

**PERCEPTION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEADERS ON DECENTRALIZED
AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES: THE CASE OF MBINGA DISTRICT,
RUVUMA REGION, TANZANIA.**

BY

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ONLY**

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ABSTRACT

One of the goals of the Public Sector Reform Programme (PSRP) is to improve the delivery of, and access by the public, to services, including agricultural extension services. One way of achieving this is by transferring resources to District level, and by making Local Government Authorities (LGAs) responsible for provision of most public services including agricultural extension. Accordingly, under the Local government Act No 6 of 1999, the responsibility for implementing agricultural extension services has been placed with the Local Government Authorities. The idea is to be as near to the people as possible. It is assumed that the success of decentralized agricultural extension services is much more dependent, among others, on how local government leaders as the key actors perceive it. Using local government leaders of Mbinga District as a case study, perception of local government leaders on decentralized agricultural extension services was determined. The main objective of the study was to determine the perception of local leaders on decentralized agricultural extension services in Mbinga District, Ruvuma Region. The specific objectives of the study were to; assess the extent to which local government leaders are aware of their additional or new roles under decentralized agricultural extension services, determine the expectation of local government leaders with regard to the provision of agricultural extension services under a decentralized institutional set up, identify limitations faced by local government leaders in the implementation of decentralized agricultural extension services and determine opinions of local government leaders on sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services. The survey population comprised all local government leaders of Mbinga district council having experience of at least three years in a particular administrative position. Local government leaders involved are those at district, ward and village levels (head of departments, ward councilors, ward executive officers, village executive officers and village chairpersons).

Data were collected through personal interviews and focused group discussions with randomly selected respondents from selected wards and villages. A random sample of 54 respondents was picked using a table of random numbers from the sampling frame that was developed. The findings of the study show that the majority of local government leaders had fairly positive perception towards the decentralized agricultural extension service, although, based on their expectations, local government leaders were not satisfied with the level at which agricultural extension services have been provided. On the other hand, results indicated that, among other problems identified by local government leaders, LGAs financial constraints were found to be the major problem that limit the implementation of decentralized agricultural extension services. In addition, the results indicate that the majority of local government leaders were of the opinion that the decentralized agricultural extension services will not be sustainable with respect to the financial capacity of LGAs. Recommendations emanating from this study are presented in chapter five.

DECLARATION

I, **Elmerinda Faustine**, do hereby declare to the Senate of Sokoine University of Agriculture that this dissertation is my own original work, and has not been submitted for a higher degree award in any other University.

Signature.....*Elmerinda Faustine*.....

Date.....*20/2/06*.....

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This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved mother the late Grace Stephano Jesaya Matowo-Mukungu (who passed away during my study on 15th January 2004) who laid the foundation of my education.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASDP	Agricultural Sector Development Programme
ASDS	Agricultural Sector Development Strategy
ASLMs	Agriculture Sector Lead Ministries
ASSP	Agricultural Services Support Programme
BACAS	Bureau for Agricultural Consultancy and Advisory Service
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
DED	District Executive Director
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GoT	Government of Tanzania
IARMWT	Intergrated Agro-ecological Research of the Miombo Woodlands in Tanzania
LGAs	Local Government Authorities
LGRP	Local Government Reform Programme
MAC	Ministry of Agriculture and Co-operatives
MAFS	Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security
NAEP II	National Agricultural Extension Project Phase II
NALERP	National Agricultural and Livestock Extension Rehabilitation Project
NARO	National Agricultural Research Organization
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
PORALG	President's Office for Regional Administration and Local Government
SG 2000	Sasakawa Global 2000
SHERFSP	Southern Highlands Extension and Rural Financial Services Project
SNAL	Sokoine National Agricultural Library

SNAL	Sokoine National Agricultural Library
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Agricultural extension, which is traditionally defined as the transfer of technology from experts (including progressive farmers) to farmers, livestock keepers and other stakeholders (MAC, 1997), is seen as an important part of agricultural service systems worldwide. While the institutional affiliation, organizational set up and financing may vary from one country to another, the general purpose of agricultural extension is the same, which is to improve the productivity of agricultural products and raise income of farm families thereby improving the welfare of the society in general (URT, 2000a). The manner in which these objectives can be achieved has evolved overtime from the original technology transfer model to the present participatory problem-solving approaches. Literature reveals that from the very beginning extension services in Tanzania have been offered through what has been termed the banking (Freire, 1970), top-down and bureaucratic (Kauzeni, 1989), supply-driven and manipulative approaches (Rutatora and Mattee, 2001a). Besides, too often extension services have been structured and operated on the assumption that farmers are largely passive, ignorant, illiterate, conservative, naive and they are unable to improve or integrate new farming practices into their established agricultural systems (URT, 2003).

In fact, agricultural extension services in Tanzania have always been considered to be weak since they have often not lived up to peoples' expectations in terms of their contribution to the development process (Isinika *et al*, 2005). Despite their shortcomings, agricultural extension services have been perceived as critical instruments of agricultural transformation since independence (Mattee, 1978).

Since independence in 1961, the government, in an attempt towards improving provision of extension services, made a number of initiatives although efforts made were not viewed as significant enough to improve the situation. One of the significant changes made was during the period of 1972 when the government introduced the decentralization policy and abolished local authorities (URT, 2000a). Consequently, the administration of extension services was transferred from the Ministry of Agriculture to the Prime Minister's office, through the Regional and District Development Directors.

With decentralization, the number of extension workers was greatly reduced as professional extension staff were reassigned administrative and parastatal management jobs, which were created by the Arusha Declaration due to nationalization of major means of production. Those staff who remained in extension work were required to perform a number of other non-extension duties at the expense of their educational role. These other duties included input acquisition and delivery, participation in various government campaigns such as literacy and health. In addition, the Ministry of Agriculture lost control of all the regional and district agricultural officers who were now controlled by Regional and District Development Directors. On the other hand, the Prime Minister's Office could not provide the necessary technical and supervisory support to extension staff. Overall, the 1972 decentralization had the following consequences (URT, 2000a)

- The line of communication within the Ministry of Agriculture was made very inefficient. This was due to inadequate effort in organizing proper communication that is having a single line of command of extension management and organization from the headquarters to the village level.
- Most facilities such as transport, offices and accommodation were taken away. These were redistributed to non-agricultural staff.

- The financing of extension programmes was greatly reduced as the government put more emphasis on administrative and political matters
- The link between research and extension was weakened as they were placed under different Ministries
- The work of the extension staff was not clearly defined
- At district and regional agricultural development offices, agricultural staff were so occupied with meetings and administrative matters that affected their performance in relation to extension service delivery

All these led to making extension services ineffective and overall poor performance of the agricultural sector.

In view of above, the government in 1983 decided to centralize the agricultural sector including the extension services. During implementation in mid 1980's the economy in general was facing a crisis, which called for economic reform programmes including structural adjustment programmes. While these economic reform programmes focused on revamping the economy in general, they did not deal with the revitalization of research and extension activities for agriculture, which remains the backbone of the Tanzania economy (URT, 2000a). Observations made reveal that centralization by itself did not solve the problems of the past and extension remained ineffective. According to the Report of the Task Force on Agricultural Extension Reform (URT, 2003), the failure of past extension approaches was mainly due to;

- Poor targeting and inadequate involvement of farmers in planning and/or design of extension projects or programmes
- Inadequate funding and lack of rural financial institutions
- Inadequate identification of farmer problems and feedback of farmers requirements into research agenda

- Lack of improved and relevant technological messages
- Weak research –extension-farmer and training linkage mechanisms
- Lack of clear mechanisms for accountability to clients
- Inappropriateness of contact farmer methods
- Inadequate support services to farmers like credit, market and inputs
- Low motivation or incentive packages for extension staff
- Lack of management training and appropriate planning, monitoring and evaluation systems for programmes or projects
- Inadequate utilization of information and communication technologies including popular theatre or theatrical methods (e.g. drama, songs and role-plays)
- Lack of clarity about what is expected from extension and failure to match resources with designated functions
- Inadequate political support

The current orientation of agricultural extension services in Tanzania stems from the Agricultural and Livestock Development Policy of 1997, which clearly states the government's intention to broaden the spectrum from which agricultural extension services are provided, in terms of both providers and the range of clientele. In an attempt to resolve the above issues or challenges and make extension services accountable to the people, the majority of whom live in rural and remote areas, the Government of Tanzania (GoT) made deliberate attempts including enacting laws and introducing various reform programmes. Most of these (e.g. Public Service Reform Programme and Local Government Reform Programme) aim at changing people's mind-set, people active participation in development agenda, empowerment and good governance, among others.

According to the Local Government Act No. 6 of 1999 the responsibility of providing agricultural extension services was transferred from Agricultural Sector Lead Ministries (ASLMs) to Local Government Authorities (LGAs), which currently fall under the President's Office Regional Administration and Local Government (PORALG). This change has brought about new opportunities and challenges to both ASLMs and LGAs in nurturing effective extension services that will bring about rapid agricultural development (Mwasha, 2005). Consequently, in 1999 technical staff who are responsible for delivery of agricultural extension services were re-deployed to LGAs as part of the Local Government Reform Programme and they were made answerable to the immediate beneficiaries of their services (URT, 1998). For the agricultural sector, the process is guided by the Agricultural and Livestock Development Policy of 1997, the Agricultural Sector Development Strategy (ASDS) of 2001, the Agricultural Sector Development Programme (ASDP) of 2003 and the Agricultural Services Support Programme (ASSP) of 2005 (Isinika *et al.*, 2005).

From the above, it is clear that the landscape is changing with regard to the provision of extension services in the country in terms of key actors, approaches and management styles of extension services (URT, 2000b). However, the LGAs in Tanzania have traditionally had little role in planning of services according to local priorities as the planning and decision making powers were held centrally (URT, 2000c). Therefore, the idea of decentralizing the extension services to the district level brings into focus other basic questions on how the local government leaders perceive decentralized agricultural extension services and hence participate in managing extension services in their areas of jurisdiction. This being the case, the study seeks to determine the perception of local government leaders on decentralized agricultural extension services to LGAs.

1.2 Problem Statement

Local government reform is the process by which control over locally provided services is devolved to locally accountable, democratically elected councils. The Tanzanian local government system is based on political devolution and decentralization of functions within the framework of a unitary state (URT, 1998). The national goal for this reform is centered on building the quality of service delivery to the public, with agricultural services being one of the five key targets, the rest being health, water, education and roads (Kuzilwa, 2000).

Despite all these changes, the LGAs are still seen to be weak, since they lack adequate capacity for designing and implementing multi-sector programmes including agricultural extension services (Sikira, 2001). Study conducted by Sikira, which assessed the attitude of extension staff towards decentralization shows that local government leaders are pre-occupied with political activities. In addition, most leaders at village level have low level of education than their subordinates (extension staff), something that creates inferiority complex among them, which in turn affects extension services delivery.

Furthermore, LGAs legally were used to be responsible for obligatory or mandatory functions like education, health, water and roads as spelt out in the Local Government Act of 1982 (BACAS, 1997). Literature reveals that the District could be involved in other so-called 'non-obligatory' functions like agriculture and agroforestry, if resources permit and depending on the District Executive Directors' vision. That is, since introduction of reform programmes especially LGRP, which has a bearing on extension services, and in view of the Local Government Act of 1982 no study has been conducted to determine the perception of local government leaders toward decentralized agricultural extension services. In view of the above facts which reveal that LGAs were used to traditional roles

and/or obligatory functions and in light of 1972 experience of decentralization as well as recent changes in policy which led to district focus, there is a need to determine the perception of local government leaders (village through ward to district level) on decentralized agricultural extension services since it has implications on how extension services can be made relevant, efficient, effective, sustainable and owned by beneficiaries themselves.

1.3 Justification

The success of decentralization of agricultural extension services to local government authorities is much more dependent, among others, on how local government leaders as the key actors perceive it. By exploring the perceptions of local government leaders in terms of their awareness, expectations and opinions on decentralized agricultural extension services, it is possible to shed light on some aspects for improving the relevance and implementation of decentralized extension services by the local authorities. The findings of this study are expected to help policy makers in different institutions (both public and private) and local government leaders themselves at different levels with regard to improvement in the delivery of quality agricultural extension services to their clientele or target groups.

1.4 Objectives of the study

1.4.1 General objective

The main objective of the study was to determine the perception of local government leaders on decentralized agricultural extension services in Mbinga District, Ruvuma Region.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of this study were to

- assess the extent to which local government leaders are aware of the decentralized extension services and their additional or new roles under decentralized extension services.
- determine the expectations of local government leaders with regard to the provision of agricultural extension services under a decentralized institutional set up
- identify limitations faced by local government leaders in the implementation of decentralized agricultural extension services
- determine opinions of local government leaders on sustainability of decentralized extension services.

1.5 Organization of the study

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter one covers the introduction, while chapter two reviews literature related to the perception of local government leaders on decentralized agricultural extension services to local government authorities. Chapter three describes the methodology used, while chapter four presents the findings of the study and chapter five gives conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

This chapter reviews pertinent literature of different aspects related to decentralization of agricultural extension services to local government authorities. The chapter is divided into five sections. The first section reviews the concept of decentralization. The second section offers description of the performance of agricultural extension since colonial period to-date followed by the third section which reviews the experience of decentralization in Tanzania. The fourth section discusses the experience of decentralization by devolution from other developing countries. The last section reviews the perception of local government leaders on the decentralized agricultural extension services.

