professional staff, with no or limited involvement of those likely to have a legitimate interest or to be affected by the outcomes (stakeholders). It also implies goals and approaches which are set by that authority – but which are not necessarily those of stakeholders. Implementation is also typically the responsibility of such authorities. Such top down approaches to strategies are not restricted to national governments but are also found at decentralized levels. It is the predominant and most common development planning approach which dominated in the planning cycles for a long time not only in Tanzania but also in many other parts of the world. This has been the case for both government and donor funded programmes. Generally, one of the main reasons for this dominance of the top-down planning approach is seen to allow rapid, large scale spending of budgets in accordance with pre-established timetables. Also, it gives government planners, donors and the bureaucrats an illusory feeling of control and efficiency.

2.4.2 Bottom-up Planning Approach

Participatory planning in Tanzania has a long history and there have been many variations of participatory planning, ranging from minimal participation to something approaching 'true' participation. Subsequently guidelines were developed which eventually led to the adoption of Opportunities and Obstacles for Development (O&OD) as the blueprint for participatory planning in Tanzania. Thus in 2001, President's Office-Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG) adopted O&OD as the planning framework for the country. O&OD is a bottom-up planning methodology based, like other participatory planning methodologies, on Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). The main distinguishing feature of O&OD is the entry point that starts by identifying the opportunities or attributes inherent in a community environment that can be effectively deployed to address the obstacles to development. It starts with the opportunities rather than the obstacles. Thus the approach is an attempt to change the people's mindsets that development is possible by using the resource endowment of the local environment (URT, 2001). For example, Mattee and Shem (2006) have indicate that through the Local Government Reform Programme, a participatory bottom-up planning approach has been adopted which is meant to capture the needs and aspirations of the various local communities

Kikula *et al.* (2002) rationalizes a participatory planning approach and provides details of how to practically demonstrate the value of the participatory planning approach. A combination of the two approaches is emerging in district planning in some countries. For example, in Tanzania, the planning process involves top-down

decisions on certain matters but stakeholder participation is encouraged on other aspects of development (e.g. education, agricultural production and communication). Strategies need to consider which mechanisms can achieve this balance between top-down and bottom up approaches. The new planning system in a number of countries provides examples of how decentralization can contribute to this. Such balance needs to be accompanied and supported by mechanisms that ensure good dialogue, ongoing monitoring information flow and learning within and between all levels.

Following the enactment of the Local Government Act of 1982, Local Government Authorities were established as policy and decision-making bodies at local level. The main objective of decentralization was to improve the delivery of services to the public and to further democratize the system of public service management. The process has involved political, financial and administrative decentralization, whereby local government authorities have mandates for formulating policies, programs and operational plans for their respective areas within overall national policy frameworks. Ideally, therefore, decentralization provides an opportunity for much more active participation of local communities in decisions with direct impact on their livelihoods. It also provides opportunities for District Authorities to respond more effectively to the needs and aspirations of their constituents, through the use of more participatory planning approaches. For example, the decentralization, restructuring and the reform of the local authorities attaches participatory planning as a key approach to enhance and enforce its implementation and realization. This may be a window for small scale farmers to express their needs and aspirations, which can be taken on board in District Development Plans. Furthermore, within the

Agricultural Sector Development Programme (ASDP), it is envisaged that 75 percent of all support to the agricultural sector will be allocated to the Districts in line with the decentralization process. To tap such resources each District must prepare in a participatory manner and in line with the LGRP, a District Agricultural Development Plan (Mattee and Shem, 2006).

2.5 Performance of Top-down versus O&OD Approaches

The Agricultural Sector Development Program (ASDP) is the major Government of Tanzania (GoT) instrument for achieving agricultural growth and poverty reduction until 2012/13, as outlined in the Agricultural Sector Development Strategy (ASDS) and to National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP). Its objective is to increase productivity, profitability and farm incomes by (a) improving farmers' access to agricultural knowledge, technologies, marketing system and infrastructure and (b) promoting agricultural private investment (URT, 2007). The ASDP was to be "business as un-usual" mainly through the adoption of a demand-driven approach, a greater focus on efficiency and profitability of sector investment and true involvement of private sector.

The Framework and Process Document (URT, 2003a) insists on demand driven by farmers (bottom up approach) but in actual sense at present it is still very much "business as usual" following a public sector driven to top down approach. At the local level, Districts do not have the necessary capacity to develop, plan and implement DADPs in Tanzania and Temeke in particular with respect to participation of stakeholders, the evidence so far suggests that the involvement of recipients and especially the private sector in the development and implementation

of DADPs is limited. However, the conventional top-down approach still dominates, in which the public LGAs construct facilities, supply materials (kits, seeds, chemicals, etc.) and technical skills (trainers or exemplars), and show the farmers what to do. For example, while the number of irrigation projects has increased, the absolute number remains low and the quality of the design and implementation of the schemes vary widely. One of the major lessons learnt from past projects is that the social infrastructure (ownership, user groups etc.) should be established first and the physical infrastructure constructed afterwards. But in some Districts, organizations are formed after the irrigation infrastructure, leading to lack of ownership by the farmers and consequent risk of the projects being unsustainable (URT, 2006c).

2.6 Performance Factors of Participatory Planning Approaches

In practice, development activities implemented at district and village levels are strongly influenced by national sector policies and all programmes, and by the presence of governmental and non-governmental organizations' development projects in their area. While using this mixed approach can result in competing demands for resources, in reality this approach does take into account factors outside of the local governments' area of control, such as government policy and resource constraints (Hill, 2001; Kikula, 2005). There are factors largely affecting planning process which are outside of the planners' control and these include the socio-economic and political factors. These include an inadequate finance that was frequently mentioned as a reason for the non-implementation of planned activities. The capacity to set and finance priority investments was, and continues to be,

undermined by the weak resource base at the district level compared to that of the central level; the parallel structures set up by donor agencies and NGOs, and the practice of political patronage at all level.

Similarly, the development of the ASDP started shortly after the adoption of the ASDS in 2001 but programme development was not completed until June 2006. This was due to the changing institutional environment with the advancement of decentralization, the large number of donors (seven) and Ministries (four) involved and limited programme ownership on the side of Agricultural Sector Lead Ministries (ASLMs) at the beginning (Greely, 2007).

2.7 Conclusion

This section has reviewed literature of various participatory planning approaches with the aim of identifying gaps to be filled with the current study. The literature review revealed that although many studies on participatory planning process have been done in many Districts in Tanzania, there is inadequate information on agriculture development planning process through the O&OD approach. Also few studies have been done to identify factors which influence small scale farmers' participation in District Agricultural Development planning process. Furthermore there is an argument that farmers' participation in prioritized agricultural interventions is taken as a means only not as an end in itself (Nanai, 1993). In views of these arguments participation of the poor without being accompanied by institutional change, will yield more or less the same result as that one of non participation as suggested by Bromley (1998), that the poor remain poor because the

institutional arrangements rendered them poor before the development interventions. In such a situation, introducing participation in the same institutional framework will benefit the minority who are able to manipulate any intervention coming to their locality. So far the question as to what mitigation measures should be in place has not been adequately dealt with. As a result, this work analyses the performance of interventions under ASDP in Temeke Municipality through participatory planning process for the purpose of identifying the practical implications of this approach in order to ascertain whether or not the experience gained from this project can contribute to the mitigation of the risk that participation is likely to face. This project was selected because it offered an opportunity to study the interaction of DADPs with non-DADPs interventions. It provides an opportunity to reflect upon the possibilities and limitations of promoting participation of the farmers in prioritized agricultural interventions through the O&OD participatory planning process.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Description of the Study Area

Temeke Municipal Council is one among the three Municipalities in Dar es salaam City. It is bordered with Bagamoyo and Kisarawe in the south of Coast Region; Ilala Municipality in the north-west while in the east stretches to the coastline of the Indian Ocean. It is divided into three ecological zones, the northern upland zone which include Mtoni Kijichi escarpment, Keko, Temeke, Mtoni, and Tandika wards; the central zone: Mbagala, Chamazi, Yombo Dovya, Kongowe plateau, and Kigomboni wards; Southern lowland zone which include Kisarawe II, Amani Gomvu, Kimbiji, Chekeni Mwasonga, and Pemba Mnazi wards.

3.2 Choice of Study Area

This study was conducted in Temeke Municipality. The selection of this District was purposively done due to fact that it is the one among the Districts that had been developing the District Agricultural Development Plans (DADPs) through the O&OD participatory planning approach. Four wards were selected purposively: Two wards from urban and other two from peri-urban areas where interventions from District Agricultural Development Plans (DADPs) were implemented and is where there are also interventions that were implemented without using DADPs process.

3.3 Research Design

The design of this study was cross-sectional. This allowed collection of data at one point in time (Babbie, 1990).

3.4 Population in the Study Area

According to the 2002 Census Temeke Municipality had a population of 762,685 where 384,128 and 378,557 were men and women respectively with an estimated growth rate of 2.8% and 189,295 households. According to TMC (2005), 13% of these households engage in agricultural activities which were 24,608 households in the study area.

3.5 Sampling Procedure

A combination of random and purposive sampling designs was employed in this study. Simple random sampling was used to select study respondents, while respondents for focus group discussion, local key informants and wards included in the study were selected purposively. Purposive sampling was used to select the area for the survey; 4 wards included in this study (2 urban: 2 peri-urban) where interventions from DADPs were implemented and where there are interventions that were implemented without using DADPs process. Purposive sampling was used to select 4 streets i.e. one from each selected ward where interventions from DADPs were implemented and it where there are interventions that were implemented without using DADPs process. Stratified random sampling method was employed due to heterogeneity of the respondents. Representatives from the categories such as farmers (group members and as per sex, with or without DADPs interventions).

Then simple random sampling was used to get individual respondents from each sub population. One hundred heads of household were selected from the street register; 25 (13 with DADPs interventions and 12 without DADPs interventions) each from 4 selected street. Non- probability sampling technique was used to select two focus group discussions of 20 members, 10 for each group, one group with members from interventions that were implemented using DADPs process and the other group members from interventions that were implemented without using DADPs process. According to Mullens (1996), participants of a focus group discussion should range from 8-10 to allow equal participation by all. Then 10 local key informants from street Planning and Finance Committee (PFC) (one from each 4 selected streets), one from each four selected wards Ward Facilitation Team (WFT), and two from District Facilitation Team (DFT) members.

3.6 Sample Size

The sample size was 100 study respondents. According to Alreck and Settle (1985), for the large population the minimum practical sample size for many researchers is 100 respondents.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

For primary data collection an interview schedule (questionnaire) was developed and administered to the selected respondents, while a checklist was used for both focus group discussion and local key informants. The interview schedule taped a combination of qualitative and quantitative data. The researcher managed to observe how interventions from District Agricultural Development Plans (DADPs) were implemented and also interventions that were implemented without

using DADPs process. Also, when interviewing the participants, the researcher managed to observe that many of the participants were not involved in any planning activities during DADPs process. The researcher's diary was used to collect secondary data from books, published and unpublished documents, journals, as well as internet sources.

3.8 Data Processing and Analysis

Quantitative data collected was cleaned, summarized, coded and analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer programme. Stastical test was done using the chi-square, to test for significant difference between the strata. Descriptive statistics including frequency counts and percentages was tabulated following univariate, bivariate analyses showing differences and correlations of variables. In qualitative analysis opinions from respondents based on focus group discussions, documentation review and observation; and in-depth interviews (open-ended interview schedules) was manually analyzed by content analysis technique.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents the result of the study. It is divided into five sections; section one describes the distribution of respondents by demographic characteristics, section two presents the types of interventions under ASDP implemented in Temeke Municipality, section three covers the assessment of the performance of interventions implemented through the DADPs process, section four assesses the types of participatory planning used during the DADPs process, while section five assesses how the DADPs implementation improved farmers standard of living.

4.2 Distribution of Respondents by Demographic Characteristics

4.2.1 Age

The findings from Table 1 show that 45% of the respondents in the study areas were between 31 to 50 years of age. According to URT (2004b), people in this age group tend to be active, creative and innovative. The study reveals that 13% were between the age of 18 to 30 years, this group consists of the youngest cohort which seems to be relatively more disengaged. Findings reveal that 26% of the respondents were people aged between 51 to 60 years. The last group was of people belonging to the age group above 60 years.

Table 1: Respondents according to their age (N=100)

Age category (years)	Percent
18 to 30	13.0
31 to 50	45.0
51 to 60	26.0
Above 60	16.0
Total	100

4.2.2 Sex

The findings from Table 2 show that selected sample comprised of 100 respondents of whom 55% were males and 45% were female. This means that ASDP programme considers males and females in its activities.

Table 2: Sex of respondents (N=100)

Sex	Percent
Male	55.0
Female	45.0
Total	100

4.2.3 Marital status

Marital status provides household information valuable for sociological explanation of family size and the role of men and women in farming (Hulme and Turner, 1990). The study findings from Table 3 revealed that 69% of respondents were married, suggesting that most of respondents in the study area who received the ASDP assistance were couples. This implies that a greater proportion of the respondents were mature people who were seriously performing the interventions prioritized by themselves. The minimum age of respondents in the study area was 18 years and the maximum was above 60. These results are typical of many areas in Tanzania

whereby 60% women and 50% men tend to be married (National Bureau of Statistics, 2005). According to ASDP guidelines those who will seek assistance for funding are expected to be married.

Table 3: Marital status of respondents (N=100)

Marital status	Percent
Single	10.0
Married	69.0
Separated	2.0
Divorced	4.0
Widowed	15.0
Total	100

4.2.4 Household size

A large family is always taken as an indicator of poverty (Kasanga, 2005). The results from Table 4 show that majority of respondents have family size of more than 4 people. Households with large sizes use most of the family income for food and hence little is left for productive investment. However in agricultural areas it can also mean more labour force and hence more agricultural productivity where properly utilized.

According to this study the household size was determined by considering all members present in each household, including parents, children, and dependants. A large proportion of households (45%) have household size of 3-5 people and 27% have household size of 6-9 people, furthermore, the study indicates that 21% have household size of 1-2 people. In contrast, a small proportion of 7% have a household size of more than 9 people.

Table 4: Distribution of respondents according to their family size (N=100)

Family size	Percent
1 to 2	21.0
3 to 5	45.0
6 to 9	27.0
Above 9	7.0
Total	100

4.2.5 Education level of the household head

Education is one of the long-term strategies that may be used to improve agriculture in developing countries like Tanzania. Education in agriculture contributes 50% of the variation in total agricultural output. Skills and education increase working efficiency and productivity making the household able to use and adopt new agricultural technologies resulting into more income (Yonghong and Karina, 2007).

From Table 5 it can be observed that the majority of respondents, 61% have attained primary school education, 15% secondary education, 7% post secondary education, and 17% of all respondents have not attended any formal schooling. This observation indicates that the literacy rate of 83% is high. The high literacy rate indicates that, most of the respondents know how to read and write. Makauki (1999) found that knowing how to read and write was sufficient in adoption of technologies whose dissemination demanded simple written materials.

Table 5: Distribution of respondents according to their level of education**(N=100)**

Level of education	Percent
Non formal education	17.0
Primary education	61.0
Secondary education	15.0
College/University	7.0
Total	100

4.2.6 Main occupation in the respondents

Main occupation provides an explanation with regard to what the labour force of given locality is engaged in. The categories used to collect information on the main occupation of the respondents were classified as crop producer, livestock keeper, formal employment, and business person. The findings presented in Table 6 show that crop producers constituted 49%, livestock keepers were 41%, informal employment were 1% and 9% were engaged in business. Like in many developing countries crops producing and livestock keeping are the main occupations. The situation is comparable to that was observed in the 2002 Population and Housing Census in Tanzania (URT, 2004c).

Table 6: Main occupation of respondents (N=100)

Main occupation	Percent
Crop producer	49.0
Livestock keeper	41.0
Formal employment	1.0
Business	9.0
Total	100

In summary from the analysis and findings of the distribution of respondents by demographic characteristics it was found out that the frequencies and percentages of the output against the sample size (100) were similar in value. Therefore, only percentage column was used and frequency column was ignored in presentation of results.

4.3 Interventions Implemented in Temeke Municipality

Implementation of DADPs in Temeke Municipality commenced on year 2004/2005. Interventions that were implemented were those from priority plans from the streets (mtaa). Funds for implementation came from central government through ASDP and the community. Until the period ending June 2007, the Municipal Council had received funds amounting to Tshs 52 053 966 for implementing six agriculture development priority interventions. Overview of the interventions implemented which were selected for the study are: Use of animal power in crop production (ox ploughing), dairy cattle, and horticulture and layers production.

4.3.1 Use of animal power in crop production (ox-ploughing)

Animal traction has a long history in agricultural production; it has played, and still plays, an important role in meeting the power requirements of farming systems in many parts of the developing world. The total world population of draft animals is estimated at 400 million of which less than 5% are found in sub-Saharan Africa (Ramaswamy, 1985; Mrema, 1991).

This intervention was conducted at Mbutu Mkwajuni Street at Somangila Ward in 2006/2007 season. The number of beneficiaries was 60. But 13 respondents among

them were chosen for this study as indicated in Table 7. The target of this intervention was to increase production of paddy and maize from 100 kg to 1000 kg/0.4 of ha by year 2010 (MALDO, 2008). Under this intervention the participants were involved in production of maize and paddy, whereby each farmer was supposed to cultivate 0.4 ha. of maize and 0.4 ha. of paddy. Activities performed under this intervention were to conduct training for 60 small scale farmers concerned about ox-plough farming, buying of 24 ox-ploughs and draft animals (oxen). The ASDP participants of the interventions were supposed to purchase inputs. Farmers produce local varieties of paddy and maize which are low yielding. Due to managerial problems there were frequent occurrences of animal diseases, shortage of water, inputs and labour.

4.3.2 Dairy cattle production

This intervention was conducted at Uvumba Street at Kibada Ward in 2006/2007 season. The number of beneficiaries was 25. As Table 7 indicates, 13 respondents among them were chosen for this study and they have each received dairy cow, the others were to receive a cow from their neighbors based on agreement. The farmers provided with heifers which were well selected as in-calf and calved down after they have arrived at the farmer's place. ASDP was responsible for the cost of the intervention specifically purchase of 25 dairy cows; while the beneficiaries were responsible to build sheds for the cattle. The targets of this intervention were to improve the standard of living of the small scale farmers and to increase the production of dairy cows from 0 litre to 8 litre per animal per day by 2010. The activities performed under this intervention were conducting farmer training on

proper animal husbandry [vaccination against diseases such as Foot and Mouth (FMD), Rift Valley Fever (RVF), Lumpy Skin Disease (LSD), Brucellosis and control of tick borne diseases] and to construct cattle sheds for demonstration. The participants for this intervention were supposed to establish one acre of pasture. The major problems that have faced the project include death of calves, drought, inadequate extension services, and lack of market for the milk, high cost for facilities. Apart from the problems the interventions has assisted the households to be able to solve some problems which they have been facing on a day to day basis such as buying ox-carts, paying school fees, purchasing utensils, and the participants of this intervention have opportunity to use manure.

4.3.3 Horticultural production through irrigation

This intervention was conducted at Tundwi Centre Street at Pemba Mnazi Ward in 2006/2007 season. The targets of this intervention were to increase production of watermelons from 4000 to 9000 per 0.4 of ha. by 2010. The number of the beneficiaries was one group which comprises 30 members. As Table 7 indicates, 13 respondents among them were chosen for this study. 30 Concrete Pumps were bought by ASDP for irrigation purposes. The participants were responsible for purchased farm inputs for their production. Other activities performed during the implementation of this intervention were training on modern irrigation tools, improvement of catchment areas and repair of 10 irrigation pump.

The problem that faced the intervention was the tedious job of using these concrete pumps due to pumping the water to the concrete pumps then to irrigate the area, this

technique consumed time. Other problems faced were misunderstandings among the group members themselves due to dodging of some members in performing certain tasks in the group.

4.3.4 Layers production

This intervention was conducted at Tuangoma Street at Tuangoma Ward. The intervention started 2006/2007 season. The specific objectives of the intervention were to increase production of eggs from 200 at that time to 350 by 2010. The activities conducted were training on layers rearing whereby 100 farmers were involved. As Table 7 indicates, 13 respondents among them were chosen for this study. ASDP contributed a total of Tsh 6 700 000 of expenses of this intervention, such as purchase of chicks. The participants of this intervention were supposed to construct layers house at their own cost.

Table 7: Distribution of respondents based on types of intervention implemented during DADPs process. (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
Ox-ploughing	13	25
Dairy cattle	13	25
Horticulture production	13	25
Layers production	13	25
Total	52	100

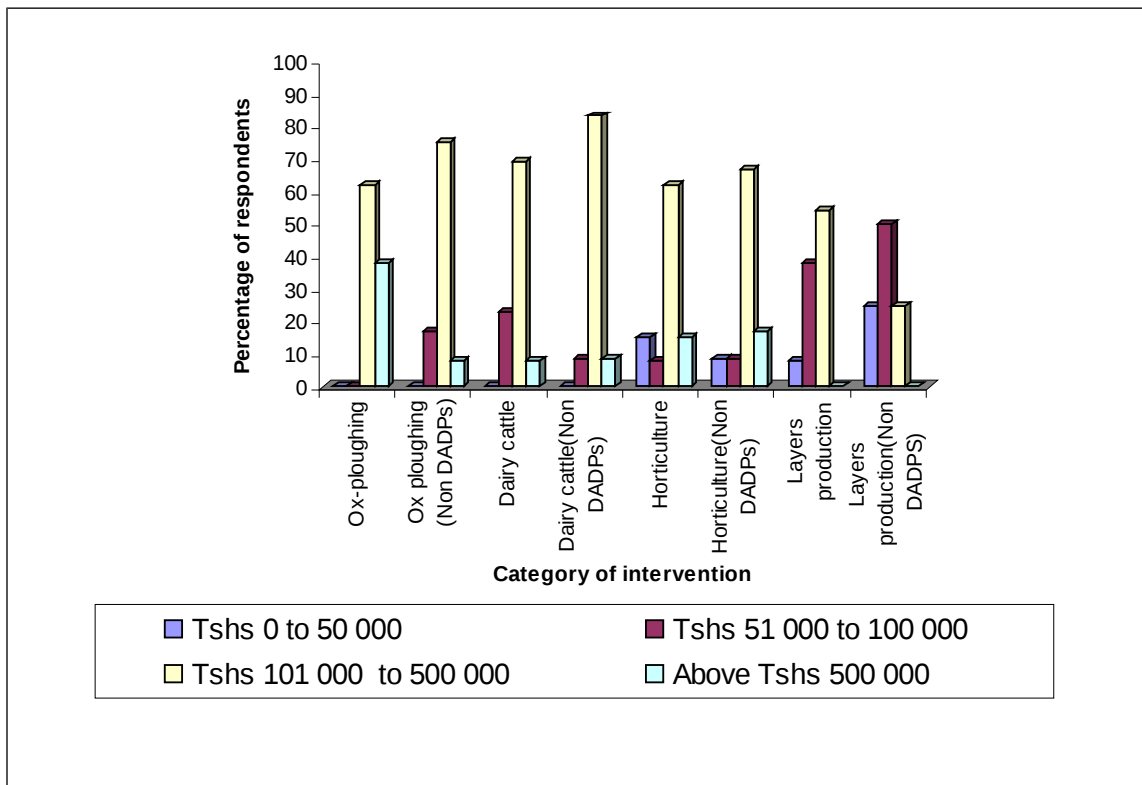
4.4 Performance of Interventions Implemented through DADPs and Non-DADPs Process

An assessment of these interventions was carried out to determine the performance and generally to look into ways to enhance their performance. It is associated with

sustainability at the longer-term resources use and impacts. Strategic performance is longer term activities that assume the extent to which all available resources have been utilized to assess the services or operational level efficiency and explores whether achieving this service or operation, also meets the broader set of objectives (Bos *et al.*, 2005).

The results in Fig.1: show that the types of intervention has significant influence on the annual income of the household. The concept of income used in this study is assumed to be fairly comprehensive, including income received in kind as well as in cash. All income is measured in terms of per capita household income as given by the farmers.

These observations indicate that ox-plough interventions under ASDP assistance show good performance compared to others interventions, 38% of the respondents from this intervention received an income from Tshs 500 000 and above. These observations further indicate that majority of respondents in both groups (ASDP and non ASDP) live below poverty line. These indicate that 88% of all respondent live below the average per capita income. There were no statistically significant differences ($P>0.05$) observed between ASDP and non ASDP in terms of personal income. However, Chi square test was done to establish if there were significant differences in the distribution of the category of intervention. The results showed that there was significant difference ($P<0.05$) between the performance of interventions implemented through DADPs and non- DADPs process.



Significant at ($p < 0.05$)

Figure 1: Performance of interventions implemented through DADPs and Non-DADPs process

4.4.2 Production for various products according to types of intervention

4.4.2.1 Use of animal power in crop production (ox-ploughing)

The study results in Table 8 show that farmers under ox-ploughing interventions were involved in production of paddy and maize. The production of paddy and maize under ASDP assistance was 306.85 and 376.54 kg/0.4 of ha. per household respectively in last season. On the other hand, the study revealed that the production of paddy and maize under non-ASDP assistance was 245 and 231.67 kg/ 0.4 of ha. per household respectively. For example, increased maize production in Sumbawanga had been due to expansion of area due to the extensive use of Animal

Traction Technology (ATT). In this current study, apart from introduction of ATT the production of maize did not increase as it was expected. This amount is below the recommended paddy/maize production of 1000-1500 kg/0.4 of ha. (Ngeze, 2003), although grain yields tend to be higher in high-potential areas such as the Southern Highlands (Moshi *et al.*, 1990).

The study indicates that the performance of ox-ploughing interventions was poor since the targets of increasing production to 1000 kg/0.4 of ha. of paddy and maize respectively was not attained. Furthermore, the study indicates that there is significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in maize production and no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in paddy production between the intervention with and without ASDP assistance in production for various products in the household during the last season.

Table 8: Distribution of average production for various products in the household (N=100)

Types of interventions	Products	ASDP	Non-ASDP	t-value	Significant t
Ox-ploughing	Paddy(kg/acre)	306.85	245.00	1.26	NS
	Maize(kg/acre)	376.54	231.67	2.28	*
Dairy production	Milk(Lts/Cow)	539.23	528.33	0.44	NS
Horticulture production	Watermelon (numbers)	7452	8228	0.19	NS
Layers production	Eggs(numbers)	302	155	4.5	*

NS= not significant, * =significant at ($p < 0.05$)

4.4.2.2 Dairy cattle production

The study results in Table 8 show that dairy keeping households own an average of 1 dairy cow each. In addition to the number of dairy cattle owned, sampled households were asked to give information on the quantities of milk produced. The results showed that, household under dairy production intervention with ASDP assistance

produced an average of 539.23 litres of milk per cow last season. Those from non ASDP assistance produced 528.33 litres of milk per cow last season. The targets of this intervention were 2160 litres of milk per cow per year. According to this observation this intervention showed poor performance, also there was no statistically significant difference ($P>0.05$) observed between ASDP and non ASDP in terms of milk production interventions. This was caused by poor feeding and animal health management.

4.4.2.3 Horticulture production

The study results in Table 8 show that farmers under horticulture production through irrigation interventions dealt in watermelon production. Generally, data showed that watermelons covered a bigger area compared to other vegetables. The reason for this could be the attractive price offered. The size of the watermelon area cultivated reflects the quantity of vegetables produced and revenue obtained. Participants under ASDP assistance harvested 7452 water melons per 0.4 of ha. On the hand participants from non-ASDP harvested 8228 water melons per 0.4 of ha. The observation indicated that the production target of harvesting 8000-9000 water melons per 0.4 of ha. was not attained by participants with ASDP assistance but was attained by participants from non ASDP assistance. Furthermore the study indicates that there is no significant difference ($p>0.05$) between the category of intervention with and without ASDP assistance.

4.4.2.4 Layers production

The study results in Table 8 indicate that small scale farmers under layers production intervention collected 302 eggs per layer per year for those respondents with ASDP assistance, in contrast to non-ASDP assisted who collected 155 eggs per layer per year. Furthermore, the study indicates that ASDP assisted respondents performed well in layers production in comparison to those from non-ASDP assistance. The study also indicates that this intervention performed poorly as the targets of this intervention was to collect 350 eggs per layer per year which was not achieved. Furthermore, the study indicates that there is significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between with or without ASDP assistance. Under this intervention respondent from ASDP assistance showed good performance compared to non ASDP assistance.

4.5 Participation during the DADPs Planning Process

The advantages of community participation in development include, among other things: increased ownership of the development processes by the communities; sustainable development of projects and programs being implemented; increased commitment by the communities and the government in the implementation of planned activities; increased transparency in decision making processes; reduction in costs of government contribution in delivering services to the communities due to contributions in kind and cash; and according to Article no. 145 and 146 of the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania 1977, community involvement aims at empowering the communities in making decisions on their development endeavors. The planning process in Tanzania has been largely owned and led by

experts from the government, and development partners some of whom have always believed they have the control and that they know what the people need and that the people do not know what they need (URT, 1977). This approach has led to many plans that are not sustainable and having no relevance to the targeted communities, and has also led to smothering of the sense of freedom to decide and therefore deleterious to the whole issue of community ownership of development intervention.

The agriculture planning process needs to utilize the participatory approach, which will bring together views, aspirations and effort of all stakeholders. This approach is vital in all stages of participatory planning process. Participatory planning is a process by which a community undertakes to reach a given socio-economic goal by consciously diagnosing its problems and charting a course of action to resolve those problems. Experts are needed, but only as facilitators. Moreover, no one likes to participate in something which is not of his/her own creation. Plans prepared by outside experts, irrespective of their technical soundness, cannot inspire the people to participate in their implementation. This section therefore shows how different stakeholders have been participating in the planning and implementation of agricultural oriented activities in the study area. The central elements in participatory approach are active participation and involvement of small holder farmers in the three crucial stages namely: assessment, analysis and action (Temu and Due 1996). Participatory approach promotes shared understanding and empowerment, which lead to joint decision-making. The approach usually starts with consultation and moves to negotiating of problem solutions and approaches to end with decision-

making and action (IFAD 2001). The study showed that the participatory agriculture planning approach used during DADPs was O&OD and PRA.

4.5.1 Planning approach during DADPs process

4.5.1.1 Opportunities and Obstacles for Development (O&OD).

The Government of Tanzania is now institutionalizing the O&OD in Local Government Authorities as one of the ways of devolving powers to people, strengthening democracy, emphasizing human rights and poverty reduction. The government continues to learn through this implementation process on the impact and challenges of the system for improvement. This O&OD process is providing an excellent mechanism to allow the stakeholders at the grass roots level to align and harmonize their various interests, articulating those demands/needs and incorporating them into the development plans and budgets of the local government authorities

O&OD is a bottom-up planning methodology based, like other participatory planning methodologies, on Participatory Rural Assessment (PRA). The main distinguishing feature of O&OD is the entry point. O&D starts by identifying the opportunities or attributes inherent in a community environment that can be effectively deployed to address the obstacles to development. O&OD starts with the opportunities rather than the obstacles. Thus the approach is an attempt to change the peoples' mind sets that development is possible by using the resource endowment of the local environment. The output of this methodology resembles a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis. In this way, O&OD is

supposed to promote true participatory planning with self-mobilization, and it is supposed to be a vital instrument in the formulation of District Agricultural Development Plans (DADPs). The District Agricultural Development Plan will be in annual plan that is fully integrated in District Development Plan (DDP) and is based on (O&OD) methodology. The respondents from FGD reported that the O&OD planning tool previously did not identify agriculture-related constraints and activities; hence the Local Government Development Grant (LGDG) does not fund agricultural interventions. But after ASDP implementation O&OD is used to formulate DADPs.

4.5.1.2 Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)

Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) is now being increasingly accepted as a philosophy and mode of rural development (Nagu, 1999). It describes an increasing family of approaches and methods to enable people share and analyze their knowledge of life and conditions, plan and act. Participatory approach has its core, the involvement of beneficiaries in designing and development of a new technologies and practices, which have the potentials of improving their lives. They are collaborative methods of interventions design, which combine the skills and knowledge of beneficiaries who will use or are using the technologies, with the technological and organizational expertise of those involved in the development.

In agricultural development participatory approaches are used to assist smallholder farmers to analyze their present situation, assess their problems and potential, identify their objectives, and define the steps necessary to achieve those objectives

(IFAD 2001). The current study revealed that 25% of the respondents participated in the O & OD planning approach in prioritizing agricultural interventions, while 11.5% participated in the PRA and 63.5% were not involved in any planning approach during DADPs process as indicated in Table 9. The respondents from FDG reported that in principle there was no major difference between O&OD and PRA or other suggested planning approaches, each approach has certain good elements and some challenges as well. Furthermore, they reported that untimely disbursement of ASDP funds resulted in some proposed interventions which were not funded in the previous DADPs.

Table 9: Planning approach during DADPs process (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
O & OD	13	25.0
PRA	6	11.5
Not involved	33	63.5
Total	52	100

4.5.2 Selection interventions implemented in the different streets

According to URT (2006d), agriculture sector planning guide is intended to facilitate communities and Districts to plan for agricultural development whose objectives are to facilitate community members with skills on how to identify agricultural problems, their causal effects and possible solutions. Shivji *et al.* (2000) point out that the main focus of decentralization policy is the relationship between central government, the region and the district. Downward relations between districts, divisions, wards and villages are seen more in administrative than in political or governance terms. Village /Streets democracy remains chimerical.

4.5.2.1 Respondents involved in selection of interventions

Participation ensures that project or programs are operated and managed more efficiently, effectively and sustainably (Rugumamu, 2005). The results show that 36.5% of the ASDP respondents in study area were involved in selection of the existing interventions, while 63.5% were not involved. The study indicates that Temeke Municipal Council officials were not in line with the priorities of their citizens. This shows that a truly participatory, bottom-up and cross-sector planning system for service delivery left a lot to be desired, primarily because there were not enough resources available. With regard to involvement in selection of interventions respondents in FGD said that there is no timely disbursement of development funds from central government to street level, this problem enhance DFT and WFT to squeeze the whole process of DADPs planning, adding that feedback is needed for only 3-5 days for compilation of all interventions. This study revealed that majority of the respondents were not involved in the selection of the interventions implemented.

4.5.2.2 Respondents' awareness of participatory agricultural development planning during interventions selection

The results show how respondents responded when they were asked about the extent to which they were informed about the participatory agricultural development planning during interventions selection. It can be observed that 37% of respondents were well informed about the concept and the approach while 63% of them were not well informed. It is evident from the results that more than half of the respondents

had no knowledge of participatory agricultural development planning. With regard to awareness of participatory agricultural development planning process and concept respondents in FGD said that the majority of small scale farmers were not aware of this concept because most of interventions implementation were prioritized and selected by government officials adding that bureaucracy of accounting system cause participatory planning process not to be used.

4.5.2.3 Respondents' views on who formulated the annual *mtaa* Agricultural development plan

Results from Table 10 indicate that 38% reported that, *mtaa* members executive officer & agricultural extension officer always formulated the annual *mtaa* agricultural development plan, 12% mentioned *mtaa* members and available development partners, 15% said Ward Development Committee (WDC), 6% mentioned members of *mtaa* government, and 29% reported that they don't know. The study outcomes are in line with what is observed by Mongula (2006) who reported that in preparation of village (*mtaa*)/ward development plans it seems that more attention has been focused on producing *mtaa*/ward plans rather than on empowering the smallholder farmers to enable them to carry out the planning themselves. He further reported that the process has failed to create competent local cadre who are properly versed in the process and skills of participatory development planning.

The current study shows that more than 88% did not answer correctly who is formulating the village (*mtaa*) agricultural development plan in contrast to 12% who

answered correctly that mtaa members and available development partners were responsible for formulating the village (mtaa) agricultural development plans.

Table 10: Respondents' views on who formulated the annual mtaa agricultural development plan (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
Members of mtaa government	3	6.0
Mtaa members executive officer and agricultural extension officer	20	38.0
Mtaa members and available development partners	6	12.0
Ward Development Committee(WDC)	8	15.0
I don't know	15	29.0
Total	52	100

4.5.2.4 Facilitation of annual *mtaa* agricultural development plans

The Ward Facilitation Team is an important intermediary organ between the District Facilitation Team and between urban council and the mtaa in urban areas. The functions of the WFT include coordinating mtaa agricultural development plans, consolidating and submission of mtaa agricultural development plans to the WFT as well as assembling Ward Facilitation Team that will facilitate participatory planning at mtaa level. A strong and active facilitation team at ward level is very important if achievable development plans from mtaa level are to be realized. Being an intermediary organ between the DFT and the mtaa committee, the team which should draw members from extension staff working at ward level should be able to interpret different national, programmed, sector policies as well as guidelines delivered to them from the District Council. The team should have skills that will enable them to facilitate people and stakeholders in the analysis of problems, obstacles, resource base, opportunities and priorities. The role of the ward level is to

identify cross-village interventions taking into consideration the VADP. One way of facilitating the incorporation of village plans into the LGA Plan could be to prepare the WDP which synthesizes village plans of the designated area as outlined in the *Guidelines for District Agricultural Development Planning and Implementation* (URT, 2006a). WDPs, which are much fewer in number and summarized by sector, could ease the work load of Council officers to review and incorporate community plans. Lack of such WDP in the process of O&OD planning process seems to be the missing link between the VDP and District Development Plan (DDP).

Table 11 indicates the respondents' views as to who facilitates annual mtaa agricultural development plan. The study revealed that most of the respondents (75%) were not aware of who facilitates participatory planning approach during the selection of mtaa agricultural development interventions. 23% mentioned Ward Facilitation Team, 10% mentioned District Facilitation Team, 11% mentioned Ward Assembly and 4% said that Ward Executive Officer was the one who was responsible for facilitating annual mtaa development plan.

Table 11: Respondents' views on who is responsible for facilitating the annual mtaa development plan (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
District facilitation team (WFT)	5	10.0
Ward facilitation team(WFT)	12	23.0
Ward Executive Officer	2	4.0
Ward assembly	6	11.0
I don't know	27	52.0
Total	52	100

4.5.2.5 Views on who approves the Annual Mtaa (Street) Agricultural Development Plan

According to URT (2006a) the agriculture sector planning guide is intended to facilitate communities and districts to plan for agricultural development. The objective is to facilitate community members with skills on how to identify agricultural problems, their causal effect and possible solutions. Stepwise planning process starts at village (mtaa) to district levels; Planning and Finance Committee prepares Village Agricultural Development Plan (VADP) as part of Village Development Plan. In each village focus groups will be identified to conduct participatory situation analysis in order to identify opportunities and obstacles to development, including those in the agricultural sector. The village plan developed is presented to Village Assembly by Planning and Finance Committee for approval. At this level the plan will be discussed at length by the beneficiaries and a decision made by the Village Assembly.

Results in Table 12 show respondents' opinions on who approves the annual ward agricultural development plan. The results show that 50% of respondents reported that annual mtaa agricultural development plan is approved by Ward Development Committee (WDC), 13% by mtaa executive officer, 4% by mtaa assembly, 6% by mtaa committee, and 27% said they don't know who approves the annual mtaa agricultural development plan. The survey outcomes imply that, 96% of respondents in the study area were not in position to answer correctly, who approves the Annual Mtaa (Street) Agricultural Development Plan. Another observation indicated that mtaa development proposals were not participatory. According to the study Ward Development Committee approves agricultural development plan before being approved by mtaa assembly as ASDP guidelines direct. The FGD and key informants said that due to lack of information about the DADPs sustainability of the interventions will be minimal when the donors pull out.

Table 12: Respondents' opinions on who approves the Annual Mtaa (Street) Agricultural Development Plan (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
Mtaa committee	3	6.0
Mtaa executive officer	7	13.0
Mtaa assembly	2	4.0
Ward Development Committee(WDC)	26	50.0
I don't know	14	27.0
Total	52	100

4.5.2.6 Respondents attendance at meetings for formulation of mtaa plan

Table 13 results show that 4% of respondents in the study area said that mtaa annual agricultural planning meetings are convened every year, 35% are not convened annually and 61% they didn't know whether they were convened every year or not.

This implies that majority of people in the study area do not attend mtaa meetings hence do not contribute their ideas and aspirations; this situation endangers the implementation of the plans. These findings are in line with what was observed by NSSD (2001) report, which reported that, reluctance on the side of villagers/street dwellers in attending village/street meetings, weak leadership and inactive participation of youth in the planning process at village/street level are some of the problems facing the participatory planning approach.

Table 13: Respondents' views on frequency of meetings for formulation of mtaa plan (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
Yes, they happen every year	2	4.0
No, they not happen every year	18	35.0
I don't know	32	61.0
Total	52	100

Furthermore, respondents were given an opportunity to say how frequently they meet to discuss the progress of their interventions, it is believed that when people meet and discuss issues concerning their problems and progress of their interventions it empowers them, and also it brings transparency, and in so doing, it removes all the prevailing ambiguities as a result the participants will be able to

contribute morally and materially. During the study the respondents were required to say how frequently they meet to discuss the progress of their interventions.

Study findings in Table 14 show that 46.2% of the respondents meet to discuss the progress of their interventions once every three month, 28.8% said once per month, 11.6% did not meet, 7.7% said twice per month, 1.9% each said once every six months, occasionally, and any time in need, respectively. During the FGD with the DFT it was revealed that the frequency of meetings is very high during the appraisal stage of the interventions in the mtaa, but the frequency declines once the interventions have started.

Table 14: Frequency of meetings by members of certain interventions to discuss the progress of their interventions (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
Once per month	15	28.8
Twice per month	4	7.7
Once every three month	24	46.2
Once every six month	1	1.9
Not at all	6	11.6
Occasionally	1	1.9
Any time in need	1	1.9
Total	52	100

4.5.3 Implementation and accomplishment of development interventions

When asked if planned interventions are implemented and completed as scheduled, 29% responded positively while 71% of respondents said street mtaa development agricultural interventions are not completed in the planned time period. Participatory planning has often served as a means of programme development, but not programme implementation. Rather than constituting a key activity, ‘planning is

seen as a way of getting money from external sources.’ The role of plans could end when the goal of getting money is achieved.

4.5.3.1 Contribution provided for achievements

Table 15 results show that 69% said their contribution provided for achievements was in kind contribution, 3.4% financial contribution, and 27.6% both inkind and financial contribution.

Table 15: Type of contribution provided for completing and accomplishing the interventions (n=29)

	Frequency	Percent
Inkind contribution	20	69.0
Financial contribution	1	3.4
Both inkind and financial	8	27.6
Total	29	100

Furthermore results in Table 16 show that 43.7% of the respondents mentioned lack of transparent leadership in development and agricultural intervention as the main factor that is causing poor performance in the implementation of planned agricultural interventions, 21.1% mentioned poor accountability and responsibility by Council/NGOs/CBOs, and 9.9% pointed out lack of inkind contribution, 11.3% mentioned poor accountability and responsibility by village/street extension workers, and 14% lack of financial contribution. Transparency and accountability in the participatory planning process are very crucial issues. Transparency with respect to budget and accounts is at the heart of local government accountability. Improved information to the public on budgets and accounts may improve the opportunities for citizen to voice their opinion and hold local authorities accountable. Rutatora (2004)

reported lack of vision and commitments of some ward and village government officials as some of the challenges facing the bottom up development process.

Table 16: Factor(s) contributing to not completing/ implemented street (mtaa) agricultural development interventions as schedule (n=71)

Reason	Frequency	Percent
Poor accountability and responsibly by village/street extension workers	8	11.3
Lack of inkind contribution	7	9.9
Lack of financial contribution	10	14.0
Poor accountability and responsibility by Council/NGOs/CBOs	15	21.1
Lack of transparency by leaders in development of agricultural interventions	31	43.7
Total	71	100

4.5.4 Information and technology about farming practices

Small scale farmers interest towards farming practices and use of technology has greater influence in the performance of interventions. Interest is a combined affect of factors that show the magnitude at which the farmer is ready to accept information and technology use. The uses of technology in the field make small scale farmers more familiar with the innovation hence, increasing the interest in the technology.

During the study, respondents were asked if they have got information/technology about their farming practices. Further results in Table 17 show that the highest percentage of information received was 12.5% each on cattle keeping, and animal feeding, the lowest was 2.5% each on horticulture activities, hoes keeping, paddy production, and pest control.

**Table 17: Information/technology they received from the different sources
(n=40)**

Information	Frequency	Percent
Cattle keeping	5	12.5
Using fertilizer	5	12.5
Animal feeding	5	12.5
Animal Traction Technology	4	10.0
Using proper seeds	4	10.0
Milking	3	7.5
Pig production	3	7.5
Agricultural practices	3	7.5
Treating chicken	2	5.0
Land preparation	2	5.0
Horticultural activities	1	2.5
Hoes keeping	1	2.5
Paddy production	1	2.5
Pest control	1	2.5
Total	40	100

4.5.4.1 Most important sources of ideas for agricultural information/technology received

Technologies and practices need to be communicated from the source to receiver. Failure to communicate technologies and practices has bothered many well-intentioned extension people. A source in technology transfer refers to the point of origin of the message; it may be researchers, leaders, opinion leaders and change agents. It is observed that the source of appropriate information that addresses their real needs to be one of the current challenges facing the small sale farmers. Agricultural extension workers do not reach every farmer and every farmer can not attend extension activities. Hence there is limited flow of information about latest agricultural technologies.

According to the results in Table 18 interviewed people 87.5% mentioned agricultural officers as the source of ideas for agriculture information/technology received, 5.0% mentioned neighbours, 5.0% radio/TV, and 2.5% mentioned seminars. Agricultural education could spread faster if mass media could be efficiently used, but in the current study it is only small proportion of 5.0% of respondents who access ideas on agriculture information/technology through the Radio/TV. There is a saying, that “seeing is believing.” It is through television that various worldwide agricultural oriented activities can be shown.

**Table 18: Sources of ideas for agriculture information/technology used
(n=40)**

Most important source of ideas	Frequency	Percent
Agricultural officer	35	87.5
Neighbours	2	5.0
Radio/TV	2	5.0
Seminars	1	2.5
Total	40	100

4.5.5 Distance of the respondents from the office of the extension workers

About 71.15% of the respondents were located more than 10 kilometers from their home to the office of extension workers, while 28.85% were located less than 5 kilometers from their home to the office of extension workers. Though the District had agricultural extension workers at ward and mtaa level, coverage of extension workers was minimal. First lack of transport affected the effectiveness of peri-urban and urban agricultural extension workers. Second, lack of motivation on the part of agriculture extension workers who gave advice on intervention activities. For example, Mlozi (1996) found that urban agricultural extension workers serving dairy cattle keepers advising on general agriculture practices including growing vegetables were paid for their advice. Furthermore, this observation indicates that respondents involved in these interventions are located far apart from the services of extension workers.

Table 19: Distribution of respondents according to the distance from the office of extension worker (n=52)

Distance (km)	Frequency	Percent
0 to 5	37	71.15
5.1 to 10	0	0.0
Above 10	15	28.85
Total	52	100

4.5.6 Use of inputs for agricultural production

Poor access to inputs directly influences the level and quality of production. Even in the poorest parts of Africa, there is still demand for farm implements and good quality seed. Less poor farmers may make selective use of fertilizer and pesticides.

Agricultural inputs are required for increasing production and income for small scale farmers. These include improved seeds, fertilizer, agro-chemicals, post harvest technology, and farm implements. Input subsidies are a particularly vexed issue. Some argue that they are needed to provide a short-run boost to production and incomes. Yet they are also disruptive and undermine sustainable commercial development. At a workshop in Uganda participants highlighted the negative effect of farm input relief programmers in neighboring countries on the development of commercial input supply networks in Uganda (Gordon and Goodland, 1999). In Malawi, the starter-pack scheme (distribution of free seed and fertilizer) implemented in 1999 and 2000 has boosted production there, but it has also deprived other low-income farmers in neighboring countries of a traditional outlet for their surplus production. Studies by Ponte (2000), point out that the farmers from the Southern Highlands region are increasingly using improved farm inputs (seeds, fertilizer, and pesticides) for the production of high value crops such as tomatoes and

cabbage. This study shows that majority of respondents interviewed use inputs for agricultural production.

According to the results in Table 20, 50 % of interviewed people mentioned that they use inputs (such as improved seed, fertilizers, insecticides/pesticides, drugs) for agricultural production most often, 32.7% occasionally, 17.2% not at all.

Table 20: Respondents' use of inputs for agricultural production (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
Most often	26	50.0
Occasionally	17	32.7
Not at all	9	17.3
Total	52	100

4.5.7 Training opportunities

Training is very crucial in the progress of any project, training empowers individuals. Training can be on the job or field training or can be formal whereby participants are required to leave their families and attend the training. Rutatora and Rutakochozibwa (1995) argued that farmer training is essential if the introduced and selected agricultural technologies and practices are to be utilized on sustainable basis. The regular training and visit paid to farmers disseminate innovation and technical recommendations. Training makes the extension staff and the farmers feel themselves as students as well as teachers, which enables them to discuss thing as equals.

Furthermore during the current study the respondents were asked to report whether they have received any training in relation to their interventions. The observation shows that 73.1% of the respondents under the 4 interventions implemented in the

study area had received training pertaining to management of ploughs, animal husbandry, management of dairy cattle and layers production. On the other hand, 26.9% reported that they were not receiving any training concerning their intervention.

4.5.8 Decision maker on the output of the intervention at family level

Decision making has a big impact on household food security since most men who make decisions alone on selling agricultural products sell the products for private gain and not for the family. Women however have the major concern of making sure that the family has enough food for the whole year and to making sure the family gets its daily meal, they are also able to give estimates on how much food is sufficient for the family throughout the year, and so determine how much to sell (Morgan, 2000). When women are not involved in the decision making on how much to sell and for what, a situation of food insecurity may arise. In much of rural Tanzania women who bear the full burden of household maintenance, have little or no say in decision on land, production or cash expenditure.

Findings in Table 21 show that for the majority the head of the household was a man who was also the decision maker on many issues especially those that were of economic importance. 69.2% of respondents reported that the head/husband of the household was the decision maker in the family, 13.6% reported that all members of the family were the ones who were responsible for making decisions on the outputs of intervention, 11.5% mentioned wife, 1.9% each mentioned the eldest son, eldest daughter, head/husband and wife respectively.

Table 21: Decision making on the output of the intervention (n=52)

Who Decides	Frequency	Percent
Head/Husband	36	69.2
All members	7	13.6
Wife	6	11.5
Eldest son	1	1.9
Eldest daughter	1	1.9
Husband and wife	1	1.9
Total	52	100

4.6 DADPs Implementation Process and how it Improved Small scale Farmers Standard of Living

4.6.1 Benefits gained from the DADPs and Non DADPs interventions

Under normal circumstances, if the participant says that he/she is benefiting from the intervention it is more likely that he/she will ensure that the intervention keeps on progressing well, but when one says that he/she does not benefit from the intervention it is more likely the sustainability of intervention is in doubt. During FGD respondents were asked as to why many people are benefiting from the interventions, they said that those who are benefiting from use of animal power in crop production (ox-ploughing) are those who increased area under cultivation. During the present study respondents were asked to give their views on whether they are benefiting from the interventions. Findings in Table 22 show that 28.8% of the respondents from ox-plough, dairy cattle, horticultural production, and layers production interventions have benefited by increases in cultivated area, 9.6% increased harvest, 11.5% paid school fees for their children, 9.6% bought cattle, 19.2% bought home assets, 7.7 % built houses, 3.8% bought ox-cart, 3.8 % bought goat, 3.8% bought pump, and 1.9% bought chicken.

Table 22: Types of benefit gained from the DADPs and Non-DADPs interventions (N=100)

Types of Benefit	DADPs		Non DADPs		All	
	Participants		Participants		N=100	
	(n=52)		(n=48)			
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Increases cultivation area	15	28.8	13	27.1	28	28.0
Increase harvest	5	9.6	5	10.4	10	10.0
Paid school fees	6	11.5	4	8.3	10	10.0
Bought cattle	5	9.6	3	6.3	8	8.0
Bought home assets	10	19.2	12	25.0	22	22.0
Built a house	4	7.7	2	4.2	6	6.0
Bought o-xcart	2	3.8	3	6.3	5	5.0
Bought goat	2	3.8	2	4.2	4	4.0
Bought a pump	2	3.8	1	2.1	3	3.0
Bought chicken	1	1.9	3	6.3	4	4.0

On the other side, the study revealed that 27.1% of the respondents on non- DADPs participants, commented that the interventions has enabled them to increase in cultivated area, 10.4% increased harvest, 8.3% paid school fees for they children, 6.3% bought cattle, 25% bought home assets, 4.2% built houses, 6.3% bought ox-cart, 4.2% bought a goat, 2.1% bought a pump, 6.3 % bought chicken.

From the result obtained it is concluded that types of benefit gained have not improved living standards of the respondents, neither is there any difference in the type of benefits gained from the DADPs and non- DADPs interventions, moreover the types of benefit gained by the respondents were observed to be very small to bring positive changes. The findings show that participating in DADPs interventions can not assure gain of some benefit. Under normal circumstances being in the DADPs means benefiting from the intervention.

4.6.2 Household assets owned by the DADPs and Non DADPs participants

Ownership of household assets by small scale farmers during the period of DADPs and non DADPs interventions was also examined in order to investigate the empowerment of ASDP supported small scale farmers. URT (2003b) reported that assets provide people with opportunities and options in the face of impoverishing forces. Thus being asset poor limits people's capacity to improve and safeguard their well being. However, Rutasitara (2002), argued that wealth symbolizes peace and prestige, a sign that the owner is a well off at least by the standards of his community and wealth in the form of assets, land, and capital is, in addition, a source of further wealth. Three forms of wealth are used to describe the poverty profile namely land, livestock, and ownership of simple consumer durables. With respect to this study the following assets were considered to be important in measuring the small scale farmers' standard of living. In the current study respondents were asked assets owned by the DADPs and non-DADPs intervention in the household. Table 23 results show that there were no differences between the two groups in the possession of assets. 80% of total of respondents in both groups had no TV, and less than 50% of them had a bicycle, numbers of respondents possessing radio in both groups accounted for about 23% and 23% each of total respondents in DADPs and non -DADPS interventions respectively. Assets such as radio, TV, bicycle, and house with corrugated iron sheets are usually linked to wealth status (Rutasitara, 2002).

From the results obtained it can be concluded that not owning any of these assets may indicate low expenditure capability. Since most of the respondents from

DADPs and non DADPs interventions own these assets, earnings obtained from the interventions which the participants are undertaking, have enabled the majority of the respondents to access these assets. Normally assets are purchased when a household has accomplished the necessary family needs such as food and other necessities. This also resulted in improved livelihood such as construction of better houses, possessing land, had a radio, possessing bicycle, possess livestock, furniture, and local chicken by the scheme and non scheme members.

Table 23: Assets owned by the DADPs and Non DADPs respondents (N=100)

Asset	DADPs Participants (n=52)		Non -DADPs Participants (n=48)		All (N=100)	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Land	12	40.0	10	20.8	22	22.0
TV	6	11.5	4	8.3	10	10.0
Radio	21	40.0	23	48.0	44	44.0
Bicycle	12	23.0	11	23.0	23	23.0
Layers	13	25.0	12	25.0	25	50.0
House	4	7.7	2	4.2	6	6.0
Cattle	26	61.5	30	62.5	56	56.0
Concrete pump	13	25.0	7	14.5	20	20.0
Furniture	1	1.9	3	6.3	4	4.0
Local chicken	40	77.0	37	92.5	77	77.0

Key; Freq = Frequency

4.6.3 Off farm activities performed by the DADPs and Non DADPs participants

Off-farm income generating activities is one among several other strategies employed by smallholder farmers in Africa. This strategy is used either to buffer any risk that might happen from agricultural production and/or to supplement the decreased income from farming (Chul-Woo *et al.*, 2006). It is apparent that off-farm income smoothens the path of total income for farmers. Under current study the

results in Table 24 indicate that 78.8% and 73% of respondents in the DADPs and non- DADPs interventions involved in business as off-farm activities respectively, 9.6% and 6.2% employment respectively, 2% and 6.2% of DADPs and non-DADPs carrying of produce from field using ox-cart respectively, 3.8% and 4.2% of DADPs and non-DADPs were livestock keepers, 3.8% and 6.2% of DADPs and non-DADPs were builders. Furthermore, the results indicate that 2% of DADPs respondents are making mats compared with 4.2% of non-DADPs.

The results show that the majority of respondents in both groups were doing business as off-farm activities. There were no significant statical differences ($P>0.05$) observed between DADPs and non DADPs participants in terms of off farm activities performed. However, Chi square test was done to establish if there was a significant difference in the distribution of the off- farm activities performed. The results show that there was no significant difference ($P>0.05$) between DADPs and non DADPs participants in terms of off-farm activities performed.

Table 24: Distribution of respondents on off farm activities performed by the DADPs and Non DADPs (N=100)

	DADPs		Non DADPs		All		Chi-square
	Participants		Participants		N=100		
	n=52		n=48				
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Fre	%	0.047 ^{ns}
Business	41	78.8	35	73.0	76	76.0	
Employment	5	9.6	3	6.2	8	8.0	
Carrying of products from field using oxen-cart	1	2.0	3	6.2	4	4.0	
Livestock keeping	2	3.8	2	4.2	4	4.0	
Builders	2	3.8	3	6.2	5	5.0	
Making mats	1	2.0	2	4.2	3	3.0	

Key; Freq = Frequency, NS= not significant

4.6.4 On farm activities performed before and after DADPs implementation process

Respondents in the study were asked to identify activities they performed for DADPs and non-DADPs respondents. The results in Table 25 show that 65.4% of respondents dealt with crop production activities while 34.6% dealt with livestock production for DADPs respondents compared with 62.5% who dealt with crop production activities and 37.5% who dealt with livestock production activities for non-DADPs respondents. The findings imply that farming is the major source of employment following DADPs implementation process in Temeke Municipality. Results indicate that there is no big difference in on farm activities performed by DADPs respondents compared with non-DADPs respondents. Both groups dealt with crop production and livestock production as on farm activities in the study area.

Table 25: Distribution of respondents of on farm activities performed before and after DADPs implementation process (N=100)

Type of activities	Activities performed DADPs (n=52)		Activities performed non-DADPs (n=48)	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
Crop production	34	65.4	18	62.5
Livestock keeping	18	34.6	30	37.5
Total	52	100	48	100

4.6.5 Number of labourers hired to work in the field or for livestock from DADPs and Non-DADPs participants.

During the study respondents were asked to respond to the questions on how many labourers were hired to work in the field or for livestock. The results in Table 26 show that 50% of both DADPs and non-DADPs respondents were in a position of hiring 1-2 people to work in their field, while 44.2% and 40% of respondents of DADPs and non-DADPs were not in a position of hiring people to work in their field respectively. However, 3.8% of DADPs participants were able to hire more than 4 labourers in their field. Similarly, 2% of the household of the non-DADPs participants were able to hire more than 4 labourers in their field. Furthermore, 1.9% of DADPs participants were able to hire 3-4 labourers while non-DADPs participants were able to hire 3-4 labourers. This trend is supported by the amount of income earned per year, whereby more than 50% received an income of more than Tshs 100,000 per year as indicated in Figure 1. This category of earning can allow a household to hire casual labourers.

Results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference ($P > 0.05$) between the two groups in the extent of labourers hired to work in the field or for livestock.

Chi square test was done to establish if there were significant differences in the distribution of number of labourers hired to work in the field or for livestock. The results showed that there was no statistically significant difference ($P>0.05$) between DADPs and non- DADPs participants in terms of number of labourers hired to work in the field or for livestock because respondents from both groups received an income of more than Tshs 100 000 per year.

Table 26: Distribution of respondents by number of labourers hired to work in the field or for livestock (N=100)

Number of labourers	DADPs Participants n=52		Non DADPs Participants N=48		All N=100		Chi-square
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
None	23	44.2	21	44	44	44	0.632 ^{ns}
1-2	26	50.0	24	50	50	50	
3-4	1	1.9	2	4	3	3	
Above 4	2	3.8	1	2	3	3	
Total	52	100	48	100	100	100	

Key; Freq = Frequency

NS= not significant

4.6.6 Number of family members employed to work in the field or for livestock from DADPs and Non-DADPs participants.

The level of standard of living in rural settings is sometimes judged by whether the members of the household go out to search for work for earning an income so as to sustain the family. The higher the frequency of being a casual labourer to the others' fields, the poorer the household. During the current study the respondents were

asked to respond to the question of how many members of the family go to work in others field as casual labourer.

The results in Table 27 show that there was no statistically significant difference between the DADPs and non-DADPs participants with respect to selling labour. However, Chi square test was done to establish if there were significant differences in the distribution of the number of family members employed to work in the field or for livestock. The findings show that there was no statistically significant difference ($P>0.05$) between DADPs and non DADPs participants in terms of number of family members employed to work in the field or for livestock. Generally, 52% of the both groups of respondents said that they do sell their labour so as to earn money to sustain the family.

Table 27: Distribution of respondents by number of family members employed to work in the field or for livestock (N=100)

No. of labourers	DADPs		Non DADPs		All		Chi-square
	Participants n=52		Participants n=52		N=100		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	0.612 ^{ns}
0	28	54.0	25	52.0	53	53.0	
1-2	20	38.0	21	44.0	41	41.0	
>3	4	8.0	2	4.0	6	6.0	
Total	52	100	48	100	100	100	

NS= not significant

4.7 Services from the extension workers

Extension means to extend, to spread or disseminate useful information and idea to the rural people outside the regularly organized school and classrooms (Supe, 1990). Extension education is an education programme for the people based on their needs and problems. It is designed to meet these needs and to solve the problems on a self-

help basis. Observation indicated that lack of visits of extension agent to farmers and poor linkage to other relevant partners affected the transfer of technologies and technical information to small holder farmers to the local level. Improved extension services have great impact for improving productivity to both crops and animal production interventions which ultimately improve the living standard of the people. In more recent times the government has also become involved in educating farmers on improved farming practices, as agricultural extension bridges the gap between technical knowledge and current practices. Extension services constitute training and visiting farmers to provide technical and professional advice. Farmers can potentially increase their productivity through adoption of new agricultural techniques, practices, and new input packages, if appropriate extension services are put in place.

4.7.1 Frequency of visits paid by extension workers

The results in Table 28 show that on all interventions assisted by ASDP, 32.6% of the respondents were visited by extension workers once per month, the frequency of one visit every month paid by extension workers was high, possibly due to the long distances that extension workers were supposed to travel from the District headquarters where most extension workers reside, 23.3% were visited once per three months, 9.6% twice per month, 5.7% once per week, 1.9% once every six months and 26.9% were not visited at all.

Table 28: Frequency of visits paid by extension workers (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
Once per Week	3	5.7

Once per month	17	32.6
Once per three months	12	23.3
Once per six months	1	1.9
Twice per month	5	9.6
Not visited	14	26.9
Total	52	100

4.8 Problems Encountered during Implementation of the DADPs Interventions

4.8.1 Factors that made interventions to fail

The results from Table 29 show that 38.4% of the respondents reported that drought was one of the factors that made the interventions to fail, 13.5% mentioned of difficult of to handling concrete pumps, while 9.6% reported that lack of market and high price of agricultural inputs were some of the factors that made interventions to fail to progress respectively, 7.7% indicated that lack of facilities such as farm implements and inputs were factors that contributed of intervention failure. Farmers in Tanzania are already using less amounts of inputs or not using inputs at all in their farms due to the effect of input subsidy removal in some areas including Dar es salaam Region. Elimination of subsidies has pushed the prices of inputs and other consumer goods beyond the reach of most farmers. Other contributing factors were animal and crops diseases which 5.8% of the respondents complained about, 5.8% mentioned pest infestation while 5.8% mentioned misunderstandings among group members and 3.8% mentioned about poor attendance at meetings. According to Kabuga (2004) group composition, structures and size can strengthen farmers groups. The group's cohesiveness is the attraction to group, including resistance to leaving it, morale or the level of motivation evidenced by group members and coordination of efforts of group members. Economic situation of the group can also

influence a group to be stronger. Stronger farmer group can not be well achieved if the economic situation of the members is not promising; member will be active in the group if they observe positive change of their economic viability. Otherwise they will not be motivated if they do not get the intended benefits (Mvella, 2000) Similarly Narayan (1997) supported that, the most important constraints to farmers are lack credit, crop destruction by pests and diseases, lack of implements, high price and unavailability of inputs. Other constraints are lack of market, extension services and land.

Table 29: Factors which contributed to failure of interventions (n=52)

	Frequency	Percent
Drought	20	38.4
Difficult to handle concrete pump	7	13.5
Lack of market	5	9.6
High price of agriculture input	5	9.6
Lack of facilities	4	7.7
Animals and crop diseases	3	5.8
Misunderstanding among groups members	3	5.8
Pests infestation	3	5.8
Poor attendance at meetings	2	3.8
Total	52	100

4.9 Views of the Respondents on their Participation

The results in Table 30 show that 12% of the respondents agreed that they were involved from intervention design, implementation and management in contrast with 88% who disagreed. Participatory planning is frequently more rhetoric than reality and consequently programme and intervention designs are frequently unsustainable. Participatory planning and budgeting in a framework of earmarked funds is an academic exercise, especially when there is no requirement to derive sectoral investment priorities from the development plans despite the facade of ‘bottom-up’

planning, district plans are still largely determined and strongly influenced by administrators.

Table 30: Distribution of views of the respondents on the intervention (n=52)

Statement	Agree Frequency	Percent	Disagree Frequency	Percent
I was actively involved from intervention design, implementation and management	6	12	46	88.0
Project becomes sustainable especially when ward leaders are actively involved in all stages of the project cycle	30	57	22	43.0
Ward leaders influences the small scale farmers in selection of agricultural interventions	24	46	28	54.0
Work load to women leads to the poor participation in the project cycle	25	48	27	52.0

4.10 Respondents' Advice to District Facilitation Team/District Council

Officials

During the study respondents were given an opportunity to give their views about the progress of their interventions. During the study respondents were given the opportunity to give their advice to ASDP/District Council, that is, what they think should be done by the authorities so that interventions can continue with minimal problems or setbacks. The study revealed that 34.4% of the respondents advised that for the better performance of the interventions ASDP/District Council should reduce the price of inputs. Narayan (1997) commented that availability of inputs for crops and livestock will scale up the percentage of inputs more than 20% which uses

agricultural inputs in Tanzania. Lack of inputs is a major problem which hinders farmers from using agricultural inputs. The traditional source of getting farmers inputs in Tanzania was the cooperative societies but many of them are not in position to provide inputs. The elimination of subsidies in other inputs except for Sulphur for cashew nuts in Dar es Salaam Region and currency devaluations have resulted in higher prices and reduced use of inputs.

The study findings in Table 31 show that 14% of the respondents advised that for better performance of the interventions ASDP/District Council should construct irrigation canals rather than using concrete pumps which are more labourer demanding, 13.1% advised more training to farmers should be provided so that they improve the management of the interventions, Other issues were demarcation for areas of grazing 8.2%, Furthermore, 6.6% advised that ASDP/Council should seek for market opportunities, 4.9% advised that ASDP/Council should provide assistance such as provision of funds for all interventions proposed by the community, 3.3% advised that rules should be created that will ensure return of credit, about 3.3% advised that ASDP should improve infrastructure and provision of good breeds of bulls respectively.

Table 31: Respondents advice to District Facilitation Team/District Council officials (n=61)

Advice to ASDP/District Council officials	Frequency	Percentage of Responses
Reduction price of inputs	21	34.4
Construct irrigation canals	3	4.9
More training to farmers	8	13.1
Demarcate area for grazing	5	8.2
Seek for market opportunity	4	6.6
Support projects proposed by the community	3	4.9

Create rule that will ensure repayment of credit	2	3.3
Improve infrastructure	2	3.3
Provide good breeds of bulls	2	3.3
Total	61	100

4.11 Performance of Interventions under DADPs in terms of Improving Living Standard of Small scale Farmers

According to Heeks (2003) there are a number of factors that contribute to the success of interventions. Managers should ask themselves if particular interventions will offer some net benefit to the people who will be affected by interventions after considering its benefits and any negative side-effects plus the cost of consuming natural resources both in price that must be paid for them and the realization that they used for that interventions and that they will no longer be available for any other intervention. Heeks (2003) lists some of the main factors that support success of interventions as: external pressure, internal vision and strategy, overall vision and strategy, effective interventions management, effective design and requisite competencies. Other critical factors identified for the prosperity of interventions are luck, perseverance, and adequate funding.

During the current study respondents were asked to what extent the interventions under DADPs improved the living standard of small scale farmers. The findings in Table 31 show that 86.5% and 1.9% of the respondents said the performance of interventions under DADPs process will be increased if the factors contributing to failure of interventions that were mentioned in Table 32 can be taken care of, 12% and a small proportion of respondents said outright that the interventions cannot improve living standard of the respondents at all. Isinika and Mdoe (2001) argued that in order to determine the sustainability of interventions run by participants the

following issues should be observed: if there are any problems faced by participants, if there are any expansions of interventions since implementation, if the interventions are able to make any savings since they started and if the small scale farmers continue to operate the interventions after donors pull-out. With those remarks above, the study shows that the interventions have not yet attained their targets.

Table 32: Respondents' opinions on the impact of DADPs on their living standards (n=52)

Change in living standards	Frequency	Percent
Decreased	6	12.0
Increased	45	86.5
Greatly increased	1	1.9
Total	52	100

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The overall objective of this study was to assess the performance of the interventions implemented by small scale farmers under ASDP through the O&OD participatory planning process. The specific objectives were to identify the types of interventions implemented during the DADPs process; to assess the performance of interventions implemented through the DADPs process; to assess the types of participatory process used during the DADPs process and to assess if the DADPs implementation process has improved small scale farmers' standard of living.

5.1 Conclusions

The following conclusions can be made based on the results of the study.

1. The planned agricultural development interventions were horticultural production through irrigation, dairy cattle production, local chicken; layers production; cashew nut production improvement, use of animal power in crop production and dairy goat production, but the interventions being implemented in Temeke District under ASDP are (i) use of animal power in crop production (ox ploughing), (ii) dairy cattle production (iii) horticulture production through irrigation and (iv) layers production

2. The performance of interventions was poor; the study revealed that the interventions had not yet fulfilled the intended objectives effectively.
3. The participatory agriculture planning approach used during DADPs was O&OD and PRA approaches.
4. The DADPs implementation used the following stages/steps: to analyze farmers' present situation; assess farmers' problems and potential; identify farmers' objectives; and define the steps necessary to achieve those objectives.
5. On livelihoods it was revealed that there are no significant differences between DADPs participants and non DADPs participants in terms of the living standards of small scale farmers' as a result of DADPs interventions.

5.2 Recommendations

1. There is a need to involve small scale farmers and other development agencies in the area at the start of such interventions so as to integrate all the sectors; furthermore accountability and transparency should be strengthened by strengthening elected interventions committee to play their role more effectively; this should establish faster development and sustainability of interventions.
2. It is recommended that interventions identification should be discussed regularly in the street assembly.

3. Failure of interventions identified through the O&OD participatory process is a great disincentive to planning; PRA techniques should be employed to generate local awareness of how community resources, both human and financial, can be used to solve community problems.
4. The District and Ward Facilitation Teams should make regular follow ups and monitor at street level; this will help to know what is really happening at every stage of the participatory process and emerging problems and finding solutions to them.
5. The Municipal Council should ensure that objectives set under DADPs interventions are achievable.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Operational Definitions

Variables	Operational definitions and measurements	Level of measurement	Unit or measurement
Age	Number of years since one was born	Ratio	Number of years
Household size	Number of household members	Ratio	Number of members
Group size	Number of people joining a group	Ratio	Number of people
Marital status	Having a spouse or not	Nominal	1=Married; 2=Single; 3=Divorce; 4=Widow; 5=Separated
Education level	Number of years one went to school	Ratio	Number of years
Income generating activities	Major economic activities undertaken	Nominal	1=Farming; 2=Businesses; 3=Others(specify)
Income	Amount gained per annum	Ratio	Tshs
Main occupation	Major economic activity done by farmer.	Nominal	1=farming; 2= business; 3=Other (specify...)
Types of community participation planning approaches	A variety of ways through which the community are involved in developing their socio-economic activities.	Nominal	1=Bottom-up approach; 2=Top-down approach 3= Both top-down and bottom-up approaches
Community participatory planning process	A progressive channel through which socio-economic activities are performed from planning to evaluation phases	Nominal	1=Yes; 2=No
Performance of community participation planning approaches	Farm productivity level	Ratio Likert/ Ordinal	1=<100kgs; 2=101-200kgs; 3=>200kgs) 1=Greatly extent; 2=Limited extent
Small scale farmers	Individual HHs in group holding <5 ha./ 5L.U:	Interval	1=More than.....; 2=Less than
Farm size	No. of hectares held by a farmer	Interval	(1=<1ha; 2=1-5ha; 3=>5ha)
Role of Stakeholders	State of playing part in a particular subproject's activity	Ordinal	1=Less taking part; 2=More taking part
Awareness creation	State of knowing what is prevailing in the community subprojects	Ordinal Nominal	1=Less familiar; 2=More familiar Methods used in project exposure
Community empowerment	Process of building people's ability in order to get what they want from the environment, given what is available	Nominal	1=Village assembly meetings; 2=Facilitation of training; 3= both meetings and training; 4=none
Type of community participation	Style of contributing to the accomplishment of subprojects	Nominal	1=Cash; 2=In kind (Labour and material) 3=Both

Appendix 2: Interview Schedule for Household Head Farmers

F. QN 1

TITLE; PERFORMANCE OF INTERVENTIONS UNDER ASDP IN TANZANIA: THE CASE OF TEMEKE MUNICIPALITY

Ward/Street nameNumber of respondent

Date/.....2009.

A: 1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1 What was your age in years on your last birthday? (Tick the appropriate answer).

- a) Below 18 – 30 years ()
- b) Between 31 – 50 years ()
- c) 51 – 60years; ()
- d) Above 60years ()

2 Sex of respondents (Tick the appropriate answer).

- a) Male; ()
- b) Female ()

3 What your marital status? (Tick the appropriate answer).

- a) Single; ()
- b) Married; ()
- c) Separated, ()
- e) Divorced; ()
- f) Widowed ()

4 What is your family size number? (Tick the appropriate answer).

- a) 1 – 2; ()
- b) 3 – 5; ()
- c) 6 – 9; ()
- d) 10 and above ()

5. What is your highest level of education? (Tick the appropriate answer).

- a) None; ()
- b) Completed primary school; ()
- c) Completed secondary school; ()
- d) College; ()
- e) Others (specify).....

A.2 Household head situational/economic characteristics

6 What is your main occupation? (Tick the appropriate answer)

- a) Crop producer; ()
- b) Livestock keeper; ()
- c) Formal employment ()
- d) Business/ petty trade; ()
- e) Others (specify).....

7 How much did you harvest in the last season?

- a) Cashew nut..... (kg)
- b) Milk..... (Litters)
- c) Eggs..... (Numbers)
- d) Piggery production..... (Numbers)
- e) Sweet potatoes.....(kg)
- f) Water melon..... (Numbers)

8 What assets do you owned by DADPs and non- DADP respondents at your household (Tick the appropriate answer)

Household assets ownership						
Land (acres) (1)	Radio (Number) (2)	TV (Number) (3)	Transport (Type Number) (4)	House (Number) (5)	Livestock (Type Number) (6)	Others (specify...) (Type/Number) (7...)

9 What is the annual income of your households? (Tshs) (Tick the appropriate answer)

- a) 0.....50,000 ()
- b) 51,000.....100, 000 ()
- c) 101,000.....500,000 ()
- d) Above.....500,000 ()

10 How many laboures have you employed to work in your field or for livestock?

11 H0w many people from your family do work as labourers to earn income?

(B) Questionnaire concerning the types and performance of interventions implemented during DADPs and non-DADPs process. (Tick the appropriate answer)

12 Your household belongs to what category of interventions?

- a) Ox-ploughing ()
- b) Dairy cattle ()
- c) Horticultural production ()
- d) Layers production ()

13 Your interventions is concerning with what?

14 Were you involved in selecting these interventions?

- a) Yes ()
- b) No ()

15 What do you say about the progress of interventions?

- a) The interventions is positive progressing ()
- b) Not progressing well ()

- 16 If not progressing well what are contributing factors?
 a)
 b)
 c)
 d)
- 17 If progressing well have you ever purchased any thing from the money accrued from the interventions?
 a) Yes ()
 b) No ()
- 18 If yes can you mention the benefit?
 a)..... b)

 C).....
- 19 Who does the decision making on the output of the interventions?

- 20 Does extension officer visit your interventions regularly?
 a) Yes ()
 b) No ()
- 21 If Yes how often?
 a) Once per month ()
 b) Once per three month ()
 c) Once per six month ()
 d) Others (specify)
- 22 What is the distance from your house to the office of extension worker.....(km)
- 23 Have you attended any training concerning your interventions?
 a) Yes ()
 b) No ()
- 24 Mention the problems which you always face in your interventions
 a).....
 b).....
 c).....
 d).....
- 25 Do you think assistance provided by ASDP will achieve a sustained agricultural growth rate in your household?
 a) Yes ()
 b) No ()
- 26 What advice do you give to ASDP/District Council officials?
 a).....
 b).....
 c).....
 d).....

(C) Types of community participation planning approaches used during the DADPs process (Tick the appropriate answer)

- 27 Are you aware of the concept of participatory agricultural development process?
 a) Yes ()
 b) No ()
- 28 Do the meetings for formulation of Mtaa happen every year in your area?
 a) Yes, they happen every year ()
 b) No, they not happen every year ()
 c) I don't know ()
- 29 Who always formulate the annual Mtaa agricultural development planning in your area?
 a) Members of Mitaa/Ward government ()
 b) Mtaa/Ward Executive officer ()
 c) Mtaa/Ward members and available development partners ()
 d) Ward Development Committee (WDC) ()
- 30 Who approves the annual Mtaa agricultural development plan?
 a) Mtaa committee ()
 b) Mtaa Executive officer ()
 c) Mtaa assembly ()
 d) Ward development committee ()
- 31 Were you involved in participatory planning approach during DADPs process?
 a) Yes (If Yes go to number 32) ()
 b) No (if No go to number 33) ()
- 32 How did you carry out participatory planning approach during DADPs process?
- 33 Why were you not involved in participatory planning approach during DADPs process?
- 34 Who facilitate participatory planning approach during the DADPs process?
 a) District Facilitation Team (DFT) ()
 b) Ward Facilitation Team (WFT) ()
 c) Mtaa Executive officer ()
 d) Mtaa assembly ()
 e) I don't know ()

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following statement by putting a tick to the statement that coincides with your option.

- 1) A= Agree
- 2) D=Disagree

S/NO	Statements	1	2
36	I was actively involved from interventions design, implementation, and management.		
37	Project becomes sustainable especially when mtaa/ward leaders are actively involved in all stages of the project cycle.		
38	Mtaa/Ward leaders influenced the small scale farmers in selection of the agricultural activities interventions		
39	Work load to women leads to the poor participation in the project cycle.		

40 How frequent the members of a certain interventions meet to discuss the progress of their interventions

- a) Once per month ()
- b) Twice per month ()
- c) Once per three month ()
- d) Others (specify).....

(D) To assess if the DADP implementation process has improve small scale farmers’ standard of living. (Tick the appropriate answer)

41 Type of activities performed by household head by DADPs and non- DADPs participants?

42. What on-farm activities do you performed by DADPs and non- DADPs participants?

- a) Crop production; ()
- b) Livestock production; ()
- c) Other farm related activities (specify).....

43 What off-farm activities do you performed by DADPs and non- DADPs participants?

- a) Business; ()
- b) Employee (Private/government); ()
- c) Other off-farm activities (specify).....

44 Production benefits gained by DADPs and non -DADPs participants

.....

45 Are the planned agricultural interventions implemented as scheduled?

- a)Yes; ()
- b) If Yes go to no. 46. ; If No go to no. 47 ()

46 If yes, what contributions do you provide for its achievement?

- a) In-kind contribution; ()
- b) Financial contribution; ()
- c) Both in-kind and financial contribution ()

47 What factor(s) contributes for not completing mtaa agricultural development interventions as scheduled?

- a) Poor accountability and responsibility by village agricultural interventions leaders; ()
- b) Lack of in-kind contribution; ()
- c) Lack of finance contribution ()
- d) Poor accountability and responsibility by the council/NGO's/CBOs ()
- e) Lack of transparency leadership in development agricultural interventions ()

48 Do you have any sources of information/technology about your farming practices?

- a) Yes; ()
- b) No ()

49. If Yes what information/technology did you use

50 Who is the most important source of ideas for agriculture information

51 Do you use inputs (such as improved seeds, fertilizers, insecticides/pesticides) for agricultural production activities?

- a) Most often ()
- b) Occasionally ()
- c) Not at all ()

52. What extent of the performance of interventions under DADPs process will improve living standard of small scale farmers?

- a) Decreased ()
- b) Increased ()
- c) Greatly increased ()

53 Do you give any reasons if the performance of interventions under ASDP increased in terms of improving living standard of small scale farmers?

- a).....
- b).....
- c).....
- d).....

54 Do you give any reasons if the performance of interventions under ASDP decreased interns of improving living standard of small scale farmers?

- a).....
- b).....
- c).....

55 What do you comment on interventions implemented through DADPs process>?

- a).....
- b).....
- c).....

56 What do you comment on interventions implemented without DADPs process>?

- a).....
- b).....
- c).....

57. What suggestion do you put forward to improve interventions implemented through DADPs process?

.....

Appendix 3: Checklist for focus group discussion and key informats

**TITLE: PERFORMANCE OF INTERVENTIONS UNDER ASDP IN
TANZANIA: THE CASE OF TEMEKE MUNICIPALITY**

Ward/Street name

Number of respondent.....Date...../...../20.....

Sex of key informant (a) Male; () (b) Female ()

Position held.....

1. The approach which was used in initiation of the interventions.
 - If there was any influence from the Mtaa Planning and Finance Committee, Ward Facilitation Team, and District Facilitation Team.
 - If all Mtaa/Ward community were aware of interventions formulated.
2. Which interventions are formulated by using participatory planning approach?
3. Suggestions about the approach of the O&OD
 - Time taken
4. Their views about the support provided by ASDP in improving small scale farmer's living standard.
5. What were the problems they face in conducting DADPs process?
6. Involvement of the non-DADPs members into the interventions formulated?
7. Sustainability in high mechanism.
8. Involvement of Mtaa /Ward in leaders into progress of intervention.
9. Advice/Suggestions.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION