

**TRAINING FOR AGRICULTURE AND RURAL  
DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: AN ANALYSIS OF  
STRUCTURAL FORMS, OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES  
AND RELATED ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS**

**A Thesis**

**Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School**

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**Doctor of Philosophy**

**by**

**Julian F. Gonsalves**

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**06 APR 2001**

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DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: AN ANALYSIS OF  
STRUCTURAL FORMS, OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES  
AND RELATED ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS**

**Julian F. Gonsalves, Ph.D.  
Cornell University, 1984**

**The role of training in human resource development is assessed through this study of the state of the art in Tanzania. An analysis was conducted of the forces and factors influencing the effectiveness of four training programs with a major focus on 1) identification of the nature of practical problems in planning, organizing, and implementing training, and 2) generating theoretical notions and concepts pertaining to the various dimensions of villager level training.**

**Following a grounded theory approach, both qualitative and quantitative data were generated using village level surveys, interviews, and documentary analysis. Six themes emerged: needs assessment and other training related research; selection and recruitment of trainees; factors affecting the response of villagers to training; delivery systems for training; instructional content, methods and materials; and post-course follow-up.**

**Current needs assessment efforts were formal, structured and restricted to general village needs. Problem specific studies were found to result in a better**

design of training. Complex and detailed surveys reduced client control and resulted in inordinate delays. The responsibility for trainee selection has shifted from the extension worker to the village chairperson or the village council. Long duration and/or residential courses adversely affect the attendance of adults, and especially women. Sexually defined roles within the household and on the farm result in a differential response from different family members. Educational background per se did not affect the response to short duration courses. Village based short courses and demonstrations were the most preferred instructional approaches. Training impact was often determined by the quality and intensity of follow-up. The non-availability of material inputs limited the utilization of training skills.

The study suggests the need to consolidate rather than expand the existent network of residential centres while gradually increasing their village outreach activities. An improved representation of adults, especially women was considered necessary. Further research pertaining to socio-psychological determinants of trainee response, cost-effectiveness/cost-benefits, comparative studies of residential and village based approaches and barriers to women's response are recommended. This study then suggests important areas for theory and program development and the charting of future research efforts.



## **BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH**

**The author was born on October 28, 1949 in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. His father served as Civil Surgeon in numerous district hospitals in East Africa during the period between World War II and 1960.**

**The author completed his secondary schooling at Loyola High School, Margao, Goa, India in 1967 and then enrolled in the University of Agricultural Sciences, Bangalore, India from which he obtained a Bachelor of Science in agriculture in 1972. After graduation he joined the Mysore Resettlement and Development Agency, Bangalore and served as Extension Officer in an Integrated Rural Development Project in Karnataka, South India for a total of three years. During this period he also served as a Visiting Trainer at the Indian Social Institute Training Centre, Bangalore in short-term courses offered twice a year to participants from various South Asian and South East Asian countries. In 1975, the author joined Michigan State University, East Lansing to study towards a Master's degree in Communications (knowledge utilization program). He returned in 1976 to work for a brief period with the Voluntary Health Association of India, New Delhi. In 1977 he left that organization to help set up (along with H.**

Volken and S. Kaithathara) the Mobile Orientation and Training Team (MOTT), at the Indian Social Institute, New Delhi. During the two years he worked with MOTT he travelled extensively in India, providing on-site training and consultation to organizations working with India's rural poor. In 1979, the author won a fellowship from the Rockefeller Foundation towards a Ph.D. at Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. In March 1982 he obtained a Research Associateship at the Faculty of Forestry, Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences, University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania during which period he pursued his dissertation research.

As of May 1984, he will join the staff of the International Institute of Rural Reconstruction, Silang, Cavite, in the Philippines.

Dedicated to Tara,  
who sailed the seas of numerous  
dreams with me...  
who walked every mile of frustration and  
happiness...

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humanitarian dimensions of agriculture and rural development. David and Beth Kidd are remembered for accepting the author and his wife into their home and lives and for their continued friendship and encouragement.

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A special appreciation is due to Ms. Berni Oltz, Ms. Sid Doan for being ever willing to be of assistance. Finally, Ms. Jill Warner is to be remembered for her competence, her patience, and for taking an extraordinary interest in the preparation of the manuscripts.

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>AV</b>	<b>- Audio-visual</b>
<b>CATA</b>	<b>- Cashewnut authority of India</b>
<b>DADO</b>	<b>- District Agricultural Development Officer</b>
<b>DTC</b>	<b>- District Training Centre</b>
<b>FAO</b>	<b>- Food and Agriculture Organization</b>
<b>FDC</b>	<b>- Folk Development College</b>
<b>FTC</b>	<b>- Farmer Training Centre</b>
<b>FTPP</b>	<b>- Farmer Training and Production Project</b>
<b>FTW</b>	<b>- Farmer Training Wing</b>
<b>GVNA</b>	<b>- General Village Needs Assessment</b>
<b>MATI</b>	<b>- Ministry of Agriculture Training Institute</b>
<b>MLD</b>	<b>- Ministry of Livestock Development</b>
<b>RADO</b>	<b>- Regional Development Program</b>
<b>RIDEP</b>	<b>- Regional Development Program</b>
<b>RT</b>	<b>- Residential Training</b>
<b>RTC</b>	<b>- Rural Training Centre</b>
<b>TA</b>	<b>- Technical Agriculture</b>
<b>TARO</b>	<b>- Tanzania Agricultural Research Organization</b>
<b>TNA</b>	<b>- Training Needs Assessment</b>
<b>TRDP</b>	<b>- Training for Rural Development Project</b>
<b>USAID</b>	<b>- United States Agency for International Development</b>
<b>VBt</b>	<b>- Village Based Programs</b>
<b>VI</b>	<b>- Village Intervention</b>
<b>VLS</b>	<b>- Village Level Survey</b>



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## **Chapter I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT: A STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

In many of the non-industrialized developing countries, efforts aimed at basic education or literacy, primary health care, food production and nutrition improvements have yet to make a significant impact on the majority of the human population. Within the continent of Africa, the shortfalls in food production are particularly serious. The Sub-Saharan region of Africa is the only region of the world where per capita food production declined over the past two decades, resulting in an average per capita calorie intake below the minimum required nutritional levels in most countries during the period.<sup>1</sup> Shortfalls in production and consequent effects on nutrition, health and overall productivity is often explained by a combination of factors as diverse (but interrelated) as drought, population growth, a deteriorating environment (including soil fertility), non-availability of inputs, poor infrastructure (such as roads, transport and marketing facilities), reduction in export earnings and a dearth of -----

<sup>1</sup> USDA, ERS, Food Problems in Sub-Saharan Africa: The Decade of the 1980s, Foreign Agricultural Research Report No. 16 (Washington D.C., 1981).

## **Chapter I**

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<sup>1</sup> USDA, ERS, Food Problems in Sub-Saharan Africa: The Decade of the 1980s, Foreign Agricultural Research Report No. 16 (Washington D.C., 1981).

trained manpower.

Scarce financial and manpower resources are often not used to their full potential because of inadequate training or a total lack of it. The masses of the rural population, however, continue to be the major under-utilized resource. D.L. Umali emphasizes the importance of these resources when he states:

"Human resources are the most important factor in rural and agricultural development and their condition may well determine the progress of the agriculturally based economies of developing countries. Apart from the obvious importance of education and training in agriculture, the influence of adult education in general in rural areas deserves far more serious attention than it has received up to the present."<sup>2</sup>

An increased emphasis on adults seems justified because of the immediate "pay-offs" associated with such an investment and the gravity of the problems facing the African continent:

"In any case, it is not the children of today who hold the present destiny of Africa in their hands, it is the adults. It is only by establishing effective communication with the adult population by helping them adjust to a rapidly changing world then an immediate impact can be made on the urgent problems of society and essential progress be brought about. Africa cannot afford to wait a generation to mobilize its human resources for tasks of national development."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> D.L. Umali, "Adult education for rural development," Training for Agriculture, FAO (Rome, 1972) p. 29.

<sup>3</sup> Director General of UNESCO at Abidjan, 1964.

Training programs at villager level offer much opportunity for bringing about a change in knowledge, attitude and skills required for largely self-sustained and long-term development. The capabilities of the rural masses need to be enhanced in order to increase their contribution to the larger process of development. Equity and widespread distribution of benefits are the legitimate goals to which training should be able to contribute quite significantly. As Lynton and Pareek have stated:

"Training is therefore part of the grand march toward greater equality between people, toward more widely spread opportunities, participation, involvement, rising expectations."<sup>4</sup>

Within the context of Tanzania, the emphasis on villagization and decentralization exacerbated the already serious trained manpower situation within the country. In furtherance of the goals of the Arusha Declaration, villagers were given major responsibilities for the design and implementation of self-reliant, economically viable village projects. Villages were provided a legal status as a means to facilitate locally initiated projects. However, the required organizational and managerial skills at the village level were in short supply.<sup>5</sup> Efforts to provide the required institutional training, until

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<sup>4</sup> Rolf P. Lynton and Udar Pareek, Training for Development, (Connecticut: Kumarian Press, 1978) p. 103.

<sup>5</sup> Justin H.J. Maeda, "Peoples participation in development at grassroots level: the village and its context in Tanzania." Paper prepared for the SID World Conference (Baltimore, July 18-22, 1982).

recently (with the inception of the Training for Rural Development project) were restricted to a few key leaders and functionaries in each village. Village meetings, though neither adequate or appropriate for the purpose of changing capabilities, were used as "training" techniques but resulted in few changes in the actual capabilities of the villagers. Many African countries, like Tanzania are plagued by a serious shortfall (both in terms of quality and absolute numbers) in trained technical manpower. Since the existent field extension staff have been poorly trained/retrained and devoid of transportation facilities, a rapid increase in intake at pre-service staff training institutions does not make sense in the immediate future. However, the approach to concentrating scarce manpower resources at training centres for villagers, may often be a more realistic approach to providing certain minimal levels and quality of training coupled with systematic and sustained follow-up.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON TANZANIA**

### **1.2.1 Geographic and Demographic Characteristics**

Tanzania is located between 2° and 10° south latitude and 30° to 40° east longitude and surrounded by Kenya and Uganda in the North, Rwanda, Burundi and Zaire on the West, Zambia in the Southwest and Malawi and Mozambique in the South (refer to Map 1.1).



UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

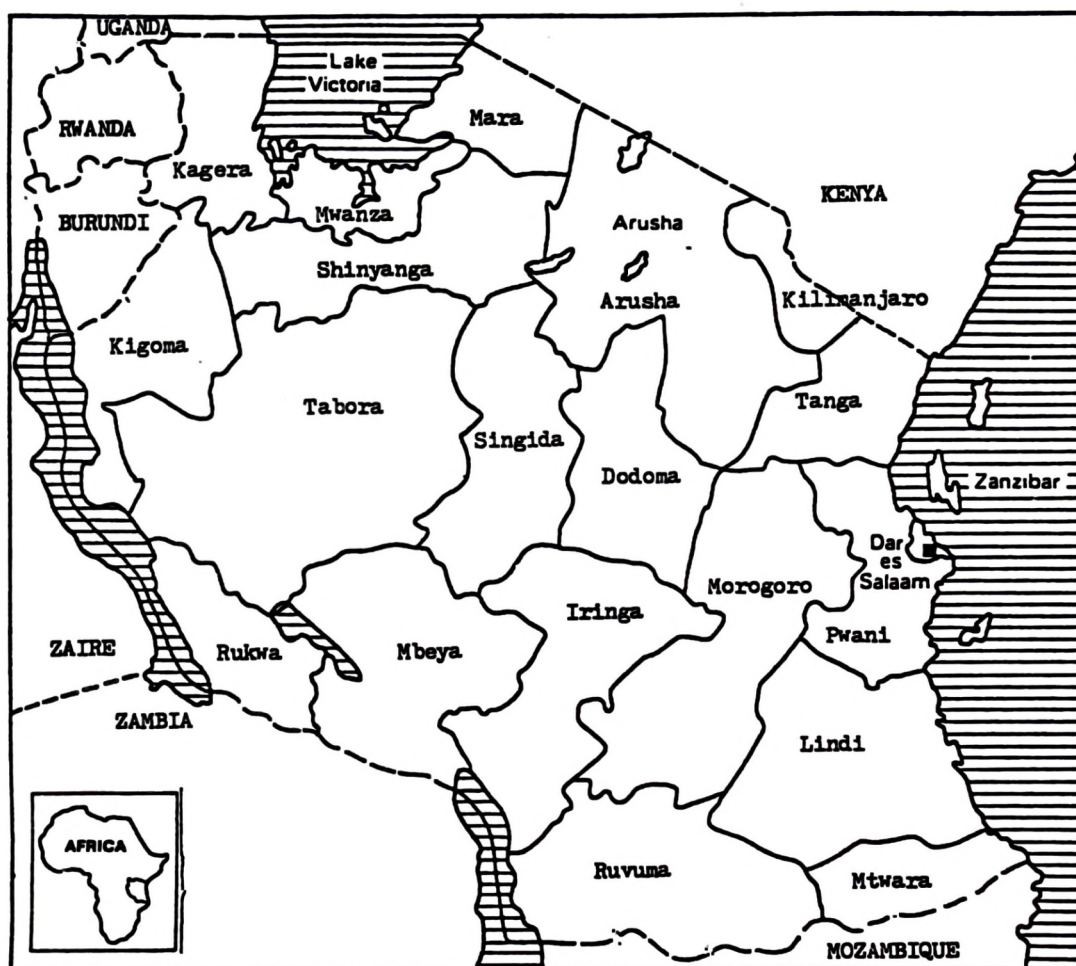


Figure 1.1: Map of Tanzania

The country occupies a total area of 364,943 square miles. Hills and mountains dominate the boundaries in parts of the North, West and South. The tallest mountain in Africa, the Kilimanjaro (19,340 feet) towers over the northern boundary. On its borders are three great lakes: Lake Tanganyika, second only to Lake Baykal as the deepest in the world, Victoria, the second largest fresh lake in the world (after Lake Superior) and Lake Malawi.

The population of Tanzania is concentrated on the periphery of its mainland and at the island of Zanzibar. In 1981 the population was 18 million, nearly 90 percent of whom live in rural areas. More than 120 tribes are to be found in the country, each having its own dialect or language. However Kiswahili is the main language spoken nationally.

### **1.2.2 History**

Trading contacts between Arabia and the East African coast existed by the 1st century A.D. Active colonization of the area by Arabs appear to have begun in the 8th century A.D. and over the next four to five centuries active colonies of Arabian and Persian traders were established along the coast. The Portuguese arrived in the late 15th century but their interest was restricted to the coast and this was secondary to their interest in India. A second wave of Arab domination followed the loss

of many areas by the Portuguese. Germany's interest in Tanganyika (the name given to Tanzania's mainland, prior to the 1964 union with the island of Zanzibar) began in 1884-85 with the landing of Karl Peters on the mainland and the signing of treaties with several chiefs in the Usambara area (now in Tanga region). In 1890 the previously leased coastal area was purchased for the establishment of the German East African Protectorate. Local resistance to German control grew steadily and culminated in the Maji-Maji Rebellion in 1905-1907, but was suppressed by the Germans, setting the stage for their involvement in railway construction and establishment of plantations and settlements. However, Germany controlled the country only until the end of World War I. By the Versailles Treaty in 1919, German East Africa was divided and Tanganyika was assigned to Britain under the mandate to the League of Nations. The British administration continued until Tanganyika's independence on December 9, 1961.

### **1.2.3 Rural Development Highlights of the Post-Independence Era**

The earliest rural development strategy was the "improvement approach" introduced in the period just after independence. In this approach the emphasis was directed towards progressive farmers in the expectation that they would serve as demonstrators and disseminators of modern

technology. It did not meet with success and it was abandoned in 1966 to be followed by what was called the "transformation approach." This approach introduced the idea of block farms and stressed the establishment of village settlements but was also considered a failure because the costs were out of proportion with the results and moreover, did not bring about widespread structural change.

In February 1967, Tanzania promulgated the policy of socialism and self-reliance, in what became known as the Arusha Declaration. It was an attempt to steer Tanzania towards a policy of development through maximum use of physical, natural and human resources. Communal production, a new educational policy, egalitarianism, villagization and self-help were stressed. In furtherance of these objectives, in 1972 a policy aimed at decentralization of government administration was legislated, in order to provide greater decision-making responsibilities to the regions. In 1974, in order to speed up the consolidation of scattered homesteads as a means of enhancing modes of communal production and facilitating the provision of basic services, the Villages and Ujamaa Act of 1975 was introduced. This resulted in an increase from 5 percent of the mainland population living in 1956 villages in 1970, to an estimated 79 percent of the 1978 mainland population living in 7300

villages.<sup>6</sup> Villages were also provided with a legal status in order to encourage the growth of economic projects aimed at self-reliance. A village government structure (see subsection below) was established aimed at promoting widespread participation at the village level.

#### **1.2.4 Objectives of Tanzania's Agricultural Policy**

The objectives<sup>7</sup> of Tanzania's agricultural policy can be outlined very briefly as follows:

1. To develop an egalitarian agricultural community, based on the policies of Socialism and Self-Reliance.
2. To achieve national self-sufficiency in food, and to raise the nutritional standards of all the people.
3. Through increased output, to contribute to the general raising of the living standards of all Tanzanians.
4. To earn foreign exchange for the nation, as well as to meet the needs of agriculture.
5. To provide raw materials for the nation's industrial sector.

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<sup>6</sup> Based on Rodger Yeager, Tanzania: an African experiment, (Westview Press, 1982) p. 64.

<sup>7</sup> The United Republic of Tanzania, The Agricultural Policy of Tanzania, Ministry of Agriculture, Government Printer, March 31, 1983.

6. To develop an integrated agricultural sector, using methods of scientific husbandry and technology appropriate to the respective crops, size of operation and national resources.

#### **1.2.5 Administrative Structures**

Mainland Tanzania is divided into 20 administrative regions (refer to Map 1.1). With the decentralization policy, regional authorities were given increased autonomy for designing and implementing plans within broad national guidelines established by the respective Ministries. The Prime Ministers Office has an overall coordinating role. A uniform village government structure was mandated with a village assembly, village council, and five committees of five members each. The five committees include: Production and Marketing; Finance and Planning; Education, Culture and Social Welfare; Security and Defense; and Work and Transport. The village assembly is composed of all village residents over 18 years of age. This village assembly elects the village council of 25 members every year. From this council a chairperson, vice-chairperson and secretary is elected.

#### **1.3 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF VILLAGER-LEVEL TRAINING EFFORTS IN TANZANIA**

The first effort to provide institutionalized, non-formal training to groups of Tanzanian farmers, probably

was initiated by the coffee school in Lyamungo, Kilimanjaro, which in addition to the training of African inspectors, instructors and vegetative propagators, also provided training to interested Chagga<sup>8</sup> coffee growers in the late 1940s.<sup>9</sup> However, it was not until 1962 that an attempt was made to establish institutes specifically for the purposes of farmer training. In the Development Plan for Tanganyika 1961/62 to 1963/64 the government earmarked funding for the establishment of farm institutes and stated its expectation for the institutes in the following manner:

"... it is hoped that during the next three years many farmers will benefit from the short practical courses that are to be the main feature of these institutes. No one can assess the results in terms of figures and percentages, but the good that can be achieved by such people returning to their homes and passing on the knowledge they have acquired needs little emphasis."<sup>10</sup>

Three farm institutes were proposed for Msinga (Moshi), Seatondale (Iringa) and Malya (Sukumaland) and initially up to 20 trainees were to be accepted at each course. There were erected as a joint USAID/Tanzania government project. The Msinga centre<sup>11</sup> was opened in 1962, the  
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<sup>8</sup> The dominant tribe in the Kilimanjaro area.

<sup>9</sup> Minutes of the 22nd meeting of Moshi Native Coffee Board held in the district office on January 4, 1947 at 9:30 a.m.

<sup>10</sup> Development Plan for Tanganyika, 1961/62-1963/64, Government Printer 1962.

<sup>11</sup> By this time the terms, 'Farmer Training Centres'



Iringa centre in 1963. The third centre was to have been located at the defunct Sukumaland Federation but was requisitioned for other purposes.<sup>12</sup> The Nordic Mission funded a new Farmer Training Centre (FTC) at Kibaha. This became operational in mid 1964. The U.K. Freedom from Hunger campaign joined in and funded FTCs at Hombolo (Dodoma), Uranbo and Mahiwa (Lindi). There were opened in 1965. The Irish Freedom from Hunger campaign established an FTC in Mlale Songea in 1965. As can be seen, the early and mid-sixties were a period when major emphasis was laid on the concept of FTCs. It was anticipated that one FTC would be established in each region, and one in every district of great agricultural importance, and so the expansion of the FTC network progressed steadily.<sup>13</sup> The Ministry of Regional Administration and Rural Development (Maendeleo) also began a program of District Training Centres (DTCs) in the late sixties aimed at general training in rural development related issues other than technical agricultural training which continued to be the responsibility of FTCs under the Ministry of Agriculture. With the Arusha Declaration and the emphasis on villagization and decentralization, training in such skill areas as accounting, shop management and cooperatives

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rather than 'Farm Institutes' were in use.

<sup>12</sup> UNDP/FAO Report to the Government of Tanzania on Agriculture Education and Training, No. TA 2283.

<sup>13</sup> The 1964-69 Five Year Plan.



management was conducted for village functionaries and key leaders by these DTCs.

In 1969 a proposal for the amalgamation of DTCs and FTCs into rural training centres was made. It was assumed that broad-based and effective rural development could only be brought about by well-integrated, diversified and holistic training. The rationale for RTCs appeared to be a desire to streamline things for the sake of administrative efficiency and coherency and relevancy of effort, and was stated in the Second Five Year Plan (1969-74) as follows:

"Within these centres it will be possible to coordinate the various training activities available in each district and reduce costs by sharing overhead costs. The objective will be achieved by expanding existing and proposed specialist centres to become full scale rural training centres ... The RTCs will be used as a supporting service for overall development effort and, in particular, for the improvement of Ujamaa villages... Increasingly, the programs of the centres will aim to meet a particular need identified in the context of specific development programs.<sup>14</sup>

Accordingly, in May 1970 the FTCs and DTCs were amalgamated to form RTCs, which became the responsibility of the Department of Ujamaa and Cooperatives, Prime Minister's Office. However, in 1975 Mosha and Rwiza have made this assessment of the RTCs.

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<sup>14</sup> The Tanzania Second Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1 July 1969-30 June 1974, Vol. 1, General Analysis, 1969, Dar es Salaam.

"These centres were once very popular under the Ministry of Agriculture. Lately, they have become multipurpose training units under the Prime Minister's Office. In spite of the fact that many Ujamaa villages give farmer training high priority amongst their various needs, only 13 percent of the present capacity of about 2000 places is actually being used."<sup>15</sup>

The Prime Minister's Office, in the running of RTCs, (unlike the former Ministry of Agriculture sponsored FTCs) had to depend heavily on other Ministeries for teaching staff during this period since they did not have their own teaching force. By 1975, the Ministry of National Education had decided to launch the Folk Development Colleges network (refer to Chapter IV for details) and a total of 37 centres were taken over on August 12, 1975, for use as Folk Development Colleges (FDC).<sup>16</sup> The original idea was to establish one FDC in each district. By 1981 there were 52 FDCs.<sup>17</sup> Thus since 1975, the Ministry of Agriculture had no regional or district level institutions of its own for farmer training activities. However, starting in 1980, with USAID assistance, four farmer training wings were set up at four Ministry of Agriculture

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<sup>15</sup> A.C. Mosha and K.J. Rwiza, "Training extension staff for Ujamaa villages" in H. Hansel et al. (eds.), Agricultural Extension in Ujamaa Village Development, Proceedings of a workshop, September 22-27, 1975, Morogoro, pp. 201-202.

<sup>16</sup> Interview with Nd. Mlote, FDC Secretariat, Ministry of National Education, Dar es Salaam, April 21, 1982.

<sup>17</sup> In 1979, a decision was made to consolidate already established FDCs rather than to expand to all districts as per original objectives.

Training Institutes (refer to Chapter IV for details) under the Farmer Training and Production Project. In 1981 the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of National Education proposed an additional program (to that already being implemented by the latter), which focused on short courses in technical agriculture which were to be coordinated and run by the Ministry of Agriculture at the site of the FDCs in 19 out of 20 regions. Yet another training network is that of the Training for Rural Development Project (TRDP) operating in five regions in Tanzania (refer to Chapter IV for details).

#### 1.4 RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH STUDY

At the time when this research was conducted, the Government of Tanzania (Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of National Education, Ministry of Livestock Development and Prime Minister's Office) had a total of at least seventy training institutions catering to villager needs. In themselves they are a large investment of scarce financial and technical manpower resources. However, further expansion is anticipated. The Ministry of National Education will expand its Folk Development Colleges (FDC)<sup>18</sup> to all districts, thus involving 25 new institutions. The Ministry of Agriculture is expected to

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<sup>18</sup> This is expected to be done after the present network of 52 FDCs is fully consolidated.

include Farmer Training Wings to four additional MATIs.<sup>19</sup> In addition it expects to establish one FTC in each of 20 regions.<sup>20</sup> The Ministry of Livestock Development has decided to establish Farmer Training Wings at each of its five pre-service training institutions: the Livestock Training Institutes.<sup>21</sup> However, the present infrastructure of training institutions is still in its infancy given the reorientation after the abolition of the FTC and RTC approaches. Much is not known about the functioning and impact of the present network. Authors Ahmed and Coombs<sup>22</sup> in their study for World Bank, while agreeing that Agricultural education and research systems require massive enlargement, caution that for a number of reasons, such a move at the current stage should not be recommended:

"...it would be a serious mistake to expand existing programs and institutions in their present condition. The foremost requirement now is to reform, reorient and strengthen them. Only then will heavy investments to enlarge existing systems be assured a good yield."

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<sup>19</sup> Currently six are in operation.

<sup>20</sup> The Ministry of Agriculture is hoping to reacqure nine FDCs for this purpose and construct new ones in the other regions.

<sup>21</sup> The Livestock Policy of Tanzania, Ministry of Livestock Development, June 1983, p. 29.

<sup>22</sup> Philip H. Coombs and Manzoor Ahmed, Attacking Rural Poverty: How Nonformal Education Can Help (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1974).

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<sup>22</sup> Philip H. Coombs and Manzoor Ahmed, Attacking Rural Poverty: How Nonformal Education Can Help (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1974).

Until this research effort, three of the four programs providing villager-level training had not been subjected to any detailed study. Previous efforts by Petrini<sup>23</sup> and Francke<sup>24</sup> dealt with training-institution models which are no longer to be found in the country. Sahir Sudad undertook a three country study for FAO which included Tanzania, but his definition of training was very broad and emphasized the constraints faced by extension workers in providing advisory/extension services to farmers. The only relevant research effort that this researcher has been able to identify was one conducted by a team of researchers from the Ministry of National Education on the FDCs in Tanzania.<sup>25</sup> Given the scanty knowledge base and the dearth of locally derived hypotheses for testing, a system-wide diagnosis was considered necessary. It was anticipated that this kind of study would be followed by in-country efforts to test and verify conclusions about

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<sup>23</sup> Frank Petrini, "An Evaluation of Some Farmers' Training Centres in Tanzania," Swedish Journal of Agricultural Research 3:175-185, 1973.

<sup>24</sup> Anita Francke, "Kibaha Farmers' Training Centre: Impact Study 1965-1968," Research Report No. 25, Scandinavian Institute of African Studies (Stockholm, 1973).

<sup>25</sup> When it was discovered after arrival in Tanzania, that such a study had already been undertaken, this researcher made the decision to avoid duplicating what was a high quality effort. Instead, that research report served as a valuable data source and the researcher's energies and time were diverted to related and complementary areas of enquiry such as the two week courses offered at the FDCs and and FDC Principals Survey.

individual components or dimensions of the existing training programs.

The three host agencies have provided their training institutions with a mandate for engaging in action research activities, as a means of continuously ensuring the proper fit for training approaches, techniques and content. Thus, it is anticipated that this research effort will have unearthed and made available to training practitioners a rich source of theoretical concepts for testing and verification within their respective (and unique) locales. While the emergent concepts may be directly relevant to action research conducted by training practitioners, they also may be highly useful to students at the Faculty of Agriculture, Forestry and Veterinary Sciences at Morogoro and academic researchers interested in exploring highly specific dimensions of the villager-level training process in the interest of theory-building, contributing to the body of literature in the substantive area of training, and providing additional insights for guiding efforts to improve training in Tanzania. This researcher is in full agreement with Rolf Lynton and Udai Pareek when they state:

"The case for training stands firm. It has deep roots and is broadly based. The present inadequacies of training may be glaring. But they can be examined and removed, and real progress made in action."

This research has been aimed at exposing the strengths and weaknesses of various elements of the training processes in the four programs and to analyze factors and forces contributing to the present state of affairs in order to influence plans to retain or reorganize and expand the existent infrastructure.

### **1.5 GOAL AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

**Goal:** To generate a coherent set of data-derived concepts and explanations relevant to the critical elements of villager-level<sup>26</sup> training in Tanzania.

#### **Objectives**

1. To undertake an assessment of the state of the art and science of training in Tanzania.
2. To identify and analyze critical elements of the training cycle which can contribute to effective training.
3. To determine the nature of practical problems in planning, organizing and implementing training.

### **1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

As has been explained elsewhere, an exploratory approach was considered both appropriate and necessary. While adequate handling of various sub-themes may have

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<sup>26</sup> Both village-based and residential approaches to villager-level training are implied.



been achieved in much of the analysis, in certain areas the researcher has been able to do little more than bring to the notice of the reader the existence of certain phenomena or to provide tentative explanations. Further in-depth analysis may be warranted in those instances where questions remain unanswered or issues remain unclear.

Overall, the emphasis on verification has been secondary to that of generating theoretical notions. Therefore, further issue-specific and rigorous research may be necessary both at academic and training-practitioner levels.

The three agencies (four programs) which were investigated differed in their philosophical orientation, goals and objectives, past experience with training and in the number of years that their programs have been in existence. Comparison across the cases, for the purpose of measuring differential impact was therefore considered to be improper and likely to yield non-useful results.

An important limitation of this research effort is the absence of a component on cost-benefit or cost-effectiveness analysis. The absence of baseline data, the difficulty of isolating the contribution of training from other factors in a study that is not based on an experimental design, the diffuse and often intangible nature of certain otherwise important training outputs,

the political-economic environment of Tanzania, the courtesy bias towards foreign researchers, the short duration (11 months) of the field research period and most important, the overriding emphasis on breaking new ground through the use of exploratory techniques, are reasons why it was not possible to deal with these dimensions of training impact.

Due to the problems of distance, funding and time constraints, the researcher was not able to arrange for a critical review of the research findings by the clientele, training administrators, practitioners, and policymakers in Tanzania prior to submission of theses. This is a deficiency which deprives the reader of the critical perspective of those who ultimately are in the best position to judge the relevancy and usefulness of this research endeavor.

#### 1.7 EXPLANATION OF TERMS

While the original plan was to focus on farmer training, after the initial few weeks of reconnaissance trips, it was discovered that within the Tanzanian context a broader emphasis was required. Accordingly, the emphasis was shifted to villager training. The emphasis was also shifted to include both agriculture and rural development rather than only agriculture.



Long duration courses refer to villager-level training conducted usually at a residential site, and longer than one month but less than one year in duration. Short courses are training programs of duration of less than one month and usually two weeks or less.

The focus of this research was on institutionalized group training rather than on individualized approaches (such as home visits, self-instruction etc.). Such training was either residential or village based. These were usually group training interventions and were in all the cases initiated and implemented by an agency charged explicitly with the responsibilities for organizing such training.

Within the context of this research, the term 'Leader' refers to elected representatives at the village government level such as chairman of the village council, and chairman and members of the various village committees. 'Non-leaders' refer to those who did not, at the time of the research occupy an elected leadership position within the village government set-up. For distinctions between 'trained' and 'untrained' individuals refer to the section on 'Sampling' in Chapter III. In this study the term 'trainer' is used in reference to the instructor. However, at other times, especially in the case of Folk Development Colleges, the term 'tutor' is usually employed. However, no differences are implied.

## **1.8 STRUCTURE OF THE PRESENTATION**

Chapter I (Introduction) provides the reader with a discussion on training and development, a brief background on Tanzania, an overview and history of the development of training institutions within the country; a rationale for the study, goals and objectives, scope and limitations of the study and an explanation of terms. Chapter II provides the reader with a review of literature related to training. The research methods and techniques used are explained in Chapter III.

The next section, Chapter IV, provides readers with an overview of the four programs studied. Just enough is described in order to facilitate readers' understanding of the organizational and philosophical context of the various programs studied.

The main analytic section is Chapter 5. This chapter deals with the analysis of the six major data derived themes and their sub-elements. Since there was no logical way to sub-divide these further, the entire thematic analysis section appears in one chapter. In this chapter it is the themes which receive major emphasis and data from the four programs or from the audiences in the three regions studied were raised and analyzed only to the extent that they were relevant to the theme (or its sub-elements) under discussion. In other instances, under each theme or its sub-element, each of the four programs

were discussed separately (though comparison with each other was not neglected).

Chapter VI is the last section and deals with the summary of research findings, conclusions and implications and recommendations for further research.

## **Chapter II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This review of literature will focus primarily on the existent body of literature which is directly pertinent to the training of villagers within the broad context of agriculture and rural development in Africa in general and Tanzania in particular. Probably the earliest institutionally sponsored training programs were offered by the Folk High Schools in Denmark. These schools were the inspiration of Bishop Grundvig (1783-1872) who developed the concept of the folk schools in opposition to the grammar schools in which Latin and other "dead knowledge" received emphasis.<sup>1</sup> He expressed the following aspirations for his schools,

"One would wish that the young men who entered a People's High School already had an occupation, and the High School must then help them return to their work with increased zest, a clearer view of human and social conditions particularly in their own country, and a lively joyful sense of sharing in a national fellowship with past and future generations."<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> P.H. Bertelsen, "Folk High Schools in West Africa," International Development Review, Vol. III, October 61, pp. 28-29.

<sup>2</sup> Quoted in P.H. Bertelson.

Grundvig's request for government help was not granted and the first Folk High School was established by private citizens in 1844 to be followed by others thereafter. The Danish Folk High Schools spread to Sweden in 1868.<sup>3</sup> The Norwegians borrowed the concept and opened the first school in 1864. The Norwegian folk schools were similar to those of Denmark because they attracted rural audiences and unlike the Swedish which served mainly the workers and urban youth.<sup>4</sup>

## **2.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE TRAINING OF VILLAGERS**

Another early description of institutionally sponsored training which this researcher was able to locate was that of mobile-training of farmers in Ireland during the potato famine. According to G.E. Jones<sup>5</sup> this effort was initiated in 1847 by Lord Clarendon who requested, in a letter to the President of the Royal Agricultural Improvement Society of Ireland, that lecturers be deployed in the worst affected areas and recommended a one week stay in each locality. Special instructions were provided

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<sup>3</sup> Margaret F. Forster, School for Life: A Study of the Peoples Colleges in Sweden, London: Faber and Faber, 1964.

<sup>4</sup> Robert H. Schacht, "Residential Adult Education: An Analysis and Interpretation," University of Wisconsin, 1857.

<sup>5</sup> Gwyn E. Jones, "The Clarendon letter," Progress in Rural Extension and Community Development, Vol. 1, G.E. Jones and M.J. Rolis (eds.), (John Wiley, 1982).

on teaching content and methodology and selection criteria for the group-training efforts.

Another early effort mentioned by John Hamilton<sup>6</sup> for planning organized instruction to groups of farmers was initiated in 1859<sup>7</sup> when the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture appointed a committee to "consider and report upon the propriety of institute meetings similar to teachers institutes." Hamilton reports that in 1961 a winter course of lectures was instituted in Michigan but indicates that it was only until 1880 that major progress in the development of Farmers' Institutes had taken place. By 1902 such institutes were held "in all 52 states and territories except six." During the year that ended on June 30, 1902 a total of 3,179 institutes had been held, the majority of which for two days duration.

The earliest effort to provide residential short courses to farmers in East Africa (and probably in the African continent, too) were the ploughing schools. According to Victor C. Uchendu and K.R.M. Anthony,<sup>8</sup> the  
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<sup>6</sup> John Hamilton, Farmers' Institutes in the United States, USDA (Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1904), p. 7.

<sup>7</sup> However, Hamilton mentions that farmers institutes, "in the sense of their consisting of assemblages of farmers met for the discussion of Agricultural topics, extend back as far as the meeting of the Royal Agricultural Society in England." Also in the U.S.A., as long back as 1785 the Philadelphia Society for the Promotion of Agriculture was established with similar goals as the Royal Society of England.

<sup>8</sup> Victor C. Ucherdu and K.R.M. Anthony, Agricultural



first ploughing school was opened at Kimu (Uganda) in 1910 to be followed by two others, in 1912, at Kadungula and Pallisa. Local chiefs were encouraged to send their sons and oxen for training. Itinerant ploughmen also gave on-farm ploughing demonstrations and conducted on-farm repairs of ploughs.<sup>9</sup> According to Carl K. Eicher and Doyle C. Baker, Kenya introduced the concept of residential training for farmers during the 1930s.<sup>10</sup> The Kenya model, according to Phillip H. Coombs and Manzoor Ahmed, had its origins in the former Jeanes School where residential courses for practicing farmers and their wives were introduced in 1934. They state that in the years immediately following the Second World War, in an attempt to resettle troops in connection with a "group" farming system, a two year course was held. Though the group farm idea failed, training continued at the centre, which was redesignated a Farm Institute, and offering a one year course instead. In 1954 because of earlier successes, the farm institute concept was expanded and by 1961 there were

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Change in Teso District, Uganda (East African Literature Bureau, 1975), p. 36.

<sup>9</sup> Uchendu and Anthony collected figures indicating high degree of success: the number of ploughs in Tesoland increased from 30 in 1912 to 100 in 1915 to 1,154 in 1925 to 8,280 in 1932 and 11,615 in 1934 (p. 36).

<sup>10</sup> Carl K. Eicher and Doyle C. Baker, Research on Agricultural Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: a Critical Survey, MSU International Development Paper No. 1 (East Lansing, 1982), p. 154.

thirteen farmer training centres.<sup>11</sup> James Sheffield and Victor Diejomach provide an account of another pioneering effort in the region: the concept of Village Polytechnics, primarily aimed at the providing of skill training to enhance self-employment of primary school leavers.<sup>12</sup> The establishment of Village Polytechnics was proposed at the International Conference on "Education, Employment and Rural Development" held at Kericho, Kenya, 1966. In Tanzania, other than the secondary emphasis on farmer training at the Lyamungo Coffee School, the major push for the establishment of training centres was initiated in the early 1960s (refer to Chapter 1 for a detailed treatment of the development of training institutions).

The concept of Folk High Schools originating in Denmark (discussed earlier) has since spread to several countries including Tanzania where, in 1975, 37 FDCs were established. By 1980, there were 52 FDCs all over the country<sup>13</sup> (refer to Chapter 4 for details).

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<sup>11</sup> Philip H. Coombs and Manzoor Ahmed, *Attacking Rural Poverty* (Johns Hopkins Press, 1974), p. 38.

<sup>12</sup> James R. Sheffield and Victor P. Diejomach, Non-formal Education in African Development, (Africa-American Institute, New York, 1972), p. 75.

<sup>13</sup> It is interesting to note that while Denmark took 117 years (from the first Folk High School ever in 1844) to expand to the total of 60 folk schools existent in 1961, Tanzania established 52 FDCs in five years. Even though the majority already had physical facilities, this rapid expansion could account for failure to consolidate efforts in Tanzanian FDCs.

The first major review of farmer training institutions in English-speaking Africa was undertaken by FAO officer A.E.G. Markham<sup>14</sup> in 1967 followed by a similar study by Cyril Barwell in 1970<sup>15</sup> and 1975.<sup>16</sup> These two individuals have undertaken a thorough discussion of a range of issues pertaining to structural and organizational aspects of farmer training during the 1960s and early 1970s.

### **2.3 PURPOSE AND APPROACHES TO TRAINING**

Budd Hall has undertaken and completed a social-history of adult education in Tanzania and provides an overview of developments in that sector between December 12, 1961 (Tanzania's independence) and May 1972. Much of his discussion focusses on the philosophical dimensions of Tanzania, though various methods such as the various campaigns, radio-forum, district and residential centres are also discussed. His findings suggest that adult education programs have expanded quantitatively and are guided by the existence of a well articulated ideology of development which had an impact upon overall approaches

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<sup>14</sup> A.E.G. Markham, A Study of Farmer Training in Some English-Speaking Countries of Africa, (FAO, Rome 1967).

<sup>15</sup> C.W. Barwell, "Education and Training for Agricultural Development: The Place of Institutional Farmer Training," Education in Rural Areas, (London Printing Section, C.S. Marlborough House, 1970).

<sup>16</sup> C.W. Barwell, Farmer Training in East-Central and Southern Africa, (FAO, Rome 1975).

and methods of recruitment and teaching.<sup>17</sup> Writing in the late sixties and on the basis of first hand exposure to agricultural training institutions in East Africa (during the period of the most rapid growth of farmer training centres). Jon Moris suggested that training institutions qualify as development programs but not as part of a development strategy. Moris suggests that training should be aimed at maximizing all national resources and be seen as affecting natural, educational, motivational, administrative and technical resources. The most important effect of training, he suggests, "is the establishing of new links between the individual and the nation's systems of resource development."<sup>18</sup>

Hayden A. Duggan discusses the concept of Village Polytechnics in Kenya and states that it originated primarily as an approach to reducing unemployment and urban immigration of rural, primary school leavers. The Village Polytechnics did not "aim at training boys to be grade one carpenters and build office towers in Nairobi..." but to "give unemployed school leavers a sense of purpose and a role in their community, as well as the satisfaction of having a skill which will support them

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<sup>17</sup> Budd L. Hall, "Adult Education and the Development of Socialism in Tanzania," Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1974.

<sup>18</sup> Jon Moris, "Farmer Training as a Strategy of Rural Development" in Education, Employment and Rural Development by James R. Sheffield (ed.), (Nairobi: East African Publishing House, 1967), pp. 360-361).

long after all the accounting and secretarial positions are filled."

## **2.4 DELIVERY SYSTEMS FOR TRAINING**

A.E.G. Markham in a study for FAO, grouped training systems as follows:

- 1. Training of youth**
  - a) Directly on settlements**
  - b) Short courses in multi-purpose organizations**
  - c) In farm schools**
  - d) In farmer training institutions**
- 2. Training of adults**
  - a) On settlements**
  - b) In non-residential farmer training centres**
  - c) On short courses in farmer training centres**
  - d) On long courses in farmer training centres and**
- 3. Special considerations, e.g., mobile training.<sup>19</sup>**

Markham's study of five countries<sup>20</sup> indicated among other things that different systems of farmer training had developed in the countries visited and that several systems may operate within any one country. He also concluded that no one system is applicable to all conditions. The study points out a preoccupation with

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<sup>19</sup> A.E.G. Markham, A Study of Farmer Training in Some English-Speaking Countries of Africa. (FAO, Rome 1967), p. 18.

<sup>20</sup> Kenya, Uganda, Sudan, Nigeria, and Ghana.

residential courses for youth and adult farmers in programs ranging from two weeks to three years, with Kenya and Uganda emphasizing shorter courses of one year or longer.

C.W. Barwell, in a later study for FAO, reviewed farmer training efforts in nine countries<sup>21</sup> in East-Central and Southern Africa in 1975. While the major emphasis is on residential approaches some reference is also made to non-residential approaches which are to be found in a few countries. The majority of the centres at the time of the study were serving small-scale farmers in areas of medium to high potential. A total of 133 residential centres were in existence, with Zambia, Kenya and Malawi having the largest numbers (44, 42, and 17 respectively). At that time Swaziland, Botswana, Lesotho and Ethiopia had four residential centres or less. However, Botswana had a training program for ranchers, based on the use of mobile units, operating from a base such as a residential centre or a demonstration ranch. According to Barwell, mobile training was considered necessary because "the people in these areas live on animal products and either cannot, or will not, leave their herds, and often the distances are too great to travel to training centres. Barwell suggests the use of such approaches under conditions of scattered population and poor communications in semi-arid or arid

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<sup>21</sup> Tanzania, Zambia, Malawi, Uganda, Botswana, Swaziland, Lesotho, Kenya and Ethiopia.

areas of other countries. However, he stresses that the success of mobile units is hinged on keeping the staff content and ensuring adequate back-up services. However, of the countries studied, Malawi was unique in that it combined its already impressive network of residential centres with an excellent program of 47 (by 1973) non-residential rural training centres for day courses.

Kinsey suggests that the non-residential courses in Malawi and offered at the unit centers in the Lilongwe Land Development Program (LLDP) are more effective than the residential courses because highly specific information can be disseminated, with an emphasis on a few simple points at a time which facilitates retention.<sup>22</sup> Sheffield and Diejomaoh refer to yet another interesting approach to providing non-residential training: the use of low-cost bush shelters backstopped by a central FTC. There were as many as 700 local FTC bush shelters staffed by skilled manpower who are themselves retrained at the central FTC. They suggest that the potential mobility and lower cost of the model makes it useful in areas of low population density.<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>22</sup> Uma Lele, The Design of Rural Development: Lessons from Africa (John Hopkins Press, 1975), p. 169.

<sup>23</sup> James R. Sheffield and Victor P. Diejomaoh, Non-formal Education in Africa Development, pp. 126-127.



## **2.5 COURSE DURATION**

Both Barwell and Markham in their studies have documented that two major programs are to be found in Africa: short duration courses of two weeks or less and long duration courses of one year or longer.

As early as 1946, G.B. Masefield<sup>24</sup> suggested that long duration courses proved irrelevant to the needs of adult farmers:

"Disappointing results were obtained in Uganda from 'smallholders courses' of two years duration at training centres; most of these men when taking up farming afterwards either failed to make good or exhibited no improvement in their methods. One reason for this is that established farmers are often unwilling to leave their homes for long periods; men who are attracted tend to be either very young or uprooted individuals, who often drift into other jobs afterwards and do not become steady farmers."

John C. de Wilde in the Kenya case study discusses the relevance of short courses at Farmer Training Centres:

"These centres have been developed over recent years to give short-term courses, generally one to two weeks in duration. Originally, there was some experimentation with an institute that would give farm families the opportunity for practical training on a small holding during an entire year, but this was soon abandoned primarily because it could at best hope to train only an infinitesimal percentage of farmers. The Farmers' Training Centres (FTCs) on the other hand, have been able to give a large number of courses each year and to attract active farmers who could not be expected to be absent from

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<sup>24</sup> G.B. Masefield, "Agricultural Extension Methods Amongst African Peasant Farmers," East African Agricultural Journal Vol. II, No. 4 (Nairobi: Government Printer, 1946), p. 219.



their holdings for more than a few weeks."<sup>25</sup>

## **2.6 DATA-BASED TRAINING**

The earliest effort in Tanzania, to undertake a systematic survey as a basis for determining training needs and later, for measuring impact is a study undertaken by Anita Francke in 1965 as part of the Nordic Tanganyika project at Kibaha:<sup>26</sup>

"The first purpose of the Survey was to find out more about the living conditions of the coastal people/farmers in order to tailor as well as possible the training provided at Kibaha project to the actual need of this rural population. The survey work was linked up with the Farmer Training Centre at Kibaha in particular."

A first survey report was prepared in 1965.<sup>27</sup> At the time of the 1965 survey Anita Francke had expected to set up "a continuous survey apparatus within the project organization" since it was felt that "sporadic data collection loses much of its value if it is not being followed up and further developed." It was anticipated that socio-economic survey could be integrated with development activities. However, in her follow-up survey

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<sup>25</sup> John C. de Wilde, Experiences with Agricultural Development in Tropical Africa. Vol. II. The Case Studies (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1967), p. 19.

<sup>26</sup> Anita Francke, Kibaha Farmers Training Centre Impact Study 1965-68, Research Report No. 25, Scandinavian Institute of African Studies, (Stockholm, 1974).

<sup>27</sup> "Rural Life in Mpiji River Valley, Coast Region, Tanzania: A Benchmark Survey Conducted During February-April 1965." Nordic Tanganyika Project, Kibaha (Dar es Salaam, 1965).

in 1968, it was found that the baseline survey of 1965 had not been followed up by the Kibaha Centre. Another detailed survey was carried out by Francke in 1968. Another early effort in data collection related to training needs studies is the effort at Buhare Home Economic Training Centre in Tanzania. According to Jean Ritchie,<sup>28</sup> starting in 1969, students in the ten months course were regularly used in collecting data from 240 families in five villages. This data formed the basis for the design of the centre's outreach education activities. Students were also used in follow-up activities.

## **2.7 TRAINING OF WOMEN**

Achola O. Pala has discussed the role of women in precolonial economies at length. She has reviewed a number of studies conducted in Africa. Accordingly a number of conclusions were drawn:

"Women were predominately responsible for agricultural production which in most African societies with subsistence economies was carried out with a relatively poor technology, the hoe. This meant that women had a monopoly of skills in animal husbandry, fishing and hunting. There is evidence that women have been the primary decision makers in matters of crop production ... it would appear that the coming of the colonial consolidation precipitated a rapid entry integration of men into the colonial economy which led them to acquire certain skills, such as the use of the plough, and oriented them to

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<sup>28</sup> Jean Ritchie, "The Training of Rural Women in Home-Economics and Nutrition," A Record of the Proceedings of a National Seminar and Workshop on Farmers' Education (Moshi: Cooperative College, 1970).

the colonial market. The result was that the sector in which most women possess skill and decision making power was neglected and stagnated. Thus women continued to use backward techniques of cultivation..."

Achola Pala proposes a number of areas of research if an assessment of women's potential role in rural development is to be achieved. Within the sub-area of agricultural training for women she suggests the following areas for investigation: types of training available for women; the number/ratio of trained women; the possibility of using group approaches, the attitudes of men and women toward women who seek agricultural training or who have gone to farmer training centres; the general information level of women concerning agricultural methods and possibilities for improving their competence. She emphasizes that the interest in the role of women in rural development is not simply because they are women, but because of the serious loss of potential brought about by neglecting women.

Ester Boserup<sup>29</sup> in her classic study of "Woman's Role in Economic Development" has undertaken a detailed analysis of rural and urban women. She notes that colonial administrators and administrators ignored female farming systems, believed that agriculture was a man's job and promoted the productivity of male labor. She discusses at length the division of labor within African agriculture and stresses that "Africa is the region of

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<sup>29</sup> Ester Boserup, Woman's Role in Economic Development (London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1970).

female farming par excellence." According to Boserup agricultural improvement efforts, even in the post colonial period continue to favor the male sector:

"As a result of the attitudes of the extension services, the gap between labor productivity of men and women continues to widen. Men are taught to apply modern methods in the cultivation of the same crop while women continue to use the traditional methods in the cultivation of the same crop..."

However, there were exceptions during the colonial periods: Masefield<sup>30</sup> suggested the need for women instructresses. He stressed that, "In Africa certain crops or agricultural operations are under the control of women, and it is vital that they as well as the men should understand new methods in order to affect agricultural improvement. Male instructors cannot be expected to reach women very effectively."

Louise Fortman in a discussion of the effect of agricultural policy on women in Africa, uses data from Tanzania to illustrate how policies, in their implementation, tend to exclude women. She uses the extension service as an example and asserts that because "the system is designed as if women did not do most of the work, extension agents and agricultural information rarely reach them."<sup>31</sup> In a study conducted at the National Maize

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<sup>30</sup> G.B. Masefield, "Agricultural Extension Methods Amongst African Peasant Farmers," p. 216.

<sup>31</sup> Louise Fortmann, "The Plight of the Invisible Farmer: The Affect of National Agricultural Policy on Women in Africa" in Women and Technological Change in Developing

Project, it was found that women scored significantly lower than men on the information contact score. She suggests that this can be explained by the predominantly male dominated field extension staff who tend to interact more with male farmers than with females. Kathleen Staudt<sup>32</sup> also deals with the male bias within the delivery systems in government agencies. Markham<sup>33</sup> however provided encouraging information on the representation of women in Kenyan FTCs and indicated that in the mid-sixties as many as 40% of those attending courses were women. Honeybone and Marter in their survey of ex-trainees in Zambia found that 16.3% of 182 persons interviewed were women.<sup>34</sup>

## **2.8 ROLE OF INPUTS IN TRAINING**

The rapid acceptance of ploughs in Teso district (documented by Uchendu and Anthony,<sup>35</sup> suggests that the

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Countries, Roslyn Dauber and Melinda L. Cain (eds.) (Colorado: Westview Press, 1981), pp. 209-213.

<sup>32</sup> Kathleen Staudt, "Agricultural Productivity Gaps: a Case Study of Male Preference in Government Policy Implementation," Development and Change, 9:3, 1978, pp. 439-456.

<sup>33</sup> A.E. Markam, A Study of Farmer Training in Some English-Speaking Countries of Africa, p. 20.

<sup>34</sup> David Honeybone and Alan Marter, An Evaluation Study of Zambia's Farm Institutes and Farmer Training Centres, p. 30.

<sup>35</sup> Victor C. Uchendu and K.R.M. Anthony, Agricultural Change in Teso District, Uganda, pp. 36-38.



impressive impact of the first residential training centres of East Africa (i.e., the ploughing schools) could be the result of combining training with the importation and supply of wooden ploughs distributed through the local shops and ginneries. Credit arrangements were later organized. In discussing the credit scheme set up for purchase of ploughs and related expenses, Uchendu and Anthony stress that "there is no doubt that it contributed to the general acceptance of the plough." David Court<sup>36</sup> in his case study of the Maseno village Polytechnic in Kenya, indicated that the most frequently mentioned difficulty of the Polytechnic leavers was the lack of access to loans for working capital. Another difficulty was the lack of tools. Court suggests that

"The provision of tools probably does make a significant contribution to a leaver's initial self-confidence and achievement. Given the scarcity of available resources, the idea which has been used of providing tools from a tool fund, made up of matching contributions from the individual and the VP itself, seems a good one."

## **2.9 CONDITIONS CONTRIBUTING TO INCREASED UTILIZATION OF, AND DEMAND FOR TRAINING**

John Hamilton in his discussion of Farmers Institutes in the United States at the turn of the twentieth century indicates that the establishment of the Institutes was the result of demand of farmers for accurate information in  
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<sup>36</sup> David Court, "Village Polytechnic Leavers: The Maseno Story," Rural Africana Issue No. 25, Michigan State University.

regard to the underlying principles which control the production of animals and crops. However, he states that the demand for definite and exact knowledge "did not become pressing so long as the lands were new and original soil fertility was abundant and available."<sup>37</sup>

Jon Moris contends that demand for agricultural training does not emerge until farming has, in the area concerned, reached a fairly advanced stage and suggests that, "The benefits of training become apparent after the fact of agricultural development, not before." He believes that such training "pays off" only when organizational links are established to make use of it.

Clifton R. Wharton Jr.<sup>38</sup> in his discussion on Education and Agricultural growth distinguishes between the contributions of General Education and Basic Education/Literacy. He stresses that while general education may affect the values, attitudes, motivations or decision making of rural youth, there is a time lag in implementing these changes. Even in the case of adults, he indicates, a time lag can be expected. He suggests that general education may enhance the receptivity to ideas disseminated through extension but warns that that  
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<sup>37</sup> John Hamilton, Farmers Institutes in the United States, p. 9.

<sup>38</sup> Clifton R. Wharton Jr., "Education and Agricultural Growth: The Role of Education in Early Stage Agriculture" in Education and Economic Development by C. Arnold Anderson and Mary Jean Bowman (Aldine Publishing House: Chicago, 1965), p. 202.

does not happen overnight. He concludes that "the developmental contribution from general education is at best a long-run one" and suggests, instead, the use of basic education because of its short-run immediate relevance. Basic education given at the primary school or as adult education provides the individual farmers "infrastructural skills" i.e. reading, writing and arithmetic. Wharton argues that these skills

1. Facilitate the transmission of further knowledge and
2. Directly contribute to production

A study conducted by H. Naylor<sup>39</sup> in Kenya found that farmers with more education had many more attributes associated with better farming. Those with more education, among other things, had a modern conception of wealth, had greater savings, hired more labor, used more farm tools, were higher in their praise of rural development institutions, etc.

It is Jon Moris' contention that Farmer Training Centres have not been successful in getting across a general conception of agriculture. He suggests that adult training in specific technical areas, presupposes a foundation of broad agricultural knowledge acquired in youth and therefore recommends an emphasis on agriculture

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<sup>39</sup> H. Naylor and J. Ascroft, "A Baseline of Survey Factors Affecting Agricultural Development in Three Areas of Kenya," University Social Science Conference Paper No. 345 (January 1966) E.A.I.S.R.



in formal education efforts at primary school, though not for purposes of immediate vocational training. That, according to Moris, is necessary to "transform the natural environment by first transforming the students' conception of it."<sup>40</sup>

Uma Lele supports the idea of providing an agricultural component in formal education in order to enhance usefulness of short-term non-formal training:

"... low levels of formal schooling do reduce the effectiveness of short-term training. In this sense the two approaches would seem to be complementary rather than in conflict with each other."<sup>41</sup>

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<sup>40</sup> Jon Moris, "Farmer Training as a Strategy of Rural Development" in Education, Employment and Rural Development by James Sheffield (ed.) (East African Publishing House, Nairobi, 1966), pp. 349-350.

<sup>41</sup> Uma Lele, The Design of Rural Development: Lessons from Africa (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1975), p. 170.

## **Chapter III**

### **RESEARCH METHODS**

#### **3.1 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON RESEARCH DESIGN**

This study was exploratory and relied on qualitative and quantitative data collected, in most cases, from three regions of Tanzania, where four programs were in operation: The Farmer Training and Production Project, The Folk Development Colleges, the "Two Week" courses, (conducted at the Folk Development Colleges by Ministry of Agriculture regional staff) and The Training for Rural Development Project.

An exploratory approach was considered necessary because of the scant literature on villager-level training within the Tanzanian context. Moreover, whatever little field research was conducted in other settings tended to emphasize the structural rather than the process dimensions of villager-level training and could not serve as a basis for deriving research hypotheses. An exploratory approach was considered necessary in order to "discover," and unearth theoretical concepts and hypotheses aimed at gaining familiarity with the substantive area of villager-level training. Finally, a detailed narrow study was considered premature because all

the programs studied were in early stages of development (refer to the sub-section on historical development of villager-level training efforts in Tanzania in Chapter 1).

Niels Roling, among many others, criticizes the overemphasis, in social science research on tackling problems which are derived from theories, models and paradigms of other social scientists, rather than from an analysis of pressing social problems.<sup>1</sup> He also asserts that a polarization often develops between practitioners and researchers:

Talk of 'ivory towers' soon emerges and researcher and practitioner, who should be colleagues in working toward a better world, are in fact, more or less permanently alienated.<sup>2</sup>

Because of the scant nature of existing theory and the existent biases towards researching issues derived from theories developed within considerably different contexts, this research effort was conceived as "problem-solving research or decision-oriented research."<sup>3</sup> It is aimed at influencing and having an impact upon locally initiated action-research and the overall design and implementation of training.

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<sup>1</sup> Niels Roling, "From theory to action," Ceres, FAO (Rome, May-June 1974) p. 31.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid., p. 31.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., p. 31.

While the researcher concedes the critical importance of evaluation research, particularly the need to undertake measurements (e.g. cost-benefit analysis) this was not considered feasible because of methodological<sup>4</sup> and time constraints, the nature of his research objectives and the differences in program thrusts (which reduces comparability) of the agencies studied. Moreover, an emphasis on process dimensions and constraints affecting training programs was considered important given the historical neglect of these issues.

The grounded theory approach proposed by Glaser and Strauss<sup>5</sup> was found to be particularly suitable for this research effort. The essence of the proposed approach is crystallized in the following statement:

Grounded theory assumes that the purpose of theory is to promote understanding and that understanding can only be achieved through the researcher's emersion in data experienced in context. Through emersion the researcher inductively 'derives' relationships which are then cross-checked and refined through the constant comparative method. The theory which results is thereby grounded in data. Rather than beginning with theory, deriving

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<sup>4</sup> There is an inherent problem in attempting to attribute impact (say yield or acreage increases) to training per se, unless one can effectively isolate the contribution of numerous other factors such as educational background, price and marketing structure, logistics, exposure to other information sources, availability of inputs, etc. This needs an experimental design, a three to five year time period and is best done by local researchers, preferably as part of an action research emphasis.

<sup>5</sup> Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory.

propositions from that theory, testing them, and subsequently adding to or refining the original theory, grounded theorists begin with a phenomena or 'situation' and a set of data.<sup>6</sup>

Both qualitative and quantitative data were used since in using the grounded theory approach "there is no fundamental clash between the purposes and capacities of qualitative or quantitative methods or data."<sup>7</sup> Moreover, it was the researcher's desire to collect different kinds of data bearing on the same phenomenon through the use of multiple methods or what is referred to as triangulation.<sup>8</sup> Todd D. Jick suggests that triangulation "may be used not only to examine the same phenomenon from multiple perspectives but also to enrich our understanding by allowing for new or deeper dimensions to emerge."<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>6</sup> Harold Beder, Merrill Ewert and Sharan Merriam, "The use of ethnography, case study and grounded theory in adult education research." Paper presented at the Twenty Fourth Annual Adult Education Conference, April 8th to 10th, 1983.

<sup>7</sup> Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory, (Chicago Aldine Publishing Co., 1967).

<sup>8</sup> Triangulation is defined as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" (Norman K. Denzin, The Research Act 2nd edition (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1978, p. 291).

<sup>9</sup> Todd D. Jick, "Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: triangulation in action" in Qualitative methodology by John Van Mannen (ed.), Sage 1983, p. 138.

<sup>10</sup> Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory, p. 22.

The constant comparative method<sup>10</sup> was applied to the different regions, programs and respondent categories that were studied, both as a means of generating conceptual categories or properties<sup>11</sup> and generalized relations among them, and for cross validating data.

Four programs hosted by three different agencies (refer to Chapter 4) were included in the study, thereby covering all the major networks of institutional group training of villagers, within Tanzania.

### **3.2 INSTRUMENTATION**

Five categories of research instruments were developed and administered:

1. Village level survey
2. FDC Principals' survey
3. Past participants (of FDC) survey
4. Village level interview schedule and
5. Institutional level interview schedule (see Appendix A).

All instruments (included in Appendix A) were developed within Tanzania and after 3-4 months had been spent (April-July 1982) visiting potential research sites,<sup>12</sup> and  
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<sup>11</sup> A category stands by itself as a conceptual element of the theory. A property, in turn, is a conceptual aspect or element of a category (Glaser & Strauss, p. 36).

<sup>12</sup> A first round of visits to each of the research sites was undertaken as a means of becoming familiar with various programs and meeting local training staff.



studying existent documentation.<sup>13</sup> Additional insights<sup>14</sup> for the use in designing the Village Level Survey (VLS) were obtained after a brief survey of Ministry of Agricultural policymakers, trainers and expatriate specialists conducted at Mtwara during the June, 1982, Coordinative Workshop and from the Ministry of National Education - FDC principals - during the annual Principals' meeting held in August, 1982. A preliminary set of sample questions for the VLS were tested out in villages around Mbeya with the assistance of FTPP staff at the Uyole wing. The VLS instruments (Form 1 and 2: Refer to Appendix A) were completed and translated into Kiswahili. Another translator (unfamiliar with the original set of questions) was asked to back-translate the Kiswahili instruments to English. The original and retranslated versions were compared and discrepancies were corrected.<sup>15</sup> The VLS

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These visits also provided the researcher an opportunity to immerse more fully into the cultural milieu and to unearth relevant research questions.

<sup>13</sup> Upon arrival in Tanzania it was evident that an attempt to procure any data on income or production figures would be highly inappropriate given the volume of trade in food grains, and to a lesser extent plantation crops (coffee mainly) which takes place outside the official marketing channels.

<sup>14</sup> Respondents were asked, among other things to suggest three topics/areas that they felt needed to be researched.

<sup>15</sup> For information on the 'back-translation' technique refer to Robert Edward Mitchell, "Survey Materials collected in the developing countries: Sampling, Measurement and Interviewing Obstacles to Intra and International Comparisons." International Social

instruments were pretested on a small group of twelve village leaders, men and women in Bigwa, Morogoro region. Accordingly, further changes were made in the instrument.<sup>16</sup> A second round of visits was arranged for purposes of collecting VLS data. The first program to be surveyed was the FTFP at Naliende, Mtwara. Survey data in Iringa and Kilimanjaro were collected by school teachers (from within the district). On-site supervision and random probing of already interviewed villagers was undertaken by the researcher himself. Teachers rather than extension workers were selected because they were perceived as "neutral" during preliminary inquiries made on this matter in the villages. The highest "grade" teachers were deployed after 3 hours of training. The data in Mtwara was collected by MATI (pre-service) students. Similar procedures for training and supervision were used at all sites.

Only Forms 1 and 2 were administered (the latter only for trained individuals) at the first site, Mtwara. In keeping with the grounded theory philosophy joint collection, coding and analysis<sup>17</sup> of data was practiced. After the data was collected coding of 70% of the data  
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Science Journal (1965), 17(4): 678.

<sup>16</sup> The FDC Principals Survey (N=40), the FDC Past Participants Survey and the Interview-schedules were not pretested.

<sup>17</sup> Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory.



(from closed-type of questions) was undertaken on-site. Preliminary tabulation of this data provided quick, though partial, feedback to the host agency. More importantly, the researcher was able to get a feel for what the survey had unearthed, including new insights and questions. These and other observations recorded during the month long stay at the site provided the basis for the development of an additional instrument, Form 3 (see Appendix A), which then was used at the Kilimanjaro and Iringa research sites, in addition to Forms 1 and 2. Similarly, data collected, coded and analyzed at Kilimanjaro provided the basis for yet another instrument, Form 4, used at Iringa in addition to Forms 1, 2 and 3.<sup>18</sup> This provided the opportunity for the researcher to discover and explore new areas emerging from preliminary data analysis.

A detailed survey of FDC principals was conducted during the annual Principals meeting in Mbeya in August 1982. A survey of FDC past participants in long courses was undertaken in October in Kilimanjaro region. Twenty-two past participants were selected in villages which were surveyed for 'two week' course participants.

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<sup>18</sup> Forms 3 and 4 were not pretested in a formal manner. The back-translation technique was used to improve lexical equivalence.

### 3.3 SAMPLING

As indicated at the start of this chapter, four programs (described in detail in Chapter 4) were selected for the study. The program thrusts and techniques tended to differ considerably and this was perceived as highly conducive to generating hypotheses and constructing explanatory frameworks. Such differences were expected to "increase the probability that the researcher will collect different and varied data bearing on a category, while yet finding strategic similarities among the groups."<sup>19</sup>

A special effort was made in this research to collect from the clients themselves. The Village Level Survey (VLS) is in effect an opinion survey of the target audience on various issues and concerns pertaining to training. There has been a tendency in the past to procure such data from field workers, administrators, etc., rather than the villagers themselves. A decision was also made to ensure a wide representation of villagers in the sample (i.e., 423 individuals). Once again, in the past data in the area of training tended to originate from large samples of field workers or administrators and a small group of villagers.

For the VLS, two major categories of respondents were surveyed: trained villagers (i.e. adult villagers who had participated in the short duration courses offered by the

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<sup>19</sup> Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory, p. \_\_\_\_.

particular project under study) and untrained villagers (adult villagers who had not participated in any form of institution-sponsored group training).<sup>20</sup> Within each of these two major categories, equal numbers of men, women and leaders were interviewed.<sup>21</sup> It was considered necessary to interview these three sub-categories as separate respondent groups because differential response patterns were anticipated.<sup>22</sup> The questions asked of the three sub-categories of respondents did not differ. All interviews were conducted on an individual basis. (Refer to Table 3.1 for a breakdown of respondents in the VLS on regional and category basis).

Respondents in the VLS were selected using random selection techniques. In the case of the trained category (with a smaller population) sampling was achieved by selecting every second or third name on the list of trained villagers available at the training institution. In the case of the untrained group, because of the large

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<sup>20</sup> Individuals attending village meetings lasting less than a day and held in the village without any specific efforts directed at selection, planned instruction, and conducted by agencies other than a training-institution, were for the purposes of this research, not considered as 'trained villagers.'

<sup>21</sup> The Kilimanjaro sample did not include leaders since no specific effort was directed towards them under the "two week" courses offered at FDC Msinga.

<sup>22</sup> These differences were pointed out by John Moland Jr., in his report, "Village problems and training needs as perceived by villagers and their leaders." Training for Rural Development Project, June 1981.

TABLE 3.1

Total Numbers of Villagers Surveyed (VLS) by Category and Region

Category of Respondents	REGION		
	Mtwara	Kilimanjaro	Iringa
Trained Men	25	25	25
Trained Women	25	23	25
Trained Leaders	25	--	25
Untrained Men	25	25	25
Untrained Women	25	25	25
Untrained Leaders	25	25	25
TOTAL	150	123	150

population, other techniques were used. Selecting every nth member on the village household list where n is derived by dividing the total population in a particular village by the number of respondents desired. In every alternate case, the wife of the 'head of the family' was interviewed. In the case of the leader category, the village chairperson, secretary, members of the village production and marketing committee, finance and planning committee and education, culture and social services committee were interviewed.

In Mtwara and Iringa, since training focused on a select number of villages, sampling was easy. Untrained villagers in these areas were selected from villages that were not exposed to training but were identical with respect to ethnic composition, agro-climatic conditions

and cropping pattern and the overall resource base. In Kilimanjaro<sup>23</sup> trained villagers represented a large number of villages.<sup>24</sup> So a decision was made to randomly select untrained villagers in each of the villages from which trained villagers were selected<sup>25</sup> (see Table 3.2 for details).

### 3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The process of constant comparison of various kinds of data from different sources continued throughout the research process. While the coding of the responses to closed-type questions was undertaken in Tanzania the responses to open-ended questions was undertaken in the USA. Further coding (for purposes of computer analysis), data entry and computer analysis was undertaken in the United States. In the analysis, descriptive statistics, frequency counts, ranking and cross tabulations analysis concentrated on six major themes representing some key-elements of the training-process:

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<sup>23</sup> In Kilimanjaro region, unlike in Iringa and Mtwara where large sections (and all leaders) within a village were exposed to training, the "two week" course focused on individuals: one or two in each village.

<sup>24</sup> Within Kilimanjaro region, particularly in Moshi Vijjinni and Hai districts, distinct villages such as found elsewhere in Tanzania, are not to be found.

<sup>25</sup> If the research was an impact-evaluation type study this would not have been appropriate because of multiplier-effects arising from having trained individuals in a village.

**TABLE 3.2**  
**Villages Surveyed by Region**

	<b>Trained Villagers Sample</b>	<b>Untrained Villagers Sample</b>
<b>Mtwara region (FTPP Program)</b>	Nambeleketela Mbawala Mdui Naliende	Mtwndachi Msakala Madimba Makonjele
<b>Iringa (TRDP Program)</b>	Sawala Matanana Kitowo Kiwere	Lukani Kitapilimwa Lufuna Mtula
<b>Kilimanjaro (FDC: Two Week Courses; Past Participants Survey)</b>	Kahe, Yamaka, Kilima Chini, Languo, Kirima Kati, Mkomongo, Mkolowoni, Kimangaro, Mrimbo, Marera, Urari, Usari, Food Muondoo	

- 1. Needs assessment and other training related research**
- 2. Selection and recruitment of trainees**
- 3. Factors affecting the response of villagers to training opportunities**
- 4. Delivery systems of training**
- 5. Instructional content, methods and materials and**
- 6. Post-course follow-up.**

During thematic analysis all sources of data (Survey, Interviews, Project Documentation and Literature) were used in the development of various emerging process-related concepts. Considerable emphasis was placed on

historical evidence, and lessons and insights acquired in the past and which were to be found in existent documentation such as field reports, evaluation studies and conference proceedings. Such documentation along with current literature, project proposals and interview-based observations were used to complement the survey data.

## **Chapter IV**

### **OVERVIEW OF HOST AGENCIES**

The four programs: Folk Development Colleges (FDC), Training for Rural Development (TRDP), The Farmer Training and Production Project (FTPP) and the "Two-Week Kilimo courses (offered at the FDCs) will be described briefly in this chapter. It is hoped that the reader will be provided with an adequate background to understand the overall context within which the research themes are analyzed in Chapter 5.

#### **4.1 THE FOLK DEVELOPMENT COLLEGES**

##### **4.1.1 Background Information**

In 1971 a delegation from Tanzania visited Sweden with the purpose of studying that country's educational institutions. The delegation came back favorably impressed with the idea of Sweden's Folk High Schools and recommended that some of the adult education institutions in Tanzania be remodelled along those lines. Early in 1974 the Tanzania government set up a steering committee to investigate the feasibility of introducing the Folk High School concept in Tanzania.



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The Ministry of National Education also requested the assistance of Swedish consultants in the matter. The consultants presented their report in 1974. It was suggested that the FDCs could serve as the third phase of Tanzania's adult education program, and serve as centres for development and advancement of Ujamaa policy. It was envisaged that the FDCs would offer courses for village leaders and would assist in the initiation and implementation of projects at the village level.<sup>1</sup> Local authorities were favorably impressed with the potential for such institutions and a working committee was set the same year. The latter drafted the aims and objectives of the FDC and was responsible for their planning and administration.<sup>2</sup>

A Cabinet 96/74 recommended that FDCs be formally established with effect from 1975 and that all Rural Training Centres (RTC) and Farmer Training Centres (FTC) and other similar institutions be taken over by the Ministry of National Education. These institutions were acquired on 12th August 1975. In 1975, 37 FDCs were established, followed by 10 in 1977 and 5 in 1978.<sup>3</sup> By  
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<sup>1</sup> H.J. Mosha, Report of research on the progress and impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, Ministry of National Education, (Dar es Salaam, 1982).

<sup>2</sup> "The possible use of the Nordic Folk High School Idea in Developing Countries," Workshop 1980, Ministry of National Education, Dar es Salaam, 1980.

<sup>3</sup> Interview with Nd. Mlote, FDC Secretariat, Ministry of National Education, Dar es Salaam, 21st April 1982.

1980 there were 52 FDCs all over the country. In the Five Year Plan for 1975-1980 it was envisaged that during the plan-period each district in Tanzania would have an FDC. Given the fact that certain districts would need more than one FDC a total of 99 FDCs were envisaged.<sup>4</sup> However, in 1979 a decision was made to direct efforts towards the consolidation of the existing 52 FDCs and further expansion was temporarily suspended.<sup>5</sup>

#### 4.1.2 Rationale

Tanzania's commitment to adult education is well known and can be traced back to at least two major events: the Arusha declaration of 1967 and the proclamation in 1970 of the Adult Education Year in Tanzania. The emphasis on mass campaigns in health, agriculture, and nutrition has met with considerable success. The National Literacy Campaign brought the literacy rate to 73% by 1977. Of the 3.8 million<sup>6</sup> persons undertaking the National Literacy Exam in 1975, 1.4 million were at Levels III and IV.<sup>7</sup> Out of the 5.5 million who took tests in 1977 and 1981, 1.7 million reached Level III and IV.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>4</sup> Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, Ministry of National Education, n.d., p. 2.

<sup>5</sup> Interview with Nd. Mlote, 21st April 1982.

<sup>6</sup> Yosuf O. Kassam, The Adult Education Revolution in Tanzania, (Shungwaya Publishers: 1978) pp. 65-67.

<sup>7</sup> Considered literate by the national criteria.

It is obvious that not only have these campaigns been highly successful, but that millions of adults can now be considered to be literate. The question was asked "...after the literacy campaign and mass campaigns in Tanzania what follows next?"<sup>9</sup> The FDC program served well as a post-literacy venture or as the "third" phase of the country's Adult Education campaign. The following excerpt from the Cabinet paper No. 96 of 1974<sup>10</sup> specifically recommends the establishment of the FDCs as a third phase:

The people's will to learn how to read and write is high. In order to sustain the high spirit various plans have been undertaken by the Ministry of National Education to enhance and consolidate adult education as Phase II of the literacy... The implementation of both phases has revealed that if adult education is to be complete and is to meet the ever increasing demand for adult education, there is need to embark on another special program as phase three of adult education... The program is the establishment of adult education centres to be known as Folk Development Colleges.

The FDC program is also seen as a furthering of Nyerere's philosophy that there is no end to education or "Elimu haina mwisho."

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<sup>8</sup> Julius K. Nyerere, Five years of CCM government, Address given to the National Conference of CCM, 20th October 1982.

<sup>9</sup> "The possible use of the Nordic Folk High School idea in developing countries," p. 2.

<sup>10</sup> Quoted in "Report of the research on the progress and impact of Folk Development Colleges," p. 195.

#### **4.1.3    Aims and Objectives**

The aims and objectives<sup>11</sup> of the FDCs are as follows:

1.    to aim at the development of the whole personality;  
the ability to think, to feel and to participate in  
the social life of the community.
2.    to help adults to understand the country's policy  
of socialism and self-reliance and encourage them  
to an active contribution to political life.
3.    to improve the knowledge and skills of adults in  
such fields as agriculture, handicraft, domestic  
science, health and water supply. This education  
should be integrated in the self-reliance program  
of the FDC.
4.    to develop democratic and co-operative knowledge  
and skills among adults.
5.    to help adults develop leadership skills and  
attitudes.
6.    to increase knowledge of Tanzania and African  
culture and promote active involvement in cultural  
activities.
7.    to achieve a wider understanding of the world and  
increase the ability to participate in  
international activities.

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<sup>11</sup> Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, p. 3.

#### **4.1.4 Area of Operation**

At the time when this research was conducted there were 52 FDCs spread throughout mainland Tanzania. Figure 4.1 provides further details on the locations of these FDCs.

#### **4.1.5 Organizational Linkages**

Originally, it was expected that the FDCs would be administered by the Regional Administration in keeping with Tanzania's decentralization policy.<sup>12</sup> However, it was decided in 1976 that the FDCs would be funded and administered centrally by the Ministry of National Education<sup>13</sup> under the Directorate of Adult Education (refer to Figure 4.2). The FDC Secretariat, a coordinating body is answerable to the Director of Adult Education, is directly responsible for day to day planning and administration, equipping of FDCs, preparation of financial estimates, liaising with other Ministries and government agencies and making staff appointments.

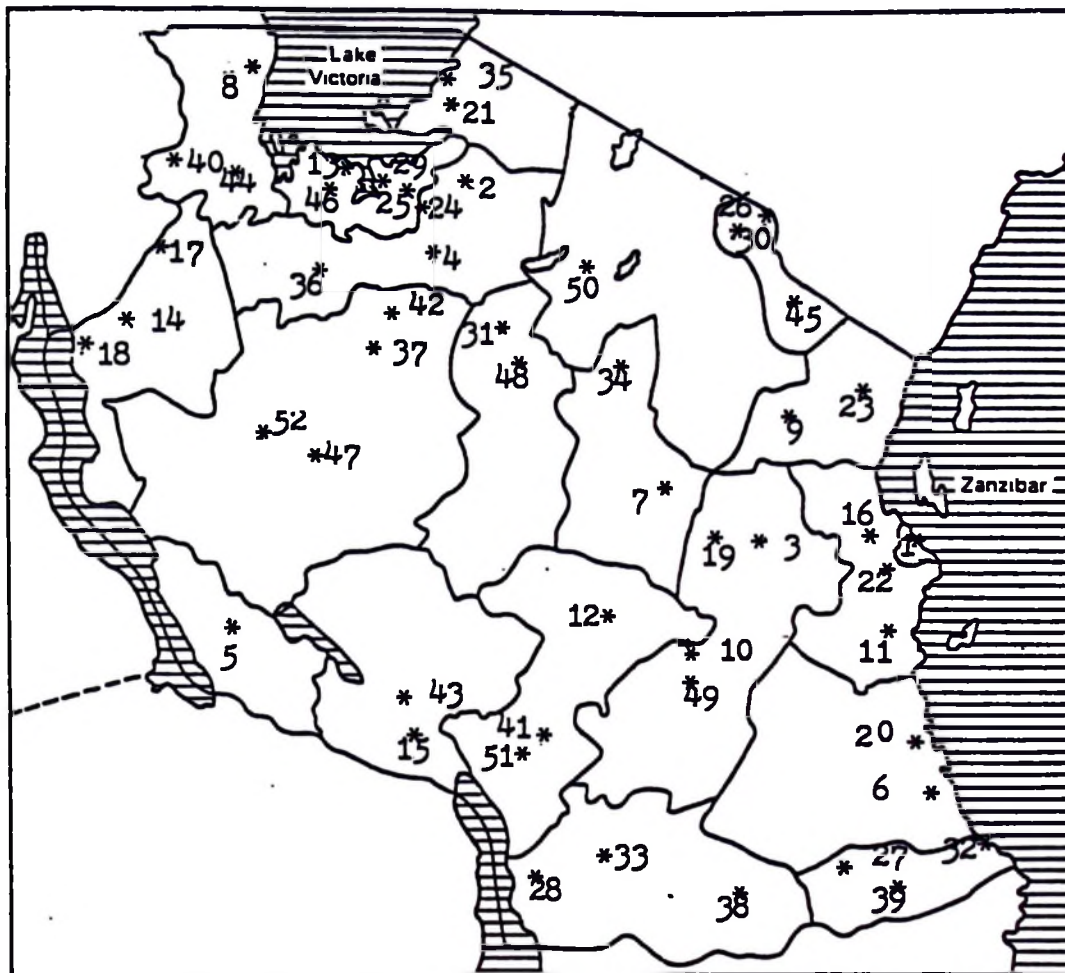
The training (both pre-service and inservice) of FDC staff is undertaken at a Training College located on campus of the Kibaha FDC, an hour's drive from Dar es Salaam.

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<sup>12</sup> As indicated earlier the FDCs are located at the district level.

<sup>13</sup> H.J. Mosha, Report of the research on the progress and impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, p. 54.

FOLK DEVELOPMENT COLLEGES NETWORK



KEY:

1. Arnautoglu	14. Kasulu	27. Masasi	40. Ngara
2. Bariadi	15. Katumba	28. Mbinga	41. Njombe
3. Bigwa	16. Kibaha	29. Misungwi	42. Nzega
4. Buhangija	17. Kibondo	30. Msinga	43. Nzovwe
5. Chala	18. Kihingi	31. Msingi	44. Rubondo
6. Chilala	19. Kilosa	32. Mtwanya	45. Same
7. Chisalu	20. Kilwa Masoko	33. Muhukuru	46. Sengerema
8. Gera	21. Kisangwa	34. Munguri	47. Sikonge
9. Handeni	22. Kisarawe	35. Musoma	48. Singida
10. Ifakara	23. Kiwanda	36. Mwamva	49. Sofi
11. Ikwiriri	24. Malampaka	37. Mwanhala	50. Tango
12. Ilulu	25. Malya	38. Nandembo	51. Ulembe
13. Karumo	26. Mantukuna	39. Newala	52. Urambo

Figure 4.1: The Distribution of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania

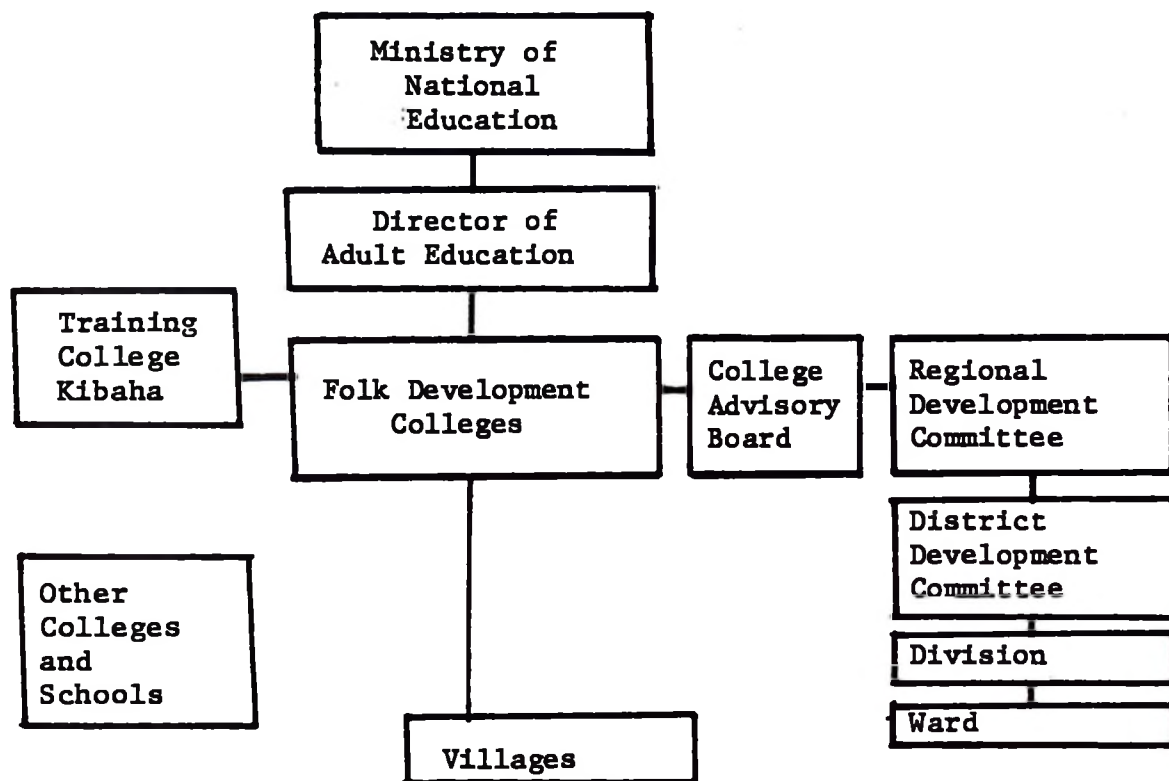


Figure 4.2: Organizational Linkages for the FDC Network in Tanzania



Each FDC has a Principal who is assisted by a Vice Principal in the overall administration of the FDC at the district level. Typically, these individuals are expected to work as a team with the various heads of departments.

A college board, established for each FDC, serves primarily as an advisory body on issues such as selection and recruitment of trainees, needs assessment, implementation of programs, FDC expansion efforts and in the promotion of self-reliance efforts at the FDCs. Guidelines suggest that the Board be composed of party and government leaders such as: District Party Chairman-Secretary, District Development Director, District Agricultural Officer, District Planning Officer, District Education Officer, District Adult Education Officer, District Health Officer, Member of Parliament, Secretaries of Party organization and the FDC principal.

Considerable decentralization and division of responsibilities can be observed at the FDCs because of the emphasis on student sub-committees, each responsible for different areas such as Economic Self-Reliance, Planning and Finance, Academic issues, etc. This participation provides students considerable experience in leadership development, group work and group decision making, besides assisting in influencing day-to-day matters at the FDC.

As of 1978, FDCs have been accorded legal status, thus facilitating decision making and overall management at the level of the respective FDCs.

Activities: Only a brief overview of certain activities will be provided here because of the emphasis given to these aspects in the next Chapter.

The aims and objectives of the FDCs suggest that they have a political function, an economic function, a social function and a cultural function.<sup>14</sup> The building of a strong and deep solidarity among FDC participants, the inculcation of a spirit of openness and understanding and the development of democratic traditions is given emphasis. Dignity of work and a spirit of cooperation in daily tasks at the FDCs is encouraged through various communal activities. A cultural and political awakening, the development of self-awareness and a sense of responsibility to the local community, the nation and the world are expected to be nurtured through activities both within and outside the class.<sup>15</sup>

Seven subjects are offered at the FDC. "Core courses" such as Agriculture, Domestic Science, Technical Education and Accountancy. In addition the following "general courses" are offered: Education/Economics, Culture and -----

<sup>14</sup> "The possible use of the Nordic Folk High School idea in developing countries," p. 4.

<sup>15</sup> Based on "Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," pp. 18-22, 99-103.

**Adult Education.** the student is expected to enroll in one of the core courses for specialization but is exposed to all the general courses.

Two kinds of courses are taught at the FDCs: short courses and long courses. Based on the recommendations in the Principal's Guide, short courses are expected to last for six months or less and "should concentrate on the provision of specialized skills needed for immediate application in localities/places of work."<sup>16</sup> The long courses were expected to last between six months and two years and "provide more skills in specific areas of specialization that will enable the people to acquire more ability in the development of the community."<sup>17</sup>

The Ministry of National Education has stipulated that education should emphasize practical work and devote 60% of the total training time to such activities. The remaining 40% will be for theoretical work.

The original plans were that costs for the running of the FDCs would be divided equally between Government, the FDCs (who were expected to raise money through various self-reliance projects) and the Villages. In reality, this has not happened, and the Government continues to bear major costs of all FDCs except Kibaha.<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>16</sup> Principal's Guide (1980), Section 3.

<sup>17</sup> Ibid.

<sup>18</sup> Kibaha is nearly 100% self-reliant, according to Nd. Bendera, Principal, FDC Kibaha who was interviewed on

According to the 1982 Evaluation by the Ministry of National Education, the allocation for recurring costs is around T.Shs 10,000,000/=per year.<sup>19</sup> This is met largely from Tanzanian government coffers. While hardly adequate for running FDCs at full capacity, given the overall economic situation in Tanzania, local Principals repoded by tightening the belt and considerably reducing student intake. Developmental costs such as new FDC buildings and equipment in districts where RTC were non-existent, construction costs at the training college, retraining of tutors, visits of FDC principals to Sweden<sup>20</sup> and the provision of two Swedish consultants to assist in launching the program were paid for by the Swedish Government.

#### **4.2 THE TRAINING FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECT**

##### **4.2.1 Background Information**

The Arusha declaration of February 1967 which spelled out Tanzania's national policy of socialism and self-reliance was followed by the decentralization policy in

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May 10, 1982.

<sup>19</sup> In 1977 it was estimated that 20 million T.shillings were required for running 47 FDCs in 1977. However, Parliament approved only T.Sh.s 10 million. (Report of the Research on the impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, p. 63).

<sup>20</sup> As part of an inservice orientation some 30 principals had visited Sweden as of April 1982, in order to study the Folk High Schools.

1972. Under the decentralization policy, the number of regions and districts were expanded in order to provide more manageable local administrative units.<sup>21</sup> Regional and area commissioners were now assisted by newly appointed regional and district directors, and were responsible to the Prime Minister's Office. While the ultimate objective was one of expanding participation of the clientele in planning and implementation, "the new arrangements succeeded in decentralizing administration but expand participation beyond the electoral opportunities..."<sup>22</sup> In 1975, further support for the policies of self reliance and decentralization was forthcoming in the form of the Villages and Ujamaa Act of 1975 which provided villages with a legal status and the power to do "all such things as are necessary or expedient for the economic and social development of the village."<sup>23</sup> The Act also outlined the village government structure (see Chapter 1).

With administrative decentralization, accompanied by an increase in the number of regions and districts, Tanzania experienced an acute shortage of trained manpower. Often, needs had to be met by the selection of under-qualified individuals. With the 1975 act villages were given new

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<sup>21</sup> Rodger Yeager, Tanzania: an african experiment (Westview Press, 1982), p. 62.

<sup>22</sup> Ibid., p. 63.

<sup>23</sup> Villages and Ujamaa Villager (Registration, Designation and Administration) Act, 1975.

roles and responsibilities but found themselves short of managerial, organizational and technical skills.<sup>24</sup>

It is within this context that the Training for Rural Development Project (TRDP) was conceived by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), The Government of Tanzania and the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA). TRDP was developed as a result of acute shortage of trained manpower in Tanzania<sup>25</sup> and to find ways to make the villagization and Decentralization schemes work.<sup>26</sup> Thus training at all levels was envisaged. The TRDP Phase I was initiated in July 1979 and Phase II in September 1982. The entire project was funded for more than \$30 million dollars by the Tanzanian Government and the Agency for International Development of the United States Government. The U.S. provided 6 million dollars for Phase I and 18.5 million dollars for Phase II.

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<sup>24</sup> Justin H.J. Maeda, "People's participation in development of grassroots level: The village and its context in Tanzania." Paper prepared for IFAD's sponsored panel on "People's participation in development," SID World Conference, (Baltimore, July 18-22, 1982).

<sup>25</sup> "Tanzania Training for Rural Development," Project Paper II, AID, (Washington D.C., September 1981).

<sup>26</sup> William Le Clere, "Tanzania Rural Development: a case study," June 1983 (Mimeographed).

#### **4.2.1.1 Rationale**

The TRDP has emphasized, the need for improvement of the capabilities of various Tanzanian institutions to better serve their constituents. The TRDP project paper has described its program or sector goal as follows:

**"To strengthen the managerial and technical capacities of decentralized rural development institutions to contribute to agricultural growth, expanded rural services, and enhanced self-help activities by individual farmers and village cooperatives."**<sup>27</sup>

Thus training in leadership, management, organizational and technical skills is offered for recruits at village, district, regional and ministerial level in order "to effectively move Tanzanian villages toward their stated goal of social and economic viability."<sup>28</sup> Training included short term overseas and in-country training, long-term (degree) overseas training, and an entire cycle of in-country residential and village based training interventions for village leaders from participating villagers.

The TRDP project purpose has been described thus:

**"To develop a model rural development training system focussed on increasing agricultural production and income levels in villages in five high potential regions n Tanzania."**

Project outputs are specified as follows:

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<sup>27</sup> "Tanzania Training for Rural Development II," Annex A, page 1.

<sup>28</sup> Ibid., p. 9.

1. Network of training centres renovated, staffed and functioning in response to rural development training needs.
2. Training programs in planning, management, technical agriculture, home economics, appropriate technology and other high priority need areas conducted with villagers.
3. Selected district, regional, parastatal, ministerial staff trained (in country) in planning, programming, business management and technical skills necessary to village development.
4. Project regions staffed with functional rural development trainers/managers.
5. Selected Tanzanian government officials trained (short course and degree, off-shore) in technical rural development needs.
6. Increased capacity in project regions to effectively manage, coordinate and utilize Tanzanian government and rural development resources.

#### **4.2.1.2 Area of Operation**

During Phase I TRDP concentrated its activities in four southern regions: Iringa, Mbeya, Ruvuma and Rukwa (Refer to Figure 4.4). These were selected because they were considered to have high potential for agriculture and



livestock development. All four regions are large, underpopulated in terms of the estimated carrying capacity of the land, have relatively higher rainfall and better soil-fertility than other regions.<sup>29</sup> Arusha region in Northern Tanzania was subsequently included to bring the total number of regions to five.<sup>30</sup> A total of 16 villages, representing the four southern regions were included in project activities during Phase I. During Phase II the number of project villages was to gradually expand to 350 in five regions. The hub-centre is located at Ruaha, Iringa and called 'The Training for Rural Development Centre.'

#### 4.2.1.3 Organizational Linkage

TRDP is coordinated by the Prime Minister's office through its Ministry of Manpower Development (refer to Figure 4.3). It maintains a small staff at the Project Coordinating Office located in Dar es Salaam. The TRDP policy is decided by a National Coordinating Committee made up of representatives from each of the participating ministries<sup>31</sup> and the representatives of the five regions

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<sup>29</sup> "Tanzania Training for Rural Development Policy II." Project Paper Annex B, p. 2.

<sup>30</sup> Though Arusha region does not meet all the characteristics for a high-potential region.

<sup>31</sup> Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Livestock Development, Ministry of Natural Resources, Departments of Cooperatives and Community Development in the Prime Minister's Office.

involved. The Training for Rural Development Centre (TRDC) located at Ruaha, Iringa is considered the centre of village training activities for the project. However, it is envisaged that Regional Centres at Ulenbwe, Songea, Mbeya, Sumbawanga and Mbulu will take over some of the responsibilities of TRDC Ruaha.<sup>32</sup> TRDC is staffed by a core group of trainers seconded from the various participating Ministries. They are assisted in their work in specific regions by regional and district staff (themselves trained as part of project activities) and designated as 'Trainers.' Village level training caters primarily to members of the village government (Figure 4.4 provided additional information. Note that the data processing unit and Regional Training Centres are not yet fully operational).

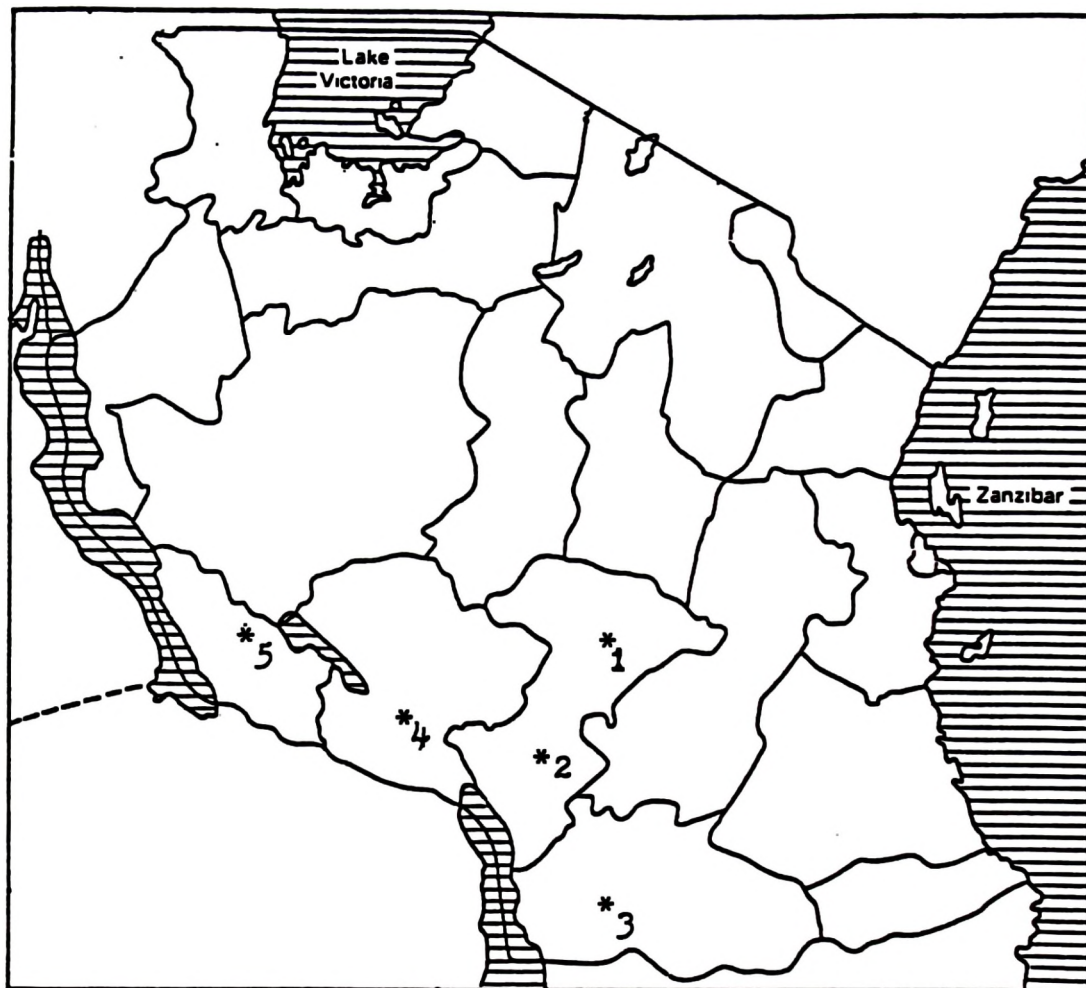
#### 4.2.1.4 Activities

As indicated earlier TRDP stresses the importance of training at various levels: ministerial, regional, district and village. However, since this research pertained to villager-level training, only that component will be briefly discussed in this subsection.

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<sup>32</sup> At the time of this research already existing institutions were being acquired or being renovated for the purpose. However, only two of these could be considered operational as of early 1984.

### NETWORK OF TRDP TRAINING INSTITUTIONS



**Key:**

- 1 : Training for rural development center, Ruaha, Iringa region
- 2 : TRD Regional center, Ulembe, Iringa region
- 3 : TRD Regional center, Songea, Ruvuma region
- 4 : TRD Regional center, Mbeya, Mbeya region
- 5 : TRD Regional center, Sumbawanga, Rukwa region

**Figure 4.3: The Distribution of TRDP Training Institutions**

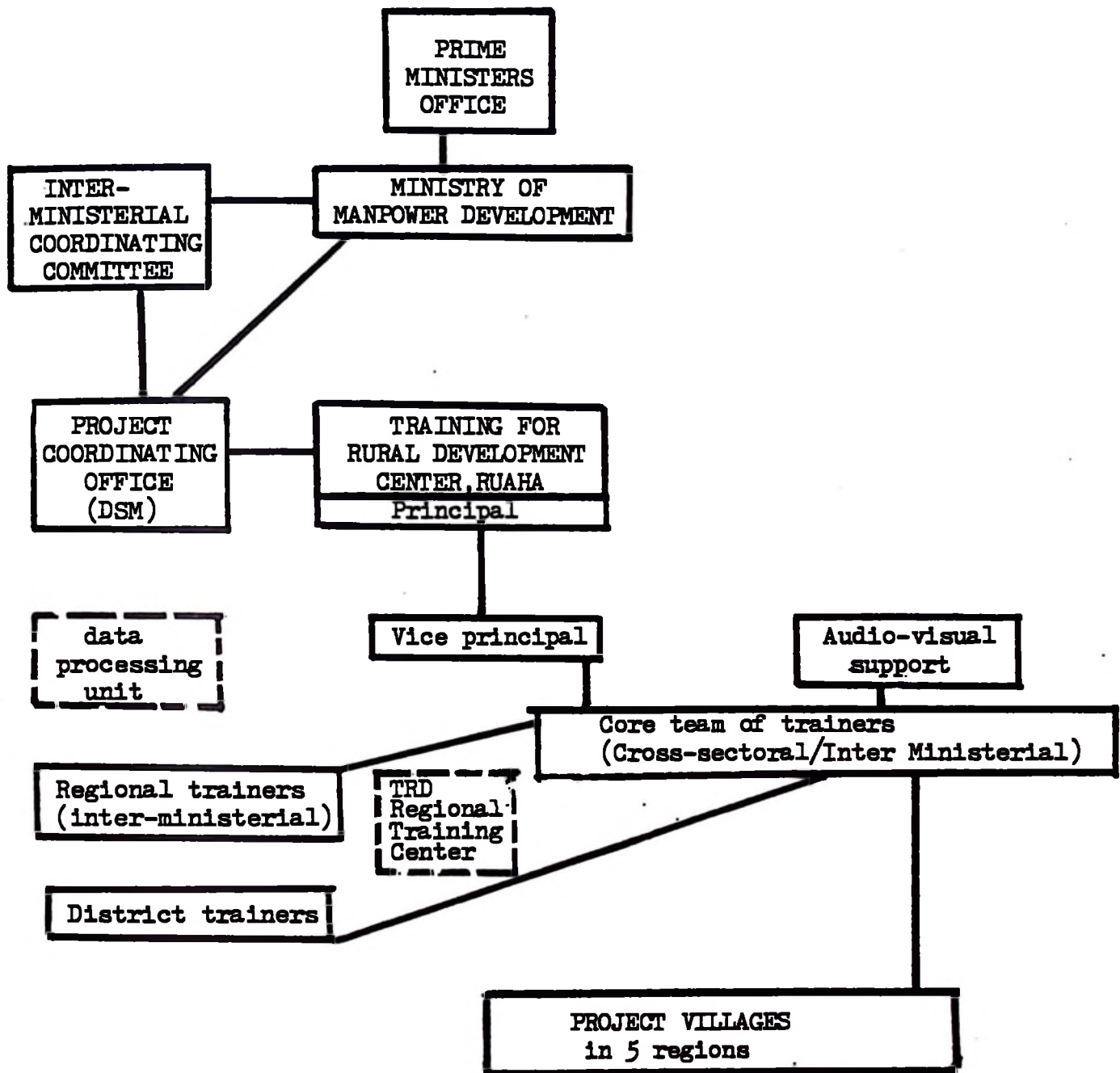


Figure 4.4: Organizational Linkages for the Training for Rural Development Project

Some unique features of the TRDP are its overall approach to build upon existing resources (staff, physical facilities, etc.) and its emphasis on upgrading local capabilities through a cycle of training interventions. Expatriate presence is considerably reduced with only two U.S. specialists working in-country. However, a group of U.S. consultants conduct in-country training on short-term basis. TRDP emphasizes action research in the planning and management of project priorities and targets, with locally indentified problems becoming the basis for action.<sup>33</sup>

TRDP stresses the role of data in training and village planning and initiated a data collection drive in 16 of the project villages in Phase I. By the end of 1983 the total number of villages involved was 75.<sup>34</sup> TRDP training is considered to be data-based.

Training offered by TRDP at the villager level involves a series of interventions: the first is the 'Village Intervention' (VI) and is conducted at the village level by TRDC and Regional trainers for two weeks. Typically, the first 3-4 days are spent at assessing training needs on an informal or group basis. Based on this assessment, TRDP trainers design and conduct training for

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<sup>33</sup> William Le Clere, "Tanzanian Rural Development: a case study," p. 12.

<sup>34</sup> It's anticipated that by 1986 the project will expand to 350 villages.

approximately ten days.<sup>35</sup> Village council members, village technicians, and functionaries are invited to participate.<sup>36</sup> Village intervention (VI) is followed by a month-long residential training (RT) conducted at TRDC Ruaha and attended by 15 participants<sup>37</sup> from each of four villages which are invited to participate at a time, in an RT.

Training content pertaining to leadership skills development, organizational and managerial skills and other areas relevant to village planning and management is given primary emphasis initially. With each subsequent exposure to training, villages receive an increasing emphasis on technical training. Training is cross-sectional in nature and this is greatly facilitated by the team of trainers who represent as many as 4-5 Ministries/Departments.

Follow-up visits to project villages are scheduled by TRDC and Regional trainers<sup>38</sup> Follow-up visits are expected to be conducted four times a year. In addition to providing an opportunity for evaluation of training impact, it also provides trainers an opportunity to

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<sup>35</sup> TRDP implementation reports, February 1982.

<sup>36</sup> This has been discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

<sup>37</sup> From among those who had earlier participated in VI.

<sup>38</sup> It is anticipated that when the TRD Regional Traianing Centres become fully operational, follow-up will become a regional responsibility.

provide any immediate training/technical assistance which is considered necessary. Training for each village is expected to be spread over 2-3 years.

#### **4.3    "TWO WEEK" COURSES**

##### **4.3.1    Background Information**

With the conversion of most Farmer Training Centres (FTC) to Rural Training Centres (RTCs), followed by the 1975 takeover of these institutions by the Ministry of National Education as sites for their Folk Development Colleges, the Ministry of Agriculture lost its network of villager-level training institutions. The Ministry of National Education, on the other hand, soon found that it did not have adequate numbers of technical instructors to deal adequately with the technical training needs of the adult farmers in surrounding villages. Accordingly, the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Agriculture decided to join hands in filling the void by instituting "Two Week" courses.

##### **4.3.2    Philosophical Orientation and Rationale**

The orientation tended to be similar to that of the former FTCs: a strong technical agriculture bias. The primary purpose was to compensate for the neglect of the adult farmer focus of the FDCs and provide specialized agricultural courses oriented towards increasing crop

production at the communal and individual farm levels. However, it does differ from the former FTCs in that the livestock component is not dealt with, because that is considered outside the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture.<sup>39</sup>

#### **4.3.3 Area of Operation**

As of 1982 one such program of "Two Week" courses was instituted in each of 19 out of the 20 administrative regions on mainland Tanzania (see Figure 4.5). As of August 1982, a total of fourteen programs were in operation.<sup>40</sup>

#### **4.3.4 Organizational Linkages**

The two week programs were envisaged as a joint project of the Ministry of National Education which would initially make available most of the funds for recurring costs and provide facilities at selected FDCs for the actual conduct of such courses.<sup>41</sup> The Ministry of Agriculture was entrusted with the responsibility for  
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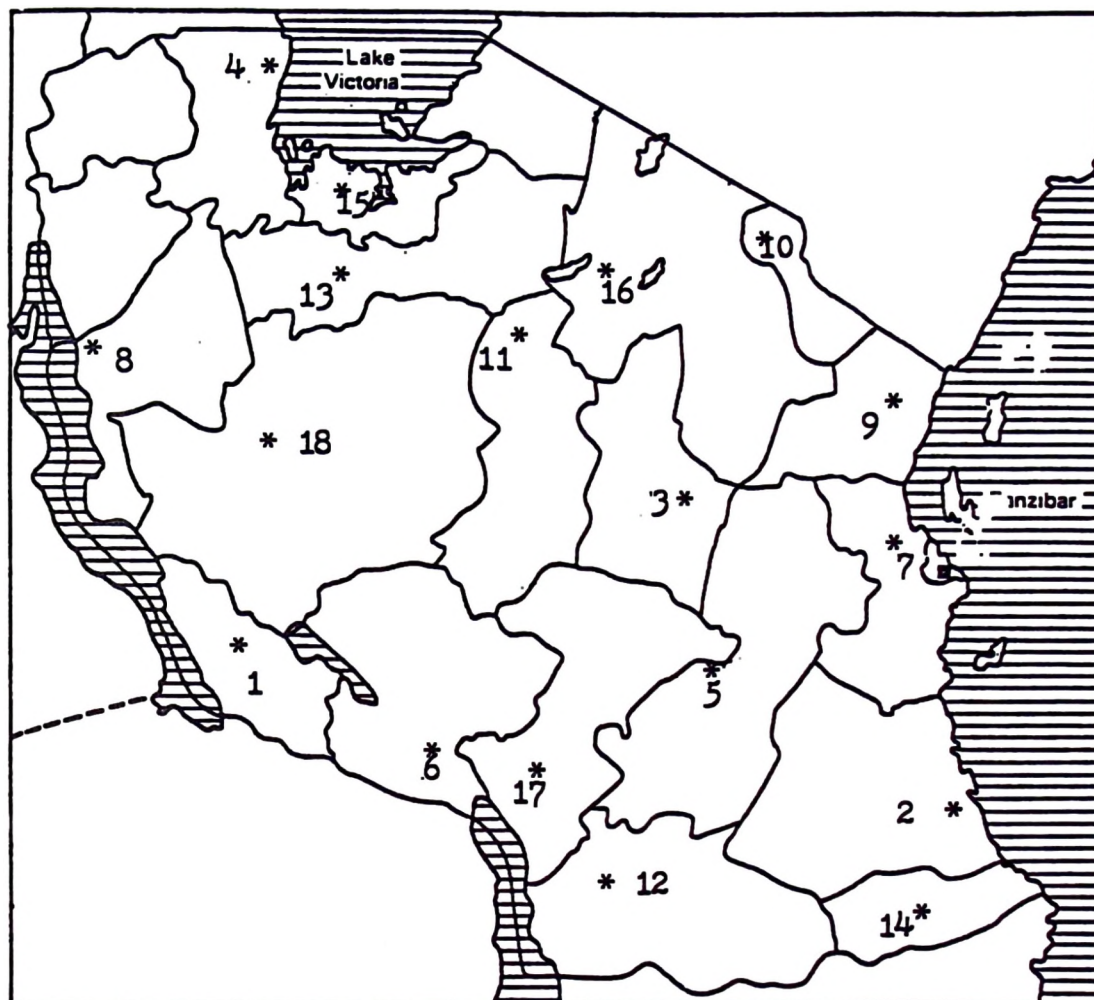
<sup>39</sup> Up until November 1980, the Ministry of Agriculture was responsible for crop and livestock components. However, on November 1, 1980, a new Ministry of Livestock Development was established.

<sup>40</sup> FDC Principals Survey conducted in August 1982 as part of this research.

<sup>41</sup> The Ministry of Agriculture was expected to begin providing financial support towards the end of 1982 (Interview with Nd. Muro, F.E.S., Kilimo, April 8th, 1982).



'TWO WEEK' COURSES CONDUCTED AT THE  
FDC's (by the Ministry of agriculture)



KEY:

1. Chala  
2. Chilala  
3. Chisalu  
4. Gera  
5. Ifakara  
6. Katumba

7. Kibaha  
8. Kihinga  
9. Kiwanda  
10. Msinga  
11. Msingi  
12. Muhukuru

13. Mwanva  
14. Newala  
15. Sengerema  
16. Tango  
17. Ulembwe  
18. Urambo

Figure 4.5: Distribution of "Two Week Course" Programs

providing coordinative and technical support. The agency responsible for this program, within the Ministry of Agriculture, was the Farmers Education Section, which has representatives at the Regional level designated as Regional Publicity Officers (RPO's). These RPOs in addition to their regular responsibilities<sup>42</sup> were expected to serve as course-coordinators at the regional level and liaise with the Folk Development College, Regional and District authorities, for the purposes of identifying and addressing the training needs of the adult farmer population (see Figure 4.6 for organizational linkages).

#### 4.3.5 Activities

Each RPO is expected to organize between 18-26 courses per year, each of two week duration<sup>43</sup> in order to reach the national target of 12,000 farmers per year. Courses are conducted using the facilities made available by the local FDC. Free accommodations and food are provided to selected farmers. The course content and schedule are developed at the Regional level by the RPO in collaboration with the Regional Agricultural Development Office. The expectation has been that the District or  
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<sup>42</sup> Which include writing and interviewing for radio programs, newspapers and the farm magazine 'Ukulima wa Kisasa,' running of film shows in the villages and the distribution of printed materials.

<sup>43</sup> Interview with Nd. Muro, Farmers Education Section, Ministry of Agriculture, Dar es Salaam, April 8th, 1982.

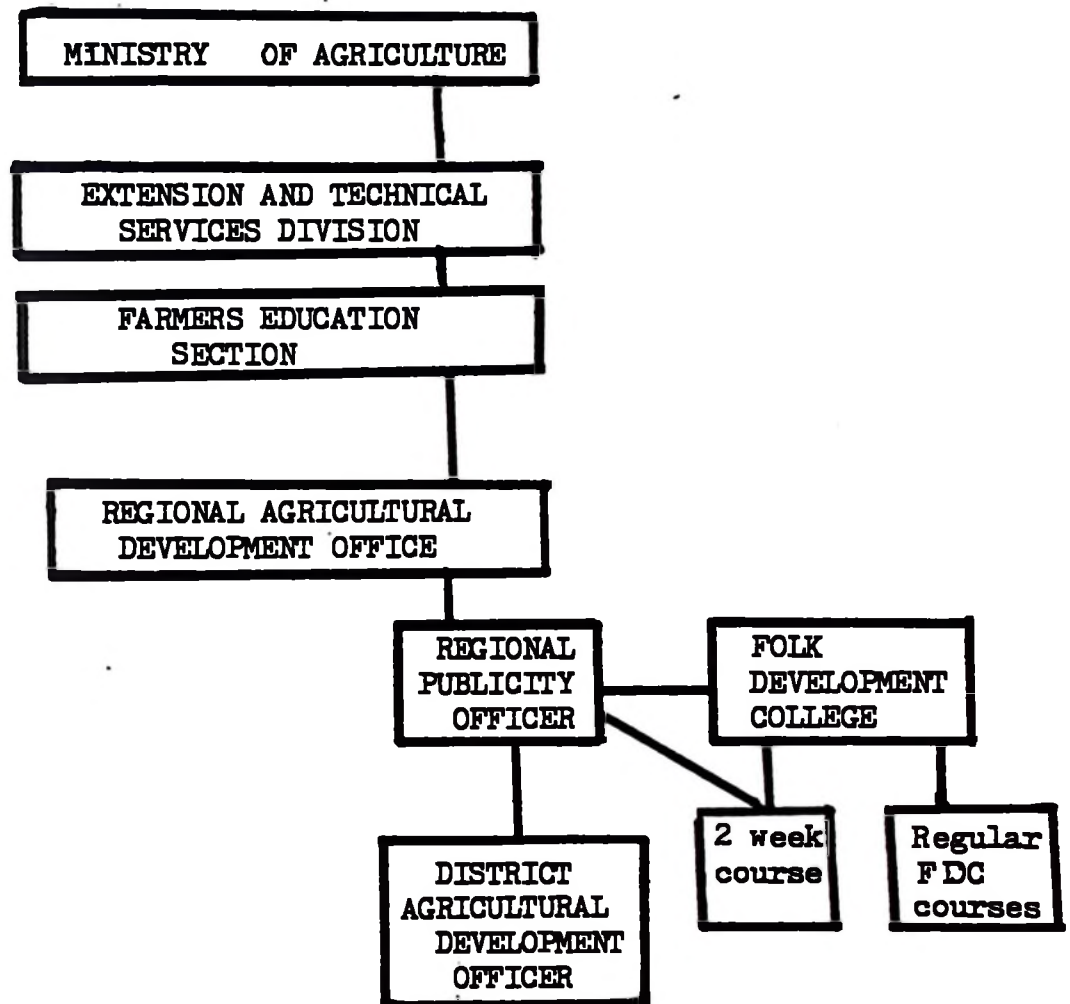


Figure 4.6: Organizational Linkages for the "Two Week" Courses

Regional authorities will arrange for the transportation of trainees to and from courses.<sup>44</sup> Resource persons are generally drawn from local institutions such as the District and Regional Agricultural Development Offices, Ministry of Agriculture Training Institutes, and Crop Parastatals.<sup>45</sup>

#### **4.4 FARMER TRAINING AND PRODUCTION PROJECT**

##### **4.4.1 Background Information**

The Farmer Training and Production Project (FTPP) is funded jointly by USAID<sup>46</sup> (\$25 million) and the Government of Tanzania (T.Shs 1.3 million). The project is being implemented since 1980, at selected Ministry of Agriculture Training Institutes<sup>47</sup> through Farmer Training Wings established as part of the program. FTPP is perceived as an approach to improving the overall social and economic well being of Tanzanian small farmers. A basic assumption is made that information on small farmer constraints and practices is lacking and needs to be collected. MATI students and tutors assist in this

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<sup>44</sup> Interview with the Mtwara Region Course Coordination, September 1982.

<sup>45</sup> Interview with Nd. Muro, FES, April 8th 1982.

<sup>46</sup> Contract with West Virginia University and North Carolina A&T State University signed in August 1979.

<sup>47</sup> Until the establishment of the FTPP, the Ministry of Agriculture Institutes were only involved in pre-service training at certificate and diploma levels.

regard. FTPP staff at the Farmer Training Wings (FTW) through a process of action research continuously test and refine technological packages, training techniques and extension approaches. The close association of the regular MATI staff and pre-service certificate and diploma students in FTPP activities is expected to ultimately have an impact upon the quality and relevance of training received by such students, in addition to being of direct assistance to farmers in project villages. The FTWs are perceived as a conduit and a legitimizer between the village and the MATI.<sup>48</sup> It is anticipated that the establishment of an FTW will improve the linkages between villagers and their service and resource institutions.

#### **4.4.2 Aims and Objectives**

**Project Goal:** To improve the social and economic well-being of small farmers in Tanzanian villages.

**Project Purpose:** To increase food production through the mechanism of developing a mutual understanding between farmers and extension agents in such a systematic way that it will lead to better comprehension and appreciation of farmers' production problems and his social/economic attitudes. It is anticipated that this will then result in the preparation and adoption of improved agriculture  
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<sup>48</sup> Lloyd Pickett, "Overview of the Farmer Training and Production Project." Paper presented at the National Council for Agriculture Education, Tengeru, February 24-26th 1982.

practices and farm technologies to the direct benefit of the farmer.

**Objectives:**<sup>49</sup>

1. Develop methodologies for gathering information on small farmer production practices, onstraints and decision making processes.
2. Utilize the knowledge gained to develop small farmer training programs at participating MATIs. The program will be designed to facilitate greater understanding and communication between the farmers and extension workers.
3. Test small farmer acceptance of new technological packages and the efficacy of various extension and training approaches in transferring agricultural knowledge to small farmers and villagers.
4. Conduct follow-up evaluations of the farmer training programs to determine if they are having the desired results, if not, why not. Evaluations will also be used to refine and improve course content and teaching techniques for the MATIs as well as their FTWs.
5. Upgrade the capabilities of agricultural extension personnel through in-service training courses.

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<sup>49</sup> Ibid.

6. Assist MATI staff and students to provide technical assistance to those villagers whose farmer members attend courses at the FTWs.
7. Identify solutions to production constraints that can be incorporated into national, regional and district development plans.

#### 4.4.3 Area of Operation

The four initial project sites were Nyegezi (Northwest), Mlingano (Northeast), Uyole (Southwest) and Naliendele (Southeast) (refer to 4.4). Following the April 1982 evaluation, USAID dropped support of the Nyegezi wing.<sup>50</sup> However, the Government of Tanzania (GOT) decided to retain the Wing and provided some funding. In addition, during the project period the program was expanded to MATI Ilonga and MATI Ukiriguru with GOT financial support. It is anticipated that all ten MATIs will ultimately have an FTW, by itself a strong indication that the GOT has recognized the value of the FTTP approach to establishing FTWs at MATIs (see Figure 4.7).

#### 4.4.4 Organizational Linkages

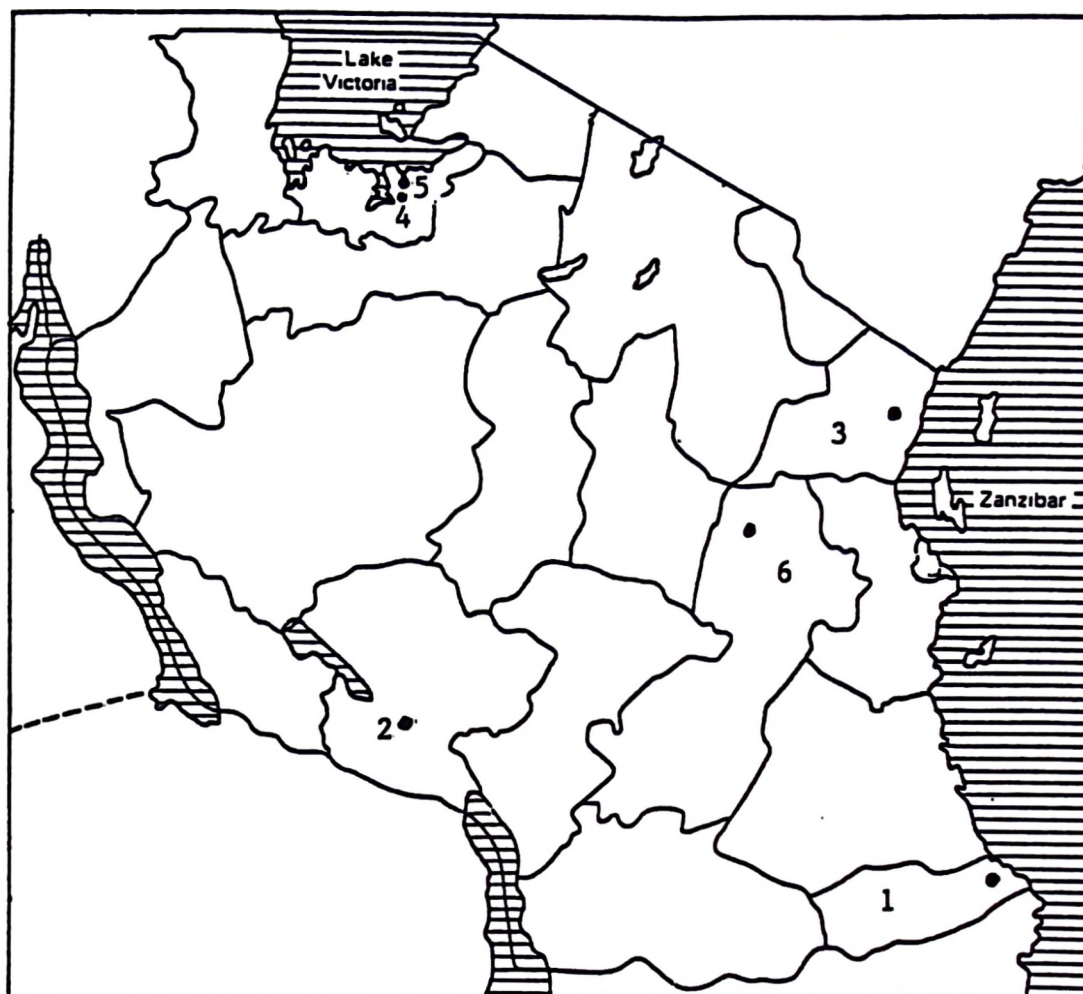
The FTTP project is being implemented by the MATIs of the Manpower Development Division of the Ministry of Agriculture. (MATIs have until the establishment of FTTP

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<sup>50</sup> Because MATI Nyegezi did not train extension workers upon whom an FTW could impact upon.



# NETWORK OF FTFP TRAINING INSTITUTIONS



## Key:

- 1 : Farmer training wing, MATI Mtwara, Naliendele, Mtwara region
- 2 : Farmer training wing, Uyole agricultural center, Mbeya region
- 3 : Farmer training wing, MATI Mlingano, Tanga region
- 4 : Farmer training wing, MATI Nyegezi, Mwanza region
- 5 : Farmer training wing, MATI Ukiriguru, Mwanza region
- 6 : Farmer training wing, MATI Ilonga, Morogoro region

Figure 4.7: Distribution of Farmer Training Wings Associated with MATIs



been engaged only in the training of future extension and technical agricultural officers). A special created division within a MATI called the Farmer Training Wing (FTW) has been set up at participating Institutes. Two advisory bodies provide guidance to FTW staff:

1. The National Coordinating Committee consisting of senior representatives from the Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Livestock Development, Faculty of Agriculture, Forestry and Veterinary Sciences, Tanzania Agriculture Research Organization, etc.
2. The FTWP Advisory Committee which is a local advisory board consisting of representatives of the particular MATI, Zonal Research Station, District and Regional Agricultural Offices, key village leaders from three to four project villages and other local officials.

The FTW has direct linkages with the District and Regional offices, particularly those dealing with agriculture, and the Zonal Research Organizations. The FTW has direct links with three to four villages (refer to Figure 4.8).

#### **4.4.5 Activities**

The original four FTWs were each staffed by an expatriate Rural Development specialist and at least two

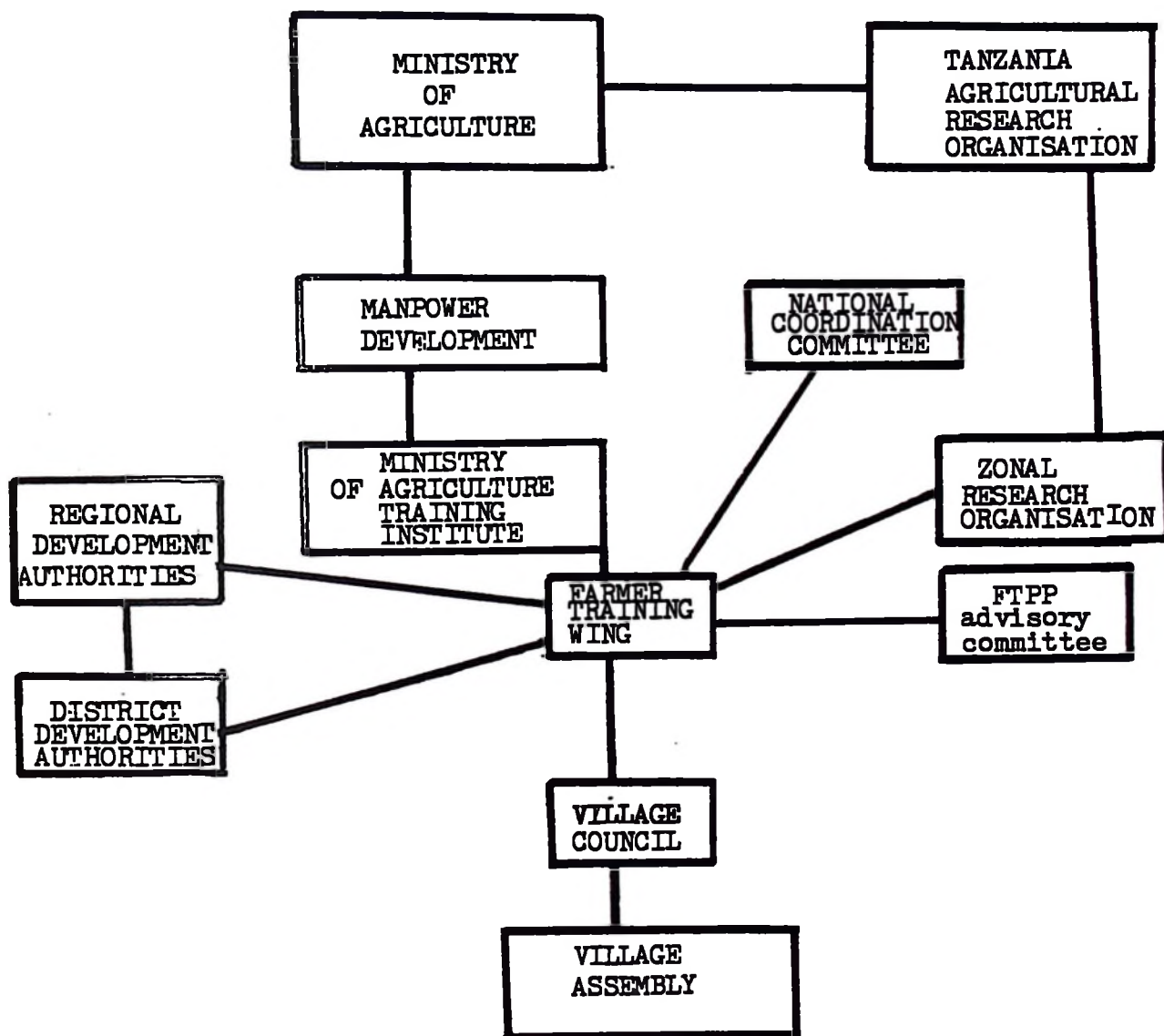


Figure 4.8: Organizational Linkages for the Farmer Training and Production Project

Tanzanian agricultural officers.<sup>51</sup> While the major involvement of these staff members was in connection with FTW activities, they also assisted in the teaching of the Diploma/Certificate level students (i.e., future extension workers) at the MATI. On the other hand, regular MATI tutors assisted in FTW activities, either in its farmer training, research or village outreach activities. This practice enhanced the linkages between the pre-service training activities of the MATI and the field oriented, action-research emphasis of the FTW.

THE FTFP project has attempted to prove the need for concentration of effort in its training and outreach activities, by restricting each MATI involvement to only four villages at a time (usually for three to four years). Each FTW was provided with a landrover, three to six motorcycles, bicycles (for use by students involved in FTW activities) and, recently, a mini-bus.

Baseline-type surveys in each of the project villages were conducted by MATI students, tutors, and FTW staff. These data, once analyzed was to become the basis for programming. However, it was discovered that such surveys were too general and that problem-specific surveys were necessary. Experiences gained have been documented in a manual entitled 'Training Agriculture Students in Data  
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<sup>51</sup> USAID provides six long term fellowships at U.S. universities to selected individuals who have returned and have already taken over FTW leadership from U.S. advisors.

### **Collection and Analysis.<sup>1</sup>**

Each of wings has been given considerable flexibility in identifying program needs and have each pursued unique strategies and techniques: the FTW in Mlingano has pioneered the use of "paraprofessionals" and has developed and tested three in-service training programs for field extension workers. The FTW in Mtwara has been very successful in conducting a range of short-courses for farmers and has concentrated on Village Planning and Management. The Uyole FTW began with an emphasis on inputs supply (oxen equipment and parts) rather than training. The wings have all utilized the local research scientists in Zonal Research Stations in conducting demonstration and verification trials in the villages. However, the technological packages tested reflect the special needs of the particular agro-climatic regions in which project villages are located.

With each FTW using a locally determined program thrust, the FTWs have developed and tested various approaches and acquired unique insights. The FTWP considers the documentation of these action-derived experiences as an important objective. Each wing is expected to document their experiences in quarterly reports, position papers and in the form of teaching packages<sup>52</sup> which are presented at quarterly meetings which

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<sup>52</sup> Some 40 manuals and teaching packages have been prepared after actual field testings of concepts being

are a standard feature of FTTP staff development programs.

The Ministry of Agriculture has doubled its level of support from T.Shs. 300,000/- in 1982-83 to T.Shs. 600,000/- in 1983-84. The number of FTWs has been increased from 4 to 6 and is expected to be expanded to all ten MATIs.<sup>53</sup> As of February 1984 there were 30 Tanzanians and one American staffing the project.<sup>54</sup> The Ministry of Livestock Development has also decided to borrow the FTTP concepts by establishing FTWs in all its Livestock Training Institutes.<sup>55</sup>

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recommended.

<sup>53</sup> David G. Acker, "Tanzania Farmer Training and Production Project." Annual Progress Report, October 1982 to September 1983.

<sup>54</sup> Personal correspondence from David Acker, February 22, 1984.

<sup>55</sup> The Ministry of Livestock Development has also decided to establish training wings at its Livestock Training Institutes (LTIs). So far there are 5 LTIs. (The Livestock Policy of Tanzania, MLD, June 1983).

## Chapter V

### THEMATIC ANALYSIS

#### 5.1 **THEME I: NEEDS ASSESSMENT AND OTHER TRAINING RELATED RESEARCH**

##### 5.1.1 **An Historical Perspective**

Training programs within the context of Tanzanian agriculture and rural development have, in the past, given negligible emphasis on the use of systematic needs assessment or other training-related research activities. Needs assessment research did not receive formal emphasis and training content and techniques were determined without the participation of the clientele concerned. Training topics were generally based on the Ministry's suggested guidelines, on the advice of Technical subcommittees<sup>1</sup> and on the availability of informational material (usually Western textbooks and the tutors' own notes made during their pre-service training). However, during the late 1960s and early 1970s, at the peak of the farmer training-centre movement in Tanzania, considerable

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<sup>1</sup> These committees consisted of district and regional officers and the training centre's principal.

emphasis on the importance of evaluation research was given by the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Cooperatives.<sup>2</sup> This researcher's analysis of past reports of the former Farmer Training Centre at Msinga, Kilimanjaro region, indicates that serious attempts were made to implement Ministry guidelines on evaluation.

More recently, the three major training networks (FTPP, FDC, TRDP) have all professed the need for an increasing role of data in programming. Their achievements however tend to vary considerably, as will be discussed later. However, this reorientation is tangible evidence that the policymakers, planners, and training designers have begun to recognize the importance of such research.

#### **5.1.2 Theoretical Perspective on Training Related Needs**

According to Beatty (1976) an educational need is a discrepancy or gap between a person's present level and the preferred or required level of capabilities for effective performance as defined by the person, the organization or society.<sup>3</sup> Beatty suggests that there are

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<sup>2</sup> Record of the minutes of the technical sub-committee meeting held on December 3, 1968, Msinga FTC, Kilimanjaro.

<sup>3</sup> Paulette Beatty, A Process Model for the Development of an Information Case for Community Needs Assessment: A Guide for Practitioners. Paper presented at the 17th Annual Adult Education Research Conference, April 7-9, 1976 cited by Rosemary S. Caffarella, Identifying client needs, Journal of Extension (July-August 1982), pp. 5-11.

two kinds of needs: prescriptive and motivational. A prescriptive need is organizational and is viewed as a condition or deficiency relative to a socially accepted standard norm or end state. A motivational need is a deficiency related to a specific, individually defined, desired goal or end state.<sup>4</sup>

Sork (1983) elaborates on these two types of needs. Motivational needs are identified by the owner, whereas prescriptive needs are identified by someone other than the owner. This distinction is considered necessary because of the implications it has for selecting needs assessment methods.<sup>5</sup> It is quite obvious that these distinctions are particularly relevant to a discussion of needs within a training context.

James H. Morrison deals more directly with a definition of training needs when he states that it may be described as existing any time an actual condition differs from a desired condition in the human, or 'people' aspect of organization performance or, more specifically, when a change in present human knowledge, skills or attitudes can bring about the desired performance. He differentiates a training need from a developmental need which he says deals with total growth and effectiveness of the

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<sup>4</sup> Ibid.

<sup>5</sup> Thomas J. Sork, Needs Assessment in Adult Education: A Critical Analysis of the Literature through 1981, Proceeding, of the Twenty-Fourth Annual Adult Education Research Conference, (April 8-10, 1983), Montreal.



individual, particularly as the person expands realized abilities toward the potential that he or she seems capable of achieving.<sup>6</sup> It is quite clear that Morrison's definition and interpretation are more relevant to organizational settings. His attempt to differentiate between training and developmental need may not be valid within the context that training institutions operate in within rural settings of the developing world. At least two of the three programs studied in Tanzania aim at holistic development at both the individual and village levels and subsume the developmental aspect within their own definitions of training.

#### **5.1.3 General Village Needs Assessment (GVNA) or Training Needs Assessment (TNA)**

Recent attempts to identify needs by such projects as the TRDP and FTFP has been biased towards determining general needs at the village level. Professional biases of trainers and other educators often lead them to assume that general village needs are training needs or, at the minimum, always have training implications.

Though entitled "Village problems and training needs as perceived by villagers and their leaders," the report<sup>7</sup> of

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<sup>6</sup> James H. Morrison, "Determining Training Needs," p. 9-1.

<sup>7</sup> John Moland Jr., "Village Problems and Training Needs as Perceived by Villagers and their Leaders," Training for Rural Development Project, June 1981, (Unpublished report).

a survey conducted for TRDP in Tanzania by John Moland, devoted only 10% of its report to discussing training needs as perceived by villagers and their leaders, Much of the rest of the report deals with village problems as perceived by village leaders and non-leaders (overall and on a village by village basis). Table 5.1 is typical of the kind and nature of results of that survey. Anyone familiar with rural development settings in Tanzania would not be surprised at the results. While such a study will definitely be of use in making available village-specific data on the perception of problems by villagers and their leaders,<sup>8</sup> the fact that the results indicate a preoccupation with concern about lack of infrastructure (lack of water, health facilities, transport, farm equipment, shop essentials and housing), they provide little or no new precise information (to trainers who are already familiar with the local environment) on training needs.

However, as shown in Table 5.2, the results on a village by village basis indicate significant differences in the rank order given to problems by villagers and by their leaders. Other questions unearthed differences between female and male respondents, particularly with respect to topic needs (refer to the section:

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<sup>8</sup> A valid and justified goal by itself, given TRDP's focus on improving leadership and management of projects at the village level.

TABLE 5.1

The Five Most Frequently Occurring Problem Response Areas by Non-leaders and Leaders According to Rank Order

Problem Categories	Percent of All Problem Responses of		Rank Order For Problem Responses	
	Non-leaders <sup>a</sup>	Leaders <sup>b</sup>	Non-leaders	Leaders
Lack of water	24	21	1 1/2	2
Lack of health facilities	24	23	1 1/2	1
Lack of transportation	16	16	3	3 1/2
Lack of farm equipment	12	16	4	3 1/2
Lack of shop essentials	9	(6)*	5	(6)
Lack of modern housing	(6)*	8	(6)	5

<sup>a</sup>Total Problem Responses: 454.

<sup>b</sup>Total Problem Responses: 180.

\*The problem category not appearing in the top five for a given group

Source: John Moland Jr., "Village Problems and Training Needs as Perceived by Villagers and their Leaders," TRDP, June 1981, p. 22.

Instructional Content, Methods and Materials). Such findings do have implications for village-level programming and for sample selection in future training-needs assessment and training-evaluation research. Findings such as those presented in Tables 5.1 and 5.2 may also provide a basis for trainers to infer or deduce skills and knowledge necessary (e.g. for digging wells, providing preventive health care, etc.) and thereby indirectly determine training content.

TABLE 5.2

The Five Most Frequently Mentioned Problem Categories by Villagers and Leaders in Each Village

INYALA				
Problem Category	Villagers		Leaders	
	%	R	%	R
Lack of shop essentials	31	1	21	2
Lack of transportation	19	2	1	4
Lack of modern housing	14	3	57	1
Lack of credit sources	12	4	0	6
Lack of farm equipment	5	5 1/2	0	6
Lack of training program	5	5 1/2	0	6
Lack of farm inputs	2	(7)	14	3

rho .47

SAWALA				
Problem Category	Villagers		Leaders	
	%	R	%	R
Lack of health facilities	28	1 1/2	33	1
Lack of transportation	28	1 1/2	17	2 1/2
Lack of water	18	3	17	2 1/2
Lack of farm equipment	12	4	14	4
Lack of essentials	8	5	3	5 1/2
Lack of community center	0	(6)	3	5 1/2

rho .94

LUKARASA				
Problem Category	Villagers		Leaders	
	%	R	%	R
Lack of health facilities	36	1	34	1
Lack of transportation	17	2	15	3
Lack of water	9	4	15	3
Lack of farm inputs	9	4	0	(7)
Lack of training	9	4	2	(8)
Lack of housing	7	(6 1/2)	5	5 1/2
Lack of community center	0	(8)	7	4
Lack of farm equipment	7	(6 1/2)	29	2

rho .10

(continued)

TABLE 5.2

Frequently Mentioned Problem Categories (Continued)

MAKOGE					
Problem Category	Villagers		Leaders		
	%	R	%	R	
Lack of water	45	1 1/2	31	2	
Lack of health facilities	45	1 1/2	33	1	
Lack of essentials	4	3	5	4 1/2	
Lack of transportation	2	4 1/2	18	3	
Lack of training	2	4 1/2	0	(6)	
Lack of farm equipment	0	(6)	5	4 1/2	

$\rho = .73$

MGAZINI					
Problem Category	Villagers		Leaders		
	%	R	%	R	
Lack of transportation	31	1	23	2	
Lack of water	29	2	27	1	
Lack of health facilities	17	3	9	4	
Lack of farm inputs	13	4	0	(8)	
Crop destructive vermin	4	5	4	(7)	
Lack of farm equipment	2	(6 1/2)	20	3	
Lack of modern housing	2	(6 1/2)	7	5 1/2	
Lack of shop essentials	0	(8)	7	5 1/2	

$\rho = .49$

% of all problems mentioned in Village and by leaders  
R Rank order of problems mentioned

Source: John Moland Jr., "Village Problems and Training Needs as Perceived by Villagers and their Leaders," TRDP, June 1981, p. 29.

The formal survey conducted by the TRDP unearthed five major problem areas including lack of water and lack of health facilities, which ranked first and second place. Moland suggests that this indicates that "problems linked with basic needs take precedence over problems associated with secondary and tertiary needs."<sup>9</sup> The FTFP experience is similar:

"More often than not, training needs are not considered to be a high priority among people with a fair number of pressing survival needs."<sup>10</sup>

According to TRDP staff, it is during the Village Intervention (rather than during the formal GVNA survey) that trainers are able to directly identify training needs. Flip-charts are used during a 'brain-storming' session, to record all village needs. Through the process of group discussion and analysis, the needs are prioritized by villagers themselves. On-site training is then tailored to meet the needs perceived as important.<sup>11</sup>

By highlighting the need for meeting basic security and safety needs, the importance of strong village leadership and management skills becomes obvious. Strong implications for the design of training content can thus  
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<sup>9</sup> John Moland Jr., "Village Problems and Training Needs as Perceived by Villagers and their Leaders," p. 17.

<sup>10</sup> David Acker, "Tanzania Farmer Training and Production Project," Annual Progress Report, October 1982-September 1983, p. 17.

<sup>11</sup> Interview with Nd. Okeyu, Principal, TRDC, Ruaha, on 18th June 1982.

be derived. Often, however, a GVNA may highlight the fact that the major problem or area of concern may have nothing to do with training and that other approaches (such as inputs supply) may be warranted.

James Morrison<sup>12</sup> states that:

"Educational, training and developmental programs should be a response to a need, not merely a reaction to a problem. When a problem has been identified, the next step is to develop alternative solutions. Sometimes, the most feasible answers are better materials, methods, and machines or more money, rather than a training program."

The reorientation that the FFTP (Uyole Wing) brought about to its activities after analyzing GVNA data it collected from its five villages serves as an example of the flexibility that training institutions should have to respond to the needs of their clientele, even if the needs are not training per se: the Wing's survey report<sup>13</sup> indicated that inputs, including ox drawn implements<sup>14</sup> was a major need. Accordingly, the FTW temporarily reoriented its strategy and changed its original priority for training. Instead, it established a revolving fund for the supply of oxen drawn equipment. By meeting what they perceived as more important need, farmers were convinced

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<sup>12</sup> James H. Morrison, "Determining Training Needs," p. 9-1.

<sup>13</sup> Village Survey Report, Farmer Training Wing, Uyole Agriculture Centre, Mbeya, Report dated 28 June 1981.

<sup>14</sup> Readers are reminded that this region has had a long history of intervention efforts aimed at promoting oxen drawn equipment.

that the training wing had a genuine interest and commitment to their development.<sup>15</sup> Within a year focus was once again shifted to training, with an emphasis on animal production, David Acker suggests that people who place training lower on the list of needs than several other needs can sometimes be convinced that training can benefit them, but suggests:

"... in persuading such a target audience to engage in training it is essential that the trainer take into account their perception of their highest priority needs. If the trainer (or extensionist) can adequately deal with their highest priority needs (through one of a variety of intervention strategies) then the target audience may allow training to rise in importance in their felt hierarchy of needs."<sup>16</sup>

The FTFPP proposal is quite explicit about the importance of data collection in programming when it states:

"It must be emphasized that a key element of this project is the collection of rural village social and economic data which, after it is analyzed, will be used for making decisions on future project courses of action."<sup>17</sup>

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<sup>15</sup> Village level interviews with farmers in Uyole and Itezi Villages, Mbeya region, 22 May 1982. One of the villages in which the Wing operates suffers from land shortage which has resulted in an increased interest for diversifying into improved livestock production.

<sup>16</sup> David Acker, "Tanzania Farmer Training and Production Project," Annual Progress Report, October 1982-September 1983, p. 17.

<sup>17</sup> Farmer Training and Production, Project Proposal, p. 45.



Standardized instruments were developed in 1980 and finalized by a committee of project staff and advisory committee members.<sup>18</sup> Data were collected during the first half of 1981 by MATI students and project trainers. At the Mtwara MATI FTPP wing (as in the three other wings) the following surveys were conducted: Household survey, Village leaders' survey, Extension Workers opinion survey, and MATI student survey.

In the case of the Mtwara wing, preliminary tabulation of some survey data had been undertaken prior to sending data to the headquarters for processing. This approach provided training staff with feedback within 6-9 months.<sup>19</sup>

The general nature (GVNA) of the household and village leaders surveys "set a foundation for understanding possible intervention strategies but did not directly generate actual program areas."<sup>20</sup> Such GVNA studies did not by themselves directly affect programming but they did have other positive effects:

"Surveying was most useful as a training tool for new wing staff and MATI students."<sup>21</sup>

and  
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<sup>18</sup> Village Leaders Survey Report, FTPP, Dar es Salaam, October 1982.

<sup>19</sup> The detailed village leaders survey report compiled by the FTPP headquarters in Dar es Salaam was available in October of 1982.

<sup>20</sup> Personal correspondence with David Acker, 10th November 1983.

<sup>21</sup> Ibid.

**"Survey instruments helped project staff to gain a basic understanding of the farm family, the village, the village extension worker and the MATI student..."<sup>22</sup>**

**Discussions with Mtwara Wing leaders and trainers suggested the need for formal or informal, problem-specific surveys (such as the Enterprise Survey on Oxenization administered by the Uyole FTFP as follow-up to their village survey). This was considered necessary since the household and village leaders' survey did not provide sufficient informational basis for generating and "fine tuning" intervention strategies.**

**Observations of the attempts made by various training institutions involved in data collection suggest that both GVNA and TNA (and other problem specific surveys) are necessary if overall programming is to be positively influenced. The two broad approaches are complementary to each other: GVNA provides the contextual basis for the design of problem-specific surveys, such as TNA. However, there appears to be a fixation on the use of survey methods, with a general neglect of other less structured research methods.**

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<sup>22</sup> **David G. Acker, "Tanzania Farmer Training and Production Project, Annual Progress Report," October 1982-September 1983.**

**5.1.4    The Need for Orchestrating National, Village and Individual Needs**

Within industrial settings a training institution or division has a major role in meeting the educational needs of either the individual or that of the organization and the individual concerned. Within the Tanzanian set up, given its rural development philosophy which emphasizes equity, self-reliance and a community rather than an individualistic approach, the training institution operates in a political and social environment quite different from that in industrial settings about which most of the training literature is written. In Tanzania a training institute has the formidable task of orchestrating and articulating needs at the individual, village, community and national levels. Conflicts arising from the attempts to meet objectives at these different levels have surfaced in the operations of many training institutions in Tanzania. For example, farmers in the Kilimanjaro region would prefer to learn about bean production because of the demand and high prices they fetch. However, trainers are not able to respond because they are fully aware that beans are being raised in plots prepared after illegally uprooting coffee trees: the country needs coffee for bolstering its foreign exchange reserves. A similar conflict arises when trainers in Mtwara region find themselves unable to conduct follow-up demonstrations at the individual farm level, because

government policy promotes the communal farm approach to disseminating improved agricultural approaches.

The TRDP approach is unique in that its training activities are tailored with an intent to meet needs at the individual, village and regional levels in keeping with project aims:

"The project will develop cadres of trained personnel at the village district and regional levels capable of working directly or in support of efficient rural development programs."<sup>23</sup>

Until six months ago approximately 250 officials at the district and regional levels had participated in training and related activities in support of village development efforts. Based on project accomplishments and projections (as of June 1983) it was expected that by the end of 1983, 100<sup>24</sup> 'trained' district and regional officials will be actively involved in villager-level training along with 60 retrained village technicians. The latter would continue to provide on-site assistance at the village level. A total of 1500 village leaders and non-leaders (in 75 villages) would have been trained. Finally, fifty Tanzanians enrolled in U.S. degree programs would be in various stages of completion of studies, prior to returning to regional and district level positions.<sup>25</sup> The  
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<sup>23</sup> United States Agency for International Development, "Project Authorization: Training for Rural Development II" (Washington, D.C., 1981) p. 1.

<sup>24</sup> As of February 1982, there were 34 trainers.

<sup>25</sup> Projections of numbers of trained individuals are based

rationale for this hierarchy of training exposures can be found in the following quotation:

"The methodology underlying this project assumes that both horizontal and vertical integration are needed to achieve a viable program. This means tying together related activities on the same level, as in a particular village, and linking vertically activities at the village level with support services coming from above the village, such as ward, district and regional levels."<sup>26</sup>

By providing training and consultation at various levels, TRDP is in effect attempting to meet needs at various levels, thus recognizing the interrelatedness of problems and solutions.

The FDC at Msinga and elsewhere, by emphasizing training on political education, leadership development, cultural education, Ujamaa (familyhood) and technical areas (such as carpentry, masonry, agriculture or home economics) aims at developing skills, attitudes and qualities at the individual level, which are expected to contribute to village and ultimately, national development. The Principal's Guide stipulates that:

"The prime objective is that of enabling the people to gain skills in various fields so that they can overcome major impediments to their life. Thus the courses offered should be in line with the district demands and both the FDC and the District should work together in identifying the the district needs."<sup>27</sup>

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on William Le Clere, "Tanzanian Rural Development: A Case Study," June 1983, pp. 10-11.

<sup>26</sup> "Tanzania Training for Rural Development II Project Paper," Annex B, p. 20.

However, the FDC evaluation study<sup>28</sup> conducted by the Ministry of National Education indicated that 36% of FDC Department heads (N=34) felt that the training provided at the FDC's<sup>29</sup> was not in line with village plans. Only 16% indicated that training conformed with the situation in the village. 24% did not respond and the remaining 25% gave a range of other responses.<sup>30</sup>

The FPHP in Mtwara initiated its activity by providing a narrow emphasis limited to technical agriculture. Within the first year of its operation, its orientation was shifted to a primary emphasis on village planning and management (thereby focusing on village and national priorities) and a secondary though strong emphasis on technical agricultural topics like cassava production, rabbit rearing and grain storage. Communal farms rather than individual farms became the focus of its demonstration activity. FPHP Mtwara has already produced

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<sup>27</sup> "Principals Guide," Folk Development Colleges, Ministry of National Education (Dar es Salaam, 1980) p. 26.

<sup>28</sup> H.J. Mosha, (editor), "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," Ministry of National Education, Government of Tanzania, (Dar es Salaam, 1982) p. 86.

<sup>29</sup> 12 FDCs were randomly selected out of the population of 52 FDCs.

<sup>30</sup> An explanation for this could be the tendency for trainers to stick to suggested syllabi guidelines and provide theoretical rather than an applied orientation to subject matter. More on this aspect will be provided under the section on "Instructional content, methods and materials."

observable and/or measurable impact at the village government level and individual levels in at least two of its first four villages, as will be discussed elsewhere.

#### **5.1.5 Participation of the Clientele in Needs Assessment**

In the following statement Julius K. Nyerere, the President of Tanzania, emphasizes the need for recognizing that local people can contribute to needs assessment and other aspects of program planning.

"The people must participate not just in the physical labour involved in economic development, but also in the planning of it and the determination of priorities. At present the best intentioned governments - my own included - too easily move from a conviction of the need for rural development into acting as if people had no ideas of their own. This is quite wrong. At every stage of development people do know their basic needs."<sup>31</sup>

Mr. Nyerere could just as well be arguing for participation within a training needs context. Trainers, policy makers and program designers in the three programs studied have, in spite of the best intentions, not included their clientele in various stages of design. In spite of a policy which promotes decentralization, decision making continues to be the prerogative of officials rather than that of the clientele. Training institutions in Tanzania perpetuate a top-down model in spite of policy directives suggesting the opposite. In a -----

<sup>31</sup> Julius K. Nyerere, "On Rural Development," Address to the FAO World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development, July 1979.

study conducted in three countries including Tanzania, Sahir Sudad states that

"The lack of any organised procedure for farmer participation in decision making on training activities is very critical. No farmer representative sits on the training school boards<sup>32</sup> nor is there any farmer on committees formed to discuss training problems and needs..."<sup>33</sup>

The FPHP, TRDP and FDC networks have not involved villagers in the various aspects of data collection and processing.

#### **5.1.6 Difficulties in Eliciting Clientele Participation**

Discussions with trainers indicate that villagers have had difficulties responding to direct attempts to identify training needs. As expected, opinions about training topics were not as difficult to retrieve as were opinions about process and method aspects. Having not had any past experience in "participating" in this manner, hesitancy and non-reponses were common reactions. Traditionally the emphasis at the FTC's and RTC's of the sixties and seventies has been on cash crop production. Innovative techniques based on the use of purchasable inputs were emphasized. Given their expectation (based on past experience) that training content is usually exogenous in

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<sup>32</sup> The FPHP advisory committee has a representation of village leadership.

<sup>33</sup> Sahir H. Sudad, Major Constraints in Farmer Training at Field Level: Case Studies from Jordan, Malaysia and Tanzania, FAO, 1980.



origin, farmers may consider it prudent to refrain from expressing opinions on such matters.

Another factor, especially in technical agriculture training, could be the assumption made by trainers that farmers are not aware of alternatives to current practice and are in no position to contribute to a TNA process. While there is certain validity to such arguments, it may be possible to circumvent the unilateral nature of decision-making by presenting trainees with a range of technological options from which, through a process of deliberation, they then could select that option most appropriate to their own conditions. The Bwakiri Chini project in the Morogoro region and the FTFP Grain Storage course illustrated the effectiveness of similar participatory approaches in grain storage improvement.<sup>34</sup>

#### **5.1.7 Inhibiting Nature of Sophisticated Needs Assessment Tools**

Over sophisticated TNA techniques invest control in the outsider-interventionist. With every attempt to increase sophistication and rigor, client control over and participation in the TNA process is reduced. Beyond a particular point, even trainers have no opportunity to get that first hand feel for data which comes from being

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<sup>34</sup> **Appropriate Technology for Grain Storage**, Report of a Pilot Project, Community Development Trust Fund in collaboration with Institute of Adult Education, Tanzania, 1977.

engaged in processing of data. The TRDP had most of its data processed in the U.S.A., depriving local trainers of the opportunity to participate beyond the data collection stage. Recently, TRDP installed three microcomputers at Ruaha which will provide in-country facilities for data processing. However, the nature of the hardware will continue to restrict direct access to data to few specialized data analysts. However, it is expected that such an approach will permit trainers to concentrate on their major responsibility: training, while improving their access to village data. The FTFP and FDC networks used relatively less sophisticated and less ambitious data collection and analysis approaches and techniques, thereby enhancing the involvement of local training staff.

#### **5.1.8 Joint Participation of Trainers and Trainees in Topic-Needs Assessment**

Data collected in the village level survey (VLS), as part of this research effort, indicated that villagers prefer joint decision making on training topic needs along with the trainer. Table 5.3 provides further information. Overall, in the three regions studied (N=423), 57.6% of those surveyed preferred that selection of topic needs be jointly undertaken by trainers and trainees. 30.7% felt that trainers should take sole responsibility. Only 11.56% felt that trainees should take sole responsibility for topic selection. Surprisingly, the overall percentage

of trained villagers (men, women and leaders) who believe that trainers and trainees should jointly decide topic needs (i.e. 27.8%) is almost identical to the percentage of untrained villagers who feel that way (i.e. 29.7%). It was expected that the latter, having not had any past exposure to training would have preferred to transfer topic selection responsibilities to the trainer.

TABLE 5.3  
Decision-making about Topic Needs

	Trainer Should Decide		Trainer and Trainees Should Jointly Decide		Trainees Should Decide	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Trained Men	26	6.14	44	10.4	5	1.18
Trained Women	23	5.43	44	10.4	6	1.41
Trained Leaders	15	3.54	30	7.09	5	1.18
Untrained Men	28	6.61	34	8.03	13	3.07
Untrained Women	20	4.7	44	10.4	11	2.6
Untrained Leaders	18	4.25	48	11.34	9	2.12
N=423	130	30.67	244	57.66	49	11.56

One reason why joint participation is necessary is that villagers, when asked to respond to questions attempting to identify their needs, tend to respond with a strong orientation towards commodity or technical issues.<sup>35</sup> This

<sup>35</sup> This was quite clear in the responses to questions in which villagers were asked to suggest three topics on which they would like to be provided training.

research effort and also that of John Moland indicated a strong preoccupation (across categories) for such issues. Rarely does one come across an expressed training need in issues concerning personal growth, conceptual skills, leadership development, community organization and decision making or what can be classified as "higher needs." Possibly this absence can be explained by Abraham Maslow's work on need hierarchy and motivation.<sup>36</sup> John Moland in his study for TRDP discusses the relevance of Maslow's work in an attempt to understand this preoccupation with "lower needs."

"... the basic human need for survival and security are considered to be the most important and pressing motivating factors for members of the village. It is only when these primary needs are satisfied (by resolving the problem producing condition) that members of the village will turn their attention and effort to higher level needs and their attending problems."<sup>37</sup>

However, higher level needs may often have to be met concurrently with the basic or primary needs even if they former are not expressed directly. This is where an "external" agency has a particularly important role: the FTFP has an advisory committee at the training wing level and a National Coordination Committee. The TRDP has a core group of trainees at Ruaha, as well as its own Inter-

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<sup>36</sup> Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper and Row, 1970.

<sup>37</sup> John Moland Jr., "Village Problems and Training Needs as Perceived by Villagers and their Leaders," Training for rural development project, June 1981.

Ministerial Coordinating Committee. The FDC has a College Advisory Board consisting of District officials and key political leaders.

#### **5.1.9    Need for a Continuous Needs Assessment Cycle**

Ibrahim Mamat (1982) in his study of four training institutions in Sri Lanka, the Philippines and Malaysia found that needs are generally assessed on a one-time basis, usually at the beginning of the training curriculum design process: "The learning needs assessment process stops as soon as a residential program begins."<sup>38</sup>

The one-time emphasis may have been guided by an erroneous assumption that training needs are unchanging. Historically, the typical trainee rarely gets a second opportunity to attend (given the large population served, the wide geographic area and limited available positions), and training institutions may have continued to operate unchallenged.

TRD in its use of a multiple-intervention strategy (consisting of the following sequence: village intervention, residential training, follow-up and technical training) has emphasized the need for continuous needs assessment, usually conducted on an on-site basis.

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<sup>38</sup> Ibrahim Mamat, "Pattern and Process in Residential Training for Peasants in Agricultural and Rural Development: A Comparative Analysis of Four Case Studies." Cornell University, Ithaca, (1982). Unpublished thesis.

More often than not, these assessments tend to be informal and less structured than in formal surveys. Interviews with key trainers at Ruaha have indicated that it is at this level rather than at the formal GVNA, that trainers have obtained insights into villager training needs. The village level training such as conducted during the 'village intervention' or 'follow up phase' tended to be based on needs identified on-site, informally and on a group basis. Thus, a continuous cycle of needs assessment is envisioned.

Moore and Dutton (1978) in their review and critique of training needs analysis stress that

"...the main drawback of training needs analysis is that it is not typically conducted in a continuing on-going manner, coordinated and integrated with all other functions of the organization as a system."<sup>39</sup>

The FTPP has strived to "prove the need for concentration of effort."<sup>40</sup> By restricting its activities to four villages at a time, the training and outreach that was provided was of an intensive type. As a result of their frequent visits to the villages as part of a follow-up plan, trainers were able to acquire a thorough understanding of the resources, problems and potential in  
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<sup>39</sup> Michael L. Moore and Philip Dutton, "Training Needs Analysis: Review and Critique." Academy of Management Review, Vol. 3, No. 3, July 1978, pp. 543.

<sup>40</sup> Lloyd Pickett, "Overview of the Farmer Training and Production Project." A paper for presentation at the National Council for Agriculture Education, February 24-26, 1982, p. 3.

the four villages. In effect, without being directly engaged in formal TNA activities, trainers were continuously assessing training and other needs on an informal basis. As a result, various major changes in strategy were made such as the shift from the initial strong emphasis on technical agriculture to village planning and management courses.

#### **5.1.10 Feedback and Accountability**

##### **5.1.10.1 Feedback to Village Audiences**

Louise Fortmann, in the following comments about Botswana, could just as well be writing about Tanzanian villages which, during the sixties and seventies, had more than their share of researchers:

"Any day now Botswana is going to run out of respondents. Sitting around the fire at night, villagers can regale the new researcher with tales of the previous researcher. They tell wondrous tales of all sorts, omitting only the researchers findings which never seem to find their way back to the villages."<sup>41</sup>

In none of the three programs where research activities were conducted, was any attempt made to present results of the surveys to the village assembly. The TRD and FTPP did utilize findings during their village planning courses, on certain occasions, thereby providing limited feedback on results.

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<sup>41</sup> Louise Fortmann, "Taking the Data Back to the Village," Rural Development Participation Review, Vol. III, No. 2, 1982.

A content analysis of village survey instruments used by TRDP and FTFP indicates that the kind of baseline data they retrieved has greater relevance for planning and evaluation efforts of the respective villages, than for the training institutions themselves, and would warrant feedback for that reason if not any other.

Other than seeking cooperation through responding to the long list of questions, villagers in three of the programs studied were not involved in other stages of data collection and analysis. Preliminary tabulation of data at the respective villages and with the help of village leadership and under supervision of the trainers, would have ensured preliminary feedback to villagers. In addition, it would have provided valuable on-the-job training to leaders, on data processing aspects, thus creating a cadre of leaders sufficiently competent in the processes involved. Such leaders would be in a position to pursue the use of these skills in later efforts (hopefully self-initiated) to collect and use village level data. The approaches used by TRDP and FTFP using frequency counts, percentages and ranking could very well have been undertaken at the village level. The TRD and FTFP lost a wonderful opportunity for setting into motion a participatory research process in the villages in which they are involved.



#### **5.1.10.2 Feedback to Training Institution Staff**

The record, on the matter of feedback to training institution staff from outside consultants, data analysts and evaluators is no better than that at the village level. The following comments made to me by a senior training staff member of one of the three projects studied are an indication of cynicism that has developed as a result of past negative experiences:

"We have had many people like you come to us ... briefcase in hand and armed with lots of questions. We answer them all very patiently. However, all that we have to remind us that they were once here is their name on the visitors' book."

However, within the country, and especially at the Ministerial level, results of research studies are zealously guarded and often treated as "secret," thus blocking or delaying their potential use in the monitoring and restructuring of programs. The report of an exceptionally high quality investigation conducted by the Ministry of National Education on the Folk Development Colleges was initially denied to me because it was treated as "classified." Only three months later a copy was procured. However, what was of more concern was that six months after it was prepared, three FDC principals interviewed had not seen a copy of the report.

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<sup>42</sup> Data was taken to the U.S. for analysis.

As indicated earlier, detailed data was collected<sup>42</sup> from eight of TRDP project villages during May and June 1980. A research report entitled "Village Problems and Training Needs as Perceived by Villagers and Their Leaders" was made available in June 1981. However, the analysis of socio-economic baseline data (considered crucial for village planning and management) was not available even as late as March 1984. Moreover, by not arranging for a large printing run, the circulation of the first report was severely restricted to those at TRDC Ruaha.

In the case of FPHP there has also been a time lag of one year between collection of data and preparation of a final report by the FPHP-HQ in Dar es Salaam. However, adequate numbers of research reports were run off and circulated to all participating institutions and interested parties, thereby improving the exchange of useful information. As discussed earlier, the FPHP was expected to enhance the data collection and analytical capabilities of MATI students in the two or three year pre-service courses. In reality, students at the Mtwara were only used in the data collection drive and not in the design of the instruments or in the analysis of data. However, what is more disconcerting is that no feedback on the results of the survey was provided to students at this or other participating MATIS.

### **5.1.10.3      Circulation of Research Results Among Training Institutions**

During the peak period for the farmer training centre movement (late sixties and early seventies), an impressive effort to exchange reports between training institutions in the entire network was in practice. However, these reports pertained more to training rather than to action oriented research activity. In recent years the FTTP has been exemplary in its effort to encourage sharing of its insights/lessons and research findings with all its participating institutions. The sharing of reports provides a useful exchange of research results, problems and techniques between institutions. By ensuring that adequate numbers of copies are mimeographed, a wide cross-section of officials and trainers are made aware of the FTTP's involvement in research. The FDC and TRD have, up to the time of this research, not emulated this strategy of FTTP and the few limited copies of research reports become highly treasured items at the headquarter levels.

After significant amounts of scarce human, financial and time resources are expended on research, consultations and conferences, very little is done to ensure that reports are made available and accessible for future needs. Instead, the wealth of information is often lost and the entire cycle of events is repeated.

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<sup>43</sup> Conference on Curriculum Development, Cooperative

A case in point is the report<sup>43</sup> of a very important National Conference on Curriculum Development (which directly addressed the needs of the Agricultural sector) held in Moshi during October 1969. What was indeed a valuable collection of papers, written at a time when Tanzania and the rest of East Africa was at the peak of the Farmer Training Centre Movement, is no longer available at the libraries or with key officials of the Ministry of Agriculture, Faculty of Agriculture or the Cooperative College in Moshi. Another document<sup>44</sup> of similar value was unearthed beneath a pile of leaflets in a corner of the Ministry of Agriculture's library. It was not catalogued and it took this researcher six hours of persistent searching to unearth it. This is the report of the Farmers Education Conference held in 1970, and also a very valuable document. Readers will note frequent reference to the document in this present research effort.

Valuable lessons gained over the years by local training practitioners were lost because documentation was relegated low priority. Documentation is rarely viewed as potential input for future programming. Instead, it is treated as historical evidence.

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College Moshi, 7-29 October 1969. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Cooperatives; Research, Training and Farmers' Education Division.

<sup>44</sup> National Seminar and Workshop on Farmers' Education: A Record of Proceedings, May 4-22, 1970, Cooperative College, Moshi.

**5.1.11 Survey-weariness of Villager-Respondents**

The risks of a data based approach, especially one which promotes the use of formal, survey type research conducted at frequent intervals, is that villagers invariably develop a hostile attitude or, at a minimum, apathy towards the idea.

Louise Fortmann's comments about Botswana should serve as a warning to those tending to be overenthusiastic about survey research

"The large numbers of researchers and consultants in Botswana (and elsewhere) leads to a situation in which the villagers answer questions time and again with no tangible results. Respondents in one national survey in Botswana were interviewed sixteen times in a twelve month period. One assumes they are armed and ready for the next survey."<sup>45</sup>

After an initial broad based, formal, detailed village survey involving individualized interviews of a large sample (like the one conducted by FTPP and TRD), subsequent data collection efforts should be problem specific, informal and conducted on a group interview basis involving a small sample of key informants.<sup>46</sup> Such a strategy in subsequent efforts, and especially if conducted in a participatory style, should go a long way in reducing the burden on the clientele.

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<sup>45</sup> Louise Fortmann, "Taking Data Back to the Village," Rural Development Participation Review, Vol. III, No. 2, 1982.

<sup>46</sup> Personal correspondence with David Acker, FTPP, Dar es Salaam, 10th November, 1983.

## **5.2    THEME II: SELECTION AND RECRUITMENT OF TRAINERS**

### **5.2.1    Historical Overview of Procedures Used for Selection and Recruitment**

Tanzania has had a rich history of involvement in residential-type farmer training. By the late 1960s and early 1970s, it had a network of training centres that would easily have been the source of envy of any other country on the continent, with the exception of Kenya, which had an equally sophisticated farmer training program.

Considerable investment in the form of financial and human resources had been made into the network of training centres. More importantly, an impressive effort was made to improve the relevance of programming. The emphasis on selection and recruitment was particularly striking in the fact that it was given special attention. An analysis of documentation and reports indicates that the quality of effort exerted in ensuring that those selected met the requirements of respective training programs is far superior than that which is to be found in Tanzania at the present time. Valuable lessons learned and documented during past efforts appear to have received little consideration in subsequent training-design efforts.

### **5.2.2 Selection Policies During the FTC Phase**

Historically, the use of a Technical sub-committee and an FTC Advisory Committee in assisting in the running of the various centres had ensured efficient management and especially in the case of the latter, provided an opportunity for representatives from various agencies to participate in the design and implementation of training programs. These committees assisted in the definition of selection criteria and in the establishment of recruitment strategies. The FTC advisory committee consisted of representatives of the following Ministries: Maendeleo (Rural Development), Afya (Health), Elimu (Education) and the Ministry of Commerce. It also included a representative of the political organization T.A.N.U., a farmer, a representative of the district council and the officer in charge of the FTC. The recruitment of trainees was not considered the responsibility of the FTC staff, but that of whichever Ministry, Division or organization to whom the courses were allocated. The FTC was responsible for transporting trainees to and from the training site to respective villages.

The agricultural courses, which were by far the major thrust during the FTC phase, were naturally the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture, whose AFO or field assistants arranged for the recruitment of trainees. The AFO or field assistants were also expected to accompany trainees to the training course.

After 1967 and the proclamation of the Ujamaa policy, a high priority was placed on recruiting leaders from the newly consolidated villages (Vijiji Vya Ujamaa).<sup>47</sup> An emphasis was also laid on selection from homogeneous areas and in the case of agriculture courses, from specific agro-climatic zones.

### 5.2.3 Policies During the RTC Phase

After the FTCs were converted into RTCs, the major burden for selection and recruitment continued to be on field level staff. The logic continued to be one that trainers were too busily engaged in teaching courses throughout the year,<sup>48</sup> leaving no time for this task. The extension service at the field level continued to have major responsibility for this task. The following procedure<sup>49</sup> is illustrative of the strategy used during this period:

- a) The RTC Technical Committee agrees on a programme of courses and allocates them accordingly to whichever ministry is concerned, and in the case of Agricultural courses may at the same time allocate them to districts or areas within districts.

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<sup>47</sup> Ujamaa villages set up as part of Villagization program.

<sup>48</sup> "Report on the Deliberations and Recommendations of the Farmers Education Committee on the Training of Farmers in Tanzania," Farmers Education Committee, Conference on Curriculum Development, Moshi, October 1969, Tanzania.

<sup>49</sup> Ibid.



b) The Rural Training Centre circularises all concerned with the agreed course programme, ensuring that sufficient copies are made available for distribution to all concerned at village level. Any relevant publicity material should be distributed at the same time.

c) The representative of the ministry or division at village level arranges the selection of the required number of trainees and informs the RTC through his district or regional head of the time and place for collection of trainees. (Dates have already been agreed upon previously.)

d) The Rural Training Centre arranges transport of recruits from collecting points to the centre and returns them to the same place on completion of the course.

e) It is strongly recommended that the village level representative of the extension services of whichever ministry is involved, who has been responsible for the selection of trainees, accompanies them on their course.

During this period, though not specifically stated as a criterion, selection in Agriculture courses often was aimed at the most progressive category of farmers.

In some parts of Uganda recruiting instructions were specifically aimed at progressive farmers.<sup>50</sup> Ashcroft and others<sup>51</sup> in an experimental study in Kenya were also concerned about progressiveness but for different purposes. They grouped farmers into four categories based on a progressiveness score, in order "... to cater to the needs and capabilities of farmers at a specific level of -----

<sup>50</sup> Joseph Ashcroft, Neils Roling, Joseph Kariuki and Fred Chege, Extension and the Forgotten Farmer, Bulletin No. 37, Afdelingen Voor Sociale Wetenschappen aan de Landbouwhogeschool, Wageningen, (1973).

<sup>51</sup> Ibid.

progressiveness..."<sup>52</sup> Recruiting differed accordingly.

#### **5.2.4 Current Practice in the Existent Network of Training Institutions**

##### **5.2.4.1 The Farmer Training and Production Project (FTPP)**

The FTPP approach, at the four training wings it had established (up to the time of this research study), was one of concentrating on four villages for a few years before moving on to others. In the case of the wing in Mtwara, four villages within one hour's drive were included. The focus of all activity were the villagers in these four villages. Thus selection and recruitment was restricted to those populations. The responsibility for selecting trainees was generally entrusted to the village chairman and secretary. However, the FTPP staff provided specifications for the group composition (i.e. a representation of a cross-section of leaders, men and women). Typically, the following individuals would be selected: chairman, secretary, all five members of the Production Committee, five members of the UWT (women's organization), two youth, two elders, three balozis,<sup>53</sup> four chairmen of village committees, other than the Production Committee,<sup>54</sup> and the village extension

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<sup>52</sup> Ibid., p. 42.

<sup>53</sup> Ten-cell leader at the lowest leadership rung of the village government. Refer to sub-section on 'Administrative Structures' in Chapter I.

worker.<sup>55</sup>

The VLS indicates that 35.2% of those responding to a question about who should make the selection of trainees felt that the village chairperson should do it. (This differs considerably from the Kilimanjaro and Iringa data where the majority felt that the village council should be given that responsibility.) The second largest group (29%) felt that the village council as a group should be entrusted with the responsibility. (See Table 5.4). Since the FTFP exposed each village to a series of courses, a significant percentage of trainees at any point of time would have participated in a previous course. In the nutrition course offered in September 1982 and observed by this researcher between 35-40% of those present had previously attended a program at the wing.

The successive exposure of a cross-section of villagers hailing from a homogeneous area to a series of training and outreach events has resulted in an improvement in the extent and quality of participation during typical training sessions. This improvement was evident when this researcher observed the September course on Nutrition held at the wing in Mtwara.

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<sup>54</sup> Refer to Chapter 1, for description of village-government set-up in Tanzania.

<sup>55</sup> Interview with Nd. Mtukwe, Mtwara, September 1982.

TABLE 5.4

**Responsibility for the Selection of Participants for Training Programs by Regions<sup>a</sup>**

	Mtwara		Kilimanjaro		Iringa	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Village Extension Worker	25	17.2	24	20.0	11	7.4
Village Chairman	51	35.2	10	8.3	16	10.7
Village Council	42	29.0	69	57.5	90	60.4
Village Assembly	17	11.7	13	10.8	30	20.1
Training Centre Representative	7	4.8	3	2.5	2	1.3
Other	3	2.1	1	0.8	--	--
Total	145	100%	120	100%	149	100%
	Missing Cases=5		Missing Cases=3		Missing Cases=1	

<sup>a</sup>Refer to Chapter 1 (Introduction) for a description of the village government set-up in Tanzania.

The practice of recruiting across villages was utilized in courses with a focus on technical agriculture e.g., courses on Cassava and Groundnut. This was justified on the grounds that there are very small agro-climatic and agro-ecological differences between and within the villages in the FTFP Mtwara project area, and that the current state of agricultural under-development is also uniform. As will be discussed later on, this is not the case in the Kilimanjaro or Iringa regions.

#### 5.2.4.2 The Folk Development Colleges (FDCs)

The major weakness of the impressive nationwide network of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania is that it has failed in its original objective of recruiting and serving adults who had reached the III and IV stages in the adult education system. An evaluation study<sup>56</sup> of 450 randomly selected students indicated that only 0.08 percent of participants constituted adults who had reached stages III and IV. The majority were Standard 7 school leaver (youth in their teens!). In the FDC system, village chairpersons and village committees play a major role in selection of trainees. Data from the above mentioned evaluation study indicate that 77% of the students surveyed (N=174) were selected by village committees. However, what is particularly interesting and what may indicate the weakness of the present selection procedure is the fact that 80% of village chairmen (N=141) and 51% (N=47) of heads of departments suggested that more opportunities should be given to students of class seven and above. This is an obvious contradiction of the original intention of reaching adults as part of a third phase<sup>57</sup> of adult education. Given this bias towards school leaving youth

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<sup>56</sup> H.J. Mosha (ed.), "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," p. 89.

<sup>57</sup> The first stage of adult education was one of eradicating illiteracy by 1975. The second stage was one of ensuring that new literates did not lapse into illiteracy and involved consolidation efforts.

on the part of village chairmen and heads of departments, it is not surprising that original selection criteria which suggested that stage III and IV adults should receive priority are not adhered to. Duration of courses is another factor affecting the response of adults and this will be discussed later in this section.

Overall the selection procedure that is used tends to follow the one recommended in the Principal's Guide:<sup>58</sup>

- The college should state the type of courses to be offered and number of participants for each course.
- The college should communicate information about the courses to be offered to the office of the DDD in good time providing all necessary details about type of students required and entry qualifications.
- The FDC and office of the DDD should collaborate in determining number of places depending on the demands/village needs.
- Village government should select students depending on their qualifications and names of selected participants to be submitted to the FDC on time.
- FDCs should make a follow-up on villages which fail to submit names of participants and identify existing problems.
- Students should be entered into the Admission register on arrival at the FDC.

Typically, a district could have 100-300 villages, and the FDC goal is to ensure that each village has two to three

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<sup>58</sup> Principals' Guide, FDC Headquarters, Ministry of National Education, Dar es Salaam, 1980.

past-trainees providing the services they were trained for.<sup>59</sup>

#### **5.2.4.3 Two Week Kilimo Sponsored Courses at the FDCs**

Since 1981 the Ministry of Agriculture has begun offering short courses in technical agriculture at 20 FDCs (readers are reminded that FDCs are under the Ministry of Education and normally conduct long duration courses). As part of this study, the two week program offered at the Msinga Folk Development College was observed. The selection of trainees follows somewhat the system used during the FTC and RTC phases to the extent that the District Development Directors and Extension workers play an important role. However, final selection is the responsibility of the village council.<sup>60</sup> When 120 villagers in Kilimanjaro region were surveyed, 57.5% indicated that they preferred that the village council do the selection, thus supporting current practice. Only 20% preferred the Agricultural Extension worker. Refer to Table 5.4 for other details. Observations made at Msinga indicated that other than allocating a certain number of vacancies to various districts within Kilimanjaro, no efforts were made to restrict participants either on the

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<sup>59</sup> Interview with Nd. Bendera, Principal, FDC and Trainers Training Centre, Kibaha, Coast Region.

<sup>60</sup> Interview with Nd. A.H. Ngowo, Regional Agricultural Publicity Officer and Course Coordinator, Kilimanjaro Region, Moshi, on 5th June 1982.

basis of agro-climatic differences (the Kilimanjaro region has at least three distinct sub-divisions) or on the basis of their farming system. In the early stages, separate courses were held for men and for women, because "attendance was poor in 'mixed' courses since husbands did not permit their wives to participate in courses along with other men."<sup>61</sup> These courses did increase representation of adult women but had to be abandoned in favor of mixed courses because of a housing shortage at the FDCs (which concurrently have their own long course participants on campus).

#### **5.2.4.4 The Training for Rural Development Project (TRDP)**

The TRDP has stressed the provision of a cycle of training exposures to each of its selected villages. Each village is first exposed to "Village Intervention" which is attended by a cross-section of villagers from a single village. Following is a list of individuals typically selected for a Village Intervention: village council members, village technicians (government or parastatal staff) posted in the village, CCM party leaders, representatives of the village assembly and village functionaries.<sup>62</sup> A special effort is made to include a

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<sup>61</sup> Interview with Nd. A.H. Ngowo, 5th June 1982.

<sup>62</sup> Implementation Reports, "Training for Rural Development Project, February 1982, p. 12.



representation of women at these village-level training sessions. Approximately 25-35% of participants are women. This village level training session is usually attended by 25-35 villagers throughout its two week duration. This is followed by a month long "Residential Training" program (offered at the TRDP headquarters in Ruaha Iringa). Specific selection criteria are provided by the TRDP staff: each Residential training program, unlike the village intervention, is attended by representatives from four (at a time) of the project villages. Each village selects the following individuals for training: chairman or secretary, village manager, representatives from sub-committees, representatives from village assembly and party officials. A total of 15 members represent each village.<sup>63</sup> Subsequently trainers from the TRDP Center at Ruaha accompanied by trainers from their respective regions<sup>64</sup> provide "Follow-up" for three to four days in each village. As indicated elsewhere, 'spontaneous' on-site training<sup>65</sup> is given during this phase should there be a need for it. The audience for this differs depending on the need and situation. The final element is 'Technical Training' conducted at the residential center at Ruaha,

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<sup>63</sup> Ibid., p. 13.

<sup>64</sup> TRDP has a mandate to serve five high potential regions in Tanzania.

<sup>65</sup> Refer to the Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 (subsection on post-course follow-up).

and attended by four leaders from each participating village. Chairman or secretary, village managers, village bookkeepers or shopkeeper and chairman of the agricultural production committee.<sup>66</sup> However, the rationale behind restricting selection for the "technical training" to leaders is the limited residential facilities at Ruaha.<sup>67</sup>

Since one of TRDP's major goals is to strengthen management systems, there is a strong emphasis and priority for selecting trainees from among the village leadership rather than from the general village audience. Overall, once the criteria have been specified, the actual selection is made at the village level by the village government.

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<sup>66</sup> Interview with Nd. Okeyu, Principal TRDC, 18th June 1982.

<sup>67</sup> Once the four regional training centres are fully operational, this problem will be resolved. At that time non-leaders are expected to be recruited for technical training.

**5.3    THEME III: FACTORS AFFECTING THE RESPONSE OF VILLAGERS TO TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES**

**5.3.1    Stage of Development of the Economy**

Jon Moris, who has had extensive experience working in Kenya and Tanzania and who has in the past written about farmer training strategies, has emphasized that training plays its role only at specific stages of the development of a region's economy.

"The demand for agricultural training does not emerge until farming has, in the area concerned, reached a fairly advanced stage. Initially, subsistence farming is characterized by fragmented land holdings, low crop yields, target labor to meet cash needs, and a generally negative attitude towards farm opportunity. Agricultural education cannot serve as the prime mover for changing such a situation. It is a mistake to locate training programmes in the peripheral, marginal areas where few types of agricultural assistance can succeed. The benefits of training become apparent after the fact of agricultural development, not before. Training plays a role at the stage where major farm investments occur: when land reform is being implemented, new crops or exotic cattle being introduced, and farmers are using purchased inputs. Obviously, the most developed parts of a country are the first to reach this stage - and they should be the locus of agricultural training programmes."<sup>68</sup>

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<sup>68</sup> Jon Moris, "Farmer Training as a Strategy of Rural Development," in Education, Employment and Rural Development, ed. James R. Sheffield (East African Publishing House, 1966), p. 322.

If the major consideration were only one of improvement of the national economy, particularly the agricultural sector, and if egalitarianism were a concern, it would be difficult to quarrel with Moris' contention. That the demand for training does increase and the payoffs in narrow economic terms are highest after the infrastructure has been developed and farming has reached a reasonably advanced stage, is quite obvious when one compares the experience of training institutions in recruiting farmers in different regions of Tanzania. Discussions with the Regional Course Coordinator in Mtwara<sup>69</sup> reveal the difficulty he is faced with in recruiting farmers for the "two week" courses. Farmers have demanded that in addition to transportation, they be provided a per diem for every day of training. In contrast, the Course Coordinator in Kilimanjaro region<sup>70</sup> indicates no difficulty in recruiting farmers for the two week courses except during peak farming seasons. In fact, the Trainee Expectations Survey conducted in Msinga, Kilimanjaro region, as part of this research effort, indicates that 90% of those surveyed (N=30) would have attended the training even if transportation had not been provided, and would have paid their way to the training centre.

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<sup>69</sup> Mtwara is a low potential, historically neglected, food deficient region with a skeletal infrastructure.

<sup>70</sup> Kilimanjaro has a highly well developed infrastructure, an intensively cultivated cropland and is generally considered progressive and prosperous.

The FTPP which also has a farmer training effort in Mtwara, (not to be confused with the "two week course") has overcome initial recruitment difficulties by concentrating its activities on four villages and building up its own credibility as a training institution. As a result, training courses offered by the FTPP are generally perceived as highly useful by its past trainees. Of those interviewed (N=75) 67.6% found the course(s) "very useful" and 20.3% found them "useful." Positive experiences with training courses can change the attitude villagers have towards training (and thereby influence their response) even if they hail from low potential, underdeveloped regions of a country. The same group of Mtwara villagers was asked to rank various agricultural production factors,<sup>71</sup> and again, possibly because of experiences with FTPP courses, responded very positively in favor of the role of training and advisory services (see Table 5.5). In fact, when it comes to ranking the first two out of four factors, the pattern of Mtwara villagers is similar to that of Iringa and Kilimanjaro, both of which have better infrastructure and support services and can be considered very progressive regions in Tanzania (See Tables 5.6 and 5.7).

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<sup>71</sup> 1) Availability of agricultural inputs, 2) agricultural knowledge (training advisory services), and 3) good market prices and sales outlets and 4) good roads and transportation.

TABLE 5.5

**Ranking of Four Agricultural Production Factors by Trained Villagers in Mtwara Region**

	First Rank		Second Rank		Third Rank		Fourth Rank	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Availability of Agricultural Inputs (e.g., (e.g., seeds, fertilizers, etc.)	29	40.3	34	47.2	7	9.7	2	2.8
Agricultural Knowledge (training and advisory services)	36	50.0	20	27.8	6	8.3	10	13.9
Good Market Prices and Sales Outlets	4	5.8	11	15.9	27	39.1	27	39.1
Good Roads and Transportation Facilities	3	4.3	7	10.1	29	42.0	30	43.5

However, the nature of course content may differ, depending on the stage of development of a particular region or its subdivisions (if distinct variations are found to be present). It may be that in the poorly developed regions a more general approach emphasizing training in community development and organization would have to be given a higher priority than technical agricultural training. When strong village based organizations are in place, then technical training could

TABLE 5.6

**Ranking of Four Agricultural Production Factors by Trained Villagers in Kilimanjaro Region**

	First Rank		Second Rank		Third Rank		Fourth Rank	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Availability of Agricultural Inputs (e.g., seeds, fertilizers, etc.)	16	34.0	28	59.6	3	6.4	--	--
Agricultural Knowledge (training and advisory services)	28	59.6	12	25.5	5	10.6	2	4.3
Good Market Prices and Sales Outlets	1	2.1	1	2.1	13	27.7	32	68.1
Good Roads and Transportation Facilities	2	4.3	6	12.8	26	55.3	13	27.7

be given increasingly more important emphasis. The Training for Rural Development project and the Mtwara Farmer Training and Production project (though the latter's original focus was primarily technical) have stressed the importance of village management and leadership training over narrow-technical agriculture training. (More will be discussed on this issue in the section on 'Instructional content, methods and materials.') This orientation implies that greater

TABLE 5.7

Ranking of Four Agricultural Production Factors by Trained Villagers in Iringa Region

	First Rank		Second Rank		Third Rank		Fourth Rank	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Availability of Agricultural Inputs (e.g., seeds, fertilizers, etc.)	14	22.6	44	71.0	4	6.5	--	--
Agricultural Knowledge (training and advisory services)	38	61.3	13	21.0	6	9.7	5	8.1
Good Market Prices and Sales Outlets	3	4.8	3	4.8	40	64.5	16	25.8
Good Roads and Transportation Facilities	7	11.3	2	3.2	12	19.4	41	66.1

priority is placed on training of village leaders thus greatly restricting selection and recruitment to members of the village government (in a typical Tanzania village this could be between 30-40 villagers). Tanzania's agricultural policy is as much concerned about development of a healthy economy and national self-sufficiency in food, as it is in developing "an egalitarian community, based on the policies of socialism and self-reliance."<sup>72</sup>

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<sup>72</sup> The Agricultural Policy of Tanzania, Ministry of Agriculture, The United Republic of Tanzania,



Thus, any attempt to restrict training only to already developed regions could be counter-productive to the nation's goals. At a minimum, it would perpetuate the colonial approach of benign neglect of Tanzania's poorer regions.

**5.3.2    Strength and Relevance of the Research Infrastructure to Technical Training**

A strong and productive research infrastructure devoted to agriculture and livestock production is a prerequisite for an effective extension or training network. Without it, training or extension stagnates and loses its vitality. Unfortunately, for a host of reasons (which cannot be discussed here because of the focus of this study) the outputs of research institutions do not get fed into training institutions. More often than not, particularly during of the period of the 1960s and earlier, the research work undertaken was irrelevant to the majority of Tanzania's subsistence farmers. Stephen Carr has this anecdote about the quandary which many trainers face, even at the present time:

"At a farmers training centre in a densely populated area of East Africa, the principal was recently asked about the content of his courses. Any new cash crops? No. Any improved varieties of cash or food crops? No. What are the main points you make? Better husbandry. How do you see this in practice? Use fertilizers. Are any fertilizers on sale in this district? No. What

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else? Better weeding. (This is an area of under employment because of land hunger, renowned for its high standard of farming.) Any other practice? No. Any other main point in your training? Double the acreage campaign. In an area where land is already grossly undercultivated ... Given the constraints of marketing, infrastructure, population pressure and research information available, he has no advice to offer to farmers on methods which are not either impossible (fertilizer, double your acreage) or already known and practical (good weeding). Many of the dry Savannah areas are in a similar position. There is not enough available knowledge which can be put into practice..."<sup>73</sup>

Unless the objectives of agricultural research institutions are in harmony and consistent with those of the farmers, the response of the latter to training opportunities (where program content is based on research findings) may be less than satisfactory. If such ideas promoted by the training institutions are perceived by the target audience as being irrelevant and especially if past experiences of peers have been negative, the institution could face increasing difficulty in recruiting adult practicing farmers. In the past, in certain regions of Tanzania where this kind of a situation prevailed (e.g., Mahiwa) monetary incentives had to be provided.

The FIPP in Mtwara and elsewhere has as one of its major objectives the creation of linkages between farmers and their service and support institutions as well as

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<sup>73</sup> Stephen Carr, "Agricultural Research or Extension Services: Which has Failed," Rural Africana, Michigan State University, East Lansing.

among the institutions.<sup>74</sup> The FTPP training in Mtwara has attempted to build stronger linkages with the TARO Research institute (on the same campus at Naliendele) by including researchers on its advisory committee, by setting up crop verification trials based on researchers' recommendations, and by utilizing their expertise as resource persons in the various technical training programs which were held (e.g., groundnut, cashew production etc.). This collaboration of trainers, MATI tutors and TARO researchers has even been extended into the realm of training materials production.<sup>75</sup> This fruitful collaboration, initiated by the FTPP farmer training wing, serves to improve the relevance of research contributions to the overall training process, which in turn can result in a cumulative improvement of adult farmer response to the training events. As a result of such approaches, trainers at the FTPP Mtwara have recorded a favorable response to their activities.

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<sup>74</sup> Tanzania Agriculture Manpower Development, Farmer Training and Production, p. 21.

<sup>75</sup> Recently, two trainer's guides (among many others still under preparation) on cashew raising and groundnut production were prepared by FTPP trainers at MATI Mtwara based on research work conducted by TARO at Naliendele, and through the participation of researchers in various stages of the instructional materials production process.

### **5.3.3    The Nature and Complexity of the Farming System**

A differential ability of villagers (between regions and within them) to attend training, has been observed, irrespective of the nature of training content. The ability to attend may also be related to sexually defined traditional roles with regard to both household and farming activities. Such factors conceivably have an impact upon the selection and recruitment process. Variations in the location and duration of training programs, however, may help offset these difficulties.<sup>76</sup>

While in many parts of Tanzania the emphasis is on the cultivation of seasonal crops, in other areas as in the Kilimanjaro region or in the Usambara area of Tanga region or in Bukoba district of Kagera region, the farming system is complex and includes a range of crops, both perennial and annual, usually intercropped and often including a livestock component. This being the case, the farm families in such areas are engaged in agricultural activities throughout the year.

The typical farmer in the area covered in this research within the Kilimanjaro region raised at least the following combination of crops: coffee, bananas, beans and other vegetables, shade trees, and maize (on separate plots located on the plains or on lower slopes). Invariably, the families own exotic or mixed breed cows

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<sup>76</sup> Interview with Nd. A.H. Ngowo, Course Coordinator, Kilimanjaro region, October 13th 1982.

and generally practice a sophisticated crop and livestock husbandry. Bananas, vegetables and milk being highly perishable commodities, regular marketing of surplus produce has to be undertaken. Brewing using banana and finger millet is a daily chore for the women and is an exacting process.

In a cash economy such as in Kilimanjaro, there is a year-round demand for family and sometimes, outside labor. The seasonal labor usage differs from region to region, and as in the case of Kilimanjaro even within the region (e.g., Same and Pare have different labor demand patterns). Such factors can affect the individual's ability to respond to training opportunities.

Planting and harvesting periods in any region are a peak period for family labor demand. More important, timely attendance at these operations is crucial. In the past, the Msinga FTC was particularly sensitive to this fact and suspended courses all together during such periods. At the present time, courses of two week duration are scheduled without taking this fact into account. However, recruiters have not been worried because during the busy periods, youths between 16-21 years of age substitute for the active, adult farmers.

During the rest of the year, though still operating within an intensive and complex farming system, the adult farmers may be able to attend, but only by transferring

home or farm responsibilities to other members of the farm family. Twenty eight out of thirty trainees attending the two week course at Msinga, Kilimanjaro (October 1982 batch) indicated that they had to make special arrangements with relatives regarding farm chores.<sup>77</sup>

However, if farmers are engaged in improved livestock enterprises in which they have made significant financial investments (as in the case of Uyole area of Mbeya or the Kilimanjaro tract), there is an overall hesitancy to transfer responsibilities for care and upkeep of these animals to others including family members. Farmers engaged in improved dairy enterprises conveyed their preference for half-day training sessions in order to permit their attendance to livestock husbandry chores.<sup>78</sup>

In other cases, certain tasks are strictly defined by sex. This may prohibit transfer of responsibilities to family members of the opposite sex. For example, brewing and marketing of bananas is defined as a woman's responsibility and a farm family that depends heavily on this source of revenue has the women tied down throughout much of the year. Similarly, the homestead garden ('bustani') managed by women is a year round effort for household level food production. Men, on the other hand,

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<sup>77</sup> Trainee expectations survey conducted between 11-13th October 1982.

<sup>78</sup> Discussion with Nd. Kussaga, 15th July 1982, during the Coordinative Workshop.

are engaged in crops which are seasonal and have peak periods of labor demand with lull periods between. Such a difference in roles favors the recruitment of male members, particularly for residential training.

In agro-climatic regions where an intensive and complex farming system is prevalent, the selection and recruitment process must be designed after considering the range of interrelated issues involved. If this is not done, recruitment targets fall short of expectations both in terms of quantity and/or quality.

#### **5.3.4 The Population Pressure on the Resource Base**

In discussing the effects of increased human and animal populations on the resource base, A.E.G. Markham suggests that entirely new needs can arise:

"These pressures have imposed on society the need to conserve the soil by adherence to new disciplines and the practice of new methods of husbandry. Livestock require to be assessed by productivity rather than numbers; the nutrients taken from the land have to be replaced, if continued production is to be maintained."<sup>79</sup>

Being entirely new, such information needs may have to be met by extension and training since there may not always be an indigenous knowledge base. Kilimanjaro region is a classic case illustrated by an intense demand for training, a very keen interest in learning about soil

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<sup>79</sup> A.E.G. Markham, A Study of Farmer-training in Some English-Speaking Countries of Africa, FAO (Rome 1967), p. 9.

conservation methods<sup>80</sup>

The VLS conducted in Kilimanjaro and Iringa shows that a higher percentage of villagers in Kilimanjaro than in Iringa think that "training is most essential when land is scarce and production must be increased on present holdings" (see Table 5.8). This is supported by studies of the comparative attendance rates during the sixties and early seventies which show that Msinga has had a consistently high attendance rate. Kilimanjaro is Tanzania's most densely populated tract with a severe land constraint. Given this situation, food and cash crop increases must be brought about by maximizing production from the given land resource base. The response pattern of the Kilimanjaro farmers could indicate that training is perceived as one way to achieve that goal. In Iringa, in the areas surveyed, farm land is not a limiting factor and could account for the different response patterns.

#### **5.3.5 Ability to Undertake Preparatory Arrangements**

Field observations and discussions with tutors during the visits to Naliendele and Msinga indicated that the response to residential short course training opportunities is often related to the individuals' capacity (with respect to funds and time) to undertake preparatory arrangements on the farm and the household,

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<sup>80</sup> Refer to sections 1.13.1.1.2 and 1.13.2.1.



TABLE 5.8

Conditions Under Which Training is Most Essential

Conditions	Kilimanjaro		Iringa	
	N	%	N	%
When land is scarce and production must be increased	11	31.1	5	8.6
When there is shortage of labor and the production must be increased	3	6.7	7	12.1
When growing cash crops	2	4.4	2	3.4
When the farmer has not received formal education	16	35.6	43	74.1
When the farmer has received at least some formal education	10	22.2	1	1.7
	42	100.0	58	99.9

prior to departure to the residential training site. In order to investigate this further, respondents in Iringa were asked to outline what kinds of arrangements they would have to make prior to departure to the residential site. Table 5.9 provides details of the responses given. The single major concern was for land preparation and inputs (34.85%) followed closely by arrangements for food supplies for the family (25.72%).

TABLE 5.9

**Preparatory Arrangements to be Made Prior to Participating  
in a Residential Short Course#**

	Male		Female		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Arrange for adequate food supply for the family	39	21.31	23	39.65	62	25.72
2. Early preparations of farm (e.g., land preparation, inputs, purchase, etc.)	75	40.98	9	15.51	84	34.85
3. Preparation for journey to training centre	18	9.83	7	12.06	25	10.37
4. Arrange for family "caretaker"	4	2.18	4	6.89	8	3.31
5. Arrange for live-stock "caretaker"	4	2.18	1	1.72	5	2.07
6. Obtain cash advance for personal expenses (e.g., fares)	5	2.73	2	3.44	7	2.90
7. Arrange for supply of clothes	5	2.73	1	1.72	6	2.48
8. Assignment of duties to family members	7	3.82	1	1.72	8	3.31
9. Completion of ongoing farm chores (e.g., harvest)	1	0.54	1	1.72	2	0.82
10. Obtain cash advance for family needs	15	8.19	5	8.62	20	8.29
11. Leave house in a secure physical condition	5	2.73	3	5.17	8	3.31

12. Arrange for live-stock feed supply	4	2.18	1	1.72	5	2.07
13. Prepare storage facilities	1	0.54	--	--	1	0.41
Total	183		58		241	

# Data collected from 'trained' villagers only in Iringa region, based on an open-ended question to which more than one response was permitted.

Other overall important concerns were actual preparations for the journey itself (clothes, haircuts, shoes, items for personal hygiene all of which usually required financial investments). Arranging for cash needs (usually by borrowing) for the family was another important preparation. Overall, male respondents were overwhelmingly concerned with land preparation/inputs arrangements (40.98%) while female respondents (39.65%) were most concerned about arrangements for food supply for the family. The issue of family food supply is a year-round issue though the problems would probably be most severe in those months prior to the start of a new season (by which time food supply stocks from the earlier harvest would be in low supply) making it the most difficult period for women. However, in regions such as the Kilimanjaro region, Bananas (which is a major staple) are

a year round crop and would be less subject to the seasonal variations in foodstocks compared to Iringa and Mtwara.

Males were most concerned with land preparation and arranging for agricultural inputs, which is a seasonal concern, was usually limited to the period of 1-2 months prior to sowing/planting. Thus, for a major part of the year, male respondents are free from such concerns and would find the preparatory arrangements less of a limiting factor than would women concerned with day-to-day family food needs.

#### **5.3.6 Transportation and Overall Access to Training Site**

The importance of transportation and related factors in influencing the response of villagers for training cannot be overemphasized. Particularly within the Tanzanian situation, where logistics in general are unusually difficult, it is crucial that training institutions make adequate arrangements. This is what Cyril Barwell, who has had extensive experience in Tanzania and the rest of East Africa in establishing and advising farmer training centers, has to say about the role of transportation

"To recruit farmers successfully, adequate and suitable transport must be (provided) at the collecting points on the days and at times agreed. Failure to provide transport for students is a very common cause of course failure."<sup>81</sup>

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<sup>81</sup> Cyril Barwell, Farmer Training in East-Central and

The FFTP in Tanzania has budgeted for and provided a vehicle for each of its farmer training wings. Extensive and efficient use of vehicles for transporting of villagers and for follow-up activities has been observed. Recently, every wing has been provided with mini-buses. Particularly in Mtwara region where local bus transportation was virtually non-existent, the provision of the Land Rovers and buses has made all the difference in the recruitment drive. This contrasts with the difficulties faced by the Mtwara regional course coordinator in recruiting candidates for the 'two week' courses held at Mtwanya a few miles away from FFTP's training wing. The regional course coordinator for Mtwara region indicated that farmers on a few occasions were stranded at Mtwanya on completion of the course and had to find their way home partly on foot and partly by hitching rides. These precedents have had a disastrous effect on subsequent recruitment drives. Arrangement for assured transportation is particularly crucial in Mtwara and another regions where the regional transportation system is for all practical purposes non-functional. If the regional transportation system is well developed as in the Kilimanjaro region or to a lesser extent Iringa, at least an allocation for reimbursement of travel costs must be made. This is particularly needed for short duration

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**courses.**

**Participants in the long duration courses such as the 9 month course at the Msinga FDC arrange for their own transportation (costs are usually reimbursed). Any opportunity for a long duration course is highly valued and participants are usually willing to (and often do so) meet the costs of transportation from a personal budget. The duration and the perceived importance of the course affects the willingness to pay for transportation costs. This was confirmed by the "Trainee-expectations" survey conducted on the first day of the 'two-week' training held at Msinga, Kilimanjaro, where 90% of those surveyed (N=30) indicated that they would have attended training even if transportation was not provided or paid for. This is not surprising in an area where the perceived value for training is generally high. (In addition there exists an efficient transportation service).**

**At the present time, in none of the three programs studied, does the village community bear any responsibility for meeting transportation costs. Community support for transportation costs has been successfully used in certain programs in S.E. Asia and have thereby reduced the financial burden on the training institution besides improving the trainee accountability to the sponsoring village. However, it may be unlikely that such an approach would work in most regions of**

Tanzania, until the training institutions are able to establish a high credibility (through sustained and relevant programming) with the various villages they serve. The former FTC of Msinga is probably one of the few examples where this has happened.

In the VLS there was a clear indication that villages considered transportation (and not just the provision of allowance) to be essential. Table 5.10 indicates how they responded:

TABLE 5.10

Need for Provision of Transportation to Trainees\*

	Kilimanjaro		Iringa	
	N	%	N	%
It is not necessary	2	3.50	4	8.33
It is not necessary if we are provided with a travel allowance	4	7.01	2	4.16
It is essential without transportation we will not be able to attend	51	89.47	42	87.5

\*Only trained people were surveyed on this question.  
Participants were short-duration course trainees.

#### 5.4 DURATION OF TRAINING PROGRAMS

It would be difficult to argue that duration is not an important factor affecting the overall response to training opportunities. The dilemma that the FDC network is facing in Tanzania with regard to the type of trainees it has been serving is most likely attributable to the fact that the FDC system has adopted the approach of offering long duration courses rather than short ones. The original intention of the FDC movement in Tanzania was aimed at adults who had completed Stage III and IV of Tanzania's highly successful adult education campaign. However, the emphasis at the FDCs has generally been on courses of more than one month, thus barring the typical stage III and IV graduate who usually is fully engaged in farming activities and is a 'family person' with household responsibilities. The FDC Evaluation report shows that 67-75% of the principals interviewed indicated that their FDCs conducted courses 9 months and above with Domestic Science, Agriculture and 'Ufundi' (technical subjects like masonry, carpentry etc.) specializations. Fifty percent offered courses in Domestic Science of 6 months duration. In the same study, the principals were asked to indicate their plans for the future. They had planned 29 courses of nine months or more, 12 courses of six months, 8 courses of three months, and only 10 courses of less than three months. The Msinga FDC, one of the sites for



intensive research in this study; offered courses of 9 months in Agriculture, Domestic Science and 'Ufundi' and no short term<sup>82</sup> courses. This was typical of the FDCs with regard to the type of courses offered.

Largely, because of the emphasis on long-duration programs, the FDC has failed to attract mature adults who are actively engaged in farming. My own survey of 22 past FDC graduates living in the Kilimanjaro region indicated that the mean age of past participants was 24.7 years. The evaluation study referred to above, involving 12 FDCs, confirmed this finding: the mean age of the 375 students who were surveyed was 26.1 years. In the VLS conducted in the Kilimanjaro region, the mean age of participants in short<sup>83</sup> courses of less than one month duration (N=123), was, however, much higher. The mean age was 39.85 years.<sup>84</sup> Thus, it appears that the shorter courses serve to attract older villagers.

However, what is of more concern is the information about the educational background of those attending these long duration courses. In the sample surveyed in the Kilimanjaro region (N=22) 72.7% had an education of standard 7 or above. There were no Stage III or IV level

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<sup>82</sup> This researcher's definition of a short course is one which is one month or less.

<sup>83</sup> Courses organized by the Regional Course Coordinator of the 2 week Kilimo courses.

<sup>84</sup> The mean age of the FTFP sample (N=148) was 38.22 years.

adults. In the Ministry of National Education's Evaluation study, 74% of those interviewed (N=450) had standard 7 education or more. (This figure once again supports this researcher's findings in Kilimanjaro region.) Only 7% of the students were from the originally intended group: Stage III and IV adults.

This dilemma faced by the FDC network in Tanzania cannot be solved merely by insisting that recruitment be restricted to Stage III and IV candidates. This is a problem related to the duration of courses offered and has little to do with the fact that selection "is not carried out according to directions from the Ministry of National Education." It is only when FDCs offer courses of short duration will it finally begin to reach the adult audience. However, the Ministry of National Education will have to alter its definition of short courses which the Principals Guide of 1980 has defined this way:

"Short courses should last six months and should concentrate on provision of specialized skills needed for immediate application in localities/places of work."

For mature adults who are actively engaged in farm and home activities, anything longer than one month is a long course. For primary school leavers, the primary clientele of the FDC, anything less than six months is a short course (and would accept the MNE definition of a short course). The response of women may also be adversely affected by an emphasis on longer programs. This issue

has been dealt with under the section on 'Selection and Recruitment of Trainees.'

The data given in Tables 5.12 and 5.13 clearly indicate that adult practicing farmers prefer short courses or village-based demonstrations. When asked to rank various approaches including long duration in Kilimanjaro region (N=42), only 16.7% ranked long duration courses as first rank. 9.5% ranked it second, 16.7% ranked it third and 57.1% ranked it fourth. In Iringa region (N=59) the figures were 18.6%, 8.5%, 35.6% and 37.3% respectively for long duration courses. The same groups were then asked to choose between different types of short duration programs. In Kilimanjaro the majority, 81.2% preferred courses of 10-14 days duration, thus validating the present practice of Kilimo's "two week" program. In Iringa the pattern differed with 48.4% indicating a preference for a 4-7 day duration. Thus, there are regional differences in duration preferences.

It is likely that the Kilimanjaro respondents<sup>85</sup> may have been conditioned by their own previous exposure to two-week courses. However, if that were true, why did such a high percentage of the Iringa sample, who had been exposed to a two-week and a month-long course, opt for 4-7 days? One would therefore conclude that responses in both

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<sup>85</sup> Readers are reminded that only trained individuals responded to this question.

TABLE 5.11

Duration Preferences for Short Courses

	Kilimanjaro Region		Iringa Region	
	N	%	N	%
1-3 Days Duration	4	8.3	11	17.8
4-7 Days Duration	5	10.5	30	48.4
10-14 Days Duration	39	81.2	21	33.8
Total	48	100%	62	100%

regions reflect the real preferences.<sup>86</sup>

The MNE has to make a decision about whether it expects to continue to serve its present clientele of standard 7 school leaving youth through its present emphasis on long duration courses and transfer the responsibility of training adults to some other training network such as that recently revived by KILIMO in its 'two week course' program. On the other hand, if the MNE expects the FDC network to address the needs of the Stage III and IV adults as part of the earlier envisaged "third phase of adult education" and as a follow-up to Tanzania's successful National Literacy Campaign, then it must give serious and urgent consideration to restructuring the present course programs, particularly their duration.

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<sup>86</sup> These responses do not reveal preferences of those who did not attend training and to that extent is biased towards the group that participated in programs to two weeks or one month duration.

TABLE 5.12

Ranking of Various Instructional Approaches by Trained Villagers in Kilimanjaro

	First Rank		Second Rank		Third Rank		Fourth Rank	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Village Demonstrations	14	34.1	14	34.1	7	17.1	6	14.6
Short Duration (3-5 Days at a Residential Center)	6	15.0	6	15.0	21	52.5	7	17.5
Short Training (3-5 Days in the Village Itself)	15	35.7	16	38.1	7	16.7	4	9.5
Long Duration Training	7	16.7	4	9.5	7	16.7	24	57.1

#### 5.4.1 Educational Background

It has been suggested that there is a correlation between educational level and the utilization of various agricultural services including training. A survey conducted in Western Kenya and sponsored by U.S.A.I.D. found that farmers with more education, among other attributes, had greater appreciation for rural development institutions (Field days, farmer training courses, etc.) and participated in them more often.<sup>87</sup> Data from Tanzania

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<sup>87</sup> H. Naylor and J. Ascroft, "A Baseline Survey of Factors Affecting Agricultural Development in Three Areas of Kenya." University Social Science Conference Paper,

TABLE 5.13

**Ranking of Various Instructional Approaches by Trained Villagers in Iringa**

	First Rank		Second Rank		Third Rank		Fourth Rank	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Village Demonstrations</b>	25	52.4	29	49.2	4	6.8	1	1.7
<b>Short Duration (3-5 Days at a Residential Center)</b>	4	6.8	4	6.8	24	40.7	27	45.8
<b>Short Training (3-5 Days in the Village Itself)</b>	19	32.2	21	35.6	10	16.9	9	15.3
<b>Long Duration Training</b>	11	18.6	5	8.5	21	35.6	22	37.3

indicate that response to opportunities for participation in training programs (irrespective of the nature of the course) may be a function not of education in general but of course duration. Table 5.14 gives detailed information on the educational background of two major categories of respondents: untrained villagers and those who participated in short term training. In general, there is little difference in the educational background between these two categories. It was originally expected that the 'trained' category would generally have considerably

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higher levels of education. When analyzed on a regional basis the same pattern was observed.

TABLE 5.14

Educational Background of Trained\* and Untrained Villagers  
(Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Iringa)

Educational Level	Trained Villagers		Untrained Villagers	
	N	% of Trained	N	% of Untrained
Illiterate	-	-	3	1.42
Adult Education Stage I, II III or IV	52	28.10	64	30.47
Standards 1 to 3	2	1.08	21	10.0
Standards 4-6	59	31.89	57	27.14
Standards 7-9	72	38.91	65	30.95

\*Participants in courses of short duration one month or less.

However, data collected from FDC past participants (N=22) in the long duration courses (who have returned to their villages in the Kilimanjaro region) displays a different pattern in educational background. The maximum number of students, i.e. sixteen (72.7%) had an educational level of Standard 7 or above. There was not a single person with an educational background in any of the

four adult education stages. Table 5.15 provides details on this issue.

TABLE 5.15

**Educational Background of FDC Long-term Course  
Participants Residing in the Kilimanjaro Region (N=22)**

<b>Educational Level</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Illiterate</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>
<b>Adult Education Stages I to IV</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>
<b>Standards 1-3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>9.1</b>
<b>Standards 4-6</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>18.2</b>
<b>Standards 7-9</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>72.7</b>

Data from the Ministry of National Education's report, based on FDC graduates located in seven different zones of Tanzania (representing 12 FDCs) is provided in Table 5.16, and supports the Kilimanjaro results provided in Table 5.15.

When compared with short duration course participants, FDC participants in long courses have higher educational qualifications. Selection and recruitment procedures need to pay adequate attention to this factor. Consequently, if participants of a particular educational level are to be attracted and eventually recruited, then course durations have to be structured accordingly.



TABLE 5.16

**Educational Background of Students Who Studied at Folk Development Colleges\***

<b>Educational Level</b>	<b>Male Percentage</b>	<b>Female Percentage</b>	<b>Total Percentage</b>
Adult Education Stage III & IV	7%	7%	7%
Below Standard 7	24%	7%	19%
Standard 7	61%	82%	67%
Above Standard 7	8	4	7
Total Percent	100%	100%	100%
Number	319	131	450

\*Over 80 percent of the courses were two months or longer.

**Source:** Report of the research on the progress and impact of folk development colleges in Tanzania, Directorate of Adult Education, Ministry of National Education, Dar es Salaam, 1982.

In certain geographic areas, all other things being equal, the lack of formal education could be a major consideration in the utilization of training opportunities. In Iringa region, (refer to Table 6.8) when villagers were asked to indicate when training was considered most essential, 74.1% answered "when the farmers have not received formal education." Responses obtained during village level interviews could possibly explain this response pattern: a certain minimal level of

education is perceived as being necessary if villagers are to have direct access to information sources such as magazines, newspapers, correspondence courses, bulletins etc. So for people without some education, training is considered particularly necessary. In contrast, other areas, such as Kilimanjaro where historically there has been a very strong educational infrastructure and a high value placed on formal schooling, may reflect a different response pattern.

It has been stated in the past, that the educational level of a participant influences the response to training opportunities in different settings (based on whether it is residential or village based). The VLS indicates that irrespective of the educational background, villagers prefer village-based training. Table 5.17 provides data to support this. Clearly, educational background is not a factor influencing response to training in different settings (i.e. residential or village based) and need not be taken into account when recruiting for training to be conducted in a specific location. However, recruiters may want to ensure homogeneity in educational background in order to facilitate instruction.

#### **5.4.2 Female Representation in Training Courses**

Sahir Sudad (1980) has very succinctly indicated the erroneous assumptions made about womens' training in three countries, including Tanzania:

TABLE 5.17

Preferences for Different Locations for Training by Educational Level (Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Mtwara)

	Illi- terate		Adult Educ. Stages I to IV		Stand. 1-3		Stand. 4-6		Stand. 7-9	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Village Based Training	1	66.6	68	58.62	16	69.56	64	55.17	66	48.17
Residen- tial Training	1	33.3	36	31.03	3	13	32	27.58	31	22.62
Depends on the Type of Training	0	-	12	10.34	4	17.39	20	17.24	40	29.19
TOTAL	3	100.0	116	100.0	23	100.0	116	100.0	137	100.0

"Within the farming population, the need of farm women for agricultural training has been assumed to be almost non-existent. The widespread assumption is that home and family improvement is the basic task of womens' training, while agricultural knowledge is assumed to be a function of the transfer of knowledge from husband to wife. Neither of these assumptions reflect the socio-economic environment of farm women in the three countries."<sup>88</sup>

Solomon Odia in his observations on Tanzania, is also concerned about this serious neglect:

"It is pity that women who feature predominately in the rural labor force and play a significant role in farming are, for traditional and family reasons, not in a position to avail themselves of the farmer training facilities at the centres."<sup>89</sup>

Data on courses and composition of course participants during the year 1969<sup>90</sup> is presented here to throw light on the aspect of women's training at an important period of the history of the FTC/RTC movement in Tanzania. Table 5.18 provides information on the number of courses and the representation of male and female participants. Of the

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<sup>88</sup> Sudad Sahir, Major Constraints in Farmer Training at the Field Level: case studies from Jordan, Malaysia and Tanzania, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 1980, p. 112.

<sup>89</sup> Solomon Odia, "Rural Education and Training in Tanzania," International Labor Review 103 (1971), p. 13.

<sup>90</sup> Data from the year 1969 was selected because it represents the year when the Training Center movement in Tanzania reached its peak. However, it also represents the last year when courses continued to have a strong agricultural focus. In 1970 the FTCs were taken over by the Prime Minister's office and run as RTCs with a gradual 'dilution' of agricultural courses during the 1970s.

251 courses conducted all over the country, 156 (62.15%) were attended only by males and 12 (4.78%) were attended only by females. A total of 83 courses (33.06%) were mixed groups. In terms of absolute number of participants, 519 or only 8.89% out of the total of 5843 participants trained in 1969 were females. (See Table 5.18 for details.) Additional data indicating the representation of females in courses offered during the past (FTC phase) in two of the three regions studied, are provided in Table 5.19. Of the participants attending courses at Msinga, Kilimanjaro between 1962-1969, 14.89% were females. At Iringa, only 10.63% of participants attending courses between 1963-1969 were female.

Though information on the breakdown of courses based on subject area is not available, a study of monthly FTC reports suggests that it is likely that a large percentage of this already small representation of females would be more likely have been in the domestic science courses. However, even if we were to assume that all the females had attended agricultural courses, such a small representation of women in farmer training courses, in a culture where food-crop production is largely the responsibility of women, is a disturbing historical fact.

Within the FDC network, the representation of females was much higher. As discussed earlier, these were usually Standard 7 school leavers in their teens. The FDC

TABLE 5.18

Details of Courses and Representation of Females and Males  
in 1969

FTC	Number of Courses	Course Attendance					
		Mixed		Male		Female	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Msinga	30	15	50.00	10	33.30	5	16.70
Iringa	48	28	73.70	10	26.30	Nil	0.00
Igabirol	32	3	9.40	25	78.10	4	12.50
Kibaha	32	21	65.62	11	34.38	Nil	0.00
Mahiwa	29	Nil	0.00	27	93.10	2	6.90
Urambo	3	1	33.30	2	66.70	Nil	0.00
Hombolo	29	3	10.30	26	89.70	Nil	0.00
Buhemba	33	Nil	0.00	32	96.97	1	3.03
Kilosa	13	3	23.10	10	76.90	Nil	0.00
Mbulu	12	9	75.00	3	25.00	Nil	0.00
TOTALS	251	83		156		12	

FTC	Number of Courses	Total Number of Participants			
		Male		Female	
		N	%	N	%
Msinga	30	544	78.30	150	21.70
Iringa	38	1178	92.25	99	7.75
Igabirol	32	427	82.10	93	17.90
Kihaba	32	633	88.66	81	11.34
Mahiwa	29	509	92.40	42	7.60
Urambo	3	78	97.50	2	2.50
Hombolo	27	703	98.60	10	1.60
Buhemba	22	545	97.30	15	2.70
Kilosa	13	252	97.30	7	2.70
Mbulu	12	455	95.80	20	14.20
TOTALS	251	5324		519	

TABLE 5.19

**Total Attendance of Adult Students at Residential  
Agricultural Courses 1962-1969 by Sexes**

Year	Msinga, Kilimanjaro		Iringa	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1962	20	--	--	--
1963	385	4	408	1
1964	379	78	754	46
1965	668	133	739	193
1966	546	65	1036	232
1967	278	34	351	6
1968	544	150	1178	99
TOTAL	2977	521	5135	611

evaluation report indicates that 60% of the females sampled were between 15-20 years. The average age for females was 21 years. Data in Table 5.20 indicates a very impressive representation of females in the courses offered at twelve FDCs between 1976-1979. Overall, female representation was 34% at least. However, this high figure tends to reflect the fact that 10 out of the 12 colleges sampled offered a domestic science specialization. Typically, the students recruited at an FDC are divided equally between three course specializations offered.<sup>91</sup> The Domestic Science group is invariably an all female group and this factor by itself (assuming equal distribution of students to three course

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<sup>91</sup> A typical FDC like the Msinga FDC offers specialization in Agriculture, Ufundi (technical trades) and Domestic Science.

TABLE 5.20

**Representation of Female Students at Folk Development Colleges**

<b>Total Number of Students</b>					
<b>*Long Course</b>					
	<b>Male</b>		<b>Female</b>		<b>TOTAL</b>
	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	
<b>Arnautoglu</b>	--	0.00	45	100.0	45
<b>Bigwa</b>	50	61.70	31	38.3	81
<b>Ifakara</b>	--	0.00	--	0.00	00
<b>Kasulu</b>	21	100.0	00	0.00	21
<b>Kibaha</b>	213	85.9	35	14.10	248
<b>Musoma</b>	--	0.00	--	0.00	--
<b>Newala</b>	10	55.60	8	44.40	18
<b>Njombe</b>	31	64.60	17	35.40	48
<b>Nzega</b>	16	64.60	17	35.40	48
<b>Nzovwe</b>	14	56.00	11	44.00	25
<b>Same</b>	58	56.30	45	43.7	103
<b>Singida</b>	27	50.90	26	49.10	53
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>440</b>	<b>65.8</b>	<b>229</b>	<b>34.2</b>	<b>669</b>

**\*Long Courses: Six months and above.**

**\*\*Short Courses: Less than six months.**

**Source: H.J. Mosha (ed.), "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania."**



TABLE 5.20

**Representation of Female Students at Folk Development Colleges**

<b>Total Number of Students</b>					
<b>*Long Course</b>					
	<b>Male</b>		<b>Female</b>		<b>TOTAL</b>
	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>	
<b>Arnautoglu</b>	--	0.00	45	100.0	45
<b>Bigwa</b>	50	61.70	31	38.3	81
<b>Ifakara</b>	--	0.00	--	0.00	00
<b>Kasulu</b>	21	100.0	00	0.00	21
<b>Kibaha</b>	213	85.9	35	14.10	248
<b>Musoma</b>	--	0.00	--	0.00	--
<b>Newala</b>	10	55.60	8	44.40	18
<b>Njombe</b>	31	64.60	17	35.40	48
<b>Nzega</b>	16	64.60	17	35.40	48
<b>Nzovwe</b>	14	56.00	11	44.00	25
<b>Same</b>	58	56.30	45	43.7	103
<b>Singida</b>	27	50.90	26	49.10	53
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>440</b>	<b>65.8</b>	<b>229</b>	<b>34.2</b>	<b>669</b>

**\*Long Courses: Six months and above.**

**\*\*Short Courses: Less than six months.**

**Source: H.J. Mosha (ed.), "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania."**

**Total Number of Students**

**\*Short Course#**

	Male		Female		TOTAL
	N	%	N	%	
Arnautoglu	5	10.6	42	89.4	47
Bigwa	60	61.86	37	38.14	97
Ifakara	179	76.5	55	23.5	234
Kasulu	49	100.00	--	0.00	--
Kibaha	--	0.00	--	0.00	--
Musoma	118	75.64	38	24.36	156
Newala	--	0.00	--	0.00	--
Njombe	104	69.80	45	30.20	149
Nzega	37	48.06	40	51.96	77
Nzovwe	27	50.00	27	50.00	54
Same	--	0.00	--	0.00	--
Singida	68	54.4	57	45.6	125
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>647</b>	<b>65.5</b>	<b>341</b>	<b>34.5</b>	<b>988</b>

**\*Long Courses: Six months and above.**

**\*\*Short Courses: Less than six months.**

**#Please note that the FDC definition of a short course is six months or less and differs from that used in this research effort, which is one month or less.**

**Source: H.J. Mosha (ed.), "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," (Dar es Salaam, 1982), p. 37.**

areas) can account for high female representation.

TABLE 5.21

Distribution of Students by Subject and Sex

Subject	Male		Female		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Domestic Science	0	0%	81	66%	81	19%
Agriculture	77	25%	8	7%	85	20%
Ufundi	75	25%	1	1%	76	18%
Accountancy	61	20%	15	12%	76	18%
Leadership	77	25%	9	7%	86	20%
Tutor, Adult Education	16	5%	9	7%	25	6%
TOTAL	306	100%	123	100%	429*	100%

\*Number of students not giving information was 62 or 13%.

**Source:** "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," Ministry of National Education, Dar es Salaam, 1982, p. 105.

Such was the case at the Msinga FDC. Their other specializations were Agriculture (20% representation by women) and Ufundi (no women) in their 1982 intake. Interviews with women from the domestic science group indicated that they would have preferred an agricultural component in addition to that obtained in self-reliance activities, within their course of study at Msinga. They

also revealed that if they had indicated a preference for an "agricultural" specialization rather than "Domestic Science," the chances of their being selected for FDC training, by village chairmen and the village committee would have been small. The "prize course offerings" at the FDCs were the agricultural specialization option which was usually dominated by male participants. As will be discussed later on, leaders (men and women) as well as non-leaders (men and women) generally have a strong bias towards deputing male members of the household for agricultural training.

The TRDP stressed right at the outset the importance of including women in training at all levels, and has exerted efforts towards ensuring that this becomes a reality. A major emphasis on ensuring a higher representation of women continues into the project's second phase. All TRDP surveys included random samples of equal numbers of men and women and analysis attempted to highlight differences in responses of males and females. Approximately 35% of the participants in the TRDP village-level training activities and 25% in the one-month residential training were women.

The FTFP proposal emphasizes the importance of "... the role of women and their contribution to production and village life" and states that "every effort will be made

to include women as participants under the project..."<sup>92</sup>

However, data on attendance at courses offered by the FIPP in Mtwara, indicate an overall poor representation of women, in spite of its emphasis on short duration (never more than 2 days) training programs. Overall, 21.73% of total participants attending FIPP-Mtwara courses in 1981 were females. While it is an overall improvement over the FTC phase (refer back to Tables 5.18 and 5.20) given the important role women have in Mtwara for food crop production, efforts to further increase womens' representation in short courses are warranted. The fact that FIPP courses are only two days or less, and given overall interest in short courses by women in the project area (see Table 5.22 and 5.23), a higher representation for Mtwara women would seem to be achievable. In addition to the traditionally important role played by women in food-crop production (as in the rest of Tanzania), the predominantly polygamous cultural group in Mtwara and overall under employment in the region, has resulted in males transferring an even larger share of responsibilities to women for day to day agricultural work. Women play a primary role in the production of cash and food crops in the Mtwara area and probably need greater exposure and coverage by training institutions, in order to increase their capabilities.

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<sup>92</sup> Farmer Training and Production, Project Proposal, p. 45.

TABLE 5.22

**Courses and Composition of Course Participants FIPP-MTWARA  
(1981) Naliendele and Mdui Villages**

Course Title	Duration	Villages			
		Naliendele		Mdui	
		M	F	M	F
1. Farmers Orientation	1			17	1
"                    "	1	14	-		
2. P/Peas Sorghum	2	11	1	11	1
3. Storage	2	7	5	11	1
4. P/Peas Sorghum	1			12	
Harvest	1	11	-		
5. Cashewnut					
Production	2	9	3	10	2
6. Goat and Rabbit	2	6	5	11	-
7. Human Nutrition	2	5	6	10	2
8. Animal Health	2	8	2	9	3
9. Village	2	18	2	9	3
Planning	2			20	4
10. Groundnuts	2	20	4		
11. Coconuts	2	15	3		
	2	5	-	7	-
12. Citrus and					
Banana	2	4	3	5	2
13. Sorghum and					
Cassava	2	-	-	-	-
14. Simsim	2	13	4		
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>126</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>143</b>	<b>20</b>

**Note: M=Male, F=Female**

TABLE 5.23

Courses and Composition of Course Participants FPHP-MTWARA  
(1981) Mbawala & Nambeleketela Villages

Course Title	Duration	Villages			
		Mbawala		Nambele- ketela	
		M	F	M	F
1. Farmers Orientation	1	17	3		
"                    "	1			10	
				10 Maskala	
2. P/Peas Sorghum					
3. Storage					
4. P/Peas Sorghum Harvest					
5. Cashewnut Production					
6. Goat and Rabbit					
7. Human Nutrition					
8. Animal Health					
9. Village Planning					
10. Groundnuts	2		18	4	
	2			21	3
11. Coconuts	2			20	4
	2	7	-	7	-
12. Citrus and Banana	2	6	0	4	3
13. Sorghum and Cassava	2	18	-		
	2			32	5
14. Simsim	-	-	-	-	
TOTAL		41	46	104	14

In general it can be said that there is a sex-bias in assignment of participants to courses of different subject-matter orientation. Interviews at Msinga and VLS data indicates the women were just as likely to select an agricultural course topic as were the men. The fact that the representation of women in agricultural courses has over the last two decades ranged between 10-20% may be explained by an emphasis on lengthy courses, a neglect of village based training, cultural barriers,<sup>93</sup> biased selection procedures and an overall differential access that women have had to agricultural training. Opportunities for training are rare, and the best chance of a woman being selected by village leaders is often by opting for a domestic science orientation.

Another possible explanation for poor response to courses could be the nature of the course content itself: do the topics relate to the crops women are most interested in? Jorgen and Karen Rand in the study in Bukoba district have observed that certain food crops that women cultivate do not receive adequate emphasis:

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<sup>93</sup> "It is true that the women in traditional society were regarded as having a place in the community which was not only different, but was also to some extent inferior. It is impossible to deny that the women did, and still do, more than their fair share of the work in the fields and in the homes. By virtue of their sex, they suffered from inequalities which had nothing to do with their contribution to the family welfare." Julius Nyerere.



"There is a striking misconception of the role of the woman in the Bukoba farming system. Although she does most of the work with the annual crops ... she is not recognized as a farmer, and the crops on which she spends her time have, until the Ujamaa villages came into being, not been given much attention by either the extension service or the Farmers Training Centre. When has a group of women farmers been offered a course at the FTC on improved cultivation of annual crops?"<sup>94</sup>

There is another factor accounting for overrepresentation by males. An in-family bias towards selecting male members, specially the son, for training programs in agriculture has been unearthed in the VLS. Tables 5.24 and 5.25 indicate that overall, women, men and leaders (men and women) have a bias towards selecting male members of the family for training (i.e. if the family has a say in the selection process). However, untrained women in Mtwara and trained women in Kilimanjaro have a slightly less positive response.

This orientation needs to be addressed if an increased representation of women is to be achieved. What may be necessary is a pre-training phase aimed at building a responsiveness towards training on the part of women, the removal of barriers imposed by spouses (which may be based on a lack of understanding of the philosophy and goals of training courses), the reduction of the course duration, offering of more village-based training particularly in

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<sup>94</sup> Jorgen and Karen Rand, Rural Organization in Bukoba District, Tanzania, Scandinavian Institute of African Studies (Uppasala, Sweden, 1975), p. 110.

TABLE 5.24

Choice of Family Member to Attend Training Program by  
Untrained Villagers#

		Mtwara			Kilimanjaro			Iringa		
		M	W	L	M	W	L	M	W	L
Father	N	7	7	9	5	4	4	3	9	5
	%	30.4	30.4	36.0	20.0	16.0	16.7	12.0	26.0	20.8
Mother	N	2	7	1	0	0	1	2	0	2
	%	8.7	30.4	4.0	0.0	0.0	4.2	8.0	0.0	8.3
Son	N	11	8	13	18	15	19	20	14	17
	%	47.8	34.8	52.0	72.0	60.0	79.2	80.0	56.0	70.8
Daughter	N	3	1	2	2	6	0	0	2	0
	%	13.0	4.3	8.0	8.0	24.0	0.0	0.0	8.0	0.0

#Categories of respondents: M=Men, W=Women, L=Leaders

TABLE 5.25

Choice of Family Member to Attend Training Program by  
Trained Villagers

		Mtwara			Kilimanjaro			Iringa		
		M	W	L	M	W	L	M	W	L
Father	N	11	6	8	3	5	-	1	3	7
	%	45.8	28.6	40.0	13.0	21.7	-	4.2	12.0	30.4
Mother	N	0	3	2	1	1	-	2	3	2
	%	0.0	14.3	10.0	4.3	4.3	-	8.3	12.0	8.7
Son	N	11	12	9	17	9	-	20	18	13
	%	45.8	57.1	45.0	73.9	39.1	-	83.3	72.0	56.5
Daughter	N	2	0	1	2	8	-	1	1	1
	%	8.3	0.0	5.0	8.7	34.8	-	4.2	4.0	4.3

#Categories of respondents: M=Men, W=Women, L=Leaders

topics that pertain to women's needs and finally,

increasing the overall number of opportunities that each village has for training, and relating training to organized group processes at the village level.

## **5.5    THEME IV: DELIVERY SYSTEMS FOR TRAINING**

### **5.5.1    Historical Perspective on Delivery Systems Utilized in Tanzania**

From the early sixties when the first major organized efforts for training of villagers were initiated by the Farmer Training Centres in Tanzania, the emphasis has been on residential training.<sup>95</sup> Earlier than this, efforts of the Department of Agriculture relied entirely upon the use of extension workers to disseminate information on an individual basis (e.g. farm visits and/or demonstrations) in ways that cannot be strictly termed as 'training.'

The first three FTCs erected as joint USAID/Tanzania Government projects in 1962 and 1963. By 1969 the network of FTCs had spread over much of Tanzania.<sup>96</sup> During the period, Maendeleo had established a network of District Training Centres (DTCs) which like the FTCs were residential, institutionalized approaches to training in relation to Community Development issues. During the early 1970s, the FTCs and DTCs were integrated and Rural Training Centres (RTC) were established using facilities of the former institutions. While the orientation of

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<sup>95</sup> A detailed discussion on the historical aspects is provided in Chapter I.

<sup>96</sup> Refer to Chapter 1 for a discussion of the development of training institutions in Tanzania.

courses changed as a result of reorganization, residentialism continued to be emphasized. When the RTCs were converted to Folk Development Colleges in the mid seventies this trend did not change.

Right from the outset, the use of residential centres for training of farmers was considered to be complementary to the existent field-extension approach. The report of an East African seminar reflects this understanding of the complementary role of residential centres:

"... it is essential that at all times a close and intimate relationship be maintained between the institution and the extension service. There must never be any suggestion of the institute in any way divorcing itself from the extension service."<sup>97</sup>

However, over the years, with greater autonomy being relegated to training institutions, this linkage with the field extension service has progressively weakened. At the present time, the network of training institutions in Tanzania have little or no contact with the field-extension services. Relative to the field extension services, residential centres have been better equipped and staffed and have had access to their own transportation system. Allocation for teaching materials, whether for classroom use or field demonstration, tends to be far better than that for the field extension service. Probably, the major role for the extension worker in

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<sup>97</sup> Farmer Training in East Africa, Report of a seminar held at Egerton College, Kenya, March 1965, Rome, p. 6.

relation to residential training was one of assisting in recruitment. However, in the sixties extension workers accompanied farmers to training courses at FTCs in order to improve their capabilities for follow-up work.

Establishment of residential centres were often justified by the savings in the cost of transportation, time and personnel. Convenience and pedagogical factors afforded by these centres were also considered important:

"While it is generally accepted that the individual approach is the most effective extension method, it is costly in time and personnel. As a result of this, various methods of a group approach have been tried out and, for many years, the village-type meeting was the recognized method of contacting and instructing people. This served its purpose on a broad and general approach but had many disadvantages as it was difficult to obtain sustained attendance to teach any one subject in any depth."<sup>98</sup>

The residential centre model was promoted all over Africa during the sixties (with Kenya and Zambia leading until the mid seventies). A total of 133 residential centres were in existence in nine African countries by 1974.<sup>99</sup> Being the predominant model of that period bilateral and multilateral funding agencies provided support for the concept. However, some countries like Ethiopia and Malawi realized the need for an emphasis on non-residential courses. At a seminar in Agricultural education for Rural Development in Ethiopia, in September  
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<sup>98</sup> Ibid.

<sup>99</sup> C.W. Barwell, Farmer Training in East-Central and Southern Africa, F.A.O., Rome, p. 93.

1972, it was emphasized "that at the present stage of development, it is more necessary to extend to the majority of farmers an extension programme embracing advice, demonstrations, provision of inputs and credit, and non-residential training."<sup>100</sup> Malawi which by 1973 had 21 residential centres concurrently pioneered the idea of non-residential training centres of which it had 47.<sup>101</sup> However, Tanzania's approach overall, continued to be one of an emphasis on residential approaches with a benign neglect of the field extension services and a virtual absence of non-residential, structured group-training. At a time when this research was being conducted (mid 1982) there were 52 Folk Development Colleges, 4 FTTP farmer training wings (attached to the MATIS') and one TRDP centre (four others were expected to be acquired and renovated), all offering residential courses.<sup>102</sup>

#### **5.5.2 Residential Training Systems**

As discussed in the earlier section, Tanzania's history of involvement in training has largely been associated with the use of residential approaches.

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<sup>100</sup> Proceedings of the Seminar on Agriculture Education for Rural Development in Ethiopia, Ministry of Agriculture, September 1972, p. 82.

<sup>101</sup> Barwell, C.W., Farmer Training in East-Central and Southern Africa, F.A.O., Rome, 1975, p. 89.

<sup>102</sup> The TRDP also offered village based training in addition to residential courses. More will be said about the TRDP approach later on in this chapter.

The emphasis on residential training is often justified by the improved learning environment offered by residential centres and the freedom from distractions normally encountered in the villages.<sup>103</sup> Others, such as Schacht suggest that the physical and psychological detachment and the release from daily routine at home and in the office, is highly conducive to learning.<sup>104</sup> It is argued that residential centres are able to handle the physical needs of large groups of trainees, thus permitting concentrated attention on learning activities. Adequate quantities and kinds of equipment can be arranged for, at the residential centre, with minimal problems of loss due to pilferage and misplacement. Audio-visual materials are also easier to use within the four walls of a training institution. The management of instructional sessions is considerably facilitated within the controlled environment of a residential centre, which is something which cannot be assured in a village setting. One of the major advantages of a residential centre is the access that trainers and trainees have to an institutional farm. By advance planning and preparation such farms can be used as effective teaching tools.<sup>105</sup> A.E.G. Markham, for many  
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<sup>103</sup> Guy Hunter, Residential Colleges: Some New Developments in British Adult Education. Pasadena, California: Fund for Adult Education.

<sup>104</sup> Robert H. Schacht, "Residential Adult Education: An Analysis and Interpretation." Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1957.



years an FAO advisor in English speaking parts of Africa supports the notion of a residential center as an appropriate learning environment:

"The concentration of effort provided by a farmers training centre, with teaching, practical instruction, demonstration on the farm, living with some of the amenities proposed, both for himself and later for his wife, is capable of effecting real change both in thought and action."<sup>106</sup>

Jon Moris is more explicit when he states:

"A training institution usually concentrates its attention upon a small group. The concentrated nature of formal instruction makes it important that it can draw upon professional level staff, and that it has its own facilities. Yet, because of throughput and its freedom in recruitment, it can over time influence a large area ... The flexibility of the institution in the use of its facilities and its staff is one of its most valuable assets..."<sup>107</sup>

Ibrahim Mamat (1982) after studying four residential programs in three Asian countries has derived the following generalization:

"...residential training centers provide an environment which is physically, socially, and psychologically conducive to learning. Within this environment, the participants' energies are channeled so that learning becomes the primary activity. Residential training gives the trainees opportunities to: 1) detach and isolate themselves from families and farming responsibilities; 2) study without interruption; 3) interact with other fellow participants who

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<sup>105</sup> Based on informal interviews with tutors from FDCs, FTTP, and TRDP.

<sup>106</sup> A.E.G. Markham, A Study of Farmer Training in Some English-speaking Countries of Africa (FAO: Rome 1967).

<sup>107</sup> Jon Moris, "Farmer Training as a Strategy of Rural Development," p. 339.

have similar aims and with the program staff outside of formal training hours; 4) engage in informal group discussions; and 5) develop close ties and companionships amongst themselves and gain group support. Residential training also gives the program staff an opportunity to learn from the rural people. Because of these mutual benefits and opportunities, the overall participants' perceptions suggested that the combined interrelated variables of isolation from daily responsibilities, continuity of the learning process, and group influence (i.e. peer pressure) are the determinants for the superior value of residential programs."<sup>108</sup>

Jon Moris too, is making a strong case for residential centres when he states the following:

"The institutional environment allows for close personal ties to form between students and teachers. Role attributes can be taught, and can be reinforced within out-of-class life. Learners derive from the institutions an image of themselves and of future opportunities, an image which becomes a motivating factor in their future decisions. A training institution usually concentrates its attention upon a small group. The concentrated nature of formal instruction makes it important that it can draw upon professional level staff, and that it has its own facilities. Yet, because of throughput and its freedom in recruitment, it can over time influence a large area."<sup>109</sup>

In spite of the many virtues of residential centres, historically in Tanzania, they have been enrolled below capacity. This situation was aggravated when the subject

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<sup>108</sup> Mamat Ibrahim, "Pattern and Process in Residential Training for Peasants in Agricultural and Rural Development: A Comparative Analysis of Four Case Studies." Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Cornell University, 1982, pp. 135-136.

<sup>109</sup> Jon Moris, "Farmer Training as a Strategy of Rural Development," in Education, Employment and Rural Development, ed. James R. Sheffield, East African Publishing House, 1966, p. 339.

matter focus was shifted from agricultural to a more general focus (e.g. when RTCs took over) or when there was a shift from short duration to long duration courses (e.g. when the FDC network was established). Mosha and Rwiza<sup>110</sup> indicate that only 13 percent of the then capacity of 2000 places in the RTC network were utilized. When the FDC network replaced the RTC system the focus shifted to long duration courses (at least one month, but usually between 3-9 months long) the enrollment also dropped considerably. The Ministry of National Education's recent research findings indicate that only 20 percent of the Folk Development College capacity was used every year.<sup>111</sup> Given an emphasis on long duration residential courses, a per-student cost of shs 34<sup>112</sup> (\$4.00) per day, it is not surprising that the FDC network is enrolled below capacity. Trainers at the FTFPP Mtwara, while accepting the value of residential approaches, are concerned that their biggest cost items in training are food and transportation for participants. This has limited the numbers of courses they would have liked to offer.<sup>113</sup> In

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<sup>110</sup> Mosha, A.C., Rwiza, K.J. "Training Extension Staff for Ujamaa Villages" in Agricultural Extension in Ujamaa Village Development, Papers and Proceedings of a Workshop, H. Hansel, J. de Vries and P.C. Ndedy, eds. Morogoro, 22-27 September 1975, p. 202.

<sup>111</sup> Mosha, H.J., ed., Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, p. 242.

<sup>112</sup> Ibid., p. 225.

addition to cost dimensions, other factors such as duration, educational background, sex, age and transportation facilities can affect response. These factors have already been discussed earlier. Tables 5.26, 5.27 and 5.28 provide information on the results of an attempt to find out preferences for different modes of training. It was decided to categorize the respondents based on whether they had past exposure to training or not. Data from the Mtwara region (Table 5.27) was collected from untrained individuals and past trainees at the FPHP. Their participation in residential training at the Naliendele centre never exceeded three days. It's quite obvious that past trainees were positively influenced by their exposure to short duration 2-3 day sessions within residential settings. All trainees hailed from Mtwara district and were primarily engaged in cassava and cashewnut production, both of which are relatively "less demanding crops." However, untrained villagers having never had past exposure to residential training, tended to prefer VBT.

Data from the Iringa region (see Table 5.28) was also collected from trained (TRDP villages) and untrained villagers. The majority of the trained villages had been exposed to both VBT (two weeks) and RT (one month long). There is a clear preference for VBT both on the part of

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<sup>113</sup> Interview with Nd. Mtukwe, FPHP Mtwara, July 1982.

those previously trained and those who have never participated in a training program. Trained villagers in Kilimanjaro region (see Table 5.27) on the other hand are more discerning in their choice and believe that the decision of whether training should be residential or village based, is based on the nature or type of training that is envisaged. Untrained villagers tend to be committed to VBT as in the other regions. What seems to arise is a need to identify preferences of the various sections (e.g. youth, women, adults, etc.) of the community before initiating training in a particular region. Results on this issue cannot be generalized from one region to another. It is quite clear that after a first exposure to training (residential in these cases) previously untrained villagers can be expected to be positively influenced to the idea of further residential training. Especially if the residential training is located within easy reach of the villagers and is of short duration (2-5 days), a high response rate can be expected to subsequent opportunities for RT, as was discovered by the Mtwara FTFP.

If the program is long-term and is residential in nature (as in FDC, Msinga) positions will be filled by youth rather than adults, as discussed in earlier sections of this chapter. Also, if funding is inadequate, enrollment will be below capacity.

TABLE 5.26

**Preferences for Village Based (VBT) or Residential Training (RT) in Kilimanjaro Region**

		VBT	RT	VBT or RT Depending on Type of Training
<b>Trained</b>	N	13	15	20
	%	27.1	31.3	41.7
<b>Untrained</b>	N	57	4	14
	%	76.0	5.3	18.7

TABLE 5.27

**Preferences for Village Based (VBT) or Residential Training (RT) in Mtwara Region**

		VBT	RT	VBT or RT Depending on Type of Training
<b>Trained</b>	N	26	41	8
	%	34.7	54.7	10.7
<b>Untrained</b>	N	42	29	4
	%	56	38.7	5.3

The former FTC program, the current 'two-week' Kilimo sponsored courses offered at selected FDCs in collaboration with the Ministry of National Education, and the FTPP project have demonstrated the utility of residential short courses. There definitely is a role for

TABLE 5.28

**Preferences for Village Based (VBT) or Residential  
Training (RT) in Iringa Region**

		<b>VBT</b>	<b>RT</b>	<b>VBT or RT Depending on Type of Training</b>
<b>Trained</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>20</b>
	<b>%</b>	<b>58.7</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>26.7</b>
<b>Untrained</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>
	<b>%</b>	<b>69.3</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>16.0</b>

this effort. However, there also appears to be a need to increase the emphasis on VBT as a means of reaching the significant proportion of people that do not participate in RT. There is also a need for broadening the scope of activities of these residential centres through imaginative programming that utilizes resources at the centres to the fullest extent possible. There is a need for residential centres to engage in a range of activities that have not been traditionally viewed as a training institution's responsibility but which they should be in a position to handle with considerable effectiveness. These activities could include the following: serving as a clearing house for information, as a site for adaptive research and testing, providing inservice support for extension workers and backstopping of field extension. It could be stated that the present network of residential

training institutions have yet to achieve their full potential.

### **5.5.3 Village Based Training (VBT)**

Unlike other African nations like Malawi, Zambia and to a lesser extent Botswana, Tanzania had not emphasized the use of VBT until recently. The Arusha declaration of 1967 provided Tanzanians with a policy that emphasized egalitarianism and self-reliance. Consequently the emphasis in Extension shifted from an individualized to a group approach. Specific instructions to that effect were provided to field staff by 1969. Village meetings became the prominent extension method. This is the closest that Tanzania got to VBT. However, Luning and Venema have criticized the handling of village meetings:

"Exhortation meetings are organized at ward... and village level. These meetings aim at mobilizing the peasant masses for development. The technique commonly used is to rely on exhortation rather than discussion. The meetings are attended by most of the staff in the area concerned. Peasants are lectured on a variety of subjects... Agricultural topics invariably figure on the agenda, but are not necessarily raised by the extension officer present... A magistrate can be heard to recommend people to plant early while the extension officer might urge people to pay taxes... I have estimated that in 1967 in one division one third to half of the total available time... was spent on meetings."<sup>114</sup>

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<sup>114</sup> Luning, H.A., and Venema, L.B., An Evaluation of the Agricultural Extension Service, Rungwe Agro-Social-Economic Research Project, Technical Paper No. 1, 1969.



Residential centres in Tanzania, until the establishment of the TRDP, have not had any significant role in the organization or conduct of village-based training. However, the thinking at the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations, one of the prime supporters of the FTC concept in the sixties and seventies, did not exclude such a role for residential centres. Cyril Barwell, an FAO advisor on farmer training states this:

"... many centres have very limited residential accomodation to offer to large communities. It is, therefore, often better policy to train farmers indirectly particularly where there are a number of local centres for day courses where staff and leaders can participate in training farmers at the local level to achieve a multiplier effect."<sup>115</sup>

#### 5.5.4 Rationale for VBT

The immediate impact of a residential training institution is usually limited to its intake capacity. Thus, at the present time the overall capacity at training institutions does not exceed 2500. Economics and/or an emphasis on long duration programmes adversely affects current utilization of this capacity. The majority of the villagers have not had access and will continue not to have access to residential training. Given the extent and urgency of problems which the average Tanzanian villager

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<sup>115</sup> Barwell, Cyril, Farmer Training in East-Central and Southern Africa, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, 1975, p. 1.

is faced with, Residential Centres may need to consider introducing a village-based training component in addition to residential programs offered at the present time.

Besides enabling access to increased numbers of villagers (relative to RT), VBT is justified because of its special relevance to socio-psychological aspects of training. Village settings are a familiar environment for trainees and the informal and non-threatening atmosphere creates conditions which are conducive to improved learner performance.<sup>116</sup> Since most of the trainees are known to each other, the "settling in period" is greatly reduced, thereby allowing the trainers to get down to the main task(s) ahead of them. Due to the spill-off effects (e.g. when bystanders and "visitors" observe part of the session) of VBT, there is usually less misunderstanding about the nature and purpose of training. On the contrary, increased community support can be expected. As discussed in the section 'Post Course Follow-up,' villagers who have attended only village-based training are less likely to suggest that trained villagers have re-entry problems. The re-entry problems may be minimized.

As explained earlier the low utilization of residential facilities is related to the under-funding of these institutions. A major cost is that of food, upkeep and

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<sup>116</sup> Discussions with Wing Leader Nyegezi, Farmer Training Wing, 15th July 1982 at the FTTP Coordinative Workshop, Mtwara.

transportation of trainees. While every attempt needs to be made to utilize the RT opportunities, an expansion of the already large network may not be advisable. By introducing a VBT component as part of the activities of residential centres, training can be provided to groups at the village level or at some central location within walking distance from participating villages. Training could be conducted on a half day basis permitting adult villagers to attend to farm and family responsibilities.<sup>117</sup> A saving on food and housing is entailed. Losses from the neglect of farm chores are minimized.<sup>118</sup>

Particularly in the case of technical agriculture, trainers are less likely to utilize inappropriate ideas, techniques and tools in VBT. The training conducted in village settings are subject to similar limitations as in real life, making instructional sessions more realistic. Quick feedback is facilitated which can be taken into account for immediate action on the part of trainers as the following example will illustrate. At the Mbeya FFTP, five villages were involved in oxen training programs. MATI staff and students, experienced in the use of the high quality, sturdy good-sized bulls found on the institute's farms assisted in the training. However, in  
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<sup>117</sup> Ibid.

<sup>118</sup> Refer to the sub-section 'Nature of Re-entry Problems' in the section on 'Post-Course Follow-up.'

their VBT training, it was soon apparent that the equipment used with those animals were too heavy for the village animals. Farmers sought lighter equipment. Had these training programs been conducted on the institutional farm with institutional animals this problem would not have surfaced that quickly. The training wing accordingly ordered the appropriate equipment for its farmers. The wing also decided that future training would be for two days with one day set aside for VBT.

Attendance by women is greatly enhanced by VBT. Data collected from TRDP's target villages indicate that 21.1% of the surveyed villagers who attended residential training at Ruaha are women but 51.4% of those who were surveyed from the VBT group are women (N=75). In the same region, villagers were asked to give three reasons why there was generally poor attendance by women (open-ended type of question). The following five reasons accounted for over 60% of the responses: Heavy domestic responsibilities, lack of self-confidence on the part of the women, lack of childcare facilities, illness or weakened health conditions and lack of permission from husbands. The remaining 40% of the responses pertained to some eleven other responses of relatively less importance. See Table 5.29 for details. VBT by itself can take care of many of the problems mentioned. A pre-training educational phase aimed at women and their spouses could further reduce the problems.

TABLE 5.29

**Reasons for Poor Attendance by Women in Residential Training**

	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Heavy domestic responsibilities</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>17.97</b>
<b>Lack of self confidence on the part of women</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>8.19</b>
<b>Permission not granted by husbands</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>13.48</b>
<b>Lack of child care facilities</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>14.32</b>
<b>Insufficient formal education</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>3.37</b>
<b>Illness/weakened condition</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>12.35</b>
<b>Overpowered by emotional attachment to family members</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>5.33</b>
<b>Laziness/irresponsibility</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>6.46</b>
<b>Nursing/pregnant women cannot attend</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>7.86</b>
<b>Heavy involvement in farming/ brewing through the year</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>3.65</b>
<b>Lack of appreciation for importance of training</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>3.93</b>
<b>Too old</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.12</b>
<b>Difficulty in delegating child care responsibility to fellow villagers</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.56</b>
<b>Drunkenness of women</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1.12</b>
<b>Inhibition of women in presence of male trainees</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.28</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>356</b>	<b>99.99</b>

**This data was collected only in the Iringa region. A maximum of three reasons per person was allowed.**

### 5.5.5 Villager Preferences for VBT

The data provided earlier in Tables 5.26, 5.27 and 5.28 provide an indication of the preferences that villagers have for various modes of training. However, while it does accentuate whatever differences exist between regions and between the trained and untrained villagers, little can be derived about different perceptions of men, women and leaders. However Table 5.30 provides detailed information on each of the six major groups surveyed.

TABLE 5.30

Survey of Six Groups Regarding Residential and Village Based Training

		Village Based Training ( VBT )	Residential Training ( RT )	VBT or RT Depending on Nature of Course
Trained	N	30	30	15
Men	%	40	40	20
Trained	N	30	17	26
Women	%	41.09	23.28	35.61
Trained	N	23	20	7
Leaders	%	46	40	14
Untrained	N	49	16	10
Men	%	65.33	21.33	13.33
Untrained	N	55	12	8
Women	%	73.33	16	10.66
Untrained	N	47	16	12
Leaders	%	62.66	21.33	16

It is quite clear that there is an overall bias towards VBT across the categories surveyed, though it is significantly higher among the untrained villagers. Training does influence the perceptions. One of the implications that can be drawn from this data is that if the Government is to be responsive to villager needs, in addition to the residential programs, an emphasis on VBT may have to be initiated. The strong bias of the untrained category towards VBT indicates the need for a pre-training phase aimed at improving the receptivity to residential training and reducing whatever misconceptions or fears may be prevalent. If this is not done, a sector of the population may be selectively deprived of training of the residential type. What is interesting is that against popular belief, men are just as likely as women to opt for VBT. Also surprising is the fact that among women who have been previously exposed to residential training, only 23.28% are sure of their preference for RT in the future.

#### **5.5.6 Age as a Factor Influencing the Choice of Different Training Locations**

Assuming the duration of training programs to be of short-term (2 weeks or less), with an increase in the age of the individual, the chances of the individual opting for VBT are greater. Farm and family responsibilities in a Tanzanian village increase as a person grows older and

this may deter an individual from travelling long distances and spending nights away from home. It's also more likely (specially in the high potential/highly developed regions) that with age, an individual would have made increased investments in farm enterprises, making it more difficult for the person to travel to a distant residential site for training.

TABLE 5.31

Age Group by Preference for Different Locations for Training

		VBT	RT	VBT or RT
Less than	N	28	19	25
25 Years	%	38.88	26.38	34.72
26 to 40	N	106	52	32
Years	%	55.78	27.36	16.84
41 to 55	N	77	32	19
Years	%	60.15	25.00	14.84
Over 56	N	23	8	2
Years	%	69.69	24.24	6.06

#### 5.5.7 Seasonal Variations and Complexity of the Farmer System and Seasonal Variation

There are seasonal variations in the ability of villagers to participate in training programs. Peak periods of labor demand are also periods of the poorest response. Table 5.32 provides some idea of the regional



variations in planting and harvesting seasons.<sup>119</sup>

TABLE 5.32

The Busiest Months for Planting and Harvesting in Four Regions

Site	Crop	Planting Months	Harvesting Months
Mlingano	Maize	Mar., Jan. & Feb., Sept.	July, Aug.
	Cassava	Mar., Jan. & Feb., Sept.	Aug., Sept.
	Cowpeas	Mar., Jan. & Feb., Sept.	--
Mtwara	Rice	Jan.	June-July
	Maize	Dec.-Jan.	May-June
	Cassava	Nov.-Dec.	Aug.
	Sorghum	Jan.	Aug.
	Legumes	Jan.-Feb.	--
Nyegezi	Cotton	Oct.-Nov.	May
	Maize	Nov.-Oct.	
	Rice	Dec.	
	Cassava	Dec.	
	Millet	Jan.	July
	Potatoes	Feb.	
UAC-Mbeya	Maize	Dec.-July	July-Oct, Apr.
	Sorghum	Jan.	July-Oct.
	Millet	Jan.	July-Oct.
	Beans	Jan.	
	Coffee	Feb.	
	Wheat	--	July-Oct.
	Vegetables	May	

During the FTC phase of the 1960-70s, training was totally suspended during these periods. The typical stages of the crop-cycle when response can be expected to be poor, are the stages of land-preparation and sowing, weeding and

<sup>119</sup> Village Leaders Survey Report, Pre-project Survey, FTTP, October 1982.

harvesting. However, as discussions in Mbeya and Iringa revealed, if the training topic is pertinent and "to-the-point," if it is village-based training and conducted during the afternoon period (when few crop operations are performed), villagers would be willing to participate for one to two hours a day. The FPHP in Mbeya also report that farmers engaged in raising improved dairy breeds of cattle expressed preference for training which was to be conducted on a 'part-day' basis.<sup>120</sup> Women in the Kilimanjaro region have a daily schedule of involvement in farm and home activities which keeps them occupied for a major part of each day of the entire year. VBT, if it is provided on a two to three-hour-per-day basis, may often be the only mode of training which the majority of the adult women would be able to participate in.<sup>121</sup>

#### **5.5.8 VBT: an Approach that Can Provide the Required "Critical Mass"**

One of the major problems encountered by participants returning from residential training (under conditions where only one to two individuals represent a single village) are the social sanctions that are often imposed upon them by fellow-villagers. More often than not these are not explicit and tend to be subtle attempts to deal

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<sup>120</sup> Interview with Nd. Kussaga, FPHP, MATI, Uyole, July.

<sup>121</sup> Interview with Mrs. V.M. Wapila, in charge of Farmers Education, Moshi Viggini, Kilimanjaro region, October 15, 1982.

with behavior that does not conform to accepted norms of the village and/or the area. One way of reducing this problem is to ensure that a wide representation from the particular village is present at the training. Interviews conducted at the village level in Mtwara, indicate a preference for the approach used by FTPP in which a group of villagers is trained.

Hans Ruthenberg, in a specific reference to farmers in Tanzania also supports the idea for community-wide training:

"Participants should be neighbors where possible, since communal introduction of an innovation spares the individual from having to make an isolated venture. Furthermore certain innovations (irrigation, dipping facilities against East Coast fever, cultivation of a crop threatened by wild life, etc.) are only useful if supported by the community. Also, the conformist behavior of a group of farmers establishes a stronger nucleus for agricultural development."<sup>122</sup>

When more than one individual is trained at a time, the opportunities for mutual support, cross referencing and for initiating group discussion on the training topic upon return to their home villages, are significantly increased.

Joan Tully stresses the relevance of Merton's reference-group theory to extension. Reference groups are groups to which an individual refers or relates his behavior. She states that these

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<sup>122</sup> Ruthenberg, Hans, Agricultural Development in Tanganyika, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1964, p. 67.

**"rural reference groups have their own value systems and norms of behavior and enforce them by sanctions... To change the norms of such a group on a particular topic it would seem necessary to promote interaction on the topic among the majority of its members."**<sup>123</sup>

Tully refers to the unpublished findings of a 1964 Queensland Department of Primary Industry's experiment in four tobacco growing neighborhoods. In three of the neighborhoods, 60% of the members attended sessions at which new techniques for covering tobacco seed-beds were discussed. In the fourth no such thing was done (only a problem census was conducted). Findings indicated that in the three neighborhoods discussion and adoption of the new technique had taken place but not in the fourth. Even more interesting was the finding that there was no difference in the adoption rate between those who attended the training sessions and those who did not. Tully concludes that 60% of the group members who attended the sessions discussed the topic with those who did not. Tully believes that "if a large proportion of the membership of a reference group discusses a particular topic, changes in the behavior of the majority occur."<sup>124</sup>

Of the three programs studied in Tanzania, the FPHP in Mtwara and the TRDP in the Southern regions have promoted approaches that aim at providing training to a relatively

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<sup>123</sup> Tully, Joan, "Towards a Sociological Theory of Extension." Human Relations.

<sup>124</sup> Ibid., p. 398.

wide cross-section of individuals in each village. Due to a higher quality and intensity of follow-up activity, the FTPP has been able to achieve a significant impact (in this case in the improvement of village leadership and management). The potential for an even greater impact within TRDP's target area exists if TRDP is able to provide more concerted and focussed attention to the villages involved. Participant-observation of training sessions held by FTPP MTwara indicate a remarkable degree of self-confidence and overall participation by trainees during training sessions. The combined effect of frequent exposure to training along with an FTPP emphasis on a large representation from each village could explain this orientation of participants. Of the four villages visited, two villages indicated a significant improvement in village-management capability and a growing expansion of numerous village economic projects. The following passage from the FTPP Mtware, reporting on the preliminary impact of the village-planning course is indicative of the potential impact:

"Problems were identified, solutions considered, plans of action formulated, and a system was developed for involving the entire village in the planning and implementation process. As a result, these four villages expanded the size and activities of their communal farms. High-value cash crops such as groundnut and simsim were harvested and sold to provide money for village selected projects such as medical and water facility development. Village participation in communal activities has increased due to two factors: first, villagers were involved in the planning process; and two,

a goal was set which would benefit everyone."<sup>125</sup> Field trips to all four villages indicated that the report is an accurate portrayal of the small but significant changes occurring. In one village, Mbawala, villagers directly attributed the new collective-farm, nursery school and CCM building to their improved planning capabilities.

In the TRDP villages studied, village leaders indicated increased cooperation between leaders, improved management skills and a considerable hope for the future as evidenced by a spurt of localized planning activity. The chairman of Sawala for example specified the following changes<sup>126</sup> in his village which he attributes to TRDP training:

1. Greater understanding of the value of division of labor and responsibilities among fellow leaders and other villagers.
2. Improved management of the communal village farm.
3. Improved management of the village mill and greater sharing of responsibilities.
4. Increase in the absolute numbers of people participating in communal activities.
5. Greater openness and a healthy self-critical attitude.

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<sup>125</sup> FPHP Mtwara Quarterly Report.

<sup>126</sup> Interview in Sawala, Iringa region, November 1982.

However, TRDP's involvement with these villages is a recent one, and until follow-up responsibility is decentralized (so that regional trainers rather than the Ruaha centre staff have a major responsibility) and adequate transportation is ensured, the impact will be minimal. As indicated elsewhere the training approaches are sound and the potential for an impact on village development is very high. It's the structural barriers which must be overcome, and by attempting to 'go big' (covering five regions under difficult logistics) the TRDP goal of strengthening management systems at all levels, increasing agricultural and livestock production and income levels and improving the quality of life in 350 villages by 1986 may continue to be an elusive one.

A sustained, frequent, and an intensive exposure to a series of highly participatory training events aimed at a broad cross-section of villagers over a period of time, preferably on a village by village basis, is essential if any significant impact on village planning and management is to be achieved. An intensive program of follow-up visits (exemplified by FTFP Mtwara) for purposes of monitoring, reinforcement, or remedial action may be desirable.

The village level survey conducted in Iringa retrieved some additional information on this issue. Of those interviewed (N=150) 22.7% felt that the training should

focus on 20-30 people from a single village. 60% felt that 2-5 people from each village should be provided training at a time. Only 11.3% supported the idea that only one person from each village should take part in training.

In technical training, an emphasis on training 5-10 individuals from each village in the particular topic accompanied by frequent follow-up activity (subsequent training and village visits by the trainers) is adequate. However the logic of reaching the 'critical mass' holds good even within technical training both because of its pedagogical value and the social pressures that can impact upon the 'deviants.' Roland Bunch's definition of 'critical mass' is particularly relevant to our discussion within the context of technical training:

"The percentage of the people in a community that must experience success with an innovation to turn the tide of consensus in favor of an innovation, instead of against it, is what we will call 'critical mass.' If fewer than this number of people in a village adopt a given innovation, it will tend toward extinction. However when the number of successful adopters reaches the critical mass, the pressures in favor of the practice outweigh those against it."<sup>127</sup>

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<sup>127</sup> Bunch Roland, Two Ears of Corn, World Neighbors, Oklahoma, 1982, p. 86.



## **5.6    THEME V: INSTRUCTIONAL CONTENT, METHODS AND MATERIALS**

### **5.6.1    Training-Content**

#### **5.6.1.1    Overview of the Orientation of Training Curricula**

The three programs studied differed considerably with regard to their orientation.

##### **5.6.1.1.1    Folk Development College, Msinga**

The Folk Development College at Msinga followed the syllabi and guidelines suggested by the Ministry of National Education. Seven core courses are recommended and a specialization in one of three areas is expected at the Msinga FDC. The course outline is given in Table 5.33. The three areas of specializations are Technical Education ('Ufundi'), Domestic Science ('Sayansi Kimu') and Agriculture ('Kilimo'). Interestingly, support for these specializations can be found in a recent survey<sup>128</sup> conducted in four southern regions among 231 villagers. When asked what training programs villagers should have the three most frequently mentioned topics were Domestic Science, Agriculture and Technical Education (i.e. Masonry, Carpentry). Table 5.38 provides details.

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<sup>128</sup> John Moland Jr., "Village Problems and Training Needs as Perceived by Villagers and their Leaders," June 1981.

**TABLE 5.33**

**Course Outline for the Seven Core-courses Taught at Folk  
Development Colleges**

**1. Political Education**

- a. History of Tanzanian politics**
- b. Policy of the Party (TANU)**
- c. Policy of socialism and self-reliance**
- d. Liberation of the African continent**
- e. Defence of the nation**
- f. Tanzania's relations with other countries**

**2. Economics - Rural Development**

- a. The concept of development in general**
- b. Economic foundations of development**
- c. Rural development**
- d. Development of different societies**
- e. Production techniques**
- f. Planning development programmes and leadership**

**3. Agriculture**

- a. Short history of agriculture**
- b. Soil science**
- c. Conservation of soil**
- d. Forestry**
- e. Botany**
- f. Animal Husbandry**
- g. Fish farming**
- h. Bee-keeping**
- i. Agricultural equipment and modern agricultural methods**
- j. Irrigation**
- k. Farm management**
- l. Housing construction on the farms**
- m. Agriculture advice**

**4. Accountancy and Management**

- a. Accountancy**
- b. Auditing**
- c. Supervision of stores**
- d. Managing a shop**
- e. Supervision know-how**

**5. Domestic Science**

- a. Better diet
- b. Cookery
- c. House-keeping
- d. Tailoring
- e. First Aid

**6. Technical Education**

- a. Carpentry
- b. Masonry
- c. Pottery
- d. Blacksmithery
- e. Tinsmithery
- f. Plumbing
- g. Automobile mechanics
- h. Electricity
- i. Drawing

**7. Culture**

- a. History of culture
- b. Its value, place and status
- c. Short history of Swahili
- d. Swahili in general
- e. Major specialized skills
- f. Literature
- g. Swahili grammar and its usage
- h. Arts and Crafts
- i. Physical games

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**Source:** Kassam Yosuf. O., The Adult Education Revolution in Tanzania, Shungwaya Publishers Ltd., (1978), pp. 96-99.

A detailed National syllabus<sup>129</sup> was developed in a 1980 workshop using a participatory approach and involving FDC tutors and specialists from the Ministry of National Education. The 1980 syllabus differed from the previous one (developed in 1975) in that it included a strong emphasis on suggested instructional guidelines<sup>130</sup>

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<sup>129</sup> "Muhtasari wa vyuo vya Maendeleo ya wananchi," January 1980.

<sup>130</sup> Interview with Nd. Bendera, Kibaha FDC training centre, Coast region, 10th May 1982.

(considered necessary because of a high percentage of tutors lacking teacher training).

What was originally conceived of as a flexible set of suggested guidelines (at the National level) is interpreted by tutors at the FDC, Msinga as a rigid structure that is to be religiously adhered to. There is a preoccupation with sticking to suggested topics and completing the stipulated syllabus within the nine-month period. Trainees are expected to maintain class-notes which are regularly turned in for review by the respective tutor.<sup>131</sup> Tutors justify the use of this technique as the only means of ensuring that trainees have adequate informational material to refer to, upon return to their villages. Training content (during the 40% of the time devoted to theory) is subject matter oriented rather than problem solving oriented. This is largely a reflection of the fact that the rigidly adhered to syllabus has a subject-matter rather than a problem solving orientation. Irrespective of specialization, all trainees are exposed to Political Education, Culture, Management and Economics in keeping with the broad objectives of the Folk Development Colleges.

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<sup>131</sup> However, FDCs do not have a formal grading or examination system.

#### **5.6.1.1.2 Two Week Courses at FDC, Msinga**

The FDC of Msinga as discussed in an earlier chapter is one of the twenty FDC's<sup>132</sup> which has been selected by the Ministry of Agriculture for establishment of 'two-week courses' emphasizing agricultural topics. Such courses, though held at the FDC and using their facilities, are coordinated by the regional representative of the Ministry of Agriculture. This person, referred to as the 'Course-Coordinator' in the Kilimanjaro region, is responsible for designing the syllabus for the two week programs at Msinga. A prepackaged syllabus was the basis on which the resident tutors determined day-to-day topic needs. Informal interviews with participants and the tutor concerned and an observation of activities during the two-week period, by this researcher, indicated that participant needs were not considered as a basis for designing course-content. However, opportunity was provided for discussions within the range of covered topics. A trainee-expectations survey (conducted within hours of the arrival of trainees) provided an indication of topic-needs as perceived by trainees. Table 5.34 provides the details:

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<sup>132</sup> A reminder for the reader: FDCs are training institutions within the Ministry of National Education.

TABLE 5.34

Trainee Topic Needs

Topic	Number of Requests
1. Control of soil erosion	15
2. Vermin control	9
3. Use of chemical fertilizers	7
4. Rat control	6
5. Pest control	10
6. Coffee diseases	4
7. Maize production	4

At the end of the two week course a listing of topics actually taught (based on a pre-set syllabus made available by Regional authorities) was provided by the tutor and is provided below:

TABLE 5.35

Syllabus of the "Two-week" Course at FDC Msinga

Topic	Day
1. Sorghum	Day 1
2. Sorghum, Cotton	Day 2
3. Cotton, Bananas	Day 3
4. Bananas, Cassava	Day 4
5. Cassava, Maize, Bird and vermin control, Soil and water conservation	Day 5
6. No classes (Saturday)	Day 6
7. No classes (Sunday)	Day 7
8. Maize	Day 8
9. Tutor absent	Day 9
10. Coffee Crop	Day 10
11. Tomato production	Day 11
12. Coffee pruning and use of pesticides	Day 12
13. No classes (Saturday)	Day 13
14. No classes (Sunday)	Day 14

By comparing the trainee-topic needs (derived during the trainee-expectations survey and given in Table 5.45) with what was actually taught (Table 5.46), a significant discrepancy becomes quickly apparent. The topic that the majority of participants expressed interest in Soil Erosion Control<sup>133</sup> barely received an hour's coverage on Day 5. Vermin Control and Pest Control, two other important expressed needs received only a total of half-a-day coverage. Topics such as Cassava, Cotton, Sorghum, Tomatoes, each of which received full-day coverage, did not appear anywhere in the list of trainee expectations.

**5.6.1.1.3 The Farmer Training and Production Project (FTPP)**

The FFTP, Mtwara has emphasized the use of two major types of courses: Technical (usually agricultural) and Village Planning and Management. Technical courses offered cover a wide range of topic areas as shown in Table 5.36. These short-duration, commodity specific courses also tended to be subject-matter oriented but less so than the FDC courses. Training involved adult, practicing farmers (unlike FDC courses) and provided for discussional sessions which were used for handling field problems posed by participants. The Village Planning and

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<sup>133</sup> Though after the discrepancy was discovered and data collected, this researcher conducted a full-day session on the topic as a token of appreciation for their participation in the survey.

Management courses, were by design meant to be problem-solving and highly participatory (more about this in subsequent sections).

TABLE 5.36

Listing of Courses Conducted at FTPP-Mtwara (Up to August 1982)

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Farmer's Orientation (2 courses)
Pigeon, Peas and Sorghum (2 courses)
Storage of Food Crops
Cashewnut Production
Goat and Rabbit Production
Human Nutrition
Animal Health
Village Management and Planning (3 courses)
Groundnuts
Coconuts
Sorghum and Cassava
Sim-Sim
Ox-Plowing Demonstrations
Rabbit Study Tour
Farmers Study Tour of ARI, MATI
Paraprofessional Training

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**5.6.1.1.4 The Training for Rural Development Project (TRDP)**

As indicated earlier the TRDP offers training to village leaders and functionaries from participating villages, at four sequential stages: a two week village intervention, another month long residential training (dealing with issues pertaining to village planning, management and leadership), informal "spontaneous" training during



follow-up visits and finally a month long residential training (technical issues pertaining to agriculture, livestock production, agroforestry, fisheries, etc.). The residential training programs generally have a topic outline (see Table 5.37). TRDP's emphasis has been on village planning and management (this orientation was discussed earlier, in Chapter IV). Interestingly, when surveyed about training needs, respondents tended to be technically oriented (as Table 5.34 has shown).<sup>134</sup>

However, a detailed syllabus does not exist because TRD has emphasized an approach that is process-oriented and participatory with participant needs forming the basis on which detailed course plans are worked out. The village based training (during 'village-intervention' and follow-up) also tends to be designed on-the-spot and aimed at meeting an identified information/skill deficiency in the village. (Refer to the sub-section on 'Training in Village Planning and Management' in a following sub-section, for an illustrative schedule of the Village Intervention course.) This was undoubtedly an unconventional approach for officials familiar with approaches used in other training institutions and in the past:

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<sup>134</sup> Readers are reminded that the survey was conducted right at the outset before TRDP began any training activities. The survey referred to in "Villager Problems and Training Needs..." by John Moland Jr., June 1981.

TABLE 5.37

Topic outline for Residential Training Component at TRDP  
Ruaha, Iringa

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1. Effective communication in village development	6.5 hours
2. Effective coordination in village development	6.5 hours
3. Effective leadership skills in village development	13.0 hours
4. Aspects of village community development	6.5 hours
5. Project management in village development	32.5 hours
6. Village shop-management	9.5 hours
7. Modern techniques in farming, livestock development, forestry and aspects of farm management	16.0 hours
8. Farm management	10.0 hours
9. Team building	12.0 hours
TOTAL	102.5 hours

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"The most difficult communication problems experienced in Phase I were in communicating to mid-level policy makers and managers why the training did not, from the beginning, have a pre-designed curriculum and syllabus, which they would review and pass judgement upon before implementation."<sup>135</sup>

Technical training, though given some emphasis (16 out of a total of 102.5 hours) in the first month long training course is considered to be of secondary importance at this stage. Technical training receives detailed, intensive coverage during the second, month-long course and after

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<sup>135</sup> Training for Rural Development Phase II, Project Paper, Agency for International Development, Washington, 1981, pp. 8-30.

TABLE 5.38

**Training Programs You Think Villagers Should Have by Sex and Village of Non-leader Respondents\***

Training Programs	Sex	
	M (115)	F (96)
Existing programs should be improved	1	2
Training in farming and modern farming technology, livestock, beekeeping	25	25
Training in home economics, weaving, tailoring	5	36
Training in health education and preventative medicine	3	8
Training in building and carpentry, small industry, machines, technology	34	13
Training in political education, training to build a democracy	3	1
Training in adult education, maintenance of records	11	4
Advanced militia training, peoples militia	16	6
Leadership training, village management, how to run projects	1	4
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>99</b>

\*Data represents six villages in four southern regions of Tanzania.

Source: "Report on the Study of Village Problems and Training Needs as Perceived by Villagers and their Leaders," by John Moland Jr., June 1981.

the participants have received adequate exposure to issues pertaining to village planning.

Interestingly, the initial emphasis of TRDP and FTTP differed: the former began with a strong emphasis on technical agriculture courses and then shifted to village planning and management courses when it was found that villagers "did not see agricultural problems as very important. Instead, it was observed that other problems were more immediate. Water and its availability appeared to be the most important problem..."<sup>136</sup> TRDP from the outset, and in spite of the fact that increasing agricultural and livestock production is stated as one of the major goals, has emphasized the need for a strong initial emphasis on village leadership, planning and management, because the lack of such skills is perceived as a constraint to rapid agricultural growth.

#### **5.6.1.2 Subject Matter Orientation Rather Than Problem-Solving Orientation of Respondents**

Numerous questions were asked during the village level survey to attempt to derive villagers' learning orientation. In Kilimanjaro region (the only site where short-course attendants attended only agricultural courses) trained villagers were asked to select one of three given reasons which they felt best explained their  
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<sup>136</sup> "Observations: Village Planning Course." Concept paper prepared by the Farmer Training and Production Project, Naliende, Mtwara.

motive for attending training. Table 5.39 provides details.

TABLE 5.39

Reasons for Attending Training by Sex of Trained Villagers

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
I wanted to learn more about agriculture in general	17	68	12	52.20
I had a specific agricultural problem which I wanted to solve	7	28	10	43.50
I wanted to be involved in some kind of activity other than the daily work I do on my farm	1	4	1	4.30
TOTAL	25		23	100.00

Data collected in Kilimanjaro Region Only.

There is an overall interest in learning more about general aspects of agriculture but more so in the case of males. A similar question (though restricted to only two choices) was asked of both trained and untrained categories of respondents. They were asked which of two purposes of training they considered more important. Their responses by sex and category are given in the following table:

Once again the problem-solving orientation is not perceived as important as the acquisition of a general

TABLE 5.40

Purpose of Agricultural Training by Sex

		To acquire general agri- cultural know- ledge	To acquire specific agricultural know- ledge aimed at solving an immedi- ate problem	Total
Male	N	195	80	275
	%	70.90	29.10	100
Female	N	95	52	147
	%	64.60	35.40	100

Data collected in Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Iringa Regions.  
N=422; Missing cases=1

TABLE 5.41

Purpose of Agricultural Training by Category of Respondent  
(i.e. trained or Non-trained)

		To acquire general agri- cultural know- ledge	To acquire specific agricultural know- ledge aimed at solving an immedi- ate problem	Total
Trained Category	N	135	63	198
	%	68.18	31.82	100
Untrained Category	N	155	69	224
	%	69.19	30.80	100

Data collected in Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Iringa Regions.  
N=422; Missing cases=1

broad based foundation in agriculture. These rather

surprising results could be conditioned by previous exposure to formal education, (at least 60% of participants had exposure to some level in a formal education setup), by the fact that opportunities for training are so few and far between that a general course is perceived as more useful in the long run rather than a problem-specific course. Even when dealing with a specific crop, respondents tend to have a general orientation rather than an emphasis on some selected practices of the particular crop. See Table 5.42 below:

TABLE 5.42

Orientation in Topic Selection by Sex

		All Practices of Maize# Crop	A Few Selected Practices of Maize# Crop	Total
Male	N	175	23	198
	%	88.38	11.62	100
Female	N	197	27	224
	%	87.94	12.06	100

Data collected in Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Iringa Regions.

N=422; Missing cases = 1

5.6.1.3 Need for a Cross-sectoral Emphasis in the Teaching of Courses

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<sup>137</sup> Training for Rural Development II Project Paper, Agency for International Development, Washington D.C.

The TRDP<sup>137</sup> training courses and the FTPP Village Planning and Management courses are characteristically and intentionally cross-sectoral in nature. The FDC long courses and the 'two-week' Kilimo courses are typically sectoral (and subject matter oriented) i.e., dealing primarily within a specific discipline or program area. As stated by Gary Thomas this is the case with the vast majority of the training institutions in Tanzania:

"With very few exceptions, whether it takes place in educational institutions, in offices at the regional or district centres, or in the field, training is done within the confines of the narrow technical sectors of the different government ministries ... The target population for such training is homogenous, the goal is to transmit specialized knowledge, the learning context is hierarchically arranged...<sup>138</sup>

The concept of Rural Training Centres, established in the 1970s (in the wake of a situation where a multiplicity of training institutions were operating, usually under capacity and with a considerable wastage of human and financial resources resulting from duplication of services) was Tanzania's first opportunity to facilitate and institutionalize cross-sectoral training within a single institution. However, this did not happen and activities continued to be sectoral within various

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20523, 1981, p. 9.

<sup>138</sup> Gary L. Thomas, "Implementing the Training for Rural Development Project in Arusha Region: Issues, Alternatives, and Recommendations." A report prepared for Tanzania: Training for Rural Development II, November 1982, p. 4.



ministries and departments which utilized the RTC facilities for their own sectoral needs.

Jean Ritchie, based on her work in Buhare, Musoma, emphasizes that at the village level, families are faced with problems and issues which are cross-sectoral in nature. Referring to education in the home economics field, she states that:

"Only rarely were families and their problems considered as a whole or made the focal point of planned teaching. Moreover, in addition to unrelated teaching of home economics subjects, teaching in agriculture and health were carried out independently and the teaching in various programs was often contradictory. But the various aspects of family life are always interrelated; energy depends on good food and good health; economic advancement depends on productivity which depends on energy; good childcare depends on enough of a woman's time being available from other duties such as agriculture; health depends, at least to some extent, on the availability of food and the control of infestation through clean houses and compounds. Moreover, families do not think of themselves and their problems in terms of jurisdiction of different government departments. They see themselves as the unit of importance and other people in relation to themselves."<sup>139</sup>

The hub of TRDP's village project activities, including its residential training component, is the Training for Rural Development Center located at Ruaha. The core group of farmers that operates from Ruaha were seconded by the departments of Cooperatives and Community Development in

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<sup>139</sup> Jean A.S. Ritchie, "The Training of Rural Women in Home Economics and Nutrition." A Record of the Proceedings of a National Seminar and Workshop on Farmers' Education, Moshi, May 1970.

the Prime Minister's office and Ministries of Agriculture, Livestock and Natural Resources. Trainers thus represent each of the major ministries involved in rural development. TRD training courses are designed and conducted by this multi-sectoral group.<sup>140</sup> The nature of most instructional sessions is thus influenced by a multi-sectoral orientation. (The exception probably is the technical training component which generally is commodity-specific and sectoral.) Interviews with village leaders in Sawala and Kiwere indicated an appreciation for such an approach because the presence of resource persons representing various ministries, greatly facilitated and enhanced the design and development of realistic village plans, during the 'back-home planning' stage of the course. FTFP's courses regularly involved representatives from district and regional agencies (RADO, DADO, ARI, RIDEP, CATA), though these usually were from the agricultural (or closely related) sector. Given the project purpose of the FTFP, "To increase food production through the mechanism of developing a mutual understanding between farmers and extension agents in such a systematic way that it will lead to better comprehension and appreciation of farmer's production problems and his

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<sup>140</sup> In fact, because TRDP is considered a "cross-sectoral activity" a National Coordinating Committee, consisting of representatives from various ministries and regions was established to serve as a policymaking body for project implementation.

social/economic attitudes..."<sup>141</sup> and given its emphasis on agricultural courses (as illustrated by Table 5.36) an overall bias towards the agriculture sector did exist. However, as indicated earlier, staff at FTPP soon discovered that villagers often had higher priorities for non-agricultural needs and a shift to village-planning short courses was made. Unlike TRDP, FTPP staff were all from within the Ministry of Agriculture, but by organizing participatory, non-directive courses without a pre-determined curriculum were able to provide trainees with an opportunity to determine the course content, which invariably assumed a holistic and therefore multi-sectoral perspective.

The 'Two-week'<sup>142</sup> course at Msinga confined itself to the agriculture sector (typical course schedule shown on Table 5.35). Livestock topics were conspicuous by their absence even though course participants hailed from Kilimanjaro region, where mixed (crop-livestock) enterprises are to be found. In fact when participants were interviewed as part of the 'pre-expectations survey' (N=30) 80 percent preferred a course dealing with both livestock and agriculture sectors. When questioned about the total neglect of the livestock component, the course coordinator and tutor indicated that 'livestock

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<sup>141</sup> Tanzania Agriculture Manpower Development, Amendment 1 - Farmer Training and Production, 1977, p. 57.

<sup>142</sup> Responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture.

production' topics were the responsibility of the Ministry of Livestock and a handling of 'their topic' would be perceived as an infringement into the dominion of the Ministry of Livestock.<sup>143</sup> Thus, the neglect of livestock topics is intentional and perpetuates the compartmentalization of topics within specific sectors.

#### **5.6.1.4 Differential Receptivity to Crop and Livestock Enterprises**

It is generally believed that in peasant economies, there is a definite bias for training topics dealing with crop production rather than livestock training. The major concern of peasants is to raise enough subsistence crops for home consumption (by itself a challenging task in most developing countries). Initial efforts are strongly oriented towards grain crops. There may be a marginal interest in livestock products. This is particularly so among the majority of Tanzania's tribes who have not had a history of animal herding even as a sideline enterprise.

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<sup>143</sup> At the time this research was conducted there were indications that the farm magazine "Ukulima wa kisasa," first published in 1951, and circulated nationwide, would be subject to similar pressure, as a result of break-up of the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock into two separate ministries.

<sup>144</sup> A detailed account of the Bahaya is to be found in Jorgen and Karen Bald, Rural Organization in Bukoba District, Tanzania, Scandinavian Institute of African Studies Uppsala, Sweden, 1975).

Among certain ethnic groups such as the Bahaya<sup>144</sup> from Bukoba (Kagera region) the need to improve the fertility of sandy soils for the cultivation of Banana and Coffee, was the major motivating factor for the integration of cattle into the traditional crop based agriculture (cattle were primarily raised for their manure).

As exemplified by Kilimanjaro region, as the agricultural economy (usually cash crop based) improved, there was an increasing interest in the role of livestock in the overall family-farm enterprise. The increased purchasing power of the people in the region created and maintained a demand for livestock products. The land shortage spurred an interest to diversify farm enterprise.

Dietrich Von Rotenhan (1968) supports the 'crop before livestock' emphasis:

"Experience in tropical Africa generally shows that the introduction of improvements and innovations is easier in cropping than in animal husbandry. It would therefore be expedient during the 'first development phase' to concentrate on field crops. It can then be expected that during a 'second development phase' the farmers will be more interested in their livestock"<sup>145</sup>

Von Rotenhan also argues that the initial emphasis on cash crops generates a purchasing capacity which increases the demand for milk and meat. The resultant effect is an interest in livestock production as an economic

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<sup>145</sup> Dietrich von Rotenhan, "Cotton Farming in Sukamaland" in Smallholder Farming and Small Holder Development in Tanzania, edited by Hans Ruthenberg, Weltforum Verlag, 1968.

enterprise.

Hans Ruthenberg (1968) also believes that plant production innovations are more readily accepted than those in animal production. He states that

"The first step is usually the introduction of a new cash crop... The added income provided by the new cash crop increases the demand for locally consumed goods and thus generates secondary cash crops ... We find that the more successful smallholders invest some of their profits in the establishment of small plantations or in the purchase of cattle or tractors. In some fortunate cases where the conditions are favourable smallholders buy grade cows and begin commercial milk production."<sup>146</sup>

In addition to this largely economic basis of his arguments, Hans Ruthenberg stresses that the introduction of crop innovations are more readily accepted than those in animal husbandry because a change in the latter "usually requires a high degree of group conformity, overcoming traditional value systems..."<sup>147</sup>

The VLS conducted in Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Iringa regions clearly indicated that villagers in general (over 90%) preferred crop-related topics. However, the percentages of the population indicating an interest in livestock related topics tended to increase as one went from a lesser developed (Mtwara), to a relatively advanced agricultural economy (Iringa) and was the highest in the  
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<sup>146</sup> Hans Ruthenberg, "Some Characteristics of Smallholder Farming in Tanzania," in Small Holder Farming and Smallholder Development in Tanzania, Munich, West Germany, Welforum Verlag, 1968, p. 343.

<sup>147</sup> Ibid.

well developed agricultural economy of Kilimanjaro.

(Table 5.43 gives details.)

TABLE 5.43

Training Topic Suggestions by Regions (in Various Stages of Development)<sup>a</sup>

	Mtwara		Iringa		Kili- manjaro	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Suggestions for Crop Related Topics	248	98.41	280	96.55	203	93.11
Suggestions for Animal Produc- tion Related Topics	4	1.58	10	3.44	15	6.88
Total	288	99.99	290	99.99	218	99.99

<sup>a</sup>It is generally accepted that Mtwara has the least developed agricultural economy while Kilimanjaro has a highly developed one. Iringa is somewhere in between. Note the increasing importance given to livestock topics.

From these discussions it is clear that overall, there is a strong orientation towards crop production. The interest in livestock is significantly smaller but tends to increase as the cash economy improves. Trainers can derive that the response to training opportunities could reflect this pattern and that if it has to be changed, specially designed, intensive, campaign type strategies to bring about a reorientation may be necessary. A case in

point is the overall failure, (in spite of a National policy which promotes it strongly), of the oxenization program in areas of Tanzania which have not had a history of livestock husbandry and/or a cash-crop economy.

Specially designed educational strategies including training programs preceded by awareness creating campaigns, are crucial. Exhortation by political leaders, or volumes of supporting policy documents do little to bring about real changes.

#### **5.6.1.5 Cash Crop Orientation in the Choice of Training Topics**

In general, an orientation towards new, high yielding crops has been recorded when village audiences are asked to indicate their preferences for training topics. The data given in Table 5.44 indicates that overall, irrespective of regions there is a preference for "new" crops (in Tanzania "new" crops are synonymous with cash crops given historical emphasis). The response pattern is similar when studied on the basis of sex of respondent or whether the person was trained or not (see Tables 5.45 and 5.46).

In the past training offered by various farmer training institutions has emphasized the introduction of new crops (coffee and its agronomic practices in Kilimanjaro, tobacco, tea and pyrethum in the Iringa area and cashews and groundnuts in the Mtwara regions). These facts could



TABLE 5.44

Orientation of Villagers in Crop Production Courses

	Mtwara		Kilimanjaro		Iringa	
Improved Methods of Growing the Traditional Crop of the Area	26	17.33	9	7.32	9	6.0
Methods of Growing a New High Yielding Crop	124	82.67	114	92.68	141	94.0
TOTAL	150	100.00	123	100.00	150	100.00

TABLE 5.45

Orientation in Choice of Crop Production by Sex

		Improved Methods of Growing Traditional Crops	Methods of Growing High Yielding Crops	Total
Male	N	26	250	276
	%	9.40	90.60	100
Female	N	18	129	147
	%	12.24	87.75	100

have biased respondents towards answering the way they did. On the other hand, there is an overall feeling that opportunities for training are few and far between: so, given an opportunity for training, the preference would be for learning about a crop with which they are not already familiar. Also, there may be a perception among villagers

TABLE 5.46

Orientation in Choice of Crop Production by Category of Respondent

		Improved Methods of Growing Traditional Crops	Methods of Growing High Yielding Crops	Total
Trained	N	16	182	198
Category	%	8.10	91.90	100
Untrained	N	28	197	225
Category	%	12.44	87.56	100

(based on their past interactions with agricultural service agencies operating in their area) that when it comes to knowledge about traditional crops, their knowledge and understanding is superior to that of the training institutions'.

Then, there is the issue about monetary incentives discussed in detail in an earlier subsection. Villagers are aware that increases in production whether in cash crops or traditional food crops always involve additional work, greater risks, higher cash inputs, social costs (after all conformity rather than innovativeness is encouraged within most traditional social groups at least in the early stages of change) and more exacting operations. Given this situation, they would rather select a crop where monetary compensation is received.

Hans Rutherberg's comments provide some explanation for why peasants are more inclined to accept innovations in cash-crops rather than subsistence crops:

"Numerous technically and economically feasible innovations demand too much of the smallholders' cultural experience ... Technically demanding work is usually only carried out regularly and carefully when a strong monetary incentive is present ... The innovations in the realm of subsistence cropping lacks the particular incentive which is afforded by money and desired consumer items in cash cropping. In various locations customs prescribe that, if necessary, the food crop be distributed among numerous relatives and neighbors. It is, therefore, by no means certain that the cultivator will enjoy the increased returns fully, as is mostly the case with cash cropping."<sup>148</sup>

While it is agreed that there is an orientation towards cash crops, as explained earlier, a number of factors could have conditioned villagers' responses. Trainers would have to identify through research activities what the reasons are for this orientation. It might be necessary to create an awareness of the potential that exists for production increases within the traditional crop sector, particularly because of the major role it has towards meeting domestic food production needs. From the perspective of the policy maker, the decline of the cash crops (industrial and export crops especially) since the 1970s is a problem of major concern and may necessitate a renewed emphasis on this sector, the part of training institutions. However, if the orientation towards cash-

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<sup>148</sup> Ibid., p. 344.

crops is so strong as to result in significantly lower demand for courses emphasizing traditional (food) crops, then such institutions may want to consider offering a course which deals with both traditional and cash crops, thus ensuring that the clientele receive at least some exposure to traditional crop improvements.

#### **5.6.1.6 Training in Village Planning and Management**

##### **5.6.1.6.5 Historical Perspectives**

With the Arusha declaration of 1967, Tanzania embarked upon a villagization program aimed at relocating once scattered households as a means of facilitating the provision of centralized services. Self-reliance, cooperation and utilization of available resources was emphasized. A major objective was the development of Ujamaa villages into economically viable units.

During the first decade after independence, FTCs under the Ministry of Agriculture were primarily concerned with imparting of crop and livestock training. The DTCs of community development, however, were geared at preparing the people for leadership roles and to be receptive to innovations that were aimed at rural development.<sup>149</sup>

Subsequently, FTCs and DTCs were amalgamated<sup>150</sup> to form

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<sup>149</sup> H.J. Mosha (ed.), Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, Ministry of National Education, 1981, p. 14.

RTCs which were expected to provide "supporting service for the overall rural development effort and, in particular, for the improvement of Ujamaa villagers."<sup>151</sup>

With the adoption of the policy of socialism and self-reliance in 1967 the emphasis has been on mobilization of human resources for self-sustaining social and economic development:

"The attention of the government particularly within the rural sector has focussed on achieving the goals of economic growth and social progress within a system that emphasizes equity, and participation by the masses in initiating, planning, implementing development projects and programmes that affect their well-being."<sup>152</sup>

With the Arusha declaration, a major shift in orientation had taken place in favor of an emphasis on village organizations as a means of promoting development of the masses.

#### 5.6.1.6.6 The Training for Rural Development Project

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<sup>150</sup> For a detailed discussion on the history of training centre movements in Tanzania refer to Chapter 1.

<sup>151</sup> The Tanzania Second Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1st July 1969-30th June 1974, Volume 1, General Analysis, Dar es Salaam, 1969, p. 36.

<sup>152</sup> Justin H.J. Maeda, "People's Participation in Development of Grassroots Level: The Village and its Context in Tanzania." Paper presented at the SID World Conference, (Baltimore, U.S.A.) July 1982, p. 2.

Of the institutions in existence at the present time the TRDP has an explicit goal to strengthen planning and management systems of rural villagers. Its program or sector goal has been spelled out in the following manner:

"To strengthen the management and technical capacities of decentralized rural development institutions to contribute to agricultural growth, expanded rural services, and enhanced self-help activities by individual farmers and village cooperatives."<sup>153</sup>

TRDP, in pursuance of this goal is thereby heavily committed to training that places high priority on training in village planning and management. Technical training in the field of agriculture, agroforestry, appropriate technology and home economics, while considered important, is not expected to receive as much emphasis, initially as training in village planning and management. When one studies the responses to a question asked in a TRDP survey (Table 5.47) about 'five most frequently occurring problems,' one can derive that improved village planning, organization, management and overall leadership are key areas for emphasis if such problems are to be met. To that extent the TRDP primary emphasis on Village Planning and Management is valid. TRDP considers the "lack of people having appropriate planning, management and technical skills in the villages,

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<sup>153</sup> Training for Rural Development II, Project Paper, Agency for International Development, D.C. 20523, 1981, Annex A, p. 1.

TABLE 5.47

The Five Most Frequently Occurring Problem Response Areas  
by Non-leaders and Leaders According to Rank Order

	Percent of All Problem Responses	
	Non-leaders <sup>a</sup>	Leaders <sup>b</sup>
Lack of water	24	21
Lack of health facilities	24	23
Lack of transportation	16	16
Lack of farm equipment	12	16
Lack of shop essentials	9	(6)*
Lack of modern housing	(6)*	8

	Rank Order For Problem Responses	
	Non-leaders <sup>a</sup>	Leaders <sup>b</sup>
Lack of water	1 1/2	2
Lack of health facilities	1 1/2	1
Lack of transportation	3	3 1/2
Lack of farm equipment	4	3 1/2
Lack of shop essentials	5	(6)
Lack of modern housing	(6)	5

<sup>a</sup>Total problem responses: 454

<sup>b</sup>Total problem responses: 180.

\*The problem category not appearing in the top five  
for a given group.

Source: "Report on the Study of Village Problems and  
Training needs as perceived by villagers and  
their leaders," by John Moland Jr., June 1981.

districts, the regions and parastatals"<sup>154</sup> as an important factor contributing to low levels of agricultural production and has come up with the following list of major constraining problems<sup>155</sup> at the village level:

1. Village councils do not know their role and responsibilities, do not know how to facilitate village participation in planning and decision making; and do not know how to plan, organize, analyze, implement and control village development projects.
2. Villagers lack basic technical skills and knowledge needed to increase agricultural and livestock production and at the same time protect village environment.
3. Village functionaries (village managers, shopkeepers, bookkeepers, etc.) often lack job related skills and practical management and application ability necessary to assist village development.
4. Women do a disproportionate share of village work and for this and other reasons do not participate as openly as men in village decision making.

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<sup>154</sup> Ibid., p. 9.

<sup>155</sup> Ibid., p. 9.



With this philosophical basis, TRDP during Phase I (1979-81) has involved sixteen villages representing four southern regions. (Between 1982-1986 the project is expected to expand to 350 villages in five regions.) Each village is exposed to training at four sequential stages<sup>156</sup> The first training exposure is at the village level for a period of two weeks (called Village Intervention = VI) and is attended by members of the various village committees - usually numbering between 20-30 individuals - members of UWT and CCM, village technicians, etc. The emphasis during the village intervention is on problem identification.<sup>157</sup> An illustrative curriculum is presented in Table 5.48. However, needs assessment conducted prior and during training, more often than not, resulted in the need for adapting the suggested curriculum. As stated by William Le Clere,

"Training methods were experiential and active; a high priority was placed on practicing skills and planning for application of learning, and a low priority given to lectures and theory."<sup>158</sup>

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<sup>156</sup> Refer to earlier sub-section on 'The Training for Rural Development Project (TRDP).'

<sup>157</sup> Interviews with trainees in Kiwere Village, Iringa on 20th November 1982.

<sup>158</sup> William Le Clere, "Tanzania, Rural Development: A Case Study," U.S.D.A. Washington D.C., June 1983, p. 18.

TABLE 5.48

**Village Training Intervention: Illustrative Curriculum**

**(Three House Modules Daily)**

**Week I**

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<b>Day I</b>	<b>Introduction, Goals of Training, Feedback of Needs Assessment Data, Selection of Priority Development Programs, Discussion of Problem-solving Methods, Planning for Day II</b>
<b>Day II</b>	<b>Field Trips to Visit Development Project, Questions and Answers in Field, Continue Field Trips, Continue Questions and Answers</b>
<b>Day III</b>	<b>Discussion of Group Decision-making, Presentation of Safari Exercise, Decision-making in Safari Exercise, Small Groups, Reports out from Groups, Process Discussion</b>
<b>Day IV</b>	<b>Problem-solving Module, Separating Cause from Effect, Practicing Cause Effect Analysis, Small Group Problem Analysis, Group Presentations on Problem, Analysis on one Development Problem</b>
<b>Day V</b>	<b>Group Presentation on Problem Analysis on Second Development Problem, Group Presentations on Third Development Problem, Evaluation of Training to Date, Wrap-up and Planning Week II</b>

**(continued)**

**Week II**

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- Day VI**     **Review of Week I, Introduction of New Participants, Presentation of Phase 2 of Problem-Solving, Practice Generation of Criteria for Success, Small Group Generate Criteria for Each Problem, Small Group Reports Out**
- Day VII**    **Presentation of Brainstorming Technique, Practice Brainstorming, Brainstorm Solutions for Three Problems, Introduce Matrix of Criteria and Solutions, Apply Matrix to Each of Three Problems, Small Groups**
- Day VIII**   **Introduction of Consensus Decision-making, Practice of Consensus Decision-making, Group Analysis of Problem Matrix, Weighting Decision Criteria, Selecting Elements of Preferred Solutions, Arriving at Small Group Consensus**
- Day IX**     **Generate Solution Statements, Small Groups, Groups Report Out Solutions, Total Group Discussion, Presentation of Strategy-Action Planning, Small Group Discussions**
- Day X**      **Form Action-Planning Teams, Integrate Village Technicians, Action Planning in Small Groups, Cross Team Consultation, Report Out Action Plans, Planning Next Steps/Evaluate Training**

At the end of the two weeks these plans, along with a summary of the training course and emerging issues/findings are presented to the village assembly. A total of 40 VI's had been completed at the time when this research was conducted (November 1982). Out of the participants attending VI, some 15 are selected from each village for a residential training (RT) at Ruaha. At

Ruaha, the RT focusses in greater detail on the range of issues relating to village leadership, planning and management (refer to the topic outline in Table 5.37. A strong emphasis on village planning and management is quite evident. During the last week of the month-long course, participants break up into small groups representing various villages. Action plans are developed with trainers serving as resource persons. A copy of this action plan (see Appendix B for a sample plan) is then filed at TRDC and is used as a basis for follow-up visits. During follow-up visits, lasting 2-3 days, the progress and problems in achieving the goals and objectives are assessed. If necessary, on-the-spot training is provided. Typically, action plans have ended up being technical in nature and hence the need for technical training often results. These needs are met both by on-site training during follow-up and by the month long technical training conducted after initial exposure to multiple training events (VI and RT) in village planning and leadership.

In order to obtain some preliminary feedback on the overall perceptions of the usefulness of TRDP courses, Iringa region participants who had attended both VI and RT were surveyed. When asked a general question, "Has training under TRD helped your village" 83.8% said 'yes,' 5.4% said 'no,' and 10.8% said "too soon to say" (N=37). When probed further (open-ended question) for details

(i.e. How TRD training actually helped their village) a range of responses were obtained (see Table 5.49).

TABLE 5.49

Perceptions of the Usefulness of TRD# Training to the Village

	N	%
Income was increased	6	12.24
Increase in communal production	23	46.94
Improvement in overall planning of projects	10	20.40
Improvement of village leadership	3	6.12
Improved knowledge about better farming	5	10.20
Better village cooperation	2	4.10
TOTAL	49	100%

#Open-ended question responded to by 31 individuals.  
Some provided more than one response.

In a related question, participants were asked to indicate if the training had helped them personally (as individuals). Given the nature of the course, (i.e. an emphasis on village planning and management) a surprisingly high percentage (97.3%) of the 37 people responding answered in the affirmative. In order to probe further the respondents were asked to provide details. Table 5.50 provides the details.

TABLE 5.50

**Perception of the Usefulness of Training of Individual Respondents#**

	N	%
<b>Provides opportunity to assist fellow villagers</b>	5	9.61
<b>Improved individual leadership capabilities</b>	3	5.75
<b>Has increased income</b>	12	23.10
<b>Has increased food availability</b>	12	23.10
<b>Has increased knowledge about farming (crops)</b>	13	25.00
<b>Has increased knowledge about livestock</b>	5	9.61
<b>Has improved time utilization</b>	2	3.83
<b>Total</b>	52	100%

#Open-ended question answered by 36 respondents.  
Some provided more than one response.

Given the secondary emphasis on technical agricultural aspects, the two most frequent responses: increased income and increased food availability (each accounting for 23.07% of responses) were rather surprising results. However, technical training did take place and even if trainers had given it secondary importance, the trainees may have taken that component seriously. Moreover, it is also likely that many of the concepts dealing with planning and decision-making within the context of

communal village enterprises may have been transferred to the individual production unit, thus having an impact on that enterprise too.

#### 5.6.1.6.7 Farmer Training and Production Project

The FPHP Program or Sector goal has been described as follows: "To improve the social and economic well-being of small farmers in Tanzanian villages." Measures of goal achievement included increase in crop and livestock production, increase in income from village communal and individually operated farms, increase in agricultural knowledge and an increase in group problem solving and planning capability at the village level.<sup>159</sup> The Mtwara farmer training wing is the only one of the four wings in operation under the FPHP which attempted to directly address problem solving capability at the village level. However, even this orientation came about only after a year of heavy and active involvement with technical agricultural issues. As indicated in one of the wing's concept papers, "Although the Farmer Training Wing is oriented toward solving agricultural problems we found the villagers from these villages did not see agricultural problems as important. Instead, it was observed that other problems were more immediate."<sup>160</sup> Consequently, a  
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<sup>159</sup> Tanzania Agricultural Manpower Development, Farmer Training and Production, Agency for International Development, Washington, 1977, Annex A.

shift occurred in the work at Mtwara with the inclusion of activity oriented towards the improvement of village planning capability in four of the projects villages. FTFP had an advantage over TRDP in that its outreach activity was restricted to four villages in a single district within a maximum driving time of 1-2 hours. (TRDP on the other hand had at least 40 villages by the end of 1982 - though not all have been exposed to all stages of training - spread over four regions). The FTFP at Mtwara conducted village planning short courses for all its participating villages. Such courses lasted two days and were conducted at the residential site at Naliende. The Mtwara wing philosophy is best expressed by the following quotation from its concept paper presented at a workshop conducted at Uyole, February 1983:

1. We believe that village leaders and villagers themselves must participate in choice and determination of viable production projects.
2. We believe that village leaders and villagers themselves must be involved in decision making process through various village committee meetings and other formal and relevant gatherings.
3. We believe that farmers have as much to teach us as we have to teach them and are rich with knowledge and skills which can be used if well blended.
4. We believe that dialogical/discussion/question and answer method of conducting adult learning experiences are ideal (sic) to lecture methods.

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<sup>160</sup> "Observations: Village Planning Short Course," Farmer Training and Production Project, FTW-MATI, Naliende, Mtwara.



5. We believe that our main function during a village short course session should be that of a facilitator asking guiding questions to help expose problem areas in order to discuss possible solutions.
6. We believe that well planned follow-up helps in knowledge and skill transfer to farmers, and acts as a check of planned activities.<sup>161</sup>

Discussions with village leaders in three out of the four villages and participant observation of the 'Chakula bora' workshop (conducted on 25th and 26th August 1982) indicate that the wing's philosophy as expressed by the above 'six points' is an accurate characterization of approaches actually used by FTPP tutors at Naliendele, Mtwara.

Wing staff reported that the response to participatory approaches and participant self-confidence cumulatively improved with every subsequent exposure to a training intervention. Restriction of participants to those from a single village enhanced in-course village planning exercises because participants dealt with issues within a context they were familiar with.<sup>162</sup> In addition village leaders indicated that there is less hesitancy on the part of men to allow wives to attend training if they know that the group will be restricted to those from a single or neighboring villages, since this reduced the likelihood of clandestine relationships being developed.<sup>163</sup>

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<sup>161</sup> "Lessons Learned/Approaches," Farmer Training and Production Project at The Third Biannual Farmer Training and Production Workshop at Uyole, February 8-10, 1983.

<sup>162</sup> Interview with Nd. Mtukwe, FTPP Mati, Mtwara.

A more explicit explanation of actual methods used during the planning courses is to be found in the following extract from the wing's quarterly report:

"Leaders spent time working with trained planners laying the groundwork for their own village development plans. Problems were identified, solutions considered, plans of action formulated, and a system was developed for involving the entire village in the planning and implementation process."<sup>164</sup>

FTPP staff have reported a considerable improvement in various village projects which are attributable to a shift in orientation to leadership development, village planning and management. They have observed that in the first year (when the emphasis was on short courses on technical agriculture) there were problems in project ownership in FTW initiated projects. Constant follow-up was needed. The shift in orientation of courses has resulted in villagers accepting greater responsibility and ownership for projects. Visits by this researcher to eight villagers in Mtwara region indicated a significant improvement in the management information systems (however basic or simple they may have been) of the four FTTP villages: well maintained village demographic data, village leader records, accounts of production figures; graphic portrayal of basic village statistics, etc. The area under communal farms and yields of communal farms  
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<sup>163</sup> Interview with village leaders in Nambeleketela.

<sup>164</sup> Farmer training and production project newsletter, Third Quarter, 1982.

have increased impressively. For example the communal farm acreage in Mdui increased from four acres in 1981 to 30 acres in 1982. In Naliendele the acreage increased from 2.00 acres in 1981 to 120 acres in 1982. The area under project demonstrations increased from four to 12 acres in in Mdui and two to 26 acres during the same period.<sup>165</sup> Villagers in Mbawala directly attributed the new collective farm, nursery school and CCM building as tangible evidence of improved capabilities. A very successful communal rabbit raising project in Mdui and an equally successful program in four villages for arrangement and supply of coconut seedlings (on a cash payment basis) had been noted during field trips to the villages concerned.<sup>166</sup> Discussions with tutors and village leaders indicated what may, in the long run, be a more valuable outcome: villagers have a strong sense of self-confidence in their own capacity to make things happen. There is hope, optimism and an understanding of the skills required for effective planning and management of village projects. To the extent that FTTP has restricted its activities to a few villages, it has been able to provide continued, sustained and high quality follow-up, both in terms of training and outreach activity. The observable

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<sup>165</sup> David G. Acker, Annual Progress Report, October 1981 - September 1982, Farmer Training and Production Project, Mtwara.

<sup>166</sup> Field trips were conducted by the researcher during the months of July and September 1982.

impact on communal/village projects is consequently more impressive than TRDP's efforts. Undoubtedly, FTFP Mtwara is making rapid strides towards the approach which Lloyd Pickett had outlined for the FTFP:

"The heart of our model for effective farmer training, it seems to me, is to couple short course training with planning and outreach. Passing information to farmers during short courses is likely to be of little value by itself. What is much better is for farmers, their tutor(s), their immediate extension workers, and resource person(s) to sit together, share ideas and work out plans acceptable to all (agreed by all), then return to the villages to jointly carry out what was planned."<sup>167</sup>

#### 5.6.1.6.8 Folk Development Colleges

The survey of Principals of FDCs in Tanzania indicates that only 35% (of the forty FDCs represented) were directly involved in assisting village planning efforts. However, when asked if they thought that FDC training should be coupled with village planning and outreach activities, assisted by the FDCs, all forty replied in the affirmative.

The FDC at Msinga which was the focus of this study was not directly involved in village planning and outreach activities. However, tutors report that during the annual follow-up/research phase, advice and suggestions was occasionally offered on an informal basis. The main

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<sup>167</sup> Lloyd Pickett, "Overview of the Farmer Training and Production Project," Paper presented at the National Council for Agricultural Education, Tengeru, February 24-26, 1982, p. 4.

emphasis of the village visits<sup>168</sup> was to assess problems and impact of past trainees from their institution. In effect the FDC at Msinga was primarily concerned with preparing young men and women for leadership roles through the teaching of various courses, the opportunity to acquire leadership skills through participating in various FDC activities, the acquisition of the right attitudes towards self-reliance and communal ownership and management of projects, and an appreciation for the country's unique culture and political philosophy.<sup>169</sup> However, the Ministry of National Education has clearly indicated its expectation for FDCs to have some form of direct involvement with the surrounding villages:

"Responsibility should always be extended to societies in the vicinity of the college. For the FDC should always be closely linked with the villages and organizations in the neighborhood. If there is a close union between the FDC and its community, it will be easier for the students to find new tasks, when the studies at the FDC are concluded."<sup>170</sup>

and

"The colleges would offer courses for village leaders, would be concerned with initiation and implementation of various developmental projects at the village level..."<sup>171</sup>

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<sup>168</sup> Refer to section on 'Follow-up and Re-entry' for details.

<sup>169</sup> Informal discussions with tutors during the stay at FDC Msinga.

<sup>170</sup> "Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," Adult Education Section, Ministry of National Education, Dar es Salaam, p. 20.

In actual practice the emphasis is on postponed application of learning to village settings. No direct involvement in village planning and development by tutors or trainees was noted.<sup>172</sup> The Msinga FDC's current contribution to Village Planning and Management is indirect and is through preparation of young villagers for leadership and managerial (for village projects) roles upon their return to villages.

**5.6.1.7 Villager Preferences for Training in Village Planning and Management (VPM) and in Technical Agriculture (TA)**

To assess preferences at the village level for training in VPM and TA for different categories of villagers (leaders and non-leaders) villagers were surveyed in Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Iringa. When villagers were asked which of the two given types of training village leaders should receive, they responded in the following manner (Table 5.51):

The pattern of responses did not differ from region to region. The majority of respondents (75.48%) felt that village leaders required training in both VPM and TA. The  
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<sup>171</sup> H.J. Mosha, (ed.), Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, p. 52.

<sup>172</sup> However, the Msinga FDC being located in the Kilimanjaro regions where communal villages (physical sense) do not exist and where the population density and state of development is impressive, may not have been an appropriate location for making observations on communal projects.

TABLE 5.51

**Training Needs of Village Leaders (Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Iringa)**

Type of Training	N	%
Training in village planning and management only	79	19.17
Training in technical agriculture only	22	5.33
Training in both of the above	311	75.50
TOTAL	412	100.00

Missing cases = 11

training offered by the TRDP and FPHP have emphasized the importance of these two types of training for village leaders though the order in which they met these training needs were reversed.

Respondents were then asked the same question with regard to training needs of non-leader categories of villagers. The response pattern differed, though the need for training in both VPM and TA continued to be emphasized. The details are provided in Table 5.52. A significant percentage (44.98) felt that training for (non-leaders) villagers should be restricted to technical agriculture. However, the fact that just over 50 percent indicated the training in both VPM and TA is required may indicate an understanding that broad-based community involvement in village planning activities is necessary

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TABLE 5.52

**Training Needs of Villagers (Mtwara, Kilimanjaro and Iringa)**

Type of Training	N	%
Training in village planning and management only	17	4.37
Training in technical agriculture only	175	44.99
Training in both of the above	197	50.64
TOTAL	389	100.00

Missing cases = 34

and reflects the perceptions for a self-reliant role for individuals in an Ujamaa village.

TABLE 5.53

**Preferred Priority for Types of Training Needs of Village Leaders (Kilimanjaro and Iringa Only)**

Type of Training	N	%
Training in village planning and management followed by training in technical agriculture	127	63.5
Training in technical agriculture followed by training in village planning and management	73	36.5

This question was only answered by those who felt that training of both types was necessary.

TABLE 5.54

**Preferred Priority for Types of Training Needs of Villagers (Kilimanjaro and Iringa Only)**

Type of Training	N	%
Training in village planning and management followed by training in technical agriculture	49	41.17
Training in technical agriculture followed by training in village planning and management	70	58.82

This question was only answered by those who felt that training of both types was necessary.

To determine if there were differences in the priority for VPM and TA, respondents were asked which of the two types of training should be handled first. They responded differently for training of leaders and non-leaders (i.e., average villager). In the case of leaders, 63.5% of respondents felt that training in VPM should precede TA while only 36.5% felt the other way. The role of leaders is perceived as being one of providing leadership and direction of planning and management of the village and its communal projects and that is possibly perceived as a high priority than technical agriculture. In the case of average villagers, 58.82% of respondents felt that training in TA should receive higher priority than VPM (though VPM was also considered necessary).

## **5.6.2 Instructional Methods**

### **5.6.2.1 Under Utilization of the Potential of Practical Sessions**

President Nyerere has emphasized the need for integrating education with work:

"If we are to make real progress in adult education it is essential that we should stop trying to divide life into two sections--one for education and one for work."<sup>173</sup>

The Ministry of National Education, has an official policy of integrating theory with practice within the FDC and school system network. Of the time available for courses some 60% is to be used for practicals and 40% for theoretical studies.<sup>174</sup> Observations undertaken at the Msinga FDC indicates that the policy and recommended balance was adhered to. However, the utilization of the time allocated for such "practice" needs to be questioned with regard to its educational value. Observations at Msinga indicated that involvement usually was largely limited to self-reliance activities which included attendance to regular housekeeping and farm chores and other "maintenance-type" activities, usually unrelated to course-content taught in the theory classes. Though by themselves worthwhile and commendable objectives, such tasks were rarely different from routine tasks performed

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<sup>173</sup> Julius K. NYerere, "Ten years after Independence" in Freedom and Development, Dar es Salaam, Oxford University Press, 1973.

<sup>174</sup> Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, Adult Education Section, Ministry of National Education, p. 71.

in their home villages. While not belittling the communal activities which by themselves are a professed goal and the familyhood spirit that such endeavors have generated at Msinga, the educational potential of the practical sessions remain greatly untapped. A follow-up of 22 past trainees<sup>175</sup> (of FDC colleges residing) in villages within the Kilimanjaro region was conducted and revealed that only 27.3% felt that they had learned "many new things" during the practicals. See Table 5.55.

TABLE 5.55

Use of Time Allocated for Practical<sup>#</sup>

Use of Time	N	%
Practiced what we normally practice on our own farms	5	22.7
Tried a <u>few</u> new activities with which we were not previously familiar	11	50.0
Tried <u>many</u> new <u>things</u> with which we were not previously familiar	6	27.3

<sup>#</sup>Data collected from 22 past participants of FDC long duration courses in Kilimanjaro Region.

One would have expected that if as much as 60% of the total time is spent on practicals for a period of 9 months, participants would have overwhelmingly stated that they had an opportunity to try out many new things which

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<sup>175</sup> Only fourteen were graduates from Msinga FDC. Others represented two other regions.

they were not previously familiar with. Discussions with resident tutors at Msinga indicated a serious shortage of instructional support material and material-inputs required in various core-courses (e.g. carpentry, domestic science etc.). There is a perception that improvement of the educational value of the practical sessions would have to come from an infusion of material-inputs. This could be explained by the fact, that in their own training a dependence on such inputs was associated with meaningful practical sessions. The almost total absence of A-V instructional materials, lack of teaching-guides and poor pre-service training in methodological issues further aggravates the problem. Finally, the serious economic crisis in which Tanzania currently is in, imposes on the average tutor an additional burden of procuring for his/her own family the basic essentials of life such as soap, sugar, oil, etc., all of which are in short supply. This preoccupation of tutors would not be conducive, to imaginative and creative approaches in instruction.

The "Two-week" agriculture course conducted at Msinga (during the period when this researcher lived on-site) devoted as much as 90% of the total time to in-class lectures and some discussions. The only practicals conducted dealt with preparation of pesticides for coffee trees and banana cultivation. Inquiries revealed that this pattern was typical of the 'two-week' courses offered

at Msinga, since its reintroduction in 1981. A survey of 48 past participants in similar courses offered at Msinga indicated that 54.2% of those interviewed felt that they did not have sufficient practical work during the course (i.e. only 45.8% were satisfied with amount of practicals). A study of reports and documents pertaining to short-courses offered at Msinga in the sixties when it was an FTC under the Ministry of Agriculture, indicates that the present emphasis contrasts sharply with that of the former years. Typically, in the past, courses were problem specific (e.g. copper spraying of coffee or livestock for lowlands, etc.), catered to needs of specific agro-ecological areas, included 30-40% of time allocated to hands-on activities, and had access to well-maintained demonstration units. A 'List of farmers suitable for visits from Msinga FTC students' was maintained for purposes of arranging study tours and practicals off-site.<sup>176</sup>

The TEDP until the time of this research had emphasized VPN. The involvement in practicals pertained to an in-class activity in which participants designed plans for their respective villages. However, limited opportunity for practicals in the agriculture and livestock demonstration units was arranged for at the Ruaha site. It is envisaged that during the one-month long technical

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<sup>176</sup> File Msinga Farmer Training Centre Syllabus, TF/9/09/02, Msinga 1965.

training course--soon to be a regular feature in a typical TRDP training cycle--increased opportunity for hands-on activity will be arranged. The village based courses had no "practicals" component.

The FTTP, Mtwara has emphasized the use of hands-on activities in its courses. The educational value of these sessions were considerably greater than that of the FDC. An FTTP emphasis on the use of teaching packages in training courses has greatly increased the overall quality of instructional sessions particularly with respect to training techniques.

#### **5.6.2.2 Experimentation and Adaptive Research as a Training Technique**

Schultz,<sup>177</sup> and a growing number of scholars studying 'traditional agriculture' have tried to debunk the notion that peasants are conservative by nature and have instead supported the idea that the risks and uncertainties of deviating from the tried and tested (though low producing) techniques are too great for most "traditional" agriculturists. However, Allen Johnson has argued that such explanations are reasonable insofar as experimentation entails a high-risk. He states that "...experimentation and risk are separate matters; it is possible to experiment at low cost and low risk. It is

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<sup>177</sup> Theodore W. Schultz, Transforming Traditional Agriculture (University of Chicago Press, 1964).

true that traditional agriculturists are cautious (conservative) in the face of innovations: it is not true that they refuse to try them out."<sup>178</sup> Allen Johnson provides ethnographic case materials to demonstrate the existence of a high degree of individual diversity and of systematic experimentation in traditional societies. He suggests that

"Nowhere is it more clearly evident that traditional agriculturists transcend the limited forms of their own cultures than in the case of experimentation. For although experimentation among such peoples has not been discussed in theoretical literature, there is very strong evidence that it is common perhaps, even the rule in traditional agriculture."<sup>179</sup>

Data collected as part of the VLS in Tanzania indicated that experimentation by traditional agriculturalists, in all the three regions studied, is fairly common and supports Johnson's claim about experimentation being more the rule than an exception. Villagers were asked the following question "Have you ever grown the same crop two different ways, in order to compare results, without the assistance of the Bwana Shamba or other agricultural advisor?" Tables 5.56 and 5.57 provide details. Overall, over 50% of the respondents indicated that they had undertaken such self-initiated experiments for the purpose

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<sup>178</sup> Allen W. Johnson, "Individuality and experimentation in traditional agriculture," in Extension Education and Rural Development, Bruce R. Couch and Shankariah Chamala, (John Wiley, 1981) p. 110.

<sup>179</sup> Ibid, p. 113.



of comparing results. However, slightly more males (69.14%) than females<sup>180</sup> (53.47%) had undertaken experimentation. Trained individuals (68.20%) tended to have a higher degree of participation in experimentation than did untrained individuals (59.63%). However, there were regional variations and Mtwara (the region which is very poorly developed with poor agricultural potential) having the lowest evidence of experimentation. Kilimanjaro with its highly developed infrastructure and agriculture and high population density had the highest percentage of respondents who had initiated field experiments. Iringa as a region scored somewhere between Mtwara and Kilimanjaro and could reflect the fact that Iringa's state of development is also between the two extremes represented by Mtwara and Kilimanjaro. Is there an association between willingness to experiment and innovate and such factors as the agricultural potential of the area, land limitations, complexity and intensity of farming operations? This is a question that merits further study.

Given this surprisingly high incidence of self-initiated attempts at crop-experimentation, trainers in Tanzania<sup>181</sup> have generally been oblivious of the potential

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<sup>180</sup> Readers are reminded that females have major responsibilities in the area of food-crop agriculture, including decision making at many levels.

<sup>181</sup> This situation, however, is no different from most other developing nations.

TABLE 5.56

Self-Initiated Attempts at Crop Experimentation by Sex

	Mtwara				Kilimanjaro			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	54	55.1	44	44.9	60	83.3	12	16.7
Female	15	30.6	34	69.4	33	70.2	14	29.8

	Iringa				TOTAL			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	72	72.7	27	27.3	186	69.14	83	30.85
Female	29	60.4	19	39.6	77	53.47	67	46.57

for building upon and developing the learning processes inherent in local attempts to experiment and adopt.

The importance of instilling or, (as in the case of Tanzanian peasants just described) developing the attitude of experimentation is well supported by the following statement from the report of a Conference on Productivity and Innovation in Agriculture in the underdeveloped countries

"The fundamental problem confronting agriculture is not so much the adoption and spread of any particular set of physical inputs or of economic arrangements or of organizational patterns or of research institutions. Rather it is to build into the whole process ... an attitude of experiment, trial and error, continued

TABLE 5.57

**Self-Initiated Attempts at Crop Experimentation by Category**

	Mtwara				Kilimanjaro			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Trained Category	43	58.1	31	41.9	39	83.0	8	17.0
Untrained Category	26	35.6	47	64.4	54	75.0	18	25.0

	Iringa				TOTAL			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Trained Category	51	68.9	23	31.1	133	68.20	62	31.79
Untrained Category	50	68.5	23	31.5	130	59.63	88	40.36

Missing observations = 10

innovation, and adaptation of new ideas."<sup>182</sup>

Until recently, with the establishment of a National Farming Systems Research Program, the role of the farmer was primarily that of a "user" of technology with no role in the development of the technology itself. The

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<sup>182</sup> "Report of a Conference on Productivity and Innovation in Agriculture in the Underdeveloped Countries," Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Cited by Roland Bunch, Two ears of corn, World Neighbors, Oklahoma, p. 138.

following quotation from the FTTP Project proposal suggests what is essentially a farmer-oriented rather than a farmer-involved adaptive research effort and is representative of actual practice:

"The MATIs in cooperation with the research institutes will test new technological packages in the sponsored villages. The research institute will provide the package to be tested, assist in the identification of data that should be collected to measure its effectiveness, and do the scientific analysis of the results. The MATIs will train the farmers to use the package and collect the data necessary for the evaluation."<sup>183</sup>

If farmers were at all involved, their cooperation was solicited primarily for purposes of providing facilities (e.g. land, labor, after care, etc.) to the researchers during multi-locational testing, rather than for purposes of eliciting farmer contribution to the actual research and development process. However, as the VLS data just discussed indicates, Tanzanian farmers in the three regions studied, are already engaged in simplified forms of crop-experimentations and their involvement in institutionally sponsored research could promote learning processes to the benefit of all the collaborators.

The FDC and TRDP projects were not involved in experimental work or adaptive research within the agriculture sector. However, there was some limited involvement in 'crop-demonstrations.'

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<sup>183</sup> Tanzania Agriculture Manpower Development, Farmer Training and Production Project, USAID, August 1977, p. 21.

### **5.6.3 Instructional Materials and Media**

#### **5.6.3.1 Folk Development Colleges**

The Msinga FDC operates from facilities which were originally built for an FTC at the beginning of the FTC movement in Tanzania. Even the design of the buildings on campus included provision for projection facilities: the Msinga dining hall has a projection room and window located at one end of the hall. A display room was set up with assistance of agri-business firms and included visual aids, agricultural inputs (and prices!), models, insect specimens and rearing chambers. A study of reports during the decade after the Msinga FTC was established indicates regular use of projected aids such as films and occasionally slides. However, after the FTCs were converted to RTCs and subsequently transferred to the Department of Ujamaa and Cooperatives, the rapid deterioration of these facilities and equipment disuse had begun. With a shift in emphasis to non-agricultural courses and a sharp decline of turn-out of farmers, such facilities fell into further disuse.<sup>184</sup> When the Folk Development College (FDC) was established at Msinga it inherited none of the equipment and materials - other than two bookshelves of textbooks that the FTC originally used. The projection room at the Msinga FDC was being used as a store. Tutors complained that the FDC did not own

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<sup>184</sup> Interviews with tutors, regional officials, Kilimanjaro region, Tanzania, October 1982.

equipment and films to utilize the facilities.

The FDC evaluation report indicated among other things, that there was an acute shortage of qualified tutors and that 55 percent of the tutors did not have any diploma and 80 percent did not have a diploma in their teaching subject.<sup>185</sup> About 20 percent had no teacher training.<sup>186</sup>

As part of the enquiry conducted by this researcher, forty principals of FDC network were asked to indicate three major impediments to the improvement of agricultural courses, at their respective FDCs. The most frequently mentioned problem was a lack of teaching aids (25%) followed by lack of agricultural inputs (15%). Refer to the next table for details:

Given the levels of education of tutors, particularly in their teaching subject and an overall absence of any National activity aimed at providing instructional support materials to tutors,<sup>187</sup> the emphasis on the use of conventional approaches (such as lectures, discussions) at Msinga is not surprising.

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<sup>185</sup> Many had lower qualifications such as certificates.

<sup>186</sup> H.J. Mosha, ed., "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," p. 237.

<sup>187</sup> A national syllabus was prepared in 1980 with special emphasis on instructional guidelines (what to teach, how, what to do, etc.).

TABLE 5.58

Impediments to Improving Agricultural Courses at FDCs as Perceived by FDC Principals<sup>a</sup>

	N	%
Non-availability of teaching aids	10	31.30
Lack of agricultural inputs	6	18.80
Poor agricultural potential of area	5	15.60
Lack of appreciation for the importance of agriculture	4	12.50
Lack of interest on the part of tutors	2	6.30
Poor coordination between the Ministry of Agriculture and FDC	1	3.10
Lack of funds	1	3.10
Lack of agricultural tutors	1	3.10
District officials not involved	1	3.10
Inadequate practicals	1	3.10
	32	100.00

<sup>a</sup>Missing cases = 8; open ended question.

#### 5.6.3.2 The Farmer Training and Production Project

At the outset the FTTP had envisaged that its Project outputs would include 1) teaching materials and techniques developed for small farmer training programs and 2) improved in-service training courses for extension agents at the MATIs and 3) 'planning papers' for extension, regional and district development offices.<sup>188</sup>

The development of teaching packages (i.e. 1 and 2 from above list) was pursued through a multi-agency task group at the national level, consisting of FTTP staff, Faculty of Agriculture, Forestry and Veterinary Sciences at

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<sup>188</sup> Lloyd Pickett, Tanzania Farmer Training and Production Project, Progress Report, October 1980-September 1981, Dar es Salaam, p. 9.

**Morogoro, Farmers' Education Section and Curriculum Development Section of the Ministry of Agriculture. Depending on the nature of the topic, additional subject matter specialists and researchers were involved. The actual development of teaching packages was undertaken at the project level (original four sites: Nyegezi, Mlingano, Mtwara, Mbeya).**

**The goal of the training materials activity has been described in the following manner:**

**"To document in the form of training materials the findings and experiences of the Farmer Training and Production Project in such a way that these advancements in extension and training methodologies, and the adaptation of technical agriculture packages will be incorporated into the modus operandi of extension workers and trainers in Tanzania."<sup>189</sup>**

**At the time when the research was conducted the FFTP operated four farmer training wings including the one of MATI Mtwara. Each of the training wings selected topics which staff felt particularly competent in handling, either because of actual field experience (e.g. Mtwara chose to develop a teaching package on Grain Storage after having conducted field surveys and a training course in that topic) or because of access to information/research institution resources (Mtwara also developed a teaching package on Cashewnut based on work done by the TARO**

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<sup>189</sup> David Acker, "The Farmer Training and Production Project," Paper presented at the training session for Peace Corps Grain Storage Project, Tanzania, November 1983.



research station working on that particular crop). At other times, the multi-agency task group at the National level delegated responsibility for production of specific packages to specific training wings. Invariably, the actual conduct of the course preceded the actual writing of the teaching package. This enabled tutors to test various methods and approaches. The opinions and critical comments from subject-matter specialists<sup>190</sup> based at the research station (located on the same campus) were solicited frequently to ensure adequate up-to-date coverage of technical issues. Furthermore, during the biannual workshops, each wing presented their teaching packages to the audience consisting of tutors representing all the participating wings, expatriate specialists and members of the National Coordination Committee members. Detailed critique by fellow tutors ensued along with recommendations for improvements.<sup>191</sup> Based on these suggestions and further field testing, the packages are revised at the farmer training wing and sent to the headquarters for editing. Once again materials are

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<sup>190</sup> The involvement of researchers in different stages of production of teaching materials has been substantial. Mrs. V.F. Malima, Ministry of Agriculture, Dar es Salaam, while participating at the Uyole FFTP Workshop, February 8th-11th 1983 commented that "Teaching packages are the place where research and extension meet."

<sup>191</sup> The researcher had the opportunity to observe at close range various aspects of the FFTP materials development approach including the critique during the workshop at Mtwara, July 1982.

returned to the field "for final review by field staff in conjunction with a panel of researchers, extension workers and other specialists."<sup>192</sup> Final editing and printing is undertaken at the FTFP headquarters within the Ministry of agriculture.

The guidelines and format for teaching packages were developed through a participatory approach, by tutors themselves, at the Mtwara July 1982 workshop. The types of materials envisaged within a teaching package are: trainers guide, farmers handouts, transparencies, posters, and filmstrip/slide set. Each trainer's guide was expected to consist of a number of elements (derived from a cross-comparison of tutors' own initial efforts at developing such guides) aimed at ensuring a balance between technical, social and instructional dimensions. Table 5.59 provides details on the elements of a trainer's guide.

Basically, two broad categories of materials are being produced: 1) teaching packages for use by tutors in farmer/villager level training and 2) manuals for pre-service and inservice training of extension workers. Roughly 25 teaching packages had been planned for, out of which 19 had been through the first draft stage. A total of 12 manuals for preservice/in-service training of workers

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<sup>192</sup> David Acker, "The Farmer Training and Production Project," Paper presented at the training session for Peace Corps Grain Storage Project, Tanzania, November 1983, p. 3.

TABLE 5.59

Farmer Training Coordinative Workshop, Mtwara, Tanzania,  
July 13-16 1982

**ELEMENTS OF A TRAINER'S GUIDE**

1. Title
2. Author
3. Table of Contents
4. Introduction - Goal, intended audience
5. Problem Statement: Existent situation
6. Technical Background Information
7. Training Course Preparations
8. Lesson Plan

Each Lesson Plan will Consist of:

- (i) Title of Lesson
- (ii) Goal
- (iii) Rationale (why)
- (iv) Objectives (instructional)
- (v) Advance Preparations
- (vi) Lesson Content
- (vii) Instructional Procedures: What, when, where, how
- (viii) Teaching Aids
- (ix) Summary of key points
- (x) Evaluation procedure (for lesson)
- (xi) Time
- (xii) Questions for Discussions
- (xiii) References

9. Suggestions for Follow Up Action
10. Sample of Farmer Handout
11. Acknowledgements
12. Bibliography
13. Sample for Farmers

are in various stages of production.

FTPP's involvement in production of instructional materials is perceived as being relevant to the needs of various other training institutions: the FTTP distribution list includes - besides the network of MATIs - other institutions and agencies such as LITI's, Agricultural Secondary Schools, Regional and District Administration, other farmer training programs in Tanzania. To the extent that FTTP has planned for a large printing run it has ensured that the effort and time put into materials production will have widespread impact at different levels, beyond the FTTP original network of four MATIs.

The provision by the FTTP HQ, of basic duplicating equipment, paper, stencils has enhanced considerably the local materials production capabilities of the participating training wings. By instituting materials production as a legitimate activity of the project, and providing sustained backstopping and follow-up, the involvement of tutors in this activity has been considerably boosted. Within the FDC network, the shortage of such basic equipment and materials is acute. Given overall funding restrictions within the FDC network the production of materials is not yet perceived as a legitimate activity warranting provision of resources such as that provided by the FTTP.

### **5.6.3.3 The Training for Rural Development Project**

Up till the time this researcher visited the Training for Rural Development Center at Ruaha, major emphasis had been geared towards establishing a well-equipped audio-visual facility and providing training for the project's media specialists, under guidance from USDA specialists. The emphasis has been on the use of small format video during residential training:

"During residential training with villagers, and in management training, they made extensive use of audio and video feedback, enabling participants to practice new skills in exercises, and immediately received oral or visual feedback on their abilities."<sup>193</sup>

While not denying the immense potential for use of video, particularly during residential type training, a series of technical problems with equipment had already begun to arise after only a very brief period of use. (The media section is staffed by two individuals who were media specialists prior to joining TRDP and misuse of equipment can be safely ruled out.) This has also shifted focus from other small-media such as slides, filmstrips, and non-projected visuals. Particularly, if TRDP is expecting to gradually shift major responsibility to four regional training institutes, such experiences in the use of video may suggest that it is less useful than an emphasis on simpler types of projected and non-projected aids

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<sup>193</sup> William Le Clere, *Tanzanian Rural Development: A Case Study*, USDA, June 1983.

requiring lower levels of expertise, lower costs (and permitting greater access) and less subject to breakdowns and time lags associated with repairs of sophisticated equipment.

Role playing and flip charts are other techniques reported by tutors as commonly used approaches. Use of simulation games and puzzles (learned by trainers during their own short term training in the U.S.) are also frequently used and with considerable effectiveness.<sup>194</sup>

A report by a media expert Kathy Alison concludes that the A-V section of TRDP is underutilized at 'both the human resource level and at material, equipment and supply levels.'<sup>195</sup> She proposed two reasons for the underutilization of the section:

- 1) Lack of sufficient appropriate training of the audio-visual staff in overall media strategy and design and in actual production of material, from conceptualization to finished product.

- 2) Lack of understanding on the part of the training staff, including A-V staff, of the A-V potential in training, specially when working with audiences at the village and residential training levels.

Among the many recommendations made, including one for further inservice training of A-V staff, she also suggests that A-V staff begin initiating rather than only responding to requests of others. Given the fact that

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<sup>194</sup> Ibid.

<sup>195</sup> Kathy Alison, "Effective Utilization of Audio-Visuals," April 1982.

requests for expert assistance are overall very few, this may be a wise strategy of getting tutors to utilize media in their training. Until the trainers themselves receive training in the role of audio-visuals in training and an appreciation is thereby developed for it, requests by tutors, for services from the A-V section, may not be forthcoming.

## **5.7 THEME VI: POST-COURSE FOLLOW-UP**

### **5.7.1 Rationale for Follow-up Activities**

C.W. Barwell defines follow-up visits as "post-course visits to farmers to continue the teaching process initiated during the course at the centre."<sup>196</sup> Another justification for follow-up activities, is to ensure that participants do not abandon newly acquired skills, attitudes and knowledge:

"It is vitally important that the links created between the villager or trainee, the ETC and the extension service, when he or she attends a course, are not allowed to disintegrate later on. When a person is subjected to one or two weeks' intensive training in any subject it is essential to further assist and encourage that person lest any inspiration gained as a result of training disappear."<sup>197</sup>

A similar recommendation was made during the Conference on Curriculum Development held at Moshi in 1969:

"It is essential that all farmers who have received training should not be allowed to feel that once they have left the ETC, they have been forgotten. Regular visits to these farmers by ETC and extension staff are necessary to provide further advice and encouragement."<sup>198</sup>

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<sup>196</sup> C. Barwell, Farmer Training in East-Central and Southern Africa, p. 51.

<sup>197</sup> "Division of Responsibility for Rural Training Centres: Recruiting, Liason, Follow-up," A Record of the Proceedings of a National Seminar and Workshop on Farmers Education, (Moshi, Tanzania, 1970), p. 3.

<sup>198</sup> Report on the Deliberations and Recommendations of the Farmers Education Committee on the Training of Farmers



Follow-up visits are also used for the purpose of evaluating training effectiveness and for the purpose of determining future training needs, as in the case of the FDC network<sup>199</sup> or that of the two week courses at FTC Msinga during the sixties and early seventies. During that period the Centre's staff conducted evaluation during an allocated month-long break "to visit each farmer in his field and see what he has achieved since he left the centre."<sup>200</sup> Follow-up visits are also used for the express purpose of providing on-the-spot training and technical assistance.<sup>201 202</sup>

#### **5.7.2 Purpose of Follow-up at FTFP, FDC and TRDP**

The FTFP has explicitly stressed the importance of the follow-up dimensions of their farmer training courses, particularly, for purposes of evaluating farmer training courses and improvement of future courses:

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in Tanzania, Conference on Curriculum Development,  
October 1969, Moshi.

<sup>199</sup> Interview with Nd. T.S. Mlole, FDC section, Ministry of National Education, Dar es Salaam, April 21st 1982.

<sup>200</sup> "Msinga Rural Training Centre and its training programme," A Record of the Proceedings of a National Seminar and Workshop on Farmers Education, p. 2.

<sup>201</sup> Krishi Vigyan Kendra (Farm Science Centre): An Innovative Institution, Indian Council of Agricultural Research (New Delhi, 1977), p. 12.

<sup>202</sup> Training for Rural Development Project, Prime Minister's Office (Iringa, Tanzania, June 1981), p. 21.

"(To) conduct follow-up evaluations of the farmer training programs to determine if they are having the desired results and, if not, why not. Evaluations will also be used to refine and improve course content and teaching techniques for the MATIs as well as their Farmer Training Wings."<sup>203</sup>

Another statement of intent deals with FFTP's philosophy to provide follow-up in terms of technical assistance:

"Assist MATI staff and students to provide technical assistance to those villagers whose farmer members attend courses at the Farmer Training Wings."<sup>204</sup>

The FFTP has also assisted in the arrangement and supply of inputs to villagers involved, as follow-up to specific courses. The TRDP's emphasis on follow-up activities, is more formal and structured than FFFPs but also stresses the need for documenting training impact, for conducting needs assessment and for purposes of providing on-site assistance when possible. The objectives for follow-up visits at TRDP are as follows:

1. To document what changes have occurred in the village since training under the project began in the village.
2. To determine what further training or technical assistance needs are developing in the village.

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<sup>203</sup> Lloyd Pickett, "Tanzania Farmer Training and Production Project Progress Report, October 1980-September 1981," p. 8.

<sup>204</sup> Ibid., p. 42.

3. To provide whatever immediate training, technical assistance or consultation the village requires, which the follow-up team feels prepared to offer.<sup>205</sup>

The FDC at Msinga, conducts an annual research programme primarily for the purpose of meeting with past trainees and their village leaders for the purposes of identifying problems faced by past trainees, assessing future training needs and meeting with potential candidates for future courses.<sup>206</sup>

The FDC like TRDP does not assist in the provision of inputs to either participating villages or past trainees. The FDC rarely engages in the provision of technical assistance and does not conduct on-site training as in the case of TRDP.

The 'Two-week' course program conducted at the Msinga FDC (but coordinated by Regional authorities), had not, until the time of this research, been engaged in any follow-up activities.

### 5.7.3 Responsibility for Follow-up

The responsibility for conducting follow-up differs from agency to agency. In the past the responsibility for follow-up of farmer-trainees has always been that of the -----

<sup>205</sup> Guidelines for Follow-up Visits, p. 2.

<sup>206</sup> Interview with Vice Principal, FDC, Msinga, October 1982.

field extension service. At Msinga, during the 1960s and early 1970s a practice was introduced of including one village-level field worker, to represent each area from which trainees had been selected. Usually, one field worker would accompany 3-5 farmers. By ensuring that the fieldworker "is fully in the picture as to what information has been passed to participants on the course"<sup>207</sup> it was expected that he would be in a position to provide adequate follow-up, technical assistance and supervision.

The FTTP's system of follow-up is unstructured relative to that of TEDP and is conducted by tutors themselves, usually as individuals rather than as a team. Since the FTTP at Mtwara works in only four villages at a time, adequate time between courses is available for the purpose. The access to TARO Research station and MATI tutors, provides the FTW staff an opportunity to call upon specific technical specialists, for trouble shooting and other follow-up tasks as and when required. The initiative remains that of the FTW tutors. The original intention of project designers was that MATI staff (in addition to FTW staff) and students, in the course of their two or three year courses at the MATI, would assist in providing technical follow-up assistance at village level. This has not happened and their involvement is

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<sup>207</sup> "Division of Responsibility for Rural Training Centres: Recruiting, Liason, Follow-up."

primarily limited to data collection.

The TRDP generally uses a team approach to providing group or individually-based follow-up to participating villages. Follow-up has been the responsibility of a core group of trainers representing the TRD Center at Ruaha and Regional levels (eg. Regional or District officers). Unlike the FPHP approach which is usually based on typical visits of two to three hours (as recorded in Mtwara). TRDP's follow-up is for two to three days and involves night halts.

**5.7.3.1 Practical strategies for the Conduct of Follow-up Activities**

**5.7.3.2 Farmer Training and Production Project (FTPP) Mtwara**

The FPHP training wing at Mtwara (also called FTW) served a total of four villages which had been exposed to a series of training interventions and outreach activities.<sup>208</sup> A total of twenty courses had been completed by September 1982. In keeping with FPHP philosophy, follow-up was conducted at the village level by individual tutors or by teams of specialists invited by the FTW to provide such technical assistance. The approach was in keeping with the FPHP philosophy as

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<sup>208</sup> Two additional villages were later included, while phase out from the first two original villages was planned.

expressed by Lloyd Pickett<sup>209</sup>

"The heart of our model for effective farmer training, it seems to me, is to couple short training with planning and with outreach. Passing information during short courses is likely to be of little value by itself."

FTPP differed considerably from FDC and TRDP approaches by attempting to directly assist in inputs supply related to such courses as groundnut cultivation, rabbit production and in negotiating a working relationship between TRDB and participating villages (with regard to cash loans).

The concentration of FTFP Mtwara on a few select villages within two to three hours driving assistance, has greatly facilitated follow-up by tutors. However, even with a few villages involved the intensity of follow-up visits (an estimated 20-40 visits per village per year) created concern among FTW leaders and tutors about the high fuel and vehicle maintenance costs associated with such an approach and has prompted the need for cost effective techniques:

"We know that constant follow-up after training ensures greater adoption, but we also know that constant follow-up is expensive in terms of time and money. How can we find the minimum amount of follow-up needed? We need to focus on economic follow-up practices."<sup>210</sup>

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<sup>209</sup> Lloyd C. Pickett, "Tanzania Farmer Training and Production Project, Progress Report October 1980-September 1981," p. 28.

<sup>210</sup> Comments made by David Acker, then Wing Leader, FTFP, Mtwara, July 1982.

The VLS conducted in Mtwara among past trainees of the FTFP indicated that 97.3% of the respondents indicated that follow-up was necessary (see Table 5.60). A relatively smaller percentage (89.2%) of untrained villagers also stressed the importance of post-course follow-up activities. When studied separately on the basis of sex, females in Mtwara were slightly more likely to stress the importance of follow-up activities (98%) than males (90.8%) (see Table 5.61).

#### **5.7.4 Training for Rural Development Project (TRDP)**

The TRDP has the most sophisticated and structured emphasis on follow-up, among the three programs studied. Follow-up is considered an integral part of the cycle of training events to which each of the participating villages is exposed.<sup>211</sup> Detailed guidelines and reporting schedules have been developed for use by trainers during follow-up visits.

As discussed earlier the entry point is VI (Village Intervention Training) conducted on a village by village basis. This is followed by ET (Residential Training). During both these training-interventions trainees develop action plans for future implementation. These are the basis for initial follow-up studies conducted by TRDC and Regional trainers upon return to each participating

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<sup>211</sup> Interview with Nd. Salome Mbuyu, TRDC Vice Principal, Ruaha, 21 November 1982.

TABLE 5.60

**Necessity for Post-Course Follow-up by Category of Respondents**

	Mtwara				Kilimanjaro			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Trained Categories</b>	72	97.3	2	2.7	47	97.9	1	2.1
<b>Untrained Categories</b>	66	89.2	8	10.8	73	97.3	2	2.7

	Iringa				Total			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Trained Categories</b>	69	92.0	6	8.0	188	95.43	9	4.56
<b>Untrained Categories</b>	67	89.3	8	10.7	206	91.96	18	8.03

Missing cases = 4

village. Typically follow-up is conducted for two to three days in each village.<sup>212</sup>

As indicated earlier, TRDP had three objectives for follow-up visits (a total of eight reporting schedules are filled up during each visit as shown in Table 5.62).

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<sup>212</sup> TRDP Implementation Reports, Iringa, February 1982.



TABLE 5.61

**Necessity for Post-Course Follow-up by Sex of Respondents**

	Mtwara				Kilimanjaro			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	89	90.9	9	9.2	74	98.7	1	1.3
Female	49	98.0	1	2.0	46	95.8	2	4.2

	Iringa				Total			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	93	91.2	9	8.8	256	93.09	19	6.90
Female	43	89.6	5	10.4	138	94.52	8	5.47

Detailed guidelines pertaining to suggested methodological approaches and kinds of data required, have been developed for each of the objectives and provided in a manual entitled "Guidelines for Follow-up Visits."

During Phase I of the project (1979-1980), TRDP served sixteen villages in four southern regions (Iringa, Mbeya, Rukwa and Ruvuma: refer to map for locations). The four villages within each region were two to four hours from each other, more often than not in different directions and as much as six to eight hours from the "hub center" at

TABLE 5.62

List of Follow-up Schedules (TRDP)

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<b>Objective One:</b> To document what changes have occurred in the village since training under the project began in the village.	
<b><u>Schedule A:</u></b>	Status of Projects and Implementation of Action Plans.
<b><u>Schedule B:</u></b>	Perceptions of TRD Training
<b><u>Schedule C:</u></b>	Economic Well-Being
<b><u>Schedule D:</u></b>	Social Well-Being
<b>Objective Two:</b> To determine what further training or technical assistance needs are developing in the village.	
<b><u>Schedule E:</u></b>	Functioning of Council/Future Training and TA Needs
<b><u>Schedule F:</u></b>	Priorities for Project/Village Problems
<b><u>Schedule G:</u></b>	Past/Future Training and Technical Assistance
<b><u>Schedule H:</u></b>	Problem Classification/Training and Technical Assistance
<b>Objective Three:</b> To provide whatever immediate training, technical assistance or consultation the village requires, which the follow-up team feel prepared to offer.	
<b><u>Schedule I:</u></b>	Documentation of Training or Technical Assistance provided.

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Ruaha. Heavy commitment in terms of vehicles, staff time and fuel cost had to be made (because of the wide spatial distribution of villages) for follow-up activities. As a result, trainers were not always enthusiastic about follow-up schedules and were not able to achieve the suggested frequency of four follow-up visits to each

village per year. However, during Phase II (1981-86) a shift was made to work with village clusters, i.e. two or three villages within close proximity of each other, in each region. (In effect, TRDP would be doing what FIPP has been promoting right at the outset.) Reducing costs was a major consideration in the TRDP emphasis on village clusters:

"The primary immediate cost savings to the project will be in terms of transportation. It is estimated that transportation expenses for trainers can be cut by approximately one third by utilizing this approach."<sup>213</sup>

It is likely that after the establishment of regional training centres the TRDP "hub" centre at Ruaha will be able to decentralize follow-up activities, thereby shifting greater responsibilities to Regional trainers, who will then be able to provide increased intensity and improved quality of follow-up to participating villages.

During the follow-up visits conducted by TRDP and Regional staff, on-site training and technical assistance was often provided for purposes of addressing needs derived during the visit. Follow-up is considered an integral component of the training model advocated by TRDP and is seen as a means of promoting continuous needs identification, measuring impact and improving future training interventions (VI or RT):

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<sup>213</sup> Tanzania Training for Rural Development, Project Paper, p. 48.

"The follow-up was based on the assumption that training is a continuous process and therefore there are always new training needs to be addressed. Similarly, follow-up would provide feedback to trainers on the training impact so as to ascertain whether training design and delivery had met the original objectives. Otherwise, make provisions for improvement in the training design and content."<sup>214</sup>

As indicated elsewhere TRDP's major thrust is the improvement of village planning and management capabilities. An emphasis on "hands-on" experience in the design of village plans is an important activity during ET and VI. During the follow-up phase trainers, regional and district officers have an opportunity to access the progress achieved and assist in furthering efforts at achieving established goals. Plans (copies of which were earlier filed at the Residential Center in Ruaha) are brought out and a joint assessment is conducted by villagers and the follow-up team:

"Follow-up was based on participant resolutions at the center during their backhome planning stage. Trainers had to compare the initial position of the village before training and its position during the follow-up specially in these specific issues which had been identified as problems and a tentative solution plan developed, with time frame to control implementation."<sup>215</sup>

The advantage of using a team approach to follow-up is that it facilitated the provision of on-site technical assistance (given the pool of technical resources

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<sup>214</sup> TRD Implementation Reports, February 1982.

<sup>215</sup> Ibid.

represented by the group of trainers). Follow-up at the village level provided trainers a first hand "view" of constraints limiting the application of skills acquired during training and a redressal of post-course problems was facilitated.

The TRDP emphasis on the inclusion of village-level functionaries and technicians in all the training interventions it is engaged in (unlike FDC Msinga and FPPP Mtwara which have neglected these individuals) provides some degree of assurance that follow-up on an informal basis, by these individuals, can be expected to be pursued, even in the absence of TRDP trainers. This is similar to the approach used during the FTC (1960s-70s) movement when extension workers participated in all training courses represented by villagers from their wards, in order to improve their capabilities for follow-up work. The VLS conducted in the area served by TRDP (i.e. Iringa region) indicated an overall agreement by male and female, trained and untrained respondents about the necessity for follow-up activities (See Table 5.60 and 5.61 respectively). However, there were some differences in the response pattern of those Iringa villagers who only attended village intervention (VI) and those that had received an additional exposure to residential training (RT). Of those who attended only VI as many as 16.2% indicated that follow-up was not necessary (check Table 5.63).

**TABLE 5.63**  
**Necessity for Follow-up by Type of Training**

	Yes		No	
	N	%	N	%
RT and VI	38	100.0	--	--
VI only	31	83.8	6	16.2

RT = One month residential training

VI = Two week village intervention

In another question (open-ended type), past trainees from TRDP (both VI and RT attendants), were asked to suggest ways in which overall training offered by TRDP could be improved. Over 60% of the suggestions (both by male and female respondents) pertained to follow-up activities such as village visits, inputs supply, evaluation of training and instituting of correspondence courses. The single largest number of suggestions were for follow-up visits at the village level: 35.29% in the case of male respondents and 35.71% in the case of female respondents (refer to Table 5.64 for details). It is evident from this data, that past trainees were not adequately satisfied with the intensity and type of follow-up provided by TRDP in Iringa region.

TABLE 5.64

**Suggestions from Past-participants for Improvement of TRDP Training**

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Increase the duration of training	6	11.76	--	--
Increase the frequency of training	5	9.80	1	7.14
Introduce practical activities	1	1.96	--	--
Conduct training at the village itself	2	3.92	1	7.14
Provide follow-up at the village level	18	35.29	5	35.7
Increase training sites	4	7.84	1	7.14
Organize inputs supply for post-course period	8	15.60	4	28.51
Offer follow-up correspondence courses	2	3.92	--	--
Evaluate training effectiveness	1	1.96	--	--
Provide follow-up training	2	3.92	--	--
Establish village demonstration plots	1	1.96	--	--
Increase the number of technical topics	--	--	1	7.14

#Data collected in Iringa Region only. Responses were from an open-ended type question.

### **5.7.5 Folk Development Colleges**

The FDC section at the Ministry of National Education has mandated that each FDC be engaged in a program of "Research and Evaluation," during a period of time specifically set aside<sup>216</sup> for that purpose. Special allocations of funds are also made to the respective FDCs.<sup>217</sup> Such visits are in effect follow-up visits as expressed by the following statements from FDC principals:

"After getting the research allocation we visit the villages where the participants who have passed into (sic) our FDC are. Then we meet with Ward Coordinators and village councils and ask them the performance of those participants. Also, we invite the participants and ask them how the villages use them."<sup>218</sup>

and,

"The follow-up is conducted by all tutors who go from one village to the other where we recruited students. In going to each village we meet the village leaders and talk to them and also we meet our students and see what they are doing in the village."<sup>219</sup>

Discussions with tutors at Msinga indicated that the above statements typified their own approaches during the village visits as part of the annual research activity. The principals' survey conducted in August 1982, as part of this study, indicated that 80% of the FDC represented  
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<sup>216</sup> Interview with Nd. T.S. Mlote, April 21st 1982.

<sup>217</sup> At Msinga during the year of this study the annual 'research' activities were conducted during July 1982.

<sup>218</sup> Excerpts from responses to questions in the Principals Survey conducted in August 1982.

<sup>219</sup> Ibid.



(N=40) in the survey did conduct an annual follow-up/'research' visits to villages. When asked to rate their satisfaction with the quality of follow-up being undertaken, they responded as follows:

TABLE 5.65

**Principals' Perceptions of the Quality of Follow-up Activities Conducted**

Quality of Follow-up Currently Offered	N	%
Very Satisfactory	1	2.5
Satisfactory	14	35.0
Needs some Improvement	12	30.0
Needs Considerable Improvement	5	12.5
No Follow-up Being Done	8	20.0
TOTAL	40	100.0

A study of responses to the question asking FDC principals to describe the follow-up process indicates an overall emphasis on the part of tutors to study the extent to which past trainees are contributing to village development and related issues. No on site technical or training assistance is undertaken, as in the case of TRDP. No direct involvement or commitment on the part of the FDC to assist in inputs supply (as in the case of FTFP) was reported. Of the principals (N=40), 35% indicated they

were involved in assisting village planning efforts directly. However, all principals (100%) believed that FDC training should be coupled with village planning and outreach activities. This may not be happening with the majority of FDCs because of a number of possible reasons: lack of an explicit mandate to that effect, shortage of funding for fuel and transportation and poor tutor preparation to assist in such tasks.

Moreover, even though 80% of the principals indicate that they were engaged in follow-up activities (or 'Research and Evaluation') this does not necessarily imply that all villages represented by trainees are visited. Discussions with tutors at Msinga FDC indicate that in not a single year were all the trainees for the past year visited. An evaluation study conducted by the Ministry of National Education indicates that "between 70 to 72% of all concerned parties mentioned that the tutors did not visit villages in order to study their problems"<sup>220</sup> (see Table 5.66 for details). Between 69-71% of parents, village chairmen and students indicated that tutors never visited and gave advice to ex-students.<sup>221</sup> Evidently, while the majority of FDCs are engaged annually in village visits they do not visit all villages represented. The

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<sup>220</sup> H.J. Mosha, "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," p. 242.

<sup>221</sup> Ibid.

data provided in Table 5.67 comes as no surprise given difficult logistics, the fact that as many as 20-40 villages are represented in a particular intake, that tutors available for this purpose are few<sup>222</sup> and given funding availability and time constraints.

#### **5.7.6 Existence of Re-entry Problem**

During the VLS, respondents were asked about the existence of re-entry problems for newly trained individuals returning to their villages. Table 5.68 shows that between 69.9% to 82.4% of the various groups studied in the three regions, supported the notion that trained villagers face re-entry problems. Trained individuals were, overall, (78.38%) slightly more likely than untrained villagers to support that notion.

Within a village community, because of the close interaction and familiarity between individuals, non-trained individuals too could be fully cognizant of the type of problems encountered by fellow-villagers returning from training: not having attended training themselves, does not make them any less authoritative on the issue. However, those villagers with educational backgrounds limited to adult education (relative to other formal

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<sup>222</sup> Msinga FDC had three to four tutors available for the 1982 village visits; the Ministry of National Education's evaluation report based on 12 FDCs found that the FDCs had an average of 5.9 tutors per FDC in 1979.

TABLE 5.67

Frequency of Visits by Tutors to Villages

Study Problem of the Village					
	Number	Often (%)	Seldom (%)	Never (%)	No Response (%)
Parents	68	4	10	72	14
Village					
Chairmen	141	4	13	70	13
Students	174	3	16	71	10
Advice on Village Problems					
	Number	Often (%)	Seldom (%)	Never (%)	No Response (%)
Parents	68	6	10	68	16
Village					
Chairmen	141	4	12	75	9
Students	174	5	11	71	13
Visits and Advice Ex-Students					
	Number	Often (%)	Seldom (%)	Never (%)	No Response (%)
Parents	68	6	19	71	4
Village					
Chairmen	141	5	28	60	7
Students	174	3	20	69	8

Source: H.J. Mosha, "Report of Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania," Ministry of National Education, p. 87.

TABLE 5.68

Opinions about the Existence of Re-entry Problems by  
Category of Respondents

	Mtwara				Kilimanjaro			
	Exist		Do Not Exist		Exist		Do Not Exist	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Trained Categories	56	76.7	17	23.3	39	81.25	9	18.75
Untrained Categories	51	69.9	22	30.1	54	79.41	14	20.6

	Iringa				Total			
	Exist		Do Not Exist		Exist		Do Not Exist	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Trained Categories	61	92.4	17	17.6	156	78.38	43	21.60
Untrained Categories	52	70.3	22	29.7	157	73.02	58	26.97

N = 414

Missing cases = 9

TABLE 5.69

Opinions about the Existence of Re-entry Problems by  
Educational Background of Villagers

	Mtwara				Kilimanjaro			
	Exist		Do Not Exist		Exist		Do Not Exist	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Illiterate	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Adult Education Stages I to IV	43	66.2	22	33.8	1	100.0	--	--
Standards 1-3	5	71.4	2	28.6	5	83.3	1	16.7
Standards 4-6	23	76.7	7	23.3	34	75.6	11	24.4
Standards 7-9	18	75.0	6	25.0	52	83.9	10	16.1

	Iringa				Total			
	Exist		Do Not Exist		Exist		Do Not Exist	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Illiterate	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Adult Education Stages I to IV	30	63.8	17	36.2	74	65.48	39	34.51
Standards 1-3	9	100.0	0	0.0	19	86.36	3	13.63
Standards 4-6	33	82.5	7	17.5	90	78.26	25	21.73
Standards 7-9	40	85.1	7	14.89	110	82.70	23	17.29

N = 383

Missing cases = 40

educational categories) disagreed the most (34.51%) about the existence of re-entry problems. A cursory glance at figures, indicates that a similar pattern exists in each of the three regions. Explanatory factors for this finding were not uncovered during this research. Is it related to the fact that those who have not been exposed to the formal education system are better communicators with fellow villagers? Are such people perceived as a lesser threat? Because they have previously been exposed to adult education methods are they better utilizers of nonformal training courses? These are some issues deserving further investigation.

When the Iringa sample (TRDP past trainees) was studied more closely, it was found that those who attended only the Village Intervention (VI) had a lower percentage of individuals who agreed with the statement that trained villagers had re-entry problems (refer to Table 5.70).

Could this imply that the response patterns differed because graduates from village based programs do in reality, face less resentment, cross-examination and alienation from fellow villagers? Could it mean that the two week VI program permits individuals to attend to family and farm needs and thereby reduce such re-entry problems?

The principals' survey (represented by 40 FDCs), also served to explore further the existence of re-entry

TABLE 5.70

Opinions about the Existence of Re-entry Problems by Type of Training

	N	Yes %	N	No %
RT + VI	35	92.1	3	7.9
VI Only	26	72.2	10	27.8

N = 74

Missing cases = 1

RT = One month residential training

VI = Two week village intervention

problems. Of the 40 principals who were surveyed 33 (86.8%) agreed that "trainees returning to the villages after a training program usually face problems when they re-enter the village." Five principals (12.5%) did not agree with the statement.<sup>223</sup>

**5.7.7 Nature of Re-entry Problems**

**5.7.7.1 Short Course Participants**

A survey of previously trained villagers in Kilimanjaro and Iringa regions (VLS) indicates that the major problem faced by villagers is a lack of equipment and/or inputs, lack of training/demonstration sites, lack of time, lack of support from fellow-villagers and no initiative by village government to utilize trainees and the

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<sup>223</sup> Two principals did not respond.



deterioration of family farms were some of other problems encountered. (See Table 5.71 for complete details).

As indicated under the section on "Instructional content, methods and materials," short duration training programs invariably emphasize production techniques involving use of equipment and inputs not readily available in the village or even at regional levels. Little or no emphasis is given to the use of low-input<sup>224</sup> or no-input approaches to agricultural improvement.<sup>225</sup> Under such circumstances, it is easy to predict a high level of frustration on the part of past-trainees attempting to utilize the kinds of knowledge and skills taught.

#### **5.7.7.2 Long Duration Participants**

The survey conducted of 22 past participants of the FDC program then residing within Kilimanjaro region also indicated a similar concern with lack of equipment or inputs. (Refer to Table 5.72.)

Once again this major concern can be explained by the overemphasis in training content on the role of inputs that must be procured from outside agricultural supply agencies. However, long duration course participants also  
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<sup>224</sup> Meaning physical/material inputs.

<sup>225</sup> Discussions with tutors indicated they were surprised that such alternatives existed in the first place.

TABLE 5.71

Problems Faced by Newly Trained Villagers# Upon Return to their Villages (N=83)

	Male		Female		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Lack of training/ demonstration site	3	5.66	4	13.33	7	8.43
2. Illness	1	1.89	1	3.33	2	2.41
3. Lack of equipment/ inputs	11	20.75	7	23.33	18	21.70
4. No initiative by village government to utilize trainers	3	5.67	2	6.66	5	6.02
5. Lack of time	4	7.55	2	6.67	6	7.23
6. Deterioration of family farm	5	9.43	--	--	5	6.02
7. Resented by fellow villagers	3	5.66	--	--	3	3.61
8. Lack of cooperation from villagers	3	5.66	--	--	3	3.61
9. Lack of support from fellow villagers	6	11.32	--	--	6	7.23
10. No problems encoun- tered	9	16.98	9	30.00	18	21.70
11. Poor credibility of short course gra- duates	1	1.89	1	3.33	2	2.41
12. Disruption of home/ family activities	1	1.89	--	--	1	1.20

**Problems Faced by Newly Trained Villagers, Continued**

<b>13. Deterioration of family health</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3.77</b>	<b>--</b>	<b>--</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.41</b>
<b>14. Lack of support systems between past trainees</b>	<b>--</b>	<b>--</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3.33</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1.20</b>
<b>15. Inability to apply skills</b>	<b>--</b>	<b>--</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>6.67</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.41</b>
<b>16. Jealousy</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1.88</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3.33</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2.41</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>83</b>	<b>100.00</b>

# Based on an open-ended question, to which more than one response was permitted. A total of 48 trained villagers in Kilimanjaro and 38 in Iringa (only those who attended both RT and VI) were surveyed.  
Missing cases = 3

reported two other major concerns: the neglect of the family farm and the deterioration of family nutrition and health. See Table 5.72.

The Evaluation Study conducted by the Ministry of National Education, among 174 past trainees of the FDC network indicated that the major problem in using their knowledge and skill pertained to equipment: 42% of problems specified involved lack of equipment. Table 5.73 provides further details:

In the FDC Principals Survey conducted in July 1982, principals were asked to indicate what they felt was a major re-entry problem faced by their trainees upon return to their villages. The highest percentage of responses

TABLE 5.72

**Problems Faced by Past Trainees of Folk Development  
Colleges Upon Return to Their Villages# (N=22)**

	N	%
Non-availability of equipment/inputs	9	24.32
Neglect of family farm	7	18.92
Deterioration of family health or nutrition	6	16.23
Lack of capital	3	8.11
Non-payment of salary/allowance	3	8.11
Lack of demonstration site	3	8.11
Insufficient training or knowledge	2	5.40
Lack of initiative by leaders to utilize past trainees	2	5.40
Non-existence of village projects	1	2.70
No problems	1	2.70
TOTAL	37	100.0

# Survey conducted within Kilimanjaro regions. Respondents were graduates of long courses (9 months to one year).

(30.76%) pertained to the non-existence of planned activities for utilization of past trainees. (Refer to Table 5.74.)

This finding is also supported by the Ministry of National Education's evaluation (of a larger number of students) which indicates that 22% (check Table 5.73) of all responses referred to the absence of "set-plans" as a

TABLE 5.73

Problems in Using their Knowledge/Skill

Type of Problem	Number	Percentage
No set plans	38	22
No equipment	73	42
Not paid	4	2
Little knowledge	9	5
Not involved by villagers	25	14
No problems	25	14
No response	23	13
Total	174	100

Source: H.J. Mosha (ed.) "Report of the Research on the Progress and Impact of Folk Development Colleges," p. 112.

problem in using their training. Other major problems identified by principals were: non-payment of salaries/honoraria and lack of supplies/inputs/materials. Discussions with FDC tutors indicate that no specific efforts are made to plan for the "return" of trainees to their villages.

Surprisingly, problems of socio-psychological nature were rarely mentioned by past trainees. Whether this actually reflects a low incidence of such problems or if problems pertaining to material inputs and organizational issues tended to be an overpowering influence on the

TABLE 5.74

Re-entry Problems Faced by Past Trainees, According to FDC Principals (N=40)

	N	%
1. Non-existence of planned village activities for utilization of past trainees	20	30.77
2. Past trainees are not paid salaries/honorarium	14	21.54
3. Lack of supplies/materials/inputs	12	18.46
4. Trainees pose a threat to existent leadership	4	6.15
5. Dissatisfaction with village life	4	6.15
6. Equipment used at FDCs are not available in villages	4	6.15
7. Projects are not self-supporting	2	3.08
8. Trainees viewed as spies	2	3.08
9. No experience in project management	2	3.08
10. Poor credibility of youth	1	1.54
Total	65	100.00

Missing cases: 6 (i.e. 34 principals responded)

More than one response was permitted.

trainees' responses is not known. However, it has been suggested that trainees face a range of problems of socio-psychological nature.<sup>226</sup> Given the findings presented in

<sup>226</sup> Rolf P. Lynton and Udai Pareek, Training for Development, (Connecticut: Kumarian Press, 1978) p. 103.

this section (for both long and short duration courses), it might be likely that re-entry problems of socio-psychological nature, are more prevalent among those who participated in industrial or organizational training and less so in agriculture and rural development training. One has to consider the considerable differences in orientation, goals and purposes of these two major training areas. It could be that the training context, more than any other single factor, determines the incidence of re-entry problems of socio-psychological nature.

Data in Tables 5.72, 5.73 and 5.74 pertaining to participants in long-duration courses,<sup>227</sup> indicate a major concern about the lack of inputs, equipment and other material supplies. Another major concern was the poor utilization/poor planning for utilization of past trainees. As discussed in earlier sections of this chapter, the very nature of long duration programs tends to attract youth, who have completed standard seven education, and have had little farming responsibilities in the past. Their motivation in attending training is usually based on an expectation for wage employment usually at the village level.<sup>228</sup> Another alternative,

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<sup>227</sup> Collected from three different sources.

<sup>228</sup> The Ministry of National Education, Evaluation Study indicates that 78% of students surveyed did return to live in their villages.

particularly for the graduates of Agriculture Technical education courses (carpentry, masonry, etc.) is for self-employment, but the dearth of capital and/or supplies have limited such opportunities considerably. The lack of specific efforts on the part of the village governments to utilize trainees, the infrequent visits of tutors to the villages,<sup>229</sup> an overall lack of involvement of the FDC in arranging for credit and/or inputs and, in most cases, the non-payment of allowances or salary, serves to heighten the re-entry problems of FDC graduates.

What seems to follow is an urgent need for FDCs to facilitate the re-entry of its graduates into their villages by planning for it themselves, providing on-site guidance to trainees and governments.

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<sup>229</sup> As discussed earlier, in a Ministry of Education Evaluation, between 69-71% of past-trainees indicated that tutors never visited the villages and advised students.



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## **Chapter VI**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

#### **6.1 SUMMARY**

For the majority of the world's population, particularly those from the African continent, a strong emphasis on appropriate strategies for agriculture and rural development continues to offer the best prospects for improving the current situation with regard to food production, income generation, health and nutritional improvement, housing and education. Within that context, non-formal educational programs have had a major role. Such programs are considered necessary, not only to redress the limitations of formal schooling but also as an extension of formal schooling (for school leavers). Sometimes, non-formal educational programs have been viewed as an alternative to formal education.

The masses of rural population continues to be a major under-utilized resource. The success of development programs will more often than not be determined, or at least be affected, by the knowledge, attitudes and capabilities of that population. Training programs (residential and village based) at the villager-level,

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The masses of rural population continues to be a major under-utilized resource. The success of development programs will more often than not be determined, or at least be affected, by the knowledge, attitudes and capabilities of that population. Training programs (residential and village based) at the villager-level,

continue to offer much opportunity for bringing about the required changes in capabilities at that level.

Accordingly, many African governments (particularly in Eastern Africa) have committed significant amounts of financial and technical manpower resources, for the establishment and maintenance of training institutions. Considerable differences in strategies and techniques are observed at the operational level. However, the knowledge base on which critical decisions are often made about the structuring or conduct of training courses is scant.

This research has been aimed at exposing the strengths and weaknesses of the various elements of the training processes in four Tanzanian programs, in order to analyze factors and forces contributing to the present state of affairs and to determine the nature of practical problems in planning, organizing and implementing programs. The study will hopefully have unearthed and made available to training practitioners and academics a rich source of theoretical concepts for testing and verification within the respective (and unique) locales. The study also has provided additional insights for guiding efforts to improve training in Tanzania.

This research study was exploratory and relied on qualitative and quantitative data. The primary emphasis was on generating theoretical notions and concepts pertaining to various dimensions of villager-level

training. Instead of beginning with a set of hypotheses derived from theories, models and paradigms developed within different contexts (often irrelevant), the researcher began by deriving questions and issues on-site from training institutions and settings. Through constant comparisons conceptual categories and properties were generated. The comparison of similarities and differences among the four programs studied and the various sub-groups (e.g., trained or untrained; men or women; leaders or non-leaders) resulted in the identification of generalized relations among the conceptual categories and/or properties. Thus, the theoretical notions generated by using this method can be considered to be grounded in data. Data was collected from different audiences in order to provide different perspectives on the same phenomenon or problem. Joint collection, coding and analysis of data was undertaken whenever feasible. The preliminary analysis of data formed the basis for deriving additional questions for subsequent investigation and for purposes of providing further explanations of issues under study.

Six major themes emerged in the study: Needs Assessment and other Training Related Research; Selection and Recruitment of Trainees; Factors Affecting the Response of Villagers to Training Opportunities; Delivery Systems for Training; Instructional Content, Methods and Materials;

and Post-Course Follow-up. Within each of these themes a wide range of emerging categories and properties were analyzed.

## **6.2 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

1A. A strong appreciation for, and a commitment to, the use of data for improving the relevance of training was to be found in two out of the four programs studied. However, considerable variation could be found among the programs studied in their efforts to design and implement data-based training. A major concern is the inordinate time-lag between the actual collection of data and the return of the findings to the respective training institutions. Typically, this has been between one to two years. Delays are exacerbated when data processing is undertaken at locations away from the project site. The emphasis on central and sophisticated data processing increases dependence on the outside specialist. In none of the programs studied do the clientele have any role in the actual design of instruments, or in the collection and analysis of data. Direct feedback of research results to the clientele is rarely undertaken.

1B. If small-scale research efforts are to become an instrument of self-awareness and if control is to be decentralized, an emphasis on basic yet systematic strategies are warranted. Data collection and analytical

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## **6.2 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

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1B. If small-scale research efforts are to become an instrument of self-awareness and if control is to be decentralized, an emphasis on basic yet systematic strategies are warranted. Data collection and analytical

techniques are means to an end. An emphasis on sophisticated high-tech gadgetry and statistical rigor are not as important as the need to promote the use of sustainable, client-centered, locally initiated approaches to research and the utilization of research results.

There is a need to demystify data based approaches/research and include clients in decision making at various stages of the process and to the optimum extent. There is little justification, given the nature of data required and purposes for which it is collected, for data analysis to be undertaken outside the country. The importance of providing formal feedback to the village community, of the results/findings, must be underscored.

2A. Needs assessment as it pertains to training and other aspects of development programs is best conducted on a continuous rather than on a one-time basis. However, problems have surfaced in programs emphasizing continuous needs-assessment, due to the survey-weariness of both the trainers and their clientele (i.e., the respondents).

2B. Training needs should be assessed in an on-going manner in order to ensure relevancy of the training intervention. However, formal, structured enquiries are often only necessary initially. Subsequent enquiries would be more appropriate if conducted in an informal, less structured basis and through the use of group interviews.



3A. The research studies undertaken by two of the organizations were primarily, general, broad-based studies (general village-needs assessments). Such studies were found to be more useful to project staff who were thereby able to obtain a better understanding of the situation and problems of the villagers than for purposes of improving training courses or generating programs. Overall, the emphasis on the direct determination of training needs is negligible.

3B. An initial baseline general survey (GVNA) is essential. Subsequent surveys should be enterprise and problem specific and conducted on an informal, group interview basis. Enterprise/problem specific surveys are essential for actual design of courses and determination of course-content and follow-up emphasis. Even with this preparation, a trainee-expectations survey conducted on the first of the course may be necessary and will provide highly specific information on the particular group's special needs.

4A. Differences were noted in the perceptions of village problems and training-related issues, between leaders and non-leaders; between men and women and between trained and non-trained villagers.

4B. This observation suggests the need for training institutions to undertake special efforts to ensure that the various heterogeneous sub-groups within a typical

village are adequately represented in needs-assessment or related research efforts.

5A. The preoccupation at the village level is with meeting basic needs with the result that training is not always perceived as a high priority. However, creative programming and "packaging" of instructional units, does improve the perceptions of the role and relevance of training in improving the quality of life at the village level.

5B. In settings where basic needs have not been met training is not given high priority by villagers, trainers may need to deviate from their routine tasks in an attempt to provide assistance to their clients in meeting those felt needs. A temporary reorientation on the part of the trainer and the institution(s) involved can result in training being elevated to a higher status in the hierarchy of needs.

6A. The majority of the villagers interviewed in the survey indicated a preference for joint decision-making (along with their tutors) on training-topics to be included in courses they attend. By themselves, villagers express a strong interest in training topics that reflect a commodity or technical orientation.

6B. In order to ensure an adequate balance in the coverage of training topics, both trainers and clientele should jointly engage in the determination of course

content. A pre-course topic expectations "survey" conducted on the first day of the course could provide preliminary information for trainers to set into motion a dialogue with participants on the final course content.

7A. With the exception of the Farmer Training and Production Project (FTPP) the documentation and exchange of research findings and insights are poor, resulting in a negligible use of such information by the wider network of trainers and training institutions.

7B. The FFTP commitment to documentation and circulation of research findings needs to be continued at the level of the Ministry of Agriculture. However, the concepts and approaches need to be adopted by the other training networks in the country in order to improve trainer/tutor understanding of the clientele and problems confronting them. Moreover, such activities can ensure a fruitful exchange of lessons/insights on methodological issues.

8A. Beginning with the promulgation of the policy of Socialism and Self-Reliance, there has been a shift in the responsibility for the selection and recruitment of trainees, from the extension worker to the village-council or chairperson. However, there were regional differences, with the Mtwara respondents preferring that selection be undertaken by the village chairperson and the Kilimanjaro and Iringa respondents preferring that the village council

make the decision. In general, the extension worker is not perceived as an appropriate person to select or recruit trainees.

8B. Training institutions need to determine what the appropriate selection criteria are for the different courses they conduct. Special efforts are warranted to ensure that these criteria are made known to the village councils/chairpersons in order to ensure a fair and unbiased selection of individuals to attend training courses. With regard to agricultural courses, the extension worker should also be included in the decision-making process related to trainee selection. In order to ensure broader access to training opportunities by village audiences, village councils and chairpersons could be asked to recruit on a 10-cell<sup>1</sup> basis e.g., one member from each 10-cell unit. While the study did not investigate the problem, it is likely that if such criteria are not provided, favouritism on the part of important village leaders may prevail. Selection conducted by the village council as a whole rather than by the chairperson acting alone is an additional way to reduce partiality.

9A. The emphasis on courses of long-duration is a major factor in the failure of the FDCs to recruit and train the original intended audience of adult graduates from Stage III and IV of the Adult Education System in

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<sup>1</sup> Lowest rung of the village government structure.

Tanzania. The majority of the trainees within the FDC set-up are youth in their twenties. The representation of women is greater in the FDC long courses (unmarried women in their teens or lower twenties) than in non-FDC short courses (married adults). Overall, participants in short courses were found to be older than those in the long-duration courses.

9B. The dilemma faced by the Ministry of National Education with regard to the audience currently served by its FDCs needs to be resolved. It may have to continue its present emphasis on youth through its long-term courses and concurrently introduce its own short courses for adults or institutionalize the collaborative effort with the Ministry of Agriculture in the 'two week' courses. On the other hand, it may decide to modify its original goals to serve adults to reflect its current emphasis.

10A. Sexually defined roles within the household and on the farm result in a differential response to training opportunities on the part of various family members. Major factors account for a less than appropriate response on the part of women. Some of these are domestic responsibilities faced by women, lack of child care facilities, lack of permission from husbands and poor health conditions of womenfolk. If family members have a say in the selection process a strong male-bias on the

part of both male and female members can be anticipated. There is a sex-bias in the assignment of participants (particularly so in programs of long duration) to courses based on the nature of course-content. Women tend to be allocated a domestic science option rather than one in agriculture.

10B. A special effort aimed at improving the overall access by women to training courses is desirable. An increased representation of women in agricultural courses must be achieved. However, care must be undertaken to ensure that this emphasis does not imply a denigration of the role of domestic science. Both subject areas will continue to be important subject areas for the training of women. Information campaigns aimed at reducing misconceptions on the part of men about women's involvement in training, a reduction in course duration, greater emphasis on village based training, the establishment of child-care facilities at training sites, and an emphasis on training topics of relevance to women's training needs are some suggested strategies for improving female representation. The planning of training courses need to take into account the farming system of the local area, including such dimensions as sexually defined roles on the farm/home and the labor demand pattern and crop-calendar in designing the timing, location, duration and content of training.

11A. The arrangement for transportation or the provision of an allowance for that purpose, is essential in the case of residential training. This is particularly so in areas where the importance of training is not fully appreciated by the clientele and/or because the training institution has not yet established its credibility.

11B. Transportation or cash allowance for travel (only) may need to be provided in the initial years of a training centre's activities, in a particular geographic area. Only when a sustained level and quality of service is being provided by a training institution, is it reasonable and necessary to suggest that the village community meet the transportation expenses of trainees recruited from the particular village.

12A. Educational background per se is not a factor determining the response of villagers to training opportunities in the three programs offering courses of short duration. There was little difference in the pattern of educational backgrounds of those who attended training programs and those who did not. Educational background is not a factor influencing the response to training in different settings (i.e., residential or village-based).

12B. The fact that educational backgrounds of trained and untrained villagers in short duration courses do not differ significantly suggests that those with higher

educational qualifications do not have differential access to short course training opportunities, as has been the case in other countries.

13A. Village level demonstrations and short-term courses (three to five days) at the village level (VBT) are the most preferred instructional approaches. When asked to choose between village based training (VBT) and residential training (RT) the single largest number of responses were for VBT. The educational background of respondents did not appear to affect their choices. Untrained villagers are more likely than trained villagers to opt for VBT. With an increase in the age of the individual (trained/untrained) the chances that such an individual will opt for VBT are greater. The representation of women is higher in VBT than in RT programs. However, the current emphasis on VBT is, with the exception of TRDP, negligible. Current practice indicates a preoccupation on the part of existent training institutions with residential models.

13B. The current emphasis on residential training should be retained with efforts being directed towards consolidation rather than expansion of the existent network of residential institutions. An emphasis on the following areas is deemed desirable: improvement of the efficiency of existing centres, improvement of self-reliance 'economic projects'; improvement of the quality



of staff through the placement of qualified and competent instructors and/or inservice training of staff; increased allocation of funds to meet recurring costs, and an improvement of administrative and management capabilities of local staff. Concurrently, a gradual expansion of village-based activities is recommended. However, such village-based training programs and/or other outreach activities are to be considered as legitimate avenues for the involvement of existent residential centres and the field-extension network. The construction of additional physical facilities at this stage are unwarranted. Instead, the utilization of Tanzania's impressive network of widely distributed primary school facilities for the conduct of village based training is recommended. Through imaginative planning and advance preparations, these institutions could become the focus for localized, village-based training conducted by residential training centre staff. The costs of transportation for the team of staff and the costs of per-diem provided (considered an essential form of incentive if this approach is to succeed and become institutionalized) could easily be offset by the savings accrued from the absence of transportation and upkeep costs for trainees. Besides, such approaches can reach audiences that may normally not participate in residential courses but more importantly will provide the 'critical mass' of trained individuals within a village

considered important for the adoption of new ideas.

Insights acquired by instructors at the village level can enhance the relevancy of instructional sessions in their residential courses.

14A. Overall, a preference was noted among villagers for crop-related training topics. However, the interest in livestock production related topics increased as one went from lesser developed to relatively more advanced agricultural economies. Within a crop emphasis, an orientation towards learning about new, high yielding crops was quite clear. There is an overall interest in learning more about the general aspects of agriculture than about problem-specific issues. Even when specific crops are involved, this orientation on the part of the villagers was noted.

Those programs which provided direct assistance in the area of village planning and management and leadership development and have been able to provide continued and sustained follow-up have had a significant and usually observable impact. This is particularly so when the area of operation was restricted to a few villages at a time.

Villagers consider that training in both village planning and management (VPM) and technical agriculture (TA) is necessary, for leaders and non-leaders, reflecting their understanding of the importance of broadbased community involvement in village planning activities.

Among those who thought that training in both VPM and TA was necessary, the sequence for these two areas differed: respondents felt that when it came to leaders, VPM should precede TA, but with regard to non-leaders the reverse order was suggested.

14B. Given the role of village governments in Tanzania in orchestrating changes and in the provision of services at the village level, the impact of agricultural training may often be limited by weak and ineffective village organizations. Training directed towards the strengthening of VPM capabilities may need to be given priority over technical fields such as agriculture during the initial period of training. However, training in VPM should be preferably designed and implemented within the context of participants' major interests and inter-relating the areas wherever feasible and relevant.

In the case of agriculture courses a broadbased foundation in general agriculture is warranted. Such training will set the stage for subsequent problem-specific courses. However, care must be taken to ensure that even in such courses, a balance is maintained between technical subject matter and problem solving skills. In the case of technical courses, it would seem that specific consideration be given to agro-climatical and ecological variations, and that courses and therefore recruitment be restricted to specific zones. This may be particularly

necessary in the case of crop-related courses and relatively less important in livestock production courses.

Since the initial response to opportunities for training in agriculture in low potential/low population density areas can be expected to be relatively poor, when conducted such short courses tailored to meet the participants' felt needs and involving intensive follow-up, may be desirable.

15A. With the exception of TRDP, the training programs are generally intra-sectoral rather than cross-sectoral in nature. By staffing its institution with trainers seconded from various ministries/departments, TRDP has succeeded in providing a series of well coordinated cross-sectoral courses, when earlier efforts by RTCs (with regular training staff representing a single ministry) had failed.

15B. Cross-sectoral training is facilitated when training institution staff themselves represent the various sectors or ministries concerned and function under a single "neutral" institutional umbrella setup for the express purpose of overseeing the provision of training and related follow-up.

16A. Until the inception of FTTP, activities in the area of instructional materials preparation were negligible. The shortage of instructional support materials and physical inputs at the level of tutors

trainers is critical in all programs except FTTP. all programs except FTTP is critical. There is an overall belief at the level of tutors that the improvement of practical sessions is dependent on the procurement and infusion of material inputs. The FTTP has established a highly systematic scientific and participatory approach to the production of training packages for distribution on a nationwide basis and beyond the FTTP network.

16A. It is recommended that the FTTP's present approach to developing, testing and distributing training packages be retained as an ongoing activity within the Ministry of Agriculture. On the matter of instructional materials preparation, a major emphasis by the FDC and TRD is considered essential for improving the quality of instructional sessions. However, cooperation and coordination of efforts between different ministries is desirable in order to reduce duplication and waste of scarce resources and facilitate an exchange of insights and experiences.

17A. The intensity and quality of follow-up activities differs considerably from program to program. The rationale and purpose also tends to differ considerably. A strong emphasis on follow-up has resulted in significant improvements in observable program impact. However, effective follow-up, given the use of current approaches, also tends to be a major cost item in the training budget.

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At the present time, follow-up is conducted by tutors themselves and the extension worker is rarely involved. Vilalge-level surveys suggest a strong need and appreciation for follow-up activities during the post-training period. The overwhelming majority of villagers and FDC principals supported the notion that trained villagers face re-entry problems.

The re-entry problems identified by participants in short-duration courses were: lack of equipment and/or inputs, lack of training/demonstration sites, lack of time, lack of support from fellow villagers, absence of village government initiative to utilize trainees, and a deterioration of the family farm during the period of training. Major concerns of the participants in long duration courses were lack of equipment, neglect of the family farm and a deterioration of family health or nutrition. Problems of a socio-psychological nature were rarely mentioned by trainees. Whether this actually reflected a low incidence of such problems or if problems pertaining to material inputs and organizational issues tended to have an overpowering influence on socio-psychological concerns was not known.

17B. A broader role for follow-up (such as that of TRDP) involving tasks pertaining to needs assessment, monitoring and evaluation, assistance in the arrangement of inputs and the provision of on-site training or



consultancy is desirable. However, ways and means of lowering follow-up costs need to be identified and tested. These could include such approaches as recruiting from contiguous areas, two to three week periods scheduled for being on-the-road (thereby reducing the costs of returning to the base), sharing follow-up responsibilities with extension workers and/or indigenous facilitators.

The concept of using extension workers or indigenous facilitators for follow-up has been tested in the past (the former within Tanzania during 1960-1970 period), and may need to be revived. However, a plan for regular inservice training of these categories of field-level workers is fundamentally important if they are to provide adequate quality of follow-up service in consonance with training received by the villagers.

Follow-up needs to be viewed as an integral component of the training process. A team approach to providing follow-up (consisting of individuals representing major ministries or government departments) can enhance the quality of on-site assistance provided.

### **6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

This study has raised questions and provided possible explanations about the nature, effects and critical factors pertaining to training for agriculture and rural development in Tanzania. However, given such an analysis,



researchers and practitioners at the host country level will be in the best position to determine further research priorities and questions. It is important to demystify the notion that such research is the prerogative of academics. Trainers and other practitioners should get involved in the design and conduct of scientific studies within an action-research context. Given this orientation, certain recommendations for further research are as follows:

1. Socio-psychological factors affecting the response to and utilization of training. Little is known at this point about the effects of such factors on the response to training opportunities and on the utilization of newly acquired knowledge and skills. Detailed case-studies and ethnographic approaches to studying trained and untrained villagers may help unearth a clearer understanding of such factors.
2. Dynamics of the process for selecting trainees at the village council level. The dynamics of the selection process are not known and an investigation is needed to assess whether such factors as kinship, ethnicity, social status and economic background are involved. A detailed socio-metric study of past participants in a few randomly chosen villages would be one suggested approach to studying this question.

3. **Relevance, implications and effects of the Saturation emphasis (concentrated efforts for two to three years in a few select villages at a time) to providing villager-level training. The FTTP and TRDP have restricted their work to a few selected villages. Concentrated activities in such villages results in the channeling of considerable amounts of scarce resources into a few villages at a time. Given Tanzania's goals for egalitarianism, such approaches may raise numerous questions. However, this very approach also tends to ensure early, observable, sustainable and significant impact. A detailed study of these programs from the socio-political, economic and pedagogical perspectives seems desirable and would best be conducted when these projects have been operational for three to five years.**
4. **Comparative cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit studies of residential and village based approaches to training. Thus, for criticisms of one or the other method is usually based on intuition or at the best on scant data. An experimental design established precisely for the purpose of comparing these approaches is necessary.**
5. **Constraints to cross-sectoral approaches to training. Particularly within the general area of**

rural development a cross-sectoral approach to training appears to offer the best prospects for relevant assistance to village based groups and organizations. A study of the structural and functional constraints in operationalizing cross-sectoral training would provide valuable insights for program designers.

6. Training needs and structural, cultural and environmental factors affecting the response of women to training programs. Detailed and region-specific studies on these issues would provide valuable information for restructuring the present approaches to design and implementation of training.

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**Appendix A**

**ENGLISH VERSIONS OF SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES AND INTERVIEW  
SCHEDULES**

**VILLAGE LEVEL SURVEY**

**FORM-1\***

**INSTRUCTIONS:**

This form is to be filled in by the interviewer. Most items in this questionnaire require that you ask the question and check ( ) the response alongside one of the options provided. If the response does not appear in the given list, then indicate the response under "other."

Other items require that you ask the farmers the question and then record the given response in the form of a brief, clearly worded and legible statement, in the space provided.

Do not mark anything in the column called "For coding only" which appears on the right margin of each page.

1. Name of the respondent:
2. Sex: \_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female
3. Age:
4. Name of village:
5. District: \_\_\_\_\_ Region: \_\_\_\_\_
6. Crops grown in the area:  
1) \_\_\_\_\_ 2) \_\_\_\_\_  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ 4) \_\_\_\_\_  
-----

\*Used in Mtwara, Kilimanjaro & Iringa

5) \_\_\_\_\_ 6) \_\_\_\_\_  
7) \_\_\_\_\_ 8) \_\_\_\_\_

7. Are livestock generally raised in the area?

1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes 2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

8. Number of years of formal education: \_\_\_\_\_

9. Number of members in your immediate family \_\_\_\_\_

10. What are the crops raised on your own farm?

1) \_\_\_\_\_ 2) \_\_\_\_\_  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ 4) \_\_\_\_\_  
5) \_\_\_\_\_ 6) \_\_\_\_\_

11. Which of the above mentioned crops is the most important food crop to your family? \_\_\_\_\_

12. Which of the crops mentioned by you is the most important CASH crop? \_\_\_\_\_

13. Are you a full time farmer or part-time farmer?  
1) \_\_\_\_\_ Full time farmer 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Part time farmer

14. Do you raise livestock? (Cattle, Goats, Pigs, Rabbits)  
1) \_\_\_\_\_ yes 2) \_\_\_\_\_ no

15. Have you attended a training program relating to agriculture and rural development?  
1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes 2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

IF HE/SHE HAS ATTENDED A TRAINING PROGRAM THEN ASK THE QUESTIONS 16 and 17. IF NOT, SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 18

16. What kind of a training program was it?

1) \_\_\_\_\_ Agriculture 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Livestock production  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ Health 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Nutrition  
5) \_\_\_\_\_ Home economics 6) \_\_\_\_\_ Leadership  
7) \_\_\_\_\_ Village planning/Management  
8) \_\_\_\_\_ Other (Specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

17. What was the duration of the program?

1) \_\_\_\_\_ Full day seminar  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ Program of 1-7 days duration  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ Program of 7 days to 16 days duration  
4) \_\_\_\_\_ Program of 16 days to 1 month  
5) \_\_\_\_\_ Program of 2-3 months  
6) \_\_\_\_\_ Program of 6 months and above  
7) \_\_\_\_\_ Other

18. If you have NOT attended a training program before why did you not do so?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ I was not aware of such programs
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ I was aware but did not think it was worthwhile attending.
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ I was never requested to attend
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ I was not selected by the village leader
- 5) \_\_\_\_\_ I was not selected by the village extension worker
- 6) \_\_\_\_\_ I could not leave my farm work
- 7) \_\_\_\_\_ I am too old to attend training
- 8) \_\_\_\_\_ I did not expect to learn anything new
- 9) \_\_\_\_\_ I could not leave my family alone

(10-13) Other: Please specify below:

19. Where is the training centre nearest to you?  
(Training centres like Chuo cha Maendeleo ya Wananchi etc.)

- Name of training centre: \_\_\_\_\_
- Do not know the name of the training centre \_\_\_\_\_
- Number of miles away (approximately) \_\_\_\_\_

IF HE/SHE KNOWS ABOUT THE EXISTENCE OF A TRAINING CENTRE THEN PROCEED TO QUESTIONS 20 to 24, IF HE/SHE DOES NOT KNOW THEN SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 25.

20. Have you ever visited this training centre?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

21. Do they teach about topics that are relevant to problems of your area?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

22. Do you know if they look after their own farm well?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes, their farm is well cared for
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Their farm is not well cared for
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ They do not have a farm

23. Has anyone ever suggested to you that you attend training at this particular training institution?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

24. Who is this person?

- |          |                |          |                  |
|----------|----------------|----------|------------------|
| 1) _____ | Friend         | 2) _____ | Neighbor         |
| 3) _____ | Relative       | 4) _____ | Extension worker |
| 5) _____ | Village leader | 6) _____ | Other            |

25. Suppose you wanted to know more about training facilities in the area. WHO would you go to?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Village council member
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ School teacher
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Bwana Shamba or other extension worker
  - 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Visit the training centre and find out myself
  - 5) \_\_\_\_\_ Ask a previous trainee.
26. If you were given an opportunity to attend a training program, indicate four things that you would like to be trained in?
27. List four things which you already know about and would not need training in?
28. Did you adopt any new agricultural method within the last three years?

EXPLAIN WHAT A NEW AGRICULTURAL METHOD MEANS: IT COULD BE AN IDEA INTRODUCED FROM OUTSIDE OR IT COULD BE A PRACTICE WHICH OTHER FARMERS IN THE AREA WERE ALREADY USING BUT IS NEW TO THE FARMER RESPONDING TO THE QUESTION.

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

IF THE ANSWER IS 'NO' THEN SKIP TO QUESTION NUMBER 30.  
IF IT IS YES THEN CONTINUE AND ASK QUESTION 29.

29. Indicate two important factors which motivated you to adopt the above practice?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Bwana Shamba assured me of its value
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ I wanted to try out the practice and see for myself
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ My neighbor has been successfully using the practice
  - 4) \_\_\_\_\_ My relatives/family members have been successfully using the practice.
  - 5) \_\_\_\_\_ I saw the practice being successfully being demonstrated in the communal village plot
  - 6) \_\_\_\_\_ I attended a training session in which the practice was demonstrated to me
  - 7) \_\_\_\_\_ A fellow villager brought the idea to our village after he/she received training
  - 8) \_\_\_\_\_ I heard about it on radio
  - 9) \_\_\_\_\_ I read about it (specify where:
  - 10) \_\_\_\_\_ Shamba la Chuo
  - 11) \_\_\_\_\_ Nyingine (specify below)
30. AT THE PRESENT TIME WHAT ARE THE MOST RELIABLE SOURCES OF AGRICULTURAL ADVICE TO YOU? (INDICATE TWO ONLY)

- |           |   |           |                           |
|-----------|---|-----------|---------------------------|
| 1) _____  | Family member                             | 2) _____  | Relative                  |
| 3) _____  | Village council member                    | 4) _____  | Village chairman          |
| 5) _____  | Member of production committee            | 6) _____  | Bwana Shamba              |
| 7) _____  | Bwana Mifugo                              | 8) _____  | Bwana Shamba (parastatal) |
| 9) _____  | School teacher                            | 10) _____ | Progressive farmer        |
| 11) _____ | Village elder (other than council member) | 12) _____ | Radio                     |
| 13) _____ | Other: SPECIFY HERE:                      |           |                           |

31. Have you ever tried growing the same crop two different ways in order to compare results, WITHOUT ASSISTANCE of Bwana Shamba or other agricultural advisors?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

32. If an agricultural researcher was to request you to assist him in conducting an agricultural experiment on a small portion of your farm, would you be willing to cooperate?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes    2) \_\_\_\_\_ No    3) \_\_\_\_\_ Undecided

33. If the Bwana Shamba or any other Extension worker comes to your village to demonstrate improved maize cultivation where do you think he should grow it: Communal plot or individual farmers' plots or bega kwa bega shamba?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Communal village plot  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ Individual farmers' plots  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ Shamba la bega kwa bega.

34. Farmers like you have been engaged in farming for many years and have valuable experience which may be of help in training other farmers (1-2 days), if asked would you be willing to assist in training other farmers?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

IF THE ANSWER TO ITEM 34 WAS 'YES' THEN ASK THE NEXT QUESTION. IF NOT SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 36.

35. Give me examples of TWO ideas which you would be willing to teach your fellow farmers?

36. What would you feel if you were to be trained by another farmer instead of a regular trainer?

37. Which of two purposes of training given below is the more important purpose: (READ ALOUD THE OPTIONS)

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ To acquire GENERAL agricultural knowledge  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ To acquire SPECIFIC agricultural knowledge



aimed at solving an immediate problem

38. If you had to choose between the following options which one you choose?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Improved methods of growing your traditional crop
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Methods of growing a new high yielding crop
39. In a training program for villagers who do you think should decide what topics should be taught?  
READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD.
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ The trainer should decide since he/she knows best about what should be taught
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ The trainer and trainees should jointly decide
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ The trainees should decide by themselves
40. Do you agree or disagree with the following statement?  
"The teacher of adults should teach his/her trainees differently than if he/she were dealing with a group of school children"
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
41. List three things that a trainer/teacher should not do when teaching adults:
42. List three things that a trainer/teacher should not do when teaching adults:
43. It is necessary for trainees to be actively involved in training activities. Mention three reasons which may prevent or reduce such active participation?
44. Which of the following methods is the most useful in learning a new agricultural practice (READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Listen to a lecture
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Listen to a lecture and observe a demonstration
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Listen to a lecture, observe a demonstration and then practice the skill
45. If you were to attend a training program on maize crop production, would you prefer that the training deals with a) all practices of the maize crop b) a few selected practices of maize crop.
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ All practice of the maize crop
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ A few selected practices of the maize crop
46. Do you think that the responsibility of the training centre to the trainee ends or should it continue after course completion?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Should continue
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Should not continue

IF THE ANSWER TO THE LAST QUESTION WAS 'SHOULD CONTINUE' ASK THE FOLLOWING QUESTION. IF IT WAS 'SHOULD NOT CONTINUE' THEN SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 48

47. Indicate what are the responsibilities of a training centre to a person it has trained? (MORE THAN ONE RESPONSE IS ALLOWED)

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide inputs
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide continuing advice
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide additional training in future
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Other (PLEASE SPECIFY BELOW)

48. If you had to make a choice between the following family members to attend a training program, which of the following should attend a training program in agriculture: Father, Mother, Son, Daughter

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Father
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Mother
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Son
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Daughter

49. Which is the best time of the year for conducting agricultural training? Give reasons also:

<u>TIME of the year</u>	<u>Reason</u>
-------------------------	---------------

- |          |                             |
|----------|-----------------------------|
| 1) _____ | Just before cropping season |
| 2) _____ | During the cropping season  |
| 3) _____ | After the harvest of crop   |

50. Do you prefer training to be conducted in the village itself or at a residential centre away from the village?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ In the village itself
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ At a residential training centre
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Depends on the type of training

51. Under what conditions do you think that training at a residential centre is better than training in village setting? (Give 3 reasons)

52. Under what conditions do you think training at the village itself is better than at a residential centre? (3 reasons)

53. Which of the following ways is the most appropriate way of training men and women: (READ OPTIONS ALOUD)



- |           |   |           |                           |
|-----------|---|-----------|---------------------------|
| 1) _____  | Family member                             | 2) _____  | Relative                  |
| 3) _____  | Village council member                    | 4) _____  | Village chairman          |
| 5) _____  | Member of production committee            | 6) _____  | Bwana Shamba              |
| 7) _____  | Bwana Mifugo                              | 8) _____  | Bwana Shamba (parastatal) |
| 9) _____  | School teacher                            | 10) _____ | Progressive farmer        |
| 11) _____ | Village elder (other than council member) | 12) _____ | Radio                     |
| 13) _____ | Other: SPECIFY HERE:                      |           |                           |

31. Have you ever tried growing the same crop two different ways in order to compare results, WITHOUT ASSISTANCE of Bwana Shamba or other agricultural advisors?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

32. If an agricultural researcher was to request you to assist him in conducting an agricultural experiment on a small portion of your farm, would you be willing to cooperate?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes    2) \_\_\_\_\_ No    3) \_\_\_\_\_ Undecided

33. If the Bwana Shamba or any other Extension worker comes to your village to demonstrate improved maize cultivation where do you think he should grow it: Communal plot or individual farmers' plots or bega kwa bega shamba?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Communal village plot  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ Individual farmers' plots  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ Shamba la bega kwa bega.

34. Farmers like you have been engaged in farming for many years and have valuable experience which may be of help in training other farmers (1-2 days), if asked would you be willing to assist in training other farmers?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

IF THE ANSWER TO ITEM 34 WAS 'YES' THEN ASK THE NEXT QUESTION. IF NOT SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 36.

35. Give me examples of TWO ideas which you would be willing to teach your fellow farmers?

36. What would you feel if you were to be trained by another farmer instead of a regular trainer?

37. Which of two purposes of training given below is the more important purpose: (READ ALOUD THE OPTIONS)

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ To acquire GENERAL agricultural knowledge  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ To acquire SPECIFIC agricultural knowledge

aimed at solving an immediate problem

38. If you had to choose between the following options which one you choose?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Improved methods of growing your traditional crop
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Methods of growing a new high yielding crop
39. In a training program for villagers who do you think should decide what topics should be taught?  
READ THE OPTINS ALOUD.
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ The trainer should decide since he/she knows best about what should be taught
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ The trainer and trainees should jointly decide
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ The trainees should decide by themselves
40. Do you agree or disagree with the following statement?  
"The teacher of adults should teach his/her trainees differently than if he/she were dealing with a group of school children"
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Agree
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
41. List three things that a trainer/teacher should not do when teaching adults:
42. List three things that a trainer/teacher should not do when teaching adults:
43. It is necessary for trainees to be actively involved in training activities. Mention three reasons which may prevent or reduce such active participation?
44. Which of the following methods is the most useful in learning a new agricultural practice (READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Listen to a lecture
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Listen to a lecture and observe a demonstration
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Listen to a lecture, observe a demonstration and then practice the skill
45. If you were to attend a training program on maize crop production, would you prefer that the training deals with a) all practices of the maize crop b) a few selected practices of maize crop.
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ All practice of the maize crop
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ A few selected practices of the maize crop
46. Do you think that the responsibility of the training centre to the trainee ends or should it continue after course completion?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Should continue
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Should not continue

IF THE ANSWER TO THE LAST QUESTION WAS 'SHOULD CONTINUE' ASK THE FOLLOWING QUESTION. IF IT WAS 'SHOULD NOT CONTINUE' THEN SKIP TO QUESTION NO. 48

47. Indicate what are the responsibilities of a training centre to a person it has trained? (MORE THAN ONE RESPONSE IS ALLOWED)

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide inputs
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide continuing advice
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Provide additional training in future
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Other (PLEASE SPECIFY BELOW)

48. If you had to make a choice between the following family members to attend a training program, which of the following should attend a training program in agriculture: Father, Mother, Son, Daughter

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Father
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Mother
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Son
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Daughter

49. Which is the best time of the year for conducting agricultural training? Give reasons also:

TIME of the year

Reason

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Just before cropping season
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ During the cropping season
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ After the harvest of crop

50. Do you prefer training to be conducted in the village itself or at a residential centre away from the village?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ In the village itself
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ At a residential training centre
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Depends on the type of training

51. Under what conditions do you think that training at a residential centre is better than training in village setting? (Give 3 reasons)

52. Under what conditions do you think training at the village itself is better than at a residential centre? (3 reasons)

53. Which of the following ways is the most appropriate way of training men and women: (READ OPTIONS ALOUD)

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Train men and women separately
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Train men and women together
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Sometimes together, sometimes separately
54. Under what conditions do you think men and women should be trained separately?
55. Of the persons indicated below, who is the best person(s) to select the person to attend the training program? (READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Bwana Shamba
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Village chairman
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Village council as a group
  - 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Village assembly
  - 5) \_\_\_\_\_ Training centre representative
  - 6) \_\_\_\_\_ Other (PLEASE SPECIFY BELOW)
56. Do you think it is necessary for a training centre to have demonstration projects (crop and livestock)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
57. When trained villagers return to their village they usually face resistance of some sort from their fellow farmers in the village. Do you agree or disagree?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Agree                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
58. What do you think are three such problems that a newly trained villager could face when he/she returns to the village?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Train men and women separately
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Train men and women together
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Sometimes together, sometimes separately
54. Under what conditions do you think men and women should be trained separately?
55. Of the persons indicated below, who is the best person(s) to select the person to attend the training program? (READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Bwana Shamba
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Village chairman
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Village council as a group
  - 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Village assembly
  - 5) \_\_\_\_\_ Training centre representative
  - 6) \_\_\_\_\_ Other (PLEASE SPECIFY BELOW)
56. Do you think it is necessary for a training centre to have demonstration projects (crop and livestock)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
57. When trained villagers return to their village they usually face resistance of some sort from their fellow farmers in the village. Do you agree or disagree?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Agree                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ Disagree
58. What do you think are three such problems that a newly trained villager could face when he/she returns to the village?

VILLAGE-LEVEL SURVEY  
Form-2\*

ADDITIONAL SPECIAL SURVEY SHEET  
FOR TRAINED GROUP ONLY

1. When you attended the training program, what did you do between six and nine p.m.?
- a. 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Watched a movie or slide show  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ Attended evening classes  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ Read magazines, newspapers  
4) \_\_\_\_\_ Talked informally with other trainees about farm matters  
5) \_\_\_\_\_ Talked informally on general matters  
6) \_\_\_\_\_ Slept  
7) \_\_\_\_\_ Played indoor games (e.g. cards)  
8) \_\_\_\_\_ Assisted in housekeeping  
9) \_\_\_\_\_ Discussed about the morning classes/ activities
- b. \_\_\_\_\_ Other
2. How useful was your last training program to you?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Extremely useful  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ Useful  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ Not useful  
4) \_\_\_\_\_ Have not had a chance to try out  
5) \_\_\_\_\_ Other (PLEASE SPECIFY BELOW)
3. How much were you able to raise your family income as a result of the training?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ My income was raised significantly  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ My income was increased a little  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ My income was not raised  
4) \_\_\_\_\_ My income dropped  
5) \_\_\_\_\_ It is too soon to say

IF THE ABOVE QUESTION IS NOT APPLICABLE INDICATE  
BY CHECK MARK IN THIS BOX ☐

4. Were you able to influence other farmers as a result of your training?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes, very significantly
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes, but only a little
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ I did not influence other farmers
  - 4) \_\_\_\_\_ I don't know whether there was any influence
5. During the last training program you attended were you able to learn anything from fellow farmers in the group?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes I learned a lot
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes I learned a few things
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ I learned little or nothing
6. During the last training program you attended was sufficient opportunity for trainees to share their own experience with other trainees?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ There was some opportunity
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ There were many opportunities
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ There was no opportunity
7. How did you first come to know about the last training program you attended?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ From a fellow trained farmer
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ From a fellow untrained farmer
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ From a village council member
  - 4) \_\_\_\_\_ From a Bwana Shamba/Bwana Mifuge
  - 5) \_\_\_\_\_ From a school teacher
  - 6) \_\_\_\_\_ From DADO Office
  - 7) \_\_\_\_\_ Others (PLEASE SPECIFY BELOW)
8. As a result of this training program did you try something new on your farm?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
9. If 'Yes,' briefly indicate what this was?



VILLAGE-LEVEL SURVEY  
FORM-3\*

10. Rank the following in order of their importance to you in improving your farming (Rank 1 for most important, Rank 2 for next in importance ..... etc.)

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Availability of agricultural inputs (e.g. seeds, fertilizers, etc.)
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Agricultural knowledge (training, advisory services)
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Good market prices and sales outlets
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Good roads and transportation

11. We are interested in knowing your opinion about the most appropriate duration for a training program. We are also interested in knowing if you prefer to be trained in mixed groups (both sexes) or single sex groups (e.g. men only or women only). Which of the following types of training do you prefer? (READ THE OPTIONS/ALTERNATIVES UNDER THE FIRST COLUMN AND LET RESPONDENT SELECT ONE. THEN MARK A ( ) MARK IN THE APPROPRIATE COLUMN.

- 1) Prefer 1-3 day duration  
for single sex groups
- 2) Prefer 1-3 day duration  
for mixed groups
- 3) Prefer 4-7 day duration  
for single sex sexes
- 4) Prefer 4-7 day duration  
for mixed sexes
- 5) Prefer 10-14 days duration  
for single sex groups
- 6) Prefer 10-14 days duration  
for mixed sexes

12. Which of the following statements best explains the reason why you attended training (READ AND LET THE RESPONDENT SELECT ONE OF THE FOLLOWING)

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ I attended the training program because I wanted to learn more about agriculture in general
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ I attended the training program because I had and specific agricultural problem which I wanted to learn to solve
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ I attended the training program because I wanted to be involved in some kind of activity other than the daily work I do on my farm
-



13. Mention three things about the last training program you did not like?
14. What problems did you experience when you returned to the village?
15. During the last training course did you have sufficient practical work?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
16. Which of the following methods of conducting field practicals in a training course do you prefer the most? (READ AND LETS THE RESPONDENT CHOOSE ONE)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ The trainer gives complete and detailed instructions and makes all the decisions about what has to be done by you.
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ The trainer gives you only the most important instruction and then allows you to make the remaining decisions yourself.
17. Do you think it is necessary for the training centre/district authorities to provide you with transportation from your village to the training centre and back?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ It is not necessary
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ It is not necessary if we have travel allowance
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ It is essential. Without transportation we will not be able to attend.
18. Nowadays the problem of fuel and transportation are a major impediment to expanding the farmer training program. Could you suggest TWO ways to overcome this problem so that larger numbers of farmers can receive training?
19. Some of the benefits of training are economic (e.g. increased income). But there are many non-economic benefits of training too. Please indicate three such non-economic benefits of training.
20. When do you think training is most essential? READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD AND LET THE RESPONDENT CHOOSE ONE.
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ When the land is scarce and the production must be increased from the existent farm
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ When there is shortage of labor and the production must be increased
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ When growing cash crops
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ When the farmer has not received formal education

21. Have you ever visited either the Tengeru or Lyamungu research stations?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
22. Which one of the following courses do you prefer most (READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD AND LET THE RESPONDENT CHOOSE ONE)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ A 3 day course dealing with all aspects of a single crop
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ A 3 day course dealing with only specific problems of a single crop
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ A 3 day course dealing with 4-5 different crops
23. How many farmers do you know whom you trust fully and who are competent enough to advise you on farming matters?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ None
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ 1-3
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ 4-7
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ 10-14
- 5) \_\_\_\_\_ More than 15
24. Do you think that demonstrations are a good method for training farmers?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
25. Rank the following in terms of their usefulness as agricultural training methods (Rank 1 for the most useful etc. ....)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Village demonstrations
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Short training for 3-5 days at a residential training centre
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Short training for 3-5 days in the village itself
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ Long duration training
26. Has there been any crop demonstration in your village during the last three years?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
27. (THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE TO BE ASKED ONLY IF ABOVE ANSWER WAS 'YES')
- What was the demonstration about? (Explain briefly)
28. Who organized it?

29. How successful was the demonstration?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Very successful
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Successful
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ No different from the traditional methods we use
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_ It was a failure
- 5) (Explain)

30. Did you learn anything from this demonstration?

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ I learned a lot
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_ I learned a little
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_ I learned nothing new

VILLAGE-LEVEL SURVEY  
Form No. 4\*

1. In the selection of trainees which of the following ways do you prefer the most?
  - 1) \_\_\_\_\_ One person from each village
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Two to five people from each village
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ The entire training should focus on 20 to 30 people from a single village
2. If you have to attend a one-week long training program at a residential site, what arrangements would you have to make either at home or on your farm (during your absence)?
3. How many topics would you prefer to have in a two or three week session course on agriculture?
  - 1) \_\_\_\_\_ One to two topics
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ Three to five topics
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ Six to ten topics
4. Give three reasons which could explain why there is generally a poor attendance by women in training programs.
5. Please suggest three ways to ensuring that more women attend training programs.
6. If you were selected to attend a training program, mention three problems which you are now facing (either in your village or on your farm). Which would you like to learn to solve?

TO BE ANSWERED BY THOSE WHO OBTAINED  
TRD TRAINING (RESIDENTIAL)

7. Has the training under TRD project helped your village?
  - 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
  - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
  - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ It is too soon to say
8. If the answer was 'Yes' please explain below how it has helped your village.
9. Has the training project under TRD helped you personally?  
-----

1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes

2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

10. If 'Yes' please indicate how.
11. Could you suggest two ways in which TRD training could be made more useful to you?
12. Residential: code as 1  
Village intervention-training: Code as 2

FOLK DEVELOPMENT COLLEGES  
IN TANZANIA

INSTRUCTIONS

Most items in this form require only a check mark ( ) to give your answer. Others require you to give brief statements. Please answer all items. Do not mark the column entitled 'For coding only' which appears on the right margins of each page.

1. When was your Folk Development College established?

- |               |               |
|---------------|---------------|
| 1) 1975 _____ | 5) 1979 _____ |
| 2) 1976 _____ | 6) 1980 _____ |
| 3) 1977 _____ | 7) 1981 _____ |
| 4) 1978 _____ | 8) 1982 _____ |

2. Was your Folk Development College previously one of the following institutions:

- 1) Farmer training centre \_\_\_\_\_  
2) District training centre \_\_\_\_\_  
3) Other: \_\_\_\_\_

3. How far is your college from the District headquarters?

\_\_\_\_\_ miles

4. How many villages is your FDC (Folk Development College) expected to serve?

\_\_\_\_\_ villages

5. At the present time what percentage of these villages have at least one ex-FDC student?

\_\_\_\_\_ %

6. How many tutors does your FDC have?

\_\_\_\_\_ tutors

7. What is the total number of staff (teaching and non-teaching support staff)?

\_\_\_\_\_

8. In the last long term course (longer than 3 months) how many men and women did you have?

- 1) Men \_\_\_\_\_ 2) Women \_\_\_\_\_

9. Was your FDC selected for the special two week courses in agriculture (collaboration with Ministry of Agriculture)

1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes

2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

10. (Answer only if you answered 'Yes' in item 11 above)  
Have you begun conducting such courses?

1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes

2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

11. Please read the following statement of intent:  
"It is also intended that the FDC projects should be a demonstration of good economically viable projects so that people who surround the college are able to imitate and obtain assistance from the college."

Did your FDC have any such demonstration projects during the last one year?

1) Yes, in the village \_\_\_\_\_

2) Yes, at the FDC itself \_\_\_\_\_

3) Both at the village and at the FDC itself \_\_\_\_\_

4) No such demonstrations \_\_\_\_\_

12. If your FDC is not presently conducting village-based demonstrations what are some of the reasons? (You may mark more than one item if necessary)

1) Demonstrations are the task of regular extension staff and not the FDC responsibility \_\_\_\_\_

2) Transportation problems do not allow us to undertake such activity \_\_\_\_\_

3) There is no time available for conducting such activity \_\_\_\_\_

4) There are no funds available for purchase of required supplies and equipment \_\_\_\_\_

5) I had not previously considered this activity \_\_\_\_\_

13. In your long duration course which are the two most popular core courses (core areas)?

1) Most popular \_\_\_\_\_

2) Second most popular \_\_\_\_\_

14. Are the facilities of the FDC being used for any other activities? (Other than those mentioned under item 8 on page 3). If so, list them out:

15. Mention three ways which could improve the selection process for recruiting trainees?

16. How good do you think the village leaders' understanding of the philosophy and goals of the FDC movement in your area of operation?
- 1) Very poor \_\_\_\_\_
  - 2) Poor \_\_\_\_\_
  - 3) Satisfactory \_\_\_\_\_
  - 4) Good \_\_\_\_\_
  - 5) Very Good \_\_\_\_\_
17. What specific efforts are you making to educate the village councils about the philosophy and goals of the FDC movement?
18. Do you conduct follow-up activity of past students?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
- (If 'No,' skip to question 20)
19. If follow-up is conducted please indicate your satisfaction with the quality of follow-up presently being conducted by your FDC.
- 1) Very satisfactory \_\_\_\_\_
  - 2) Satisfactory \_\_\_\_\_
  - 3) Need some improvement \_\_\_\_\_
  - 4) Needs considerable improvement \_\_\_\_\_
  - 5) No follow-up being done \_\_\_\_\_
20. Some researchers say that trainees returning to the villages after a training program usually face problems when they re-enter the village. Do you agree?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
21. If you agree with the opinion of researchers (item 20 above) then could you suggest three such 'reentry problems'?
22. The rapid turnover of staff (i.e. teachers moving into, out from or within the program) is a common problem in many African countries. List out in order of importance, three possible reasons for this situation, in Tanzanian training institutions.
23. Is your FDC directly involved in assisting village planning efforts?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes                      2) \_\_\_\_\_ No
24. Do you think FDC training should be coupled with village planning and outreach activities assisted by



your FDC?

1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes

2) \_\_\_\_\_ No

25. Please suggest FOUR aspects of the training process in which further research is required.
26. The FDCs are expected to be engaged in 'Research activities'. Please mention two reasons why FDCs should be involved in this.

**INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (MTWARA)**

1. During the 1980-82 period almost all the courses were technically oriented. Currently a new emphasis on village management/leadership courses is noticed. What is the rationale behind this new orientation. Is there any particular reason why technical courses precede the planning courses? What do you feel about the TRD approach which emphasizes the reverse?
2. What was the nature and purpose of the 2 day planning meeting held at Mtwara?
3. What is the importance of farmer study tours?
4. Could we meet some farmers who went on the farmer tour and discussed with them the effects of the tour?
5. Has the crop acreage in any area expanded possibly as a result of wing involvement?
6. Information on the origin and present state of the rabbit project? Did all the farmers presently in the program have a training? What was the content of this training? Who funded the costs of the program? Have the families started earning an income already? How? What are the future plans?
7. What is the strategy used on the communal farms? What had been the impact of the communal farms? What modifications in the strategy have been made?
8. Mtwara also used some individual demonstration plots. What are some lessons we can learn from this comparative experience?
9. What seasonal factors affect the programming of training?
10. How important has transport been in improving farmer response?
11. Are some farmers with certain kinds of farming more interested in training than others? Explain.
12. Does the non-availability of inputs affect or response of farmers to training?
13. What cultural factors have you noticed which are barriers or driving forces for training?

14. Are people with certain level of school education more inclined to attend training than those with no education?
15. How does the number of family members affect ability to participate in training activity?
16. When do you think that trainees should be restricted to one village and when should they be drawn from many villages?
17. Has there been any difficulty recruiting candidates for mixed courses? Have any of your courses been single sex courses?
18. Do you think that certain criteria must be provided for the selection of trainees. What should these criteria be? Why/rationale.
19. How has the data collected so far been used in improvement of FTW activity?
20. How often does the advisory committee meet? What is its role? How has it affected programming? Examples?
21. Given the resource (input) limitations what kind of commitments can you expect to obtain from farmer trainees? What resources does the FTW have to assist farmers in supplying inputs?
22. What is the actual role of students in wing activities? Do you think the opportunity to work with the wing has given them any experience that they would not normally have had? Have there been any changes in the MATI curriculum? How are staff involved in wing? Are wing staff involved in teaching?
23. What have the links between the research station and the wing? Who are the researchers who have been most closely involved?
24. Talk with the researchers and attempt to identify how they have been able to assist. How have they been influenced by the outreach effort? Have they been getting feedback from the wing staff? Any specific examples of adaptive research undertaken through the wing?
25. What do researchers believe the role of the wing to be? In what way can the wing being attached to the MATI and close to MATI, be of special relevance?
26. What retraining of Bwana Shambas has been completed or has been planned?

27. Where could data on past training efforts be obtained in Mtwara?
28. One of the objectives of the FTP is to establish a model for training farmers. What are some of the lessons learned at Mtwara which you would like to disseminate to other training institutions/trainees?
29. What role do villagers have in determining the training content? Do you think it is realistic to expect villagers themselves to determine training content?
30. Study data already collected 'Household survey, village leaders survey: student survey.'  
What are the three enterprises surveys completed?  
How have these studies affected training?
31. What data on farmers attending training is available in the office?
32. Are notes maintained on evaluation sessions and what are some of the findings? What are the major areas of concern: content, physical facilities, cultural acceptance, realism, food.
33. Have there been any difficulties in trainees adjusting to their villages after training either because of their new ideas or because of the 'attention' received by them from wing staff?

## VILLAGE LEVEL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Ascertain conditions that make for a good training climate.
2. Appropriateness of residential and village training approaches
3. Timing and duration of training
  - time of the day, year
  - length of program and factors affecting it (e.g. farming system, family responsibilities). What is the appropriate length of a training program for men ... for women. During which part of the year are long duration programs feasible? How does the type of farming affect the ability to attend training programs of certain durations? How does family responsibility affect the same?
  - What are some undesirable consequences resulting from participants being away from their villages/homes (social, family)
  - What about the use of family teams?
  - What about the attendance of unmarried women? In mixed groups or women only groups?
  - Implications of short duration courses (2 days) in improved comprehension and retention resulting from reduced information overload, opportunity for immediate tryout.
4. Multiplier effects:  
How can a trained farmer influence his neighbors/relatives? Ask past trainees about the influence of their training of fellow villagers and family members; has training improved their status in the family/in the village? Has the number of people seeking advice from them increased, decreased, remained the same? In the case of those who claim that they have been able to influence others, what has been the major influence? Their advice or their adopted practice itself?
5. Opinions about training in planning/technical areas; sequence that it desirable, what kinds of training needs for village council and average villagers.
6. Usefulness of training more than one villager at a time from each village.
7. How useful has the approach to extracting commitments from trainees been?

8. Payment for training costs? Would this adversely affect attendance?
9. How important was transportation to the past trainees? Do they feel some trainees would not have attended had transportation not been provided?
10. What has been the success in implementation of commitment made at the end of the training course? (Grain storage in Mtwara)
11. Why do you think that in many FTCs in Tanzania they are having difficulty in recruiting adequate numbers of farmers for their training?
12. What are some of the non-economic benefits of training?
13. What are the best ways to select farmers for training?
14. Demonstration:

Tapping of the educational potential of agricultural demonstrations

- Source of idea that was demonstrated
  - Role of researchers in the activity
  - What feedback has been provided to researchers
  - Innovations in demonstration approach used
  - What kind of adaptive research activities were undertaken
  - Comparison with past efforts in demonstration
  - Do past trainees play a special role in the demonstration
  - How has the credibility of the FTC improved as a result of the TC engaging in demonstration activity
  - What resource commitments are made by the individual villages
15. Talk with chairman, secretary, production committee to assess impact of F. Training.
  16. The attitude to training in a totally novel-crop as compared to training in improved methods of traditional crops? Which are they more at ease with? Reasons?
  17. Which times of the year are the most appropriate for training? Which time of the year are not appropriate?
  18. Rank the following: training, market prices and outlets, roads/transport and inputs availability in order of importance.

19. Attitude towards commodity oriented course or problem specific course dealing with limited aspects of a crop?
20. Were there any difficulties experienced by the trainees on return to their village? Were some of their ideas ridiculed? Has there been any form of resentment because of the increased attention received by such farmers from wing staff?
21. Interview three farmers who have attended both a long term training program and a short term training effort and find out what difficulties they had in each case after returning. Were there certain kinds of problems that they encountered especially after the long course? What family problems did they encounter as a result of being away for the long course? Having been for both courses what do they have to recommend in terms of duration of courses?
22. Check on learning orientation: goal, learning or activity orientation.
23. Rank the following purposes of learning: acquisition of content, acquisition of problem solving skills, personal development.
24. "A farmer who tries to improve his production beyond norm around him makes himself liable to witchcraft allegations ... also jealousy" True/False Why?



# INSTITUTIONAL INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Study the annual and quarterly reports.
2. What formal and informal evaluation efforts have been undertaken?
3. What have been the trends over the years in terms of the clientele that attend the training programs?
4. What is the existent situation with respect to materials for training support?
5. What materials have been locally produced?
6. What types of materials are most urgently required by staff: content/format?
7. What is the emphasis of the training programs: commodity oriented or problem-solving oriented?
8. What is the existent capacity and what percentage of that capacity is currently utilized?
9. What are the problems in maximum utilization of available facilities?
10. Are the training centre facilities being used for any other activities than training?
11. What self reliance activities are being undertaken?
12. What is required to increase the self-reliance efforts?
13. What records are maintained?
14. What forms of follow-up are being undertaken?
15. What are the physical facilities available for trainees?
16. What climate setting activities are planned and conducted at the training sessions?
17. What activities are conducted at night times?
18. Content analyses of the training curriculum?
19. What staff development efforts are undertaken?
20. Is turnover of staff a problem and what are some



of the reasons?

21. What are the linkages with research institutions in the area?
22. What access do the TC have to research findings?
23. Do the research stations send any of their reports to the TC?
24. Have any type of adaptive research efforts been conducted in the TC by TC staff?
25. How do the TC centre staff feel about a role for TC to be involved in adaptive research?
26. Are there any new (demonstrations) ideas demonstrated in the TC farms?
27. What other activities other than training is the TC involved in?
28. In cases where follow-up is conducted, how has it affected programming in the particular centre?
29. What use of indigenous resource persons?
30. What surveys have been made of the area served by the institution?
31. Develop map of the area served by the training centre and representation at courses (spatial, distance factors influencing attendance).
32. How is the course content determined?
33. Opinions about the location of training activity (residential or village)
34. Each of the staff members could be given a task to suggest in detail three ways how training could be improved (making it more relevant to trainees' needs). Responses could be selected after 1-2 days. The results would be discussed with Principal of the institution concerned.
35. What reentry problems are experienced by their trainees?
36. The cost per student per day for each program (what do you do if part costs are paid by another agency especially if those figures are not available)
37. Are reentry problems related to duration of the

**program? What other factors tend to aggravate the reentry problems of newly trained villagers?**

- 38. Survey student opinions (reaction) about various aspects of training course they are engaged in.**
- 39. What specific efforts are undertaken to increase trainee participation and involvement in training exercises. (E.g. make small groups, individualized instruction.**

**SURVEY OF PAST TRAINEES OF FOLK DEVELOPMENT COLLEGES#**

1. Name:
  2. Educational background:
  3. Age:
  4. Dates during which course was held:
  5. Village:
  6. District:
  7. Location of the folk development college:
  8. Area of specialization: 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Agriculture  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ Ufundi  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ Domestic Science  
4) \_\_\_\_\_ Other
  9. When you returned to your village from the course what were the three major problems you faced (personal or family or agricultural, etc.)
  10. Which one of the following statements best explains the reasons you attended training at the FTC?  
(READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD AND LET THE RESPONDENT CHOOSE ONE)
    - 1) \_\_\_\_\_ I attended the training because I wanted to learn more about my field of specialization (e.g. kilimo, ufundi, etc.)
    - 2) \_\_\_\_\_ I attended the training because I wanted to improve my chances for employment in my village
    - 3) \_\_\_\_\_ I attended the training because I wanted to improve my educational qualifications
    - 4) \_\_\_\_\_ I wanted to take a leadership position when I return to the village
    - 5) \_\_\_\_\_ I wanted to be away from my village for some time
  11. Now that you have completed the course, could you suggest three ways in which the course could be improved?
- 

#Survey conducted in Kilimanjaro region with participants in the long courses.

12. Do you think that the course should have been longer or shorter? Indicate how long would have been appropriate.
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Should have been longer e.g. \_\_\_\_\_ months  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ Should have been shorter e.g. \_\_\_\_\_ months
13. Which of the following statements best explains your opinion about the practicals held as part of your course?  
(READ THE OPTIONS ALOUD AND LET THE RESPONDENT CHOOSE ONE)
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ We practiced what we would normally practice on our own farms at home  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ We tried a few new activities which we were not previously familiar with  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ We tried many new things which we were not previously familiar with
14. Have you been able to teach some of the knowledge you gained at the FDC to your fellow villagers?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes, I have been able to teach a large number of other villagers (more than 10)  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes, I have been able to teach a few other farmer villagers (between 2-9)  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes, I have been able to teach a few of my own family members  
4) \_\_\_\_\_ No, I have not been able to teach anyone else
15. What are the problems you have encountered in serving your fellow villagers (explain below)
16. At the present time what are you doing?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ I am employed by my village (paid position)  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ I am employed outside my village (paid position)  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ I am volunteering my assistance/services to the village (non paid)  
4) \_\_\_\_\_ I am working full time at home/on my shamba  
5) \_\_\_\_\_ I have started my own business  
6) \_\_\_\_\_ Other (please specify)
17. Do you think it is necessary for the tutors to visit you in your villages after you return to the village?
- 1) \_\_\_\_\_ It is essential  
2) \_\_\_\_\_ It is desirable  
3) \_\_\_\_\_ It is not necessary

TRAINEE EXPECTATIONS#

1. Name:
2. Sex:
3. Age:
4. Marital Status:
5. How did you first come to know about this course?
6. Why did you decide to attend this course (give two reasons).
7. If you were not provided with transportation would you still be able to attend this course?
  - a) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
  - b) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes, but only with travel allowance
  - c) \_\_\_\_\_ No
8. Mention three topics that you would like the course to cover.
9. Are you interested in topics dealing with agriculture/ or (crop production) livestock or both
  - a) \_\_\_\_\_ Agriculture (crop production)
  - b) \_\_\_\_\_ Livestock production
  - c) \_\_\_\_\_ Both
10. Mention three problems that you have on your farm which you would like to learn to solve in this course.
11. When you came for this course did you have to make any special arrangements in your home/on your farm because of your absence for two weeks?
  - a) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
  - b) \_\_\_\_\_ No
12. Please indicate below what arrangements you had to make.
13. How many topics would you prefer to have in this two  
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#Survey conducted on the first day of training at the Folk Development College Msinga, Kilimanjaro for participants attending the two 233k course sponsored by the Ministry of Agriculture.

week course?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ 1-2 topics only (e.g. 1 or 2 crops)
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ 3-5 topics
- c) \_\_\_\_\_ 6-10 topics

14. Is there any other person from your village attending this course with you?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ No

15. Do you think that it is necessary for 2-3 persons from a village to attend a course together?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ No

16. What is your opinion about the length of this course?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ I would have preferred a shorter course
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ I think the length of this course (2 weeks) is okay
- c) \_\_\_\_\_ I think this course should be longer

17. Would you prefer that your teacher decides what should be taught or would you also like to have a say in the matter?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ The teacher should decide what is to be taught
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ The teacher should consult us and accordingly decide what has to be taught to us

18. What teaching method do you prefer the most?  
(select one)

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ Lecture only
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ Practicals only
- c) \_\_\_\_\_ Some lectures but mostly practicals
- d) \_\_\_\_\_ Mostly lectures and some practicals

19. Do you think that it is necessary that the tutor test the trainees at the end of the course?

- a) \_\_\_\_\_ Yes
- b) \_\_\_\_\_ No

16/12/72  
21.15  
17.12  
6.15