2.2 The concept of Decentralization

There are several definitions and conceptions of decentralization. Ng'ethe (1998) defined decentralization as the transfer of legal and political authority from the central government and its agencies to the field organizations and institutions. Therefore, this transfer should include the authority to plan, make decisions and manage public affairs by agencies other than the central government. According to Boon and Femmy (1999) decentralization is a complex, long-term process involving many actors at different levels. Literature constantly revealed that decentralization is a broad based institutional reform aimed at improving governance through the transfer of responsibilities from central government to other levels of government (FAO, 2001).

Rondinelli (1981) defined decentralization as transfer of responsibility for planning, management, and resource raising and allocation from the central government to:

- Field units of central government ministries or agencies,

- Subordinate units or levels of government,
- Semi autonomous public authorities or corporations,
- Area wide regional or functional authorities, or
- Organizations of the private and voluntary sector

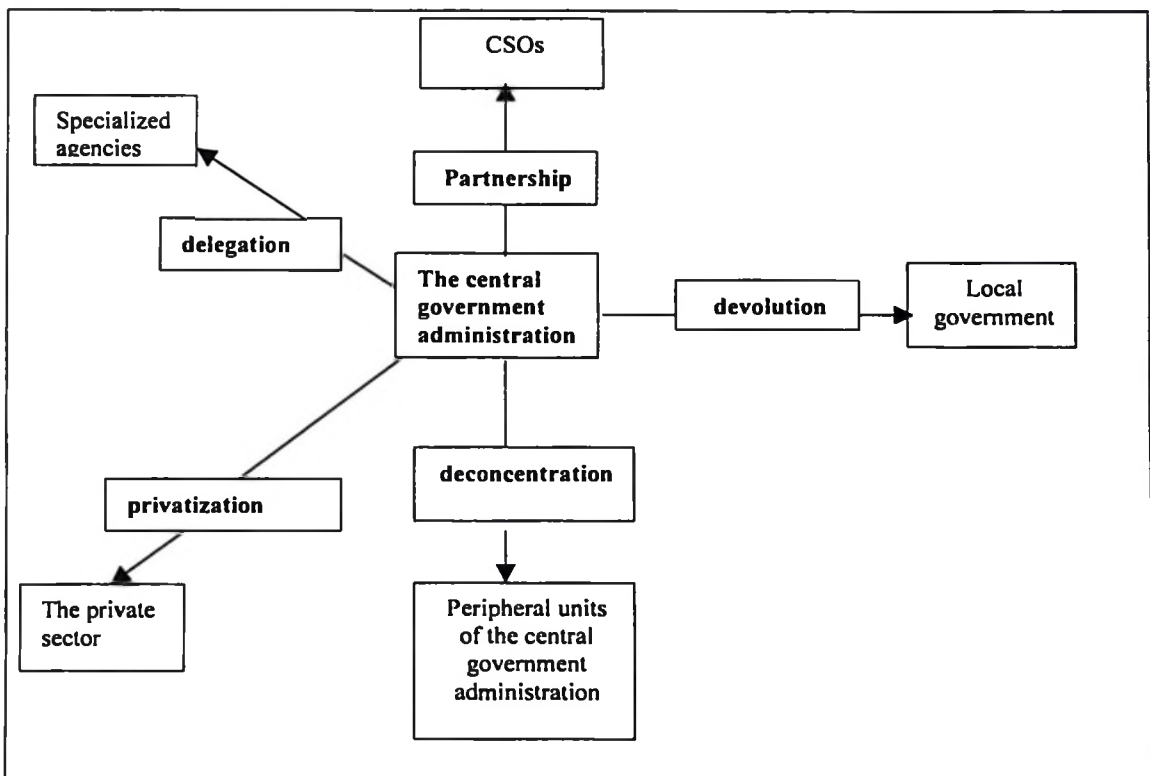
Additionally, decentralization reforms focus on:

- The relationships between three major sectors of governance, namely the public sector, the private sector, and the voluntary sector,
- Within the public sector, decentralization focuses on the structure and processes of decision making and on resource and responsibility allocation among different levels of government (FAO, 2001).

The key issue in decentralization is that the transfer of responsibilities and resources involves different relationships between the central administration and the organizations to which the transfer is made. The nature of these relationships, and the objectives of the transfer, determine the form of decentralization. According to FAO (2001) decentralization has five major forms (Fig. 1).

- Deconcentration assigns specific functions and tasks performed by the staff of the headquarters of central administrations to staff posted in peripheral locations within the national territory.
- Delegation is the transfer of responsibility and resources for implementing specific tasks and delivering services to a public agency, a state enterprise, a private enterprise, or an NGO under a contract that may provide some autonomy in interpreting the tasks assigned under the contract.

- Devolution is the transfer of functions and authority from the central levels of government to the local government or institutions, which are based on local representation.
- Partnership arrangements aimed at transferring the responsibility of planning and delivery of services to Civil Society Organizations (CSOs).
- Privatization is the transfer of authority from government to parallel organizations or private organizations



Source: FAO, (2001) p. 15

Figure 1: Five Forms of Decentralization

Boon and Femmy (1999) argue that delegation and privatization forms are not concerned with local units of government. However, Rondinelli and Cheema (1983) argue that devolution and deconcentration forms are both concerned with transfer of functions and

resources to lower units of governments. It must be stressed that deconcentration is administrative decentralization meaning the delegation of some implementing powers to local levels. Devolution is political and democratic decentralization meaning that decision-making authority and control over resources is assigned to local government levels in which elected bodies are accountable to their electorates. This implies that the local units of government are autonomous and independent, having legal status that makes them separate or distinct from central government (Frerks and Otto, 1996). Agricultural Investment Note (2003) states that true decentralization generally involves a mix of three reform strategies; administrative, political and fiscal decentralization.

Kasege (2004) argues that for practical and administrative reasons, Tanzania has, over time practiced one or other form of decentralization consonant to the prevailing circumstances and public policy. It has also been considered that Tanzania is predominately an agricultural country and hence, the social and economic development of the country in general and its people in particular depends on the development of the agricultural sector. Thus, the performance of agriculture sector has been fluctuating with the structural changes in the economy. Perhaps agriculture is more exposed to the vagaries of reforms than other sectors because of its operating complexities and the nature of the reforms themselves (URT, 2000a). On the other hand agricultural sector continues to be weak despite several reforms geared toward economic recovery. Although this weakness is blamed on several factors, the most persistent criticism of the agricultural sector has been centred on the ineffectiveness of the agricultural extension system. The agricultural extension system has, over years, been perceived as being unable to influence the farming practices of farmers in the rural areas. Issues revolving around the performance of agricultural extension services in Tanzania are covered in the following section.

2.3 Performance of Agricultural Extension Services since Colonial Period to-date

The evolution of the agricultural extension services in Tanzania has a long history and has been influenced by the evolution of extension work in the rest of the world. While western extension practice espouses an educational philosophy, that of Tanzania is guided by a mixture of educational and non-educational orientations (Keregero, 1991; URT, 2000a). These orientations are clearly reflected by the nature of extension approaches that have been tried since colonial times to date (Keregero, 1981; Lupanga *et al* 1989; Rutatora *et al*, 1999).

During the colonial era agricultural extension in Tanzania was aimed at boosting agricultural production so as to provide raw materials for the expanding industrial sector in the metropolitan countries. Thus in order to increase agricultural production, by-laws and regulations, regarding increase in acreage of various crops and use of recommended practices were introduced (Keregero, 1987). This approach which was used by colonial administrators and which did not involve local people was perceived negatively by local people. This was because farmers were ignored and viewed as objects to be used by the colonial government to serve their interests.

According to Lupanga *et al.*, (1989), agricultural extension during colonial period started with what was known as the “Balanced Utilization Approach,” This came after realization of the colonial government on the need to prevent famine and maintain soil fertility in the country. According to Rutatora (1993), this was a “top down” approach which involved the use of by – laws and coercion rather than persuasion. Farmers reacted negatively to the force applied by the colonial administration because they felt that they were inappropriate to them and had been introduced by force. Eventually, this created a negative attitude of farmers towards government officials including extension staff who were imposing these

regulations. For example, the introduction of the Uluguru Land Usage Scheme (ULUS) in 1945 which forced people to construct terraces, re – enforced regulations against burning of grass and bush in the hilly areas, stressed the planting of trees outside the forest limits for the provision of fuel wood and poles for construction purposes was later on abandoned in 1955 due to its bad approach (Duff, 1961). According to Nair (1993), the traditional barrier approach to soil conservation (mechanically constructing physical barriers and structures such as bunds and terraces to control runoff) involved excessive economic and labour costs for both construction and maintenance on the one hand, and caused loss of or damage to valuable topsoil on the other. Nair contends that the extension strategy concentrating on such approach cannot succeed.

Due to poor results of the “Balanced Utilization Approach,” it was abandoned and the “Focal Point” approach was introduced. This approach concentrated in high agricultural potential areas and progressive farmers. According to Lupanga *et al.*, (1989) it focused on “early adopters” usually the rich, more educated farmers with large than average farms and those with greater ability to follow extension advice. Kauzeni (1989), commenting on the same issue, argued that concentration on progressive farmers created mistrust, jealousy and antagonism from both the progressive farmers and ordinary or poor farmers. As such the approach contributed to widening the gap between the have and have-nots. The poor farmers who are the majority of local people were denied opportunities to extension services. In view of this these poor farmers who are the majority developed a negative attitude towards someone who does not value or respect them. In general, the approach had some elements of coercion and ultimately it was resisted by local people (Keregero, 1987).

After independence in 1961, the use of force and by laws was abandoned and more educational and persuasive extension approaches were advocated. Among these were the

“Transformation Approach” and “Improvement Approach.” The Transformation Approach aimed at modernizing agriculture through planned village settlement schemes where extension services could be channeled (Wambura, 1988). The Improvement Approach sought to improve traditional agriculture through extension services and credit programmes. This approach encouraged cooperative production in villages. However, by mid – sixties the failures of these approaches were apparent. Thus from 1967, as a result of the Arusha Declaration, the Tanzania Five Year development Plan (1967 – 1974) adopted the “Frontal Approach” to Ujamaa Development. Farmers were to be encouraged to move into villages to facilitate self – reliance and development through application of ‘Ujamaa’ (socialist) principles. As a result of this, some spontaneous settlement was started all over the country.

During the ‘Ujamaa’ approach, the first phase aimed at resettling the entire rural population into larger and planned clusters of households, by moving away from traditional, scattered and unplanned households. Later on, the government and party (Tanganyika National Union) authorities found that the process was slow and far behind the expectations of the ruling party and government. It was realized that persuasion was not helping much and it was getting too late. Therefore, “extended persuasion” or force was used on the rural people to move into planned villages by the use of police and militia (Mapolu, 1990). Mapolu (1990) further argues that the whole exercise was carried out too hastily and lacked proper planning. In some instances it involved violence, destruction or demolition of houses and some people lost their valued property. It is worth noting that the operation was quite contrary to the basis of the ‘Ujamaa’ philosophy. Thus according to Mapolu (1990) the impact of the ‘Ujamaa’ approach in terms of increase in agricultural productivity was negligible.

As pointed out by Keregero (1987) the use of extension officers in the aforementioned approaches reinforced the development of farmers' negative attitude towards the extension staff. This was because during the so called "accelerated movement" of farmers into the village the extension field officers were very often used in the process of site selection, demarcation of village land areas, and even physically moving the farmers. This distorted the role of extension staff who were supposed to act as educators of the farmers rather than government agents for policy enforcement. For many years after the villagization programme, the farmers no longer trusted the extension staff as they had lost their credibility and could not therefore influence farmers in any positive way.

In 1972 the government introduced the decentralization policy, which transferred the administration of extension services from the Ministry of Agriculture to the Prime Minister's office, through the Regional and District Development Directors. With Decentralization, a number of extension workers were greatly reduced as professional extension staff were reassigned some administrative posts. The decentralization also resulted in loss of control of all the regional and district agricultural staff by the parent ministry. Agricultural knowledge was required by the ruling party to be part of political education, as a result extension became no longer a scientific discipline that could only be performed by qualified personnel. This caused frustration and low morale among the extension staff.

In 1978 crop marketing parastatals or authorities were established after desolution of co-operative unions. These parastatals ran separate extension services, which dealt with individual crop. These included Tanzania Cotton Authority, the Coffee Authority of Tanzania, the Tanzania Sisal Authority, the Cashewnut Authority of Tanzania, Tobacco Authority of Tanzania, Tanzania Tea Authority and others. These authorities were also

involved in provision of agro-inputs and marketing. The original rationale was the generation of revenue as well as the assured supply of tropical products for the industrialized countries. The extension staff operating under this approach were commodity “specialists” as compared with the agricultural “generalists” extension workers. Extension programme planning was controlled by the commodity organization, including the co-ordination of research and extension, input supply and marketing. Nagel (1997), cited by URT (2000a) asserts that strengths as well as limitations of the commodity approach lie in its narrow focus. Nagel described it as being useful in terms of technology transfer but leaves out important public interest issues as well as target groups. Other approaches used were “Frontal Approach” and “Integrated Rural Development”. Literature revealed that the approaches attempted did not deliver significant results due to lack of active involvement of beneficiaries. In essence, all approaches that were used were supply-driven and manipulative in nature.

In 1983 the government centralized the agricultural sector including the extension services. Observations made revealed that centralization by itself did not solve the problems of the past and extension remained ineffective. To address the observed shortfalls, the government through the Ministry of Agriculture launched the National Agricultural and Livestock Extension Rehabilitation Project (NALERP) in 1988/89. Together with NALERP other extension projects like Sasakawa Global 2000 (SG 2000), and Southern Highlands Extension and Rural Financial Services Project (SHERFSP) were implemented in several regions (Sicilima, 1996). The projects advocated the use of the Training and Visit system as recommended by the World Bank (Benor and Baxter, 1984).

With regard to the Training and Visit approach, which operated in Tanzania since 1989, it has also come under criticism for its emphasis on top – down extension management style.

It has been described as having limited and stale information to deliver, top heavy management, hierarchical, a fragmented approach to farming, and emphasizing technologies by talking rather than doing (BACAS,1997). The village extension officers were trained to deliver technologies handed down to them by bureaucrats, and were not provided an opportunity for critical thinking of the underlying local situation. As in previous approaches this might not have changed the attitude of the farmers towards extension staff, although under the two projects, farmers' attitude towards extension staff varied depending on how the project was implemented. For example in the SG 2000 where farmers were provided with credits for inputs, farmers developed positive attitude towards their extension staff (Forster *et al.*, 1994). While with NALERP, where farmers were not provided with credits for inputs, the project monitoring and evaluation unit pointed out that technologies requiring cash outlay for purchase of inputs were not adopted by farmers as much as those that did not require inputs to be purchased. This was due to the fact that the project did not provide credits for inputs.

The NALERP results showed that it had achieved its goal of increasing agricultural output given the number of farmers covered by the extension staff. However, it was vivid that agricultural extension was more of supply driven than demand-driven and those issues of relevance, cost effectiveness, impact ownership and sustainability to beneficiaries were not adequately addressed.

In 1996, the NALERP was succeeded by the National Agricultural Extension Project phase II (NAEP II) with the main objective of continuing to improve the delivery of extension services to farmers for increasing their incomes and productivity, while improving its relevance, sustainability and cost effectiveness. The NAEP II was envisaged to follow the essential elements of the T&V while using participatory approaches.

The Mid Term Review of the NAEP II that was undertaken by the MAC in collaboration with the World Bank in December, 1999, showed that the impact was disappointing (URT, 2000a). The limited impact was due to

- Unfavorable weather
- High prices of inputs
- Decentralization of extension services
- Weak research – extension – farmer linkages
- Poor credit facilities
- Restructuring of MAC that led to staff transfers

In view of above, it is clear that the manner in which extension services programme were implemented have to be changed to reflect the changed situation. Furthermore, it should be noted that inappropriate diagnosis of farmers' situation is a common feature of programmes that do not involve local people in planning. Local people were not involved in the decision making and hence there was no consideration of farmers' pressing issues (Rutatora, 1993). For example, despite the ongoing changes of managing extension service, still all agricultural extension staff at ward and village levels are government employees. In this way they are employers – oriented instead of client or farmer oriented. This kind of managing extension services has had an influence on the agricultural extension staff effectiveness. Mwandry (1992) argues that these agricultural extension staff are not only assured of their monthly salaries irrespective of whether they are effective or not but are also viewed by the local people as privileged and economically better off individuals. Kauzeni (1989) also argues that the agricultural extension staff in many cases are not socially accepted as members of the village society and as a result are not deeply committed and responsible to the success or failure of village agricultural enterprises of the villagers. On the whole, farmers including local government leaders may

not have confidence in their proposals for change. They have built an attitude that make them to think that extension staff come up with proposals that entail higher risks than what the farmers themselves can take (Sukuzi, 2000).

In practice, literature reveals that extension was offered through a banking or empty cup approach where the extension staff is looked at as an expert and farmer as ignorant (Freire, 1970; URT, 2000a). Most of the extension activities were initiated by the extension staff and emphasized on the subjects or practices rather than change in behavior of human beings. In general, the extension staff were looked at as dispensers of information and not facilitators. The dispensing of information was largely through the use of disempowering techniques.

Since 1997 when the Agriculture and Livestock Development policy was released, delivery of agricultural extension services was the monopoly of the central government, while dependent on external funding. In order to address problems that surfaced as a result of centralized management of extension services, the government made efforts to restructure its government departments and committed itself to changing the function of central government from an executive role to a normative one, empowering local government and communities to control their planning processes, and establishing an enabling environment which encourages private sector involvement in all aspects of agriculture, including agricultural extension (URT, 2003). However, prior to the current decentralization, historically several efforts were made by government to decentralize agricultural extension services to LGAs.

In summary it can be pointed out that the agricultural extension services in Tanzania have undergone several changes before and after independence. Thus, the historical performance of agricultural extension services might have influenced the perception of local

government leaders in the implementation of current decentralized agricultural extension services.

2.4 Experience of Decentralization in Tanzania

Soon after independence in 1961, administration at local level was through the native authorities, district and town councils (URT, 2000a). Two years after independence, native authorities were abolished in the first flush of nationalism and replaced by popularly elected district councils under the Local Government Ordinance 1963. Therefore district Councils replaced all the native authorities (Mushi, 1978; URT, 2000a).

Local government authorities were then treated as implementing organs of the central government's development plans (URT, 2000d). Under this system, the village was at the very bottom. In view of this, the village therefore was seen as a site of development rather than a locus of governance. Thus villagization programme was linked to decentralization (Sikira, 2001).

In 1972 following a period of gradual decline in basic service provision compounded by continuing mismanagement in most of the local councils, the government introduced the decentralization policy and abolished the local authority. Under the decentralized system, Regional and District Development Directorates were established with powers to prepare and implement development programmes including extension services. They had powers to make almost all decisions of local importance and authority to prepare budgets and supervise expenditure (Kasege, 2004). All departments and field units involved in rural and urban development were put under the Regional and District Development Directorates. The major aim was to give people power over their own lives and their own development (Nyerere, 1973). However, this decentralized system had the following major weaknesses.

- It was wholly centred on central government in terms of decision making and local action. Local initiatives and/or creativity were generally stifled.
- Decisions pertaining to local development including extension services were made by government bureaucrats albeit at local level and not by democratically elected representatives of the people. The flexibility that had been intended in setting up priorities was not achieved. Government officials were influenced more by rules, regulations and bureaucratic exigencies rather than local opinion and priorities.

Thus, decentralization exercise of the 1970s could not bring about desired results, that is, in terms of increased efficiency and effectiveness in decision making and enhanced public participation in the development process. Instead, the regions and districts continued to face severe shortage of qualified and experienced staff in many technical and professional fields such as agricultural extension (Kasege, 2004).

In order to address the 1970s decentralization problems, the government re – established the Local Government in 1982 (Local Government Act. No. 8 of 1982). Despite this move, the Central Government continued to maintain a very strong presence at the regional level and hence undermined the newly established local Government (URT, 2000d). Furthermore there was confusion/duplication of responsibilities between Central, Regional, and LGAs. In an attempt to meet prevailing development challenges, in 1997 the government resolved to devolve more powers to local authorities through reduction of Central Government presence at the regional level (The Regional Administration Act No 19 of 1997). The government provided resources to strengthen and enable the local authorities to assume full responsibility for provision of public services including agricultural extension (URT, 2000e). Under this major reform initiative the government role would be limited to the core functions of governance, the roles and functions of

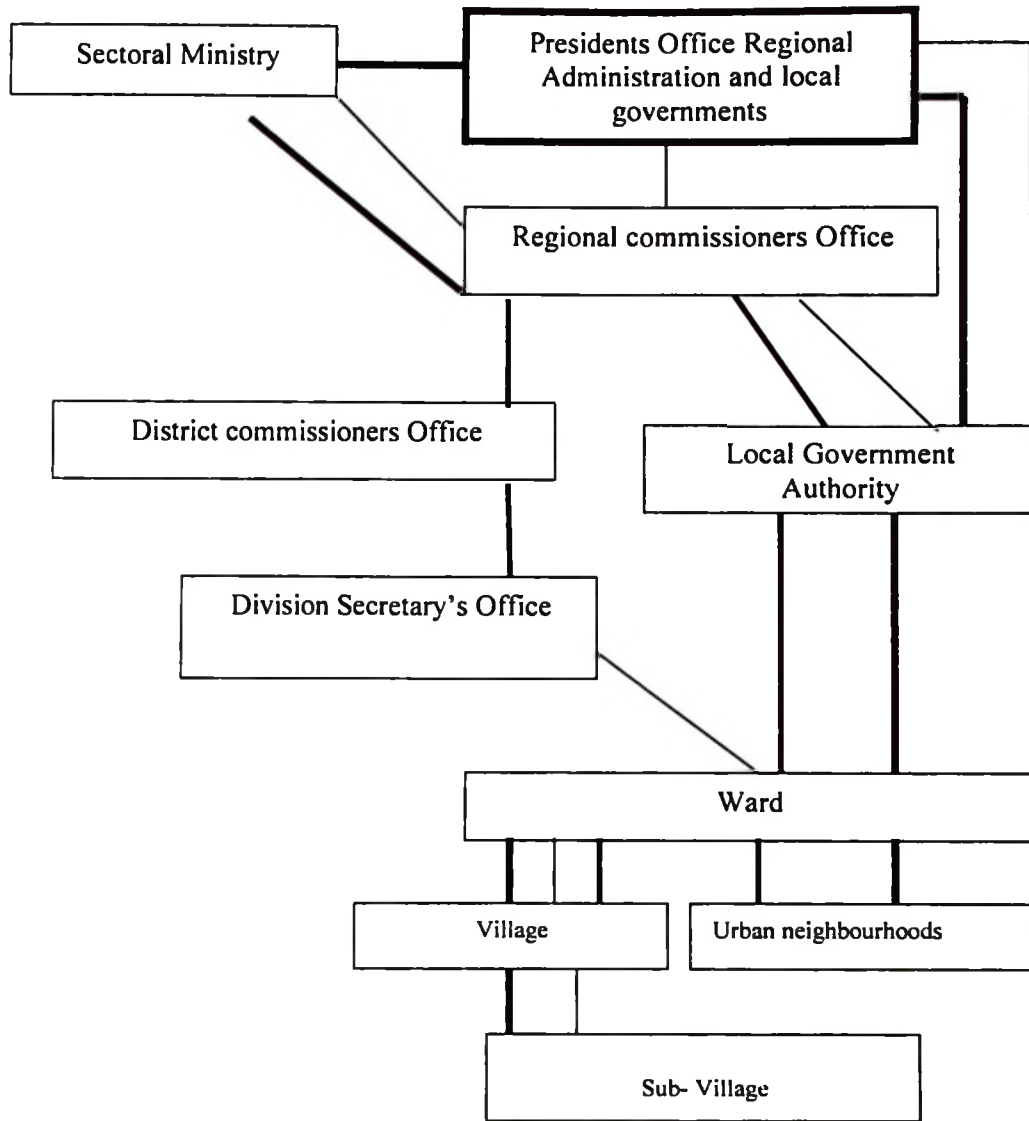
Ministries would be rationalized and consequently the civil service downsized. The regional government has been restructured and trimmed down, with the district focus enhanced by transferring resources from the national and regional levels to the districts and making district administration community-based (Rutatora and Mattee, 2001b).

According to the 1998 Policy Paper on the Local Government Reform (URT, 1998), local governments will be holistic, that is, multisectoral, government units with legal status operating on the basis of discretionary, but general powers under the legal framework constituted by the national legislation. Local government authorities constitute a unitary governance system all over the country based on elected councils and committees and professional administrations. According to the policy paper, the decentralization of government and reform of local government includes four main policy areas as spelt out by Local Government Reform Agenda, 1996-2000.

- Political decentralization including devolution of powers and the setting of the rules for councils and committees as well as the council chairperson. Political decentralization would include the integration of the previously centralized or deconcentrated service sectors into a holistic local government system installing councils as the most important local, political body within its jurisdiction. Political decentralization implies the creation of real, multi-functional governments at the local level within the framework of the national legislation.
- Financial decentralization means that councils have financial discretionary powers and powers to levy local taxes. Central government, in turn, has the obligation to supply local governments with unconditional grants and other forms of grants. The principle

also allows local councils to pass their own budgets reflecting their own priorities as well as mandatory expenditures required by legislation setting national standards.

- **Administrative decentralization** which involves de-linking local authority staff from their ministries and procedures for establishment of a local payroll. Local government have to recruit their own personnel, organized in the way decided by the respective councils in order to improve service delivery. Administrative decentralization makes local government staff accountable to local authorities. As local governments have a body corporate status (they may sue and be sued) the management responsibility of the local administration shall reflect this status.
- **Changed central-local relations.** (Fig. 2) The role of central government vis-à-vis local authorities will be changed into a system of inter-governmental relations with central government having over-riding powers within the framework of the constitution (URT, 1996).



Source: (URT, 2003) p 16

KEY:
————— Professional Relationship
————— Administrative Relationship
————— Advisory Relationship

Figure 2: Working Relations between Sectoral Ministries, the Presidents' Office Regional Administration and Local Government.

In Tanzania, the Local Government Reform Policy which was introduced in 1998 includes a vision for a new local government system where:

- The devolution of roles and authority from the centre will be based on the LGAs, capacity and efficiency in delivering services including agricultural extension services
- LGAs will have the authority to make policy and operational decisions consistent with national laws and central government policies
- The role of central government will be confined to facilitating and enabling LGAs in their service provision, providing adequate grants, developing a policy and regulatory framework, monitoring accountability of the LGAs, and conducting financial and performance audits
- The LGAs will possess the resources and authority needed to perform the functions they have been mandated by the local people and the central governments
- Leadership of LGAs will facilitate participation of the people in planning and executing their development programmes and service delivery will be based on local demand
- The LGAs will be transparent and accountable to the people- this would be the basis of their autonomy and protection from central government interference

An important aspect of the present government reforms with regard to providing extension services as mentioned by Isinika (2000) is for LGAs to address five main aspects:

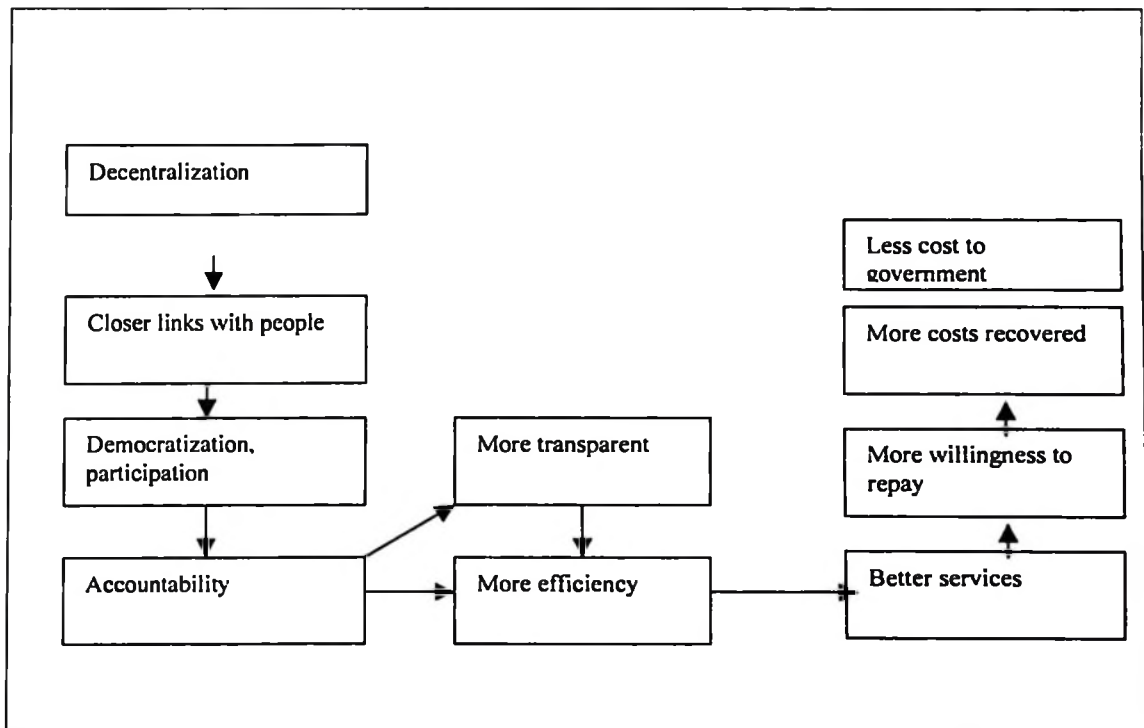
- Relevance of the services to clients
- Ownership of the services by the Local Government Authority
- Accountability of services providers to their clients (councils and farmers)
- Cost effectiveness of the services

- Sustainability of the services provided in terms of institutional set up as well as financing

2.4.1 Potential and Limitations of Decentralization

Decentralization aims at an economic and political system that responds more closely to people's preferences and requirements. By bridging the gap between suppliers and users of goods and services, decentralization measures are expected to achieve three major objectives

- Improved efficiency in service provision
- More transparency of service providers
- Better accountability to service users (Fig. 3)



Source: FAO (2001) P. 21

Figure 3: The Paradigm of Decentralization

Through decentralization by devolution, local people are given formal power to decide how problems should be dealt with, which priorities to be made and take responsibility for their own situation. Devolution may go with responsibility for raising necessary resources. Warioba (1999) reported some of the potentials that can be tapped from devolved system of administration, which are:

- Enhancement of availability of services including extension services at the point of consumption through matching policy with local needs. This is attained through improving the morale of the people working in LGAs who under the devolved system have a final say on matters of their local authorities
- Changing the distribution of decision-making powers so that more decisions can be taken at local levels. By decongesting decision-making process from the centre, devolution may help foster initiative and popular involvement, hence also result accelerating the rate of implementation of decisions and policies.
- Allocative efficiency: devolution helps local decision-makers and implementers translate development policies into a mix of goods in accordance to local preferences.

Although in theory the extension services delivery have been decentralized to the LGAs, in reality there are a lot of implementation problems to overcome, and some of them are mentioned in URT (2002):

- Resistance to devolution of financial and administrative powers from central ministries due to lack of trust in the LGAs' ability to perform the new functions efficiently and with satisfactory accountability.
- Lack of a well conceived change management strategy as regards transfer of staff from central government to local government employee, and resistance from staff, who are concerned about their employment rights and benefits.

- **Conflicting provision in sector legislation and the amended local government legislation, needing legal harmonization.**
- **Pretence to base central government grants on national minimum standards of service, which were in reality not used as they were not always relevant and in most cases unaffordable within existing resource envelopes.**

In view of above-mentioned limitations, the ongoing Local Government Reform Programme made some interventions in the implementation of decentralization in Tanzania. In summary, the reform interventions focused at the following areas (Kasege, 2004).

- **Good governance at local government level, concentrating on creating awareness about the reform and principles of democracy, transparency and accountability and the need to uphold the rule of the law.**
- **Financial decentralization underscoring the need for enhanced financial resources available to Local Government Authorities and ensuring improved management of those resources by the councils.**
- **Restructuring of LGAs so that they can acquire organization structures which will enable improved delivery of basic services like agricultural extension to the people.**
- **Providing support to LGAs to manage staff including extension staff in a manner that will enhance their loyalty and accountability to LGAs for which they are working; and**
- **Complementing and facilitating the implementation of sector specific reforms and programmes, which aim at fighting poverty such as the Agricultural Sector Development Programme.**

In a nutshell, it can be argued that from the evolution of Tanzanian local government it appears that several attempts were made to decentralize, one being comprehensive than the

other (Boon and Femmy, 1999). These attempts always resulted in systems in which central government retained control while they were to increase participation of the public by bringing power closer to the people. Between 1972-1984, local government authority has been placed outside the central government but it was exercised by deconcentrated officials and not by representatives of the public as aimed at.

2.5 Experience of Decentralization by Devolution from Other Developing Countries

Some countries such as Brazil, Colombia, Philippines and Uganda have, over the years, experimented with decentralization by devolution of responsibilities for a variety of rural development activities such as agricultural extension services. Some of these institutional reform experiments have received substantial support from international financial institutions, for example the World Bank, initially in Brazil and later on in other Latin America and in several African countries.

In Brazil, where the policy has been experimented for a longer time, the experience has evolved towards forms of partnerships with Civil Society Organizations (CSOs). One common but important lesson in the present context is that few of the resources, which districts or municipalities were allowed to allocate freely to their own priorities, have actually been spent on providing extension services to farmers. In Colombia, the increased resources accompanying devolution to local governments were transferred on a conditional grant basis and this increased extension coverage (Garfield *et al.*, 1997). However, to what extent larger coverage and more resources have improved relevance, responsiveness, and accountability to farmers is not clear (FAO, 2001).

In the Philippines, a survey conducted by Malvicini (1996) show that devolved extension staff have lost career development perspectives; salary increases have been blocked to

progressively align remuneration with that of other municipal employees who mostly have lower education levels; and there are no funds for staff training. Many other difficulties have been experienced by decentralization of extension responsibilities to local governments. The case of Uganda, for example, is a good illustration of both financial and staff management difficulties. Primary responsibility for allocating budget resources for extension rests with the district. Available resources are all used for salaries, leaving practically nothing for staff development, mobility and fieldwork (Government of Uganda, 1998). Although staff are now employed by the district councils they report technically to the Ministry of Agriculture, which has recently delegated its responsibility for extension to the National Agricultural Research Organization (NARO). NARO was not prepared for the new task and there is clear risk that the organization sees extension staff primarily as an arm for transferring research results to the field (FAO, 2001).

In light of the current decentralization in Tanzania, the capacity of PORALG is still considered to be weak, since they lack adequate capacity for designing multisectoral programmes including agricultural extension services (Sikira, 2001). On top of that most of LGAs have not reached the highest degree of reform and hence agricultural extension services has not been tackled effectively (Mwasha, 2005). Furthermore, lessons learned from the past experience on the decentralization of 1972 might have influenced the perception of local government leaders on the current decentralization.

2.6 Perceptions of Local Government Leaders on Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services

Agricultural extension services have been blamed for being responsible for the slow pace of agricultural development. It is not well known whether it deserves all the criticisms it

has received, as there are other external factors impinging on the performance of agricultural extension services (Isinika *et al*, 2005). Despite their shortcomings, agricultural extension services have been perceived as critical instruments of agricultural transformation since independence (Mattee, 1978).

Meanwhile, Tanzania has undergone significant changes during the last two decades in terms of political and economic orientation. Previously, provision of agricultural extension services was the exclusive mandate of the government, under the coordination of the Ministry responsible for Agriculture. Following economic liberalization from 1986, the role of the government in relation to the private sector and the public in general had to be redefined in many aspects of social and economic development. This has also necessitated a change in the manner agricultural extension services are perceived as well as how they are delivered to the clientele (Isinika *et al*, 2005).

Under the devolved system of local government, agricultural extension personnel working in the local government authority are promoted, developed, controlled, disciplined and dismissed by their respective councils (Kasege, 1999). Moreover, at local level, extension staff are supposed to work very closely with local leaders (Councilors, Ward Executive Officers and Village leaders). However, lack of trust between them does not present healthy situation (Isinika, 2000). This might lead to poor performance of extension services delivery.

It is reported that following decentralization of agricultural extension services in 1997 and redeployment of extension staff to Local Government Authorities in 1999, most of senior officials (District/Municipal Executive Directors and Councilors) within LGAs were very receptive of the change (Isinika, 2000). Local government leaders felt that under the new

arrangement, they would have more say on the quality of extension services and provide closer supervision than in past (Isinika *et al*, 2005).

On the other hand, agricultural extension staff had mixed feelings. While some welcomed the idea of working under the direct supervision of LGAs, they were, however, concerned that their performance may be judged to be poor because of lack of understanding on the part of Councilors and other leaders as well as farmers regarding the role of extension staff (Isinika, 2000). Probably the critical issue on the part of extension staff is that they are dislodged from their technical support ministry system as well as career building mechanisms. The fear of Councilors could also be a misconception on the part of extension staff.

Conceptually, extension staff have an educational role, which in practice should translate into specific tasks that can be monitored and evaluated (Isinika *et al*, 2005). Moreover, such tasks should cumulatively (over time and space) be able to impact on agricultural performance and consequently on livelihoods within farming communities. There is ample evidence however that, extension staff are often assigned other non-educational roles, (e.g Village Executive officers responsibilities in the case of Bukoba District-a move that was introduced in 2004) some of which actually undermine their primary educational role (Benor and Baxter, 1997). According to URT (2003) some of agricultural extension staff are discontented by operating under LGAs as they perceive that LGAs are not playing a significant role in agricultural extension.

While some Councilors were aware and receptive to the decentralized agricultural extension services, farmers were not informed of the administrative change and its implications to them. It is probably due to the fact that the mode of operation to the locally based extension staff (at ward and village) has not changed (Isinika, 2000).

As much as the government has made efforts to decentralize or adopt various reform programmes, it did not prepare adequately LGAs and its people for the envisaged changes. Like previous decentralization attempts, the entire exercise was done on an ad hoc basis—just another experiment. It no wonder that's why people at the grassroots level are not aware of what is going on and the implications brought about by the reform programmes. In the case of Japan, decentralization started since 1945 after the 2nd World War but effective decentralization become a practical reality beginning year 2005, that is 50 years later (Shimoda, T. personal communication, 2005). All that period was used for preparing a firm ground (in terms of building and developing human capacities and putting in place effective institutional arrangements) for effective decentralization.

Given the fact that most of the key players (local government leaders) in agricultural production system have been used to supply-driven and top-down extension service, it was deemed necessary to determine the perceptions of local government leaders on decentralized extension services. Perceptions of local government leaders on decentralized extension services covered such aspects as.

- Awareness of local government leaders on decentralized extension services
- Expectations of local government leaders on provision of agricultural extension services under decentralized set up
- Limitations faced by local government leaders in implementing decentralized agricultural extension services
- Opinions given by the respondents on sustainability of decentralized extension services.

This chapter has summarized the information about decentralization of agricultural extension services. The literature has shown that the perception of local government

leaders could be influenced by historical background of extension services in Tanzania and the context in which current decentralization takes place.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

Chapter three covers methodology used in this study and has seven sections. The first section offers description of study area. The second section covers the research design used, while the third section is about the sampling procedure. Section four presents methods used for data collection. Section five describes instrumentation and section six describes how pre testing of instruments was done. The last section covers data analysis.

3.2 Description of the Study Area

The study was conducted in Mbinga district, Ruvuma Region (Appendix 1). Mbinga District is one of the five administrative districts in Ruvuma Region. Others are Songea Urban, Songea Rural, Tunduru and Namtumbo. It is situated at the South west of the region bordered by Songea district to the East, the Republic of Mozambique to the South, Ludewa district to the North and Lake Nyasa, which borders Malawi and Tanzania to the West. Mbinga District Council has an area of 11,396 km². The district population according to the 2002 National Population and Housing Census is 403,819 whereby 197,789 are males and 206,030 are females with the growth rate of 2.9 percent per annum. The district is divided into six administrative divisions, 37 wards and 192 villages.

The altitude of the District ranges between 500 and 2000 meters above sea level. Rainfall pattern is unimodal. The wet season extends from December to April, leaving the rest of the year dry. The growing period extends from six to seven months with an exception of Hagati Plateau, which extends up to nine months. The onset of the rains normally begins at the end of November. The average maximum temperature is 30° C, while the average

minimum temperature is 21° C. Sometimes temperature goes down to 13° C during the cold season in June, July and August.

The district is mainly dominated by three ethnic groups namely, the Ngoni, Nyasa and Matengo. The Ngoni occupy mainly the northern lowlands, while the Nyasa occupy the coastal strip of Lake Nyasa. The Matengo occupy the mountains to the east of Lake Nyasa on the escarpment extending south of Ruhuhu trough to the border with Mozambique. The District is divided into three distinct agro- ecological zones namely the Matengo Highlands, the Lower Plateau and the Lake Shore (IARMWT, 1998).

- The Matengo highlands zone is divided into four sub zones namely, mountain area, Hagati Plateau, North and South rolling hills. The north and south rolling hills are two largest agro-ecological zones in the Matengo highlands.
- The Lower Plateau zone occupies the eastern side of the rolling hills, north and south, at an altitude ranging from 900 to 1200 m.a.s.l. It is the area in the District where most of the Miombo woodland vegetation is found.
- The Lake shore zone lies between Hagati plateau and Lake Nyasa. The altitude of the area rises up to 480 m.a.s.l. The area is covered with wooded grassland and degraded miombo woodlands. It has narrow and wide valleys suited for rice and sugarcane cultivation. Cassava cultivation is most common crop produced on raised round ridges.

The bases of selecting Mbinga District Council is due to the fact that the district is among the Local Government Authorities in the country under the Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) which was started way back in 1999 and I am employee of Mbinga district council.

3.3 Research Design

The study used a cross sectional design and employed a survey method. A cross sectional survey consists of asking questions to a representative sample of the population at a single point in time. According to Babbie (1990) this method is suitable for a descriptive study like this one.

3.4 Sampling Procedures

3.4.1 The study population

The population of this study is defined as all local government leaders of Mbinga district council having experience of at least three years in a particular administrative position. Local government leaders involved are those at district, ward and village levels (heads of department, ward councilors, ward executive officers, village executive officers and village chairpersons). The reasons for selecting these local government leaders is that they are the ones who are responsible for overseeing the development of this district and ensuring delivery of quality services to the people whom they are supposed to be accountable to as per LGRP requirements and Act No 6 of 1999 of the LGAs. As such these officials having worked in their respective positions for three years stand a better chance to express their experience with regard to decentralized agricultural extension services which is one of their mandate. Informal interview with agricultural extension staff at district, ward and village level were also conducted so as to get their opinions on decentralized agricultural extension services. Focus Group Discussion with selected key informants, which included farmer's representatives, were also involved so as to get more information relevant to the study.

3.4.2 Sampling frame

The total number of heads of departments in Mbinga districts councils was 14. The list of all district council officials (heads of departments) was prepared from records kept by the District Executive Director's (DED) office. Out of 14 heads of departments those who qualify, as per definition of study population were only 10. These 10 district council officials formed part of the sampling frame.

The local government leaders from ward and village level were obtained through the following procedure; Out of 37 wards and 192 villages of Mbinga district Council (Appendix 2) 16 wards and 32 villages were selected on the basis that their local government leaders qualify as per definition of study population. Other criteria used for selection of wards and villages were; accessibility, distance from district headquarter, nature of terrain and time to make appointment with respective local government leaders. In selecting study wards and villages, district government authorities were involved. From purposively selected wards and villages, a list of all names of 96 local government leaders (ward councilors, ward executive officers, village executive officers and village chairpersons) were obtained.

The list of district officials (heads of department), ward councilors, ward executive officers, village chairpersons and village executive officers constituted the sampling frame. The sampling frame had total of 106 local government leaders (Table 1). It was from this sampling frame that a random sample of respondents to be interviewed was taken using a table of random numbers.

3.4.3 Sample size

Given the nature of study that calls for in depth interviews as well as constraints of time and financial resources a sample size of 54 local government leaders was picked from the sampling frame mentioned above using a table of random numbers. The unit of analysis was individual local government leaders.

Table 1: Study wards

Division	Wards	Number
Mbinga urban	Mbinga District Council Offices	10
	Mbinga urban	30
	Mkumbi	
	Utiri	
	Myangayanga	
	Matiri	
Mbuji	Maguu	12
	Mpapa	
Mpepo	Liparamba	12
	Kingerikiti	
Ruhuhu	Lituhi	12
	Litumba-Kuhamba	
Namswea	Namswea	18
	Litumbandyosi	
	Ruanda	
Ruhekei	Lipingo	12
	Mbamba Bay	
Total		106

3.5 Data collection methods

3.5.1 Primary data

Data were collected through personal interviews with randomly selected respondents from selected wards, villages and district officials. The researcher carried out interviews with each respondent using an interview schedule (Appendix 3). The interview schedules consisted of closed-ended questions for items like sex, age, and level of education and information on decentralized agricultural extension services. The open-ended questions were used for soliciting respondents' views on expectations and opinions on sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services. Personal observations, focus group discussions with farmers, informal interviews with extension staff as well as various district council officials were used to supplement the interview schedules. The use of various survey instruments for data collection aimed at triangulation and to enrich the findings of this study.

3.5.2 Secondary data

Secondary data were collected by going through relevant documents available at Mbinga district council offices. Other sources are Sokoine National Agricultural Library (SNAL), Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security, Ministry of Water and Livestock Development and Presidents' Office Regional Administration and Local Government (PORALG). These involved collecting information from different books, journals and official reports. The electronic database such as web sites were also explored.

3.6 Instrumentation

Primary and secondary data were collected for the purpose of this study by using interview schedules, which were administered to local government leaders to determine their perception on decentralized agricultural extension services. Interview guide was used for

informal interviews and checklist of questions was used during focused group discussion with farmers' representatives and various officials in the study area.

Observations were also made during important district council meetings/committees where the issues related to local government leaders' perception on decentralized extension services were noted in the researcher's diary. The observed phenomena were based on aspects like local government leaders awareness, thinking and expectations when discussing issues pertaining to decentralized agricultural extension services in their respective areas. Other variables were priorities given to agricultural extension services by local government leaders in terms of budget including allocation of funds comparing with other services such as health and education. The validity of instruments was established through pre-testing.

3.7 Pre – testing of the instruments

Pre - testing was done under field conditions. Six local government leaders were randomly selected from Kigonsera ward and these leaders were not included in actual survey. Pre testing was done to check for any ambiguities in the wording of items (that is, check for clarity, redundancy, meaningfulness and comprehensiveness), to ensure that the amount of time required for completing the interview was not excessive and to discover the reaction of the respondents with respect to certain items. During the pre-testing of this interview schedule, the time taken to interview one person was fifty minutes. After pre testing, it was found that no major changes in content was necessary, except there were certain items that were not clear and some were found to be repetitive, these were both modified and omitted. After modification and omission of some items, the time for interviewing one person were adjusted to forty-five minutes. The interview schedule was revised and later used for data collection.

3.8 Data analysis

The completed interview schedule was coded and where applicable data from open-ended responses were sifted and categorized for further analysis. Similarities as well as differences in responses were viewed and noted. These were compiled and analyzed in preparation for writing a dissertation. While qualitative data were subjected to content analysis with thematic organization framework, the quantitative analysis reported in this study was conducted using routine procedures of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer programme. The analysis was completed with the aid of computer facilities at Sokoine University of Agriculture. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in this study. With regard to inferential statistics, frequencies and percentages were used. Tables were used in organizing and presenting information. This kind of organizing data was particularly useful in visualizing data implications and drawing conclusions. The choice of this kind of data analysis procedure was done due to the descriptive nature of the study.

In summary, chapter three has elaborated the methodology including location of the study, research design, data collection and analysis. The findings of the study are reported in the fourth chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Overview

Chapter four presents and describes the findings of this study. It is divided into the following sections; socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, awareness of local government leaders on decentralized extension services, expectations of local government leaders on provision of agricultural extension services under the decentralized set up, limitations faced by local government leaders in implementing decentralized agricultural extension services and opinions given by the respondents on sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services.

4.2 Socio- Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section deals with the description of socio-demographic characteristics of respondents (local government leaders) of Mbinga district. Table 2 shows the frequency distribution of respondents according to their sex, age, marital status, level of education and number of years in a particular administrative position in Mbinga district. The table reveals that of the 54 respondents 83 percent were males. With regard to age, the majority of respondents (70 percent) were between 36 to 55 years.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents According to Socio-Demographic Characteristics (N=54)

Characteristics	Values	Frequency	Percentage
Sex	Male	45	83
	Female	9	17
Total		54	100
Age in years			
	26-35	9	17
	36-45	19	35
	46-55	19	35
	56-65	4	7
	>66	3	6
Total		54	100
Marital status			
	Married	49	91
	Single	5	9
Total		54	100
Level of education			
	Primary	18	33
	Secondary	26	48
	Certificate	1	2
	Diploma	5	9
	University	4	7
Total		54	100
Number of years in a particular administrative position in Mbinga			
	3 – 5	27	50
	6 – 10	21	39
	11 – 15	6	11
Total		54	100

With regard to level of education the results show that all 54 respondents attended formal education, while the majority (67 percent) of the respondents had post-primary school education. Table 2 also indicates that 50 percent of the respondents were in a particular administrative position for a period of between 3 to 5 years, and only 11 percent of the total respondents have stayed in administrative position for a period of 11 to 15 years. The number of respondents in the group of 11 to 15 years were few probably due to the fact that for many past years, most of local government administrative positions especially at ward and village levels (for example ward and village executive officers) were voluntary in nature. Local government leaders in these particular areas were not employed and have no

salary but only dependent on subsistence allowances and hence it is not easy to attract local leaders to stay in administration for many years.

4.3 Awareness on Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services

One of objectives of this study was to determine awareness of local government leaders on decentralized agricultural extension services and new or additional roles required to be performed under decentralized set up. In that regard the respondents were first asked if they were aware of the decentralized agricultural extension services. The results are indicated in Table 3.

Table 3: Respondents Awareness on Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services
(N=54)

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	52	96
No	2	4
Total	54	100

Results from the Table 3 indicate that majority (96 percent) of respondents were aware of decentralization of agricultural extension services. This implies that the local government leaders are aware of changes made by the Tanzania government through transferring the responsibility of delivery of agricultural extension services from the central government to LGAs. Local government leaders awareness on decentralized agricultural extension services is important as they are now becoming the key actors in supervision of extension staff as well as managing delivery of agricultural extension services in their particular areas. The study further sought to determine the perceived meaning of decentralized agricultural extension services by the respondents. The results are indicated in Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents According to the Perceived Meaning of Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services (N =54)

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Planning process is bottom up	13	24
Extension staff are answerable to DED	31	57
Local community are now responsible to supervise extension staff	3	5
No response	7	12
Total	54	100

From Table 4 it is clear that a number of respondents perceived decentralized of agricultural extension services as something which make extension staff answerable to DED. This implies that local government leaders know that one of LGAs mandate is supervision of agricultural extension services under decentralize set up. Isinika (2000) reported similar findings in her study on mechanisms for contracting out selected extension tasks to different agents, where she found out that local government leaders were very receptive of the change and know they have the mandate to supervise agricultural extension staff as well as agricultural extension services in their area of jurisdiction. From the argument above, it was deemed necessary to determine the views of local government leaders on whether the idea of decentralizing agricultural extension services are of value or worthwhile. The results are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5: Distribution of Respondents According to Their Views on Whether Decentralization is Worthwhile (N=54)

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	51	94
No	3	6
Total	54	100

Table 5 shows that the majority (94 percent) of respondents admit that the idea of decentralizing extension services is worthwhile, while only 6 percent disagree. Through probing it was found that local government leaders felt that, now they have mandate to supervise agricultural extension staff more closely. It was stated by most of them that, in fact, decentralization simply formalized what was already happening. Although agricultural extension personnel were technically under the direct supervision of their parent Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (MAFS), in practice they worked closely with local leaders within the district in their respective locations (villages, wards and at the district level). It was claimed that with decentralization now they have full mandate and have more say on the quality of agricultural extension services. Similar findings were reported by Boon and Femmy (1999) who commented that although local government leaders do not know much about the decentralization or reforms, they received it positively. They expect that agricultural extension services will expand and LGAs will be nearer to the people through the transfer of experts to village level. Studies indicate clearly that decentralization of extension services to local authorities is likely to lead to several advantages; there is a high possibility of designing agricultural extension programmes that are community-based and drawing on local opportunities and constraints. It is more likely in the long term to instill a sense of ownership of extension services to local leaders and to demand accountability from extension staff and other collaborators, possible to work with staff with wide range of technical skills, and easier to institute mechanism for cost

recovery for extension because services can be made more accountable to tax payers (Rutatora and Mattee, 2001b). However, with decentralization experience shows that the administrative set up has changed, but little has happened yet to the local operational system, within which local government leaders operate.

4.3.1 Awareness of Respondents on the New or Additional Roles Under Decentralized Set up

The introduction of the new administrative structure by the government in the late 1990s led to changes in the roles and responsibilities being undertaken by ASLMs. These restructuring of administrative set up were aimed at establishing an efficient and sustainable service delivery system in the agricultural sector. Under decentralized set up ASLMs are responsible for policy formulation, setting sector regulatory framework, issuing technical guidelines, determining minimum standards for service delivery, monitoring and evaluation, training and research (URT, 2003). LGAs are expected to take a leading role undertake or implement all development initiatives to improve the rural livelihoods including provision of agricultural extension services. Agricultural extension tasks as they are expected to be performed under LGAs may be derived from the role of LGAs as stipulated in various government documents on the rationalization of duties between the PORALG, MAFS, MWLD, Regional Secretariats and LGAs. Under the Local Government Act, The roles of LGAs pertaining to agricultural development, include:

- Promoting social and economic development
- Designing and implementing agricultural sector plans
- Supervising and coordinating the delivery of agricultural extension services
- Mobilizing resources (financial, human and facilities or equipment) for local development programmes
- Administration of villages for the purpose of stimulating sustained development

- Land administration, land use planning and management for effective and sustainable land utilization.

It is expected that LGAs will be responsible for executing these roles. However, it is argued that lack of a legal mandate and technical skills and facilities to enforce some roles are among constraints that limit capacity of LGAs in the implementation of their assigned roles. On the other hand the level at which local government leaders are aware of these new or additional roles were not well known. According to URT (2000d) information on new or additional roles is considered be important aspect prior to any decentralization process. Lack of proper information as stated above might influence the level of understanding among key stakeholders about their new or additional roles. In order to determine whether local government leaders felt there are new or additional roles to be performed by themselves and LGAs respectively, local government leaders were asked first to give their views or state new or additional roles to be performed by LGAs under decentralization set up. Later, respondents were asked to state new or additional roles to be performed by themselves. The results are indicated in Table 6.

Table 6: Respondents Views on New or Additional Roles Under Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services. (N=54)

Value	Frequency	Percentage
Additional roles of LGA's		
Yes	38	70
No	16	30
Total	54	100
Additional roles of local leaders		
Yes	28	52
No	26	48
Total	54	100

From Table 6, it is vivid that 70 percent thought that LGAs have new or additional roles to be performed while 30 percent thought that LGAs have no new or additional roles to be performed. Through probing it was found out that respondents who thought that LGAs have no new or additional roles to be performed had mixed feelings. While some (a minority) felt so due to lack of awareness of decentralized agricultural extension services as reported earlier, other respondents thought that the role of supervision of agricultural extension services as routine role of LGAs. This means that some of local government leaders have not seen any differences of managing agricultural extension services under LGAs regardless of being aware of changes made by the government on managing agricultural extension services.

Respondents were further asked to state if they thought that they have new or additional role to perform. Results from Table 6 shows that half (52 percent) of respondents felt to have new or additional roles to be performed. The new or additional roles of LGAs under decentralized set up which were mentioned by local government leaders were supervision of agricultural extension services, preparing agricultural data reports and planning of agricultural programme. Other 48 percent felt that they have no new or additional roles. Through probing it was found that those local government leaders were either not aware of the decentralization of agricultural extension services or lack of understanding on the supervision role of local government leaders under decentralized set up. For example, during informal discussion, one of the Village Chairpersons stated that nothing has been changed with regard to supervision of agricultural extension. He argued further that agricultural extension staff are still answerable to the district officials and not to the village local leaders. This discussion revealed that some local government leaders were not aware of the new or additional role they were required to perform under decentralization set up. This is mainly because the mode of operation of the locally based extension staff (at

ward and village) has not changed (Isinika, 2000). As a result, some of local government leaders perceive the status quo prevails. This implies that it is important to create awareness among local government leaders at all LGAs levels (District, Ward and Village) on their roles in managing agricultural extension so as to avoid such misconception among local government leaders especially those at lowest level e.g village.

4.4 Expectations of Local Government Leaders on Provision of Agricultural Extension Services under a Decentralized Set up

The success of agricultural extension services depends, among other things, on the level at which expectations of the key stakeholders (local government leaders) with regard to provision of extension services under the current institutional set up are reached. In view of this observation, local government leaders were asked to list their expectations with respect to provision of extension services under decentralized set up. The following are expectations identified by local government leaders.

Table 7: Identified Expectations of Local Government Leaders on Provision of Extension Services

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Easy to forge close working relationships with key stakeholders in the area.	20	40
Improved quality of extension services as a result of understanding farmers' issues, needs and problems.	15	30
Timely provision of extension services	11	22
Timeliness of credit and input service delivery	4	8

With regard to expectations of local government leaders on provision of extension services under decentralized set up, the findings in Table 7 indicate that 40 percent of respondents

expect to see close working relationships with key stakeholders in the area. It was noted by local government leaders that with decentralized extension services, the agricultural extension personnel are supposed to work very closely with local leaders (Councilors, Ward Executive Officers and Village leaders) as well as other professionals, (for example, Ward Community Development Officers). From the technical point of view, agricultural extension staff have been incorporated into district and ward teams, along with other professionals (Isinika, 2000). They are expected to work with local leaders depending on the operational procedure of the district. Through probing it was found out that, local government leaders expected decentralized agricultural extension services to provide a ground for key stakeholders to establish a common vision and develop complementary strategies on the role of agriculture in development at various levels (village, ward and district). Other expectations are as summarized in Table 7.

Through probing during personal interview the following were additional expectations on the decentralized agricultural extension services;

- assessment of farmers' or communities environment and their needs
- Timeliness of credit and input service delivery
- Timely availability of market information
- Easy follow – up and monitoring of farmers' activities e.g. Farmers Field School.

It was observed that local government leaders implied that they expect their local agricultural extension staff to be directly involved in the supply of agricultural inputs within their area. It was stated further that farmers have more confidence on the quality of farm inputs, (fertilizer, agricultural chemicals, and seedlings), which are supplied by agricultural extension staff. It was found that in most cases extension staff were the only source of agricultural inputs (particularly agricultural chemicals) in remote areas, where private traders do not operate.

4.5 Limitations Faced by Local Government Leaders During Implementation of Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services

For many years extension programmes have been implemented by the Ministry responsible for Agriculture, using its staff from the national level down to the field level (Rutatora and Mattee, 2001a). Local authority leaders (including officials of LGAs) have viewed this arrangement as bureaucratic, ineffective and too far removed from farmers. Furthermore, local authorities considered the MAFS headquarter incapable to adequately supervise its field staff. Following decentralization of agricultural extension services in 1997 and redeployment of extension staff to LGAs in 1999, it was observed that under the new arrangement, local government leaders would have more say on the quality of extension services and they would provide closer supervision than in the past (Isinika, 2000). However, historically Tanzania LGAs face many serious problems. For example in 1972 LGAs were abolished and re-introduced in the early 1980s and were accompanied by high expectations about improved performance, something which did not happen. According to URT (1996) the reasons and underlying limitations of LGAs are many, but may be categorized under the following;

- Institutional and legal framework
- Roles, functions and structures
- Governance
- Finances
- Human resources capacity and management
- Capacity of central government institutions

It is within this context that the study, among others, also aimed at identifying the limitations perceived by local government leaders in the implementation of decentralized agricultural extension services. In that regard respondents were asked to identify

limitations they normally face during the implementation of decentralized agricultural extension services. Their responses are as indicated in Table 8.

Table 8: Distribution of Respondents According to Identified Limitations in Implementation of Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services (N=54)

Limitations	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of logistic support for extension staff	16	30
Unavailability of agricultural inputs to farmers	11	20
Inadequate number of extension staff	7	13
No clear line of command to extension staff	6	11
Lack of markets for agricultural produce	6	11
Extension services not available on time	5	9
No response	3	6
Total	54	100

The results from Table 8 show that 94 percent of respondents encountered limitations during implementation of decentralized agricultural extension services, while 6 percent reported to have not experienced problem at all. About 30 percent of respondents reported lack of logistic support for agricultural extension staff as the major limitation that impairs performance of decentralized agricultural extension services. Literature clearly revealed that although some of the extension staff were given bicycles or motorcycles often on loan, so that to ensure that they are mobile; lack of adequate supply and high fuel cost complicates the situation (Mwandry, 1992). From the results, it is obvious that the identified limitations that impaired implementation of provision of agricultural extension services under the LGAs are not different from the past (prior to decentralization). Other limitations are as summarized in Table 8. Suggestions provided by local government leaders to reduce or solve the above mentioned limitations are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Respondents Suggestions to Solve or Reduce Identified Limitations (N=54)

Suggestions	Frequency	Percentage
Provision of logistic support to extension staff	15	33
Improve supply of agricultural inputs	12	26
Improve participatory planning	6	13
Increase number of extension staff	6	13
Improve marketing system	5	11
Let extension staff implement their working plans	2	4
Total	54	100

Local government leaders had several suggestions on what should be done to reduce the identified limitations. These suggestions are as summarized in Table 9. About 33 percent suggested that extension staff should be provided with logistic support. Others 13 percent of respondents suggested that the central government should increase the number of extension staff. However during one of informal interview, one of Councilors (retired agricultural extension staff) stated that shortage of extension staff could be solved by creating conducive working environment that made them to remain working in the organization (that is LGAs). According to him most of trained agricultural extension staff become frustrated due to unconducive working environment and hence they seek for another organization for better salary and other incentives. This implies that some of local government leaders know the value of agricultural extension staff and requested the LGAs to create working environment that attract agricultural extension staff to work at the district and lower level and provide quality agricultural extension services.

4.6 Opinions on Sustainability of Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services

A sustainable extension system must be self-generating in terms of funding, staffing, and a clientele support to allow it to function at a constant level of activity. Sustainability requires a continuing political commitment to extension, well organized and managed

extension system, strong training and formal education to develop human capital and lastly extension must be perceived by farmers as useful (Schwartz and Kampen, 1992). Luhasi (1998) pointed out that the type of organizational arrangements, the nature of technology used, the amount of training, institutional capacity building carried out, the level and duration of investment and attention given to current manpower costs have a significant impact on the potential of sustainability of development projects or programmes.

According to UNDP (1995), sustainability of extension services requires on the job training of local staff to take over project activities from their counterparts at the end of project or programme. Dulle (1999) reported that for sustainability purposes, the establishment of another agency, preferably a local NGO, to take over its functions, should accompany the end of extension project or programme. The author added that the project, the government and farmers should facilitate the launching of the proposed organization and ensure that it starts its operation before the project ends. That is, it is essential to have a clearly defined exit strategy prior to project implementation.

Literature clearly reveals that the government funding of extension services in Tanzania has been on the decline since the 1980's. By and large, extension services in Tanzania have been sustained from donor funds channelled through the ministry responsible for agriculture and through numerous NGOs (BACAS, 1997). While many local government derive most of their incomes from agricultural sources such as crop and livestock, they (by tradition) do not have any programmes to support the agricultural sector or agricultural extension in particular. This means that the plans of shifting responsibility for public extension delivery to local governments may cause a lot of disruption and dislocation. Consequently, transferring extension services to local governments will not contribute to

sustainability, at least in the short run, unless there are comprehensive transitional arrangements for shifting this responsibility from central to local governments.

In this study the opinions on sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services were sought and assessed in order to determine local government leaders views on ability of local people to plan and implement extension programme without external support and opportunities seen by local government leaders under decentralized agricultural extension services.

4.6.1 Opinions of Local Government Leaders on Ability to Develop and Implement Agricultural Extension Programme

The idea of decentralizing agricultural extension services to LGAs is likely to lead to several advantages. Among others, is its high possibility of designing agricultural extension programmes that are community based and drawing on local opportunities and constraints (Rutatora and Mattee, 2001b). The study furthermore sought to determine opinions of local government leaders on the sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services. In that regard the respondents were first asked if they were able to develop and implement agricultural extension programme in their areas without external support. The results are indicated in Table 10.

Table 10: Respondents Opinions on Their Ability to Develop and Implement Agricultural Extension Programme (N=54)

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	12	22
No	40	74
No response	2	4
Total	54	100

Results from Table 10 indicate that 74 percent contend that they can't develop and implement their own agricultural extension programme. This implies that respondents didn't see opportunities of having their own programme. Reasons for failure to develop and implement agricultural extension programme are provided in Table 11.

Table 11: Reasons Given by Respondents for Their Failure to Develop and Implement Agricultural Extension Programme

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of funds	24	64
People are not empowered to plan for themselves	5	14
Lack of agricultural inputs	5	14
Inadequate number of extension staff at village level	3	8

The local government leaders had several reasons as why they think they could not develop their own agricultural extension programmes. These reasons are as summarized in Table 11. The majority (65 percent) viewed that the problem is lack of funds. Similar findings was reported by Boon and Femmy (1999) who found that in most LGAs, service delivery is poor due to lack of funds. This implies that the amount of revenue collected by LGAs is hardly enough to meet various development activities in the district. Thus central, local authorities should make efforts and other stakeholders to see how agricultural extension services can be sufficiently funded in order to ensure efficient provision of services.

However, through informal discussion it was revealed that LGAs officials and extension staff lack experience to develop and implement agricultural extension programme as they were used to centrally planned system, which adopted a top down approach and made people at lower levels recipient of messages from top and went ahead and implemented them without questioning them. It is argued that this system never enhanced people's

imagination or creativity. In agricultural extension, this was enhanced by the T&V system which made extension staff dependent on top authorities. According to Kauzeni (1989) the bureaucratic and hierarchical nature of the Ministry responsible for Agriculture never gave extension staff flexibility to plan and implement their programmes. Time was not given to LGAs to prepare themselves adequately. Thus, the idea of decentralizing agricultural extension services never considered the capacity of LGAs.

4.6.2 Opinions of Local Government Leaders on LGAs Ownership of Extension Services

With decentralization, it is expected that perception of farming community including local government leaders is likely to change with regard to extension, where by farmers are going to be more demanding extension services, while staff are going to feel closer to the people they are supposed to serve. The change of perception is likely to create a sense of ownership of agricultural extension services to LGAs stakeholders including local government leaders. The ability of LGAs to own agricultural extension services provide the chance for local government leaders to demand accountability from extension staff and other collaborators and hence sustainable provision of agricultural extension services. Respondents were asked if they felt that agricultural extension services are now fully owned by LGAs. The results are indicated in Table 12.

Table 12: Respondents' Views on LGAs Ownership of Agricultural Extension

Services		
Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	7	13.0
No	47	87.0
Total	54	100

Results from the Table 12 shows that 87 percent viewed that LGAs have not fully owned agricultural extension services in their respective areas. Local government leaders stated that LGAs have not yet given full authority and this might have reduced the morale of managing the agricultural extension services and therefore, LGAs cannot sustain agricultural extension services at acceptable levels. The respondents gave their reasons as to why they felt that LGAs did not yet own agricultural extension services. The results indicated in Table 13.

Table 13: Reasons Given by Local Government Leaders Regarding LGAs Ownership of Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of funds(due to central financial control)	22	41
Still in a transitional period	15	27
Unavailability of extension services to all communities	7	13
Inadequate number of extension staff	2	4
Top down decision making	2	4
No response	6	11
Total	54	100

Results from Table 13 indicates that 41 percent of the respondents think that lack of funds for extension services was a reason that made LGAs not owned fully extension services. Through probing it was found out that despite the effort of government to decentralize agricultural extension services, still central ministries resist to devolve financial powers to LGAs due to lack of trust in the LGAs' ability to perform the new or additional role efficiently and with satisfactory accountability. Other 28 percent argue that they are still in transitional period and it is too early for LGAs to handle everything. During informal discussion, one of Councilor argued that LGAs cannot own extension services because the issue of decentralization is highly dependent on the interest of existing government and its

leadership. From experience when government leaders change in most cases is affected implementation process. The respondent thinks that most LGAs do not have confidence with government as LGAs were abolished and introduced from time to time. A similar observation was made by Khalid in 1988. About 13 percent think that extension services have not yet reached to the targeted community and hence the community failed to recognize the work done by LGAs on provision of extension services.

4.6.3 Opinions of Farmers on Sustainability of Decentralized Agricultural Extension Services

In the past, the traditional extension services were based on a supply driven and top-down approach, whereby extension people was regarded as middlemen and farmers as end users of technology developed by research centres. The idea behind decentralized agricultural extension services lies with increased or active participation of farmers as key stakeholders in the agricultural production (Rutatora and Mattee, 2000). Farmers who were regarded in the past as end users of developed technologies are the key stakeholders on decision making of what type of technology to develop, for whom, how and when. Since most of the key players in agricultural production system have been used to top-down extension service, it was deemed necessary to determine the perceptions of farmers and district based extension staff of opinions on sustainability of decentralized extension services.

Opinions of farmers on sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services were sought through focused group discussions. The discussions aimed to determine their opinions on decentralized extension services in general and to seek their opinions on collaboration needed for decentralized agricultural extension services to be sustainable. Discussions with farmers revealed that decentralized agricultural extension services was generally perceived positively, although the feeling was that agricultural extension cannot

make a significant change due to problems of input supply, markets and credits, issues which were also realized by local government leaders.

Through probes and discussions, farmers were of the opinion that the central government should continue to finance agricultural extension. Regarding the LGAs, farmers argued that LGAs should allocate funds from their own sources (crop cess and livestock levies) for agricultural extension services, in order to assume sustainable decentralized agricultural extension services.

4.6.4 Opinions of Extension Staff on Sustainability of Decentralized Agricultural

Extension Services

Extension staff had negative feelings on sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services due to the lack of funds for extension services. They stated that agricultural extension services is not the priority of LGAs and that there is less possibility for LGAs to allocate funds from their own sources to cover the cost of extension services. Therefore, the ability of LGAs to sustain agricultural extension services at acceptable levels without central government or substantial donor involvement is very low. Thus efforts should be made by central government and LGAs to ensure that agricultural extension services be sufficiently funded for efficient provision of services.

Agricultural extension staff were furthermore concerned that under the direct supervision of LGAs, they were often assigned other non-educational roles; for instance most of Mbinga district extension staff have been assigned the role of being *Mlezi wa Kata* (Ward Patron/Matron), some of which actually undermine their primary educational role. It was observed that under such circumstances extension staff found themselves being engaged in non-professional activities (for example supervision of building of secondary schools). As

a result extension services not provided at expectable level and hence affect its sustainability.

In summary, the findings of this study show that most of respondents were found to perceive positively the decentralized agricultural extension services. However, there are some limitations in the implementation process which require to be overcome for sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter five provides major findings emanating from the results of the study and offers recommendations.

5.1 Conclusions

The following are major conclusions drawn from the findings of the study

1. The study revealed that local government leaders from the study area were aware of decentralized agricultural extension services. Besides, the study findings indicate that most of local government leaders viewed the idea of decentralizing agricultural extension services as worthwhile. The study revealed further that local government leaders thought that under the decentralization set up, LGAs had additional or new roles that should be performed. However, the study revealed that some of the identified additional or new roles were found not to be new as per local government reform official documents.
2. While other studies mainly those which focused on the local government reform, found that local government leaders were positive or optimistic with regard to decentralization, the results of this study show similar findings that local government leaders had fairly positive perception towards the decentralized agricultural extension services. The results indicated that local government leaders expected the improvement on the provision of agricultural extension services under decentralized set up.

3. On the other hand, the study also revealed that perceived limitations for implementation of decentralized agricultural extension services included:
 - Lack of working facilities e.g logistic support for extension staff like transport
 - Inadequate number of extension staff
 - Unavailability of agricultural inputs to farmers
 - Lack of markets for agricultural produce
 - No clear line of command to extension staff
 - Extension services not available on time

4. With regard to limitations facing the decentralized agricultural extension service, respondents provided suggestions aimed at reducing or solving the identified limitations. Some of suggested solutions were:
 - To increase the number of extension staff
 - To improve marketing system for agricultural produce
 - Extension staff should adhere to their work plans
 - Provision of working facilities to extension staff

5. From the study it is clear that based on the performance of decentralized agricultural extension services respondents had negative feelings on the sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services. Reasons which impaired the sustainability of decentralized agricultural extension services as perceived by local government leaders were:

- Lack of ability among local government leaders to develop and implement the agricultural extension programme in their respective areas due to LGAs financial problems.
- LGAs do not own agricultural extension services as per objective of decentralization by devolution.

5.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the results of the study.

1. Local government leaders were found to be aware of decentralized agricultural extension services as well as the additional roles required to be performed by LGAs and local government leaders themselves. Despite the awareness of local government leaders on additional roles, some respondents failed to identify those roles as stipulated in local government reform documents. It is recommended that the local government officials such as district council heads of department need to make sure that they raise the level of awareness among local government leaders on additional roles especially those at ward and village levels through training and campaigns.
2. As the way to ensure the positive perception among local government leaders following decentralized agricultural extension services, it is recommended that agricultural extension staff particularly those based at ward and village should learn to work in participatory development teams, composing of other technical professionals, political leaders and farmers. Under this participatory working approach it is easier for all key stakeholders to work in close partnership with a common goal of improving delivery of quality agricultural extension services.
3. A number of limitations (for example lack of logistic support for agricultural extension staff, inadequate number of extension staff, unavailability of agricultural

inputs to farmers, lack of markets for agricultural produce and extension services not available on time) were found to impair the implementation of decentralized agricultural extension services. In this regard it is recommended that these limitations should be thoroughly examined and relevant strategies (such as to enhance ability of extension staff to network with different sources of technical information for example marketing information and to coordinate with input providers both public and private should be developed). Increasing access of transport facilities and other working tools to extension staff, encouraging farmers co-operatives and private investors to take part in distribution of agricultural inputs by using farmers groups and networking should be given due consideration.

4. From the findings it is clear that financially LGAs were claimed not to be able to provide agricultural extension services in their respective areas. Therefore it is recommended that efforts should be made to create a sense of ownership of agricultural extension services among LGAs key actors. Under such situation it is easier for LGAs to give priority to agricultural extension services and allocate limited resources they have to it rather than depending on central government financial assistance or subventions.
5. Since the survey was only conducted in Mbinga District Council, the findings of this study cannot be claimed to be conclusive and applied elsewhere in Tanzania. It is thus recommended that much more work, employing local government leaders from other categories of local government authorities i.e. (Municipalities and Cities) should be conducted in order to establish more external validity.

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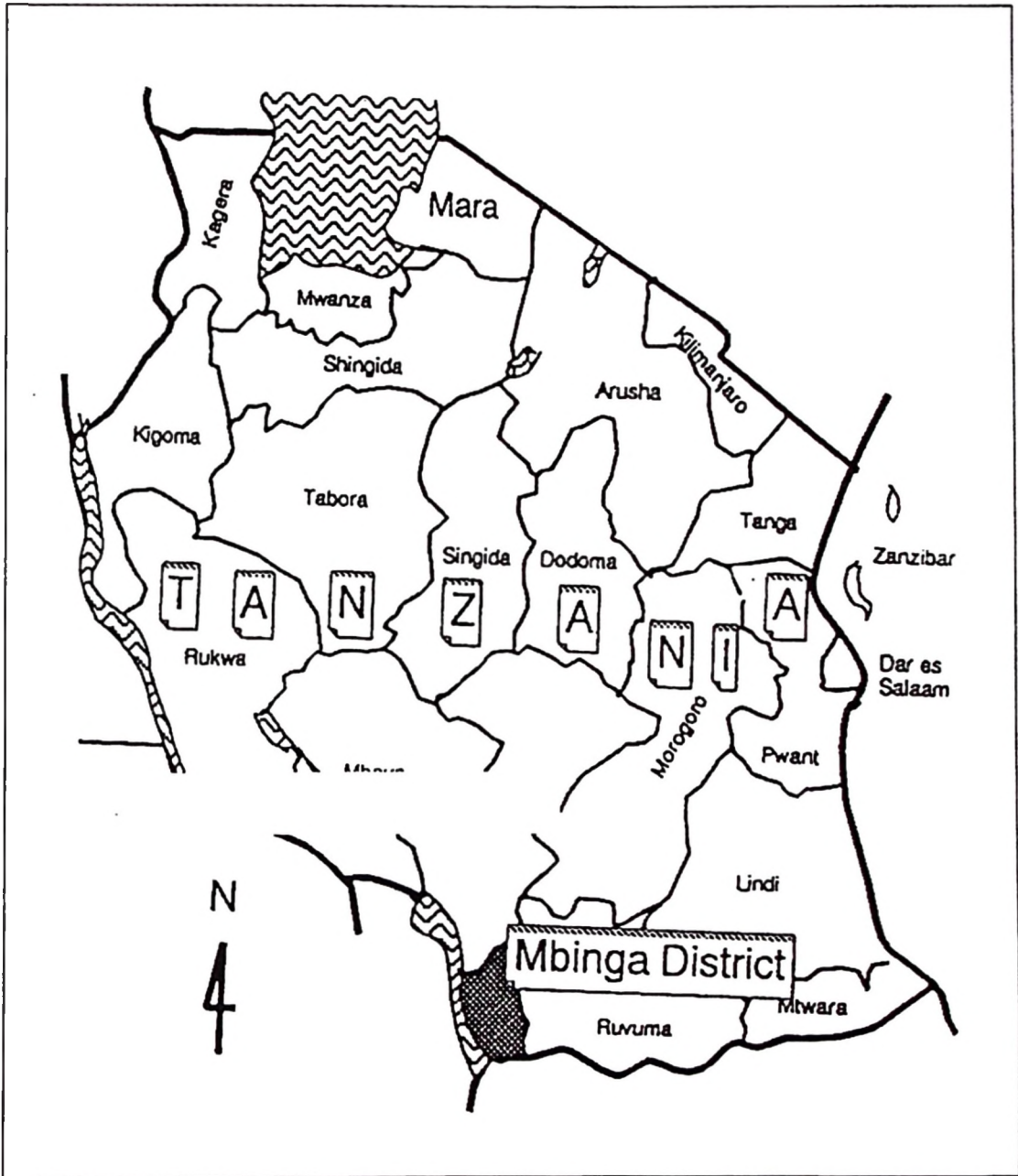
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Map of Tanzania Showing Mbinga District



Appendix 2: Table Showing Divisions, Wards and Villages in Mbinga District

	Wards	Villages
1.Mbinga Urban	1.Mbinga Urban	1. Mbinga Urban 2. Masumini 3. Luwiko 4. Mataware 5. Masasi
	2. Mbangamao	1. Mbangamao 2. Uzena 3. Kikolo 4. Kagugu 5.Makatani 6.Lifakara 7.Maganagana
	3. Kilimani	1.Kilimani 2.Mhekela 3.Mkwaya 4. Sepukila 5.Nzopai
	4.Mpepai	1.mpepai 2.Lipilipili 3.Kihungu 4.Mtua 5.Lipembe 6.Luhangai
	5.Utiri	1.Utiri 2.mtama 3.Kitanda 4.Masimeli 5.Lupilo 6.Mahande
	6.Kigonsera	1.Kigonsera 2.Mkako 3.A/Makoro 4.Mihango 5.Lihale 6.Litorongi
	7.Ukata	1.Ukata 2.Kipololo 3.Litoho 4.Ndaga
	8.Ngima	1.Ngima 2.Wukiro 3.Unango 4.Manzeye 5.Njombe

	9.Mkumbi	1.Mkumbi 2.Longa 3.Kipegei 4.Luwino
	10.Matiri	1.Matiri 2.Mhongozi 3.Mapipili 4.Liwih 5.Kihaya 6.Kilindi
	11.Myangayanga	1.Myangayanga 2.Mateka 3.Kindimba 4.Mundeki 5.Luwaita 6.Tukuzi 7.Kihuka 8.Tanga
	12.Kihangi Mahuka	1.K/Mahuka 2.Lipumba 3.Lukurasi 4.Liula
	13.Linda	1.Linda 2.Silo 3.Ndembo 4.Liyombo 5.Uolela 6.Mkalanga
2.Mbuji	14.Litembo	1.Litembo 2.Mahenge 3.Lituru 4.Mhagawa Asili
	15.Mbuji	1.Mbuji 2.K/Juu 3.Myao 4.Kibanga
	16.Maguu	1.Maguu 2.Mapera 3.Kibandai 4.Kihongo 5.Lukanzauti 6.Kibandai Asili 7.Mkuka
	17.Langiro	1.Langiro 2.Langiro Asili 3.Mkoha 4.Mkoha Asili 5.Kipapa 6.Matuta 7.Kitumbi

	18.Mikalanga	1.Mikalanga 2.Ilela 3.Makongo 4.Ugano 5.Malindindo 6.Matekela 7.Kilindi
	19.Nyoni	1.Nyoni 2.Kihereketi 3.Likwela 4.Kihulila 5.Mitanga
	20.Kitura	1.Kitura 2.Mzuzu 3.Lisau 4.Mahilo 5.Mitambotambo
	21.Mpapa	1.Mpapa 2.Burma 3.Mitawa
3.Mpepo	22.Kingerikiti	1.kingerikiti 2.ukuli 3.Litindo 4.Litindo Asili 5.Lumecha 6.Kimbango 7.Luhangalasi 8.Kikole 9.Mbanga
	23.Tingi	1.Tingi 2.Luhindo 3.Upolo 4.Mpepo 5.Kilindinda 6.Malungu
	24.Liparamba	1.Liparamba 2.Mitomoni 3.Mipotopoto 4.Ndondo
4.Namswea	25.Ruanda	1.Ruanda 2.Paradiso 3.Mtundawalo
	26.Ndongosi	1.Ndongosi 2.K/Juu 3.K/Chini
	27.Litumbandyosi	1.Litumbandyosi 2.Luhagara 3.Kingoli

5. Ruhekei	28. Mbamba Bay	1. Mbamba Bay 2. Chinula 3. Ndengele 4. Ndesule
	29. Kilosa	1. Kilosa 2. Nangombo 3. Ruhekei 4. Likwilu
	30. Mtipwili	1. Mtipwili 2. Chiulu 3. Matenje 4. Malini
	31. Chiwanda	1. kwambe 2. Chimate 3. Ng'ombo 4. Mtupale
	32. Lipingo	1. Lipingo 2. Lindi 3. Ngindo
	33. Liuli	1. Liuli 2. Puulu 3. Mkali 4. Hongi
	34. Kihagara	1. Kihagara 2. Mango 3. Songambebe 4. Tumbi
6. Ruhuhu	35. Lituhi	1. Lituhi 2. Kihuru 3. Ngingama 4. Litumba-Kuhamba 5. Njomole
	36. Mbaha	1 Mbaha 2. Ndumbi 3. Lundu
	37. Ngumbo	1. Ngumbo 2. Liwundi 3. Ndonga 4. Hinga 5. Nkili

**Appendix 3: Interview Schedule for Local Government Leaders of Mbinga District
Council**

**TITLE: PERCEPTION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEADERS ON
DECENTRALIZED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES TO LOCAL
GOVERNMENT AUTHORITIES**

INTRODUCTION

Dear local government leaders, I am conducting this study to seek on your opinions on decentralized agricultural extension services. It is an important study because it can contribute to the improvement of extension services in your area. I am undertaking this study as part of MSc requirements at Sokoine University of Agriculture. Therefore, I am requesting your support and cooperation in this task by responding to the following questions. Any answer or replies made will be kept confidential. No names will be revealed and on the interview form itself, a number known only to me will identify you.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Respondents number.....Village.....Ward.....Division.....

2. What is your ageyears

1. 26-35 []

2. 36-45 []

3. 46-55 []

4. 56-65 []

5. >66 []

3. Sex:

1. Male []
2. Female []

4. Marital status

1. Married []
2. Single []
3. Divorced/Separated[]

5. What is the education level that you attained?

1. No formal education []
2. Adult literacy classes []
3. Primary school education []
4. Secondary school education []
5. Others (Specify).....

6. What is your administrative position in this area?

1. Village chair person []
2. Village executive officer []
3. Ward executive officer []
4. Ward councilor []
5. Others (specify).....

7. How long have you been working in this position?

1. 3 – 5 years []
2. 6 – 10 years []
3. 11 – 15 years []
4. 16 – 20 years []
5. More than 20 years []

8. Before your current position, what position or administrative title did you have?.....

9. Based on your current position what type of district standing committees are you a member of?

10. What responsibilities do you have with regard to each committee of which you are a member? Types(s) of committees and place a (v) under the types of responsibilities

Type of committees		Type of responsibilities		
1		Chair person	Ordinary member	Others (specify)
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				

11. Besides being a member of the above named committees what is your other regular duties?.....

SECTION B: AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEADERS

12. Have you ever heard of decentralization of agricultural extension services to local government authorities?

1. Yes []

2. No []

13. If yes, in which year did you first hear of decentralized extension servicesyear.

14. From whom did you first hear of decentralized extension services?
1. Regional officers []
 2. Ministry officers []
 3. Others (specify).....
15. From your knowledge/ experience what do you understand by decentralization of agricultural extension services?.....
16. With decentralization of extension services to Local Government Authorities (LGA's) do you think there are additional responsibilities/ roles to be played/ performed by LGA's?
17. If yes, what are they?
18. If not, explain.....
19. Personally do you feel that you have additional roles/responsibilities since you have been implementing the decentralized extension services?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
20. In either case, explain.....
21. In view of additional responsibilities and/or role have you been receiving from central government and/or other development partners any type of assistance?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
22. If yes, which types of assistance have you get?.....

**SECTION C: INFORMATION ON EXTENSION SERVICES UNDER
DECENTRALIZATION**

23. Since decentralization, what types of agricultural extension services have been provided to the farmers in your area?.....
24. Are these services different from those that were offered prior to decentralization?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
25. In either case, explain.....
26. How are these services available to farmers in your area?
1. Available on time []
 2. Available but not on time []
 3. Not available at all []
 4. Others (specify).....
27. In case agricultural extension services are not available to your community (farmers) how do you assist them to solve the problem?
1. Report to the relevant officers []
 2. No way to assist []
 3. Others (specify).....
28. Do you think the provision of agricultural extension services by LGAs have been improved?
1. Yes []
 2. No []
29. In either case explain

**SECTION D: EXPECTATIONS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEADERS ON
DECENTRALIZATION**

30. Is the idea of decentralizing agricultural extension services valuable or worthwhile?

1. Yes []

2. No []

31. If yes, what expectations do you have on provision of agricultural extension services under decentralization?.....

32. Based on your expectations, have you now satisfied with the provision of agricultural extension services since decentralization?

1. Yes []

2. No []

33. If yes, how?

34. If not, why?.....

SECTION E: LIMITATIONS UNDER DECENTRALIZATION

35. Are there any constraints impairing the performance of the decentralized agricultural extension services?

1. Yes []

2. No []

36. In either case, explain.....

37. In your opinion, what should be done to solve or reduce the above mentioned problems?.....

38. As a local leader, what limitations do you face under decentralized agricultural extension services to local government authorities?.....

39. In your opinion, how could the limitations be overcome?

SECTION F: OPINIONS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEADERS ON SUSTAINABILITY

40. With currently decentralized extension services, how is your council involved in provision of agricultural extension services?.....
41. From your experience, do you think/feel that agricultural extension services have been now fully owned by local government authorities?
1. Yes []
2. No []
42. Please, explain in either case
43. Do you think that you can develop and implement the extension programme in your area without any external support?
1. Yes []
2. No []
44. If yes, what type of extension programmes that you can develop?.....
45. If not, why?.....
46. In view of the level of performance of decentralization of extension services, do you think that the current decentralized agricultural extension services can be sustained?
1. Yes []
2. No []
47. If yes, how and under what circumstances can it be sustained?.....
48. If not, give reasons.....
49. What support/ collaboration is needed for decentralized extension services to be sustainable?

SECTION G: OPPORTUNITIES SEEN UNDER DECENTRALIZED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES

50. As a local government leader, what benefits do you foresee under the current decentralized agricultural extension

51. What areas in the current decentralized extension services do you think needs to be readdress so as to make extension services more useful and responsive to the community?.....

THANKS VERY MUCH FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

Appendix 4: Interview Schedule for Extension Staff of Mbinga District Council

**TITLE: PERCEPTION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEADERS ON
DECENTRALIZED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES**

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1.Respondentnumber.....Village.....Ward.....Division.....

2.Sex:

1. Male []

2. Female []

3.What is your ageyears

1. 26-35 []

2. 36-45 []

3. 46-55 []

4. 56-65 []

5. >66 []

4. Marital status

1.Married []

2. Single []

3.Divorced/Separated []

5.What is the highest level of education that you attained?

1. Standard seven []

2. Form four []

3. Form six []

4. Others

(Specify).....

6. Please indicate the level of professional training you attained? Village chair person

1. Certificate []

2. Diploma []

3. Degree []

4. Others

(specify).....

7. What is your specialization?

1. Crops []

2. Livestock []

3. Generalist []

4. Others (please specify).....

8. What is your rank.....

9. When were you promoted to your current rank?.....(year)

10. How long have you worked as extension staff.....(year)

11. How many years have you worked in the present working station?

1. 3 – 5

2. 6 – 10

3. 11 – 15

4. > 15

12. How many villages do you serve?.....(number)

SECTION B: EXTENSION STAFFS' OPINIONS ON DECENTRALIZED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES

As an extension staff, what is your opinion of the impact of the decentralized agricultural extension services on the following:

13. Administration of extension services(chain of command)

- 1. Improved
- 2. No change
- 3. Deteriorate
- 4. No opinion

14. Give reason for your answer.....

.....

.....

15. Personal emoluments to extension staff (for example salaries)

- 1. Improved
- 2. No change
- 3. Deteriorate
- 4. No opinion

16. Give reason for your answer.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

17. Effectiveness in provision of agricultural extension services under local government authorities

- 1. Improved
- 2. No change
- 3. Deteriorate
- 4. No opinion

18. Give reason for your answer.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

19. Logistic support (for example working facilities, means of transport, housing)

- 1. Improved
- 2. No change
- 3. Deteriorate
- 4. No opinion

20. Give reason for your answer.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

21. Relationship with other departments, which are still under the parent ministry for example (training and research) ministry of agriculture and food.

- 1. Improved
- 2. No change
- 3. Deteriorate
- 4. No opinion

22. Give reason for your answer.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

23. Overall job satisfaction (training, promotion)

- 1. Improved
- 2. No change
- 3. Deteriorate
- 4. No opinion

24. Give reason for your answer.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

25. After decentralization the flow of information from the district to the parent Ministry and vice versa has go through the district directors and the regional administrative secretaries (RAS), in your opinion do you think that structure affect the flow of technical information from the parent ministry to the lower levels?

1. Yes

2. No

26. Give reason for your answer.....

.....

.....

.....

27. What problems do you encounter as an agricultural extension staff under the local government

authority?.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

28. In your opinion what should be done to solve or reduce the above mentioned problems?.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

SECTION D: OPINIONS OF AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION STAFF ON SUSTANAINABILITY OF DECENTRLIZED EXTENSION SERVICES

29. Since decentralization, what types of agricultural extension services have been provided to the farmers in your village/ward?.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

30. Are these services different from those that were offered prior to decentralization?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

31. In either case, explain

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

32. Is the idea of decentralized agricultural extension services valuable or worthwhile?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

33. In either case, explain.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

34. If yes, what expectations do you have on improvement of provision of agricultural extension services under decentralization?

.....
.....
.....
.....

35. Based on your expectations, are you now satisfied with the improvement that is taking/ taken place since the decentralization of extension services?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

36. If yes, how.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

37. If not, why

.....
.....
.....

38. What benefits do you foresee under the current decentralized agricultural extension services?.....

.....
.....
.....

39. Are there any constraints impairing the performance of decentralized agricultural extension services?

1. Yes

2. No

40. In either case, explain

.....

.....

.....

41. In your opinion, what should be done to reduce the above mentioned constraints?.....

.....

.....

.....

42. What support/ collaboration is needed for decentralized extension services to be sustainable?.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 5: Checklist on Focused Group Discussion for Farmers of Mbinga District

**TITLE: PERCEPTION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEADERS ON
DECENTRALIZED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES**

**SECTION A: AWARENESS OF FARMERS ON DECENTRALIZED
AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES**

1. Have you ever heard of decentralized agricultural extension services?
2. If yes, in which year did you first hear the decentralized agricultural extension services?
3. From whom did you first hear the decentralized agricultural extension services?

**SECTION B: INFORMATION ON DECENTRALIZED AGRICULTURAL
EXTENSION SERVICES**

4. Since decentralization, what types of agricultural extension services have been provided to the farmers in your area?
5. Are these services different from those that were offered prior to decentralized agricultural services? (in either case explain)
6. Is the idea of decentralized extension services valuable or worth while?(in either case explain).
7. What expectation do you have on provision of decentralized agricultural extension services?

**SECTION C: OPINIONS OF FARMERS ON SUSTAINABILITY OF
DECENTRALISED AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION SERVICES**

8. With the current decentralized agricultural extension services, how is your council involved in provision of agricultural extension services?
9. Do you think the provisions of extension services by local government authorities have been improved? (in either case explain)
10. As a farmer, what benefits do you foresee under current decentralized agricultural extension services to local government?
11. From your experience, do you think/feel that agricultural extension services have been now fully owned by local government authorities? (in either case explain)
12. In a view of the level of performance of decentralized agricultural extension services, do you think that the current extension services can be sustainable? (in either case explain)
13. What support/ collaboration is needed for decentralized agricultural extension services to be sustainable? (in either case explain)
14. As a farmer what limitations do you face under decentralized agricultural extension services to local government authorities?
15. In your opinion, how could the limitations be overcome?

THANKS VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION