# THE ROLE OF NGOs IN INTEGRATING GENDER IN LAND CONSERVATION IN REFUGEE AFFECTED AREAS IN TANZANIA:

# A CASE OF NGARA DISTRICT

BY

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## ABSTRACT

A study to examine the role of NGOs in integrating gender in land conservation in refugee affected areas was conducted in Ngara district with the view to recommend strategies that would foster gender sensitive and responsive land conservation projects in these areas. A cross sectional research design which allows collection of information at one point in time was adopted. Data collection process made use of a structured questionnaire which was administered to a sample of 48 men and 48 women. The data collected were then analysed by using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) computer software. Results showed that NGOs in the study area have been involving both men and women in land conservation initiatives mainly through public meetings for awareness creation and training on land conservation and provision of forest inputs. Mobilization through awareness creation public meetings and training was significantly associated ($P<0.05$) with gender integration in land conservation initiatives. The major land conservation activities in which men and women were involved were tree nursery establishment and tree planting Participation of men and women in these activities was significantly associated ($P<0.05$) with their awareness on land degradation and also on land conservation project. The study found that process project planning in land conservation had not been adopted by NGOs. Majority of men and women who were involved in land conservation participated at the level of implementation. It was also observed that formation and/or strengthening of grassroots village environmental committees as part of empowering local communities had not

seriously been addressed. The major factor which was found to limit full gender integration in land conservation was lack of regular mobilization particularly for women. Mobilization of rural men and women through regular and gender balanced public meetings and training on land conservation initiatives, formation and/or strengthening of gender equity village environmental committees and process project planning are highly recommended. Equally important, co-ordination of NGOs land conservation activities at the district level should be established and strengthened.

## DECLARATION

I, STEPHEN BILADADAYE BUJIJI do hereby declare to the SENATE of Sokoine University of Agriculture that the work presented here is may own original work and has not been nor is it concurrently being submitted to any other university or other higher learning institution for the similar degree or any other academic award.

Signature .....

Date 17. 11. 2000.

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## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my father Yohana and my late mother Maria who did not live to witness my struggle, my wife Esther, my sister Adellah and my children Catherine and Noel.

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

| | |
|---|---|
| CARE | Co-operative American Relief Everywhere |
| CARITAS | Roman Catholic Relief & Development Organization |
| CIDA | Canadian International Development Agency |
| DALDO | District Agricultural and Livestock Development Office |
| DNRO | District Natural Resources Office |
| *et al.* | et alii (and others) |
| FAO | Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations |
| GAD | Gender and Development |
| GEMA | Gitenyu, Embu and Meru Association |
| GTZ | Deutsche Gesellshaft fü Technische Zusammenarbeit (Germany Technical Co-operation Corporation) |
| HADO | Dodoma Soil and Water Conservation Project |
| HASHI | Shinyanga Soil and Water Conservation Project |
| HIMA | Iringa Soil and Water Conservation Project |
| i.e. | id est (that is) |
| KAEMP | Kagera Agricultural and Environmental Management Programme |
| KARADEA | Karagwe Development Association |
| KEP | Kagera Environmental Project |
| n | Number of respondents |
| NDDO | Ngara District Development Organization |
| NGOs | Non-Governmental Organizations |
| PGNs | Practical Gender Needs |
| REDESO | Relief for Development Society |
| R | Rural |
| SECAP | Soil Erosion Control and Agroforestry Project |
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|---|---|
| SGNs | Strategic Gender Needs |
| SIDA | Swedish International Development Agency |
| TAF | Tanzania Association of Foresters |
| UN | United Nations |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Programme |
| UNHCR | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees |
| Ur | Urban |
| USAID | United States Agency for International Development |
| WAD | Women and Development |
| WID | Women in Development |
| % | Percent |
| o | Degree |
| ' | Minutes |

# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Background information

Land degradation is one of the major environmental problems facing Sub-Saharan Africa (SIDA, 1993). Among socio-economic causes such as land tenure systems and poverty, rapid population growth has been singled out to be the principal cause of this critical environmental catastrophe (Cleaver & Shreiber, 1992; SIDA, 1993). It has been established that as human population grows excessively bigger (through natural increase or armed conflicts) on an ecological area, it directly exerts pressure on limited land resources, stressing certainly the carrying capacity of soils and forests (Jodi, 1993). The population of Sub-Saharan Africa, according to Cooper *et al.* (1996) has been increasing rapidly since 1935 and was projected to be at the tune of 681 million by the year 2000, with over 50% of this population living in rural areas. Following this population increase, demands for sufficient food production and other basic needs, including fuel-wood, energy and settlements have correspondingly been increasing. To meet and satisfy these demands, rural poor people with limited alternative means of food and energy production have always been extensively clearing natural forests (Kaoneka and Solberg, 1994), causing serious decline in the productive capacity of soil, accelerated soil erosion, siltation of dams and reservoirs, destruction of wildlife habitats, loss of genetic diversity and useful ecosystems, shortage of fuel-

wood/poles and consequently poor agricultural production performance resulting into increasing poverty (Howlett and Nagu, 1997). A recent study conducted on deforestation in tropical Africa found out that expansion of subsistence farming causes an annual loss of between 1.3 and 3.7 million ha of tropical forests (Boahene, 1998).

The severity of the problem of land degradation in some parts of Africa, has further been aggravated and compounded to a greater extent by large influxes of refugees, fleeing their countries due to civil wars and armed conflicts (UNHCR, 1999). In places where they settle, land clearing for refugee camp sites, construction materials, fuel-wood and agricultural crop production constitute a major threat to forest resources (Ashley, 1992; Babu and Hassan, 1995). UNHCR (1999) estimates that in 1999, there were over 3 million refugees on the continent of Africa hosted in different African countries, Tanzania inclusive.

Given the intensity and extent of the problem of land degradation (and other socio-economic problems) in Africa and the limited resource ability to halt it, the affected African governments have always been given tremendous support by international donor community directly and of more recent through NGOs (Braton, 1989). It has been extensively reported that since the mid 1980s, NGOs have increasingly been playing major roles in influencing rural development (Braton,1989). More importantly, they have been playing a critical role in addressing the problem of land degradation in Africa through afforestation and communal lands management

programmes (Virtanen, 1991; Vivian and Ghai, 1994) and have in many instances, recorded success in various places. NGOs' successful performance in land conservation and other rural development initiatives has been associated with their participatory approaches (Fowler, 1991; Clarke, 1996; Riddell and Robinson, 1992a cited by Marcussen, (1996) which fundamentally ensure involvement of beneficiaries in development project planning and implementation. It has further been argued that NGOs possess the ability to reach the poor and, while working more closely with marginalised communities, become an instrument of empowerment of the poor that will eventually enable them to take control of their political and economic decisions (Braton, 1989). This empowerment, the argument advances, is achieved through strengthening of community based institutions or 'people's organisations' (Fowler, 1991). In the same vein, NGOs have been seen as being in a forefront to promote gender equity (Clarke, 1996) in which men and women are equally seen as managers of natural resources and are able to determine and participate in the development process (Panda and Lund, 1998).

In Tanzania, NGOs (mainly foreign) have been playing major roles in areas ranging from basic education to health care, from social welfare to agricultural extension, and of our interest, to environmental conservation, although literature on their involvement in these development endeavours is still not readily available (Marche and Ruvuga, 1994). Recent years, have witnessed the mushrooming of local NGOs with different objectives such as rural development, gender sensitization and equity

and environment conservation. On the aspect of environmental protection, these local NGOs in collaboration with, and in many quarters funded by foreign NGOs, have been engaged in land conservation in different areas in Tanzania. Besides addressing environmental problems in areas which have naturally been degraded by indigenous population, several NGOs have notably been involved in land conservation in refugee affected One of such areas has been Ngara district, Kagera region, where, soon or later after the Burundi and Rwanda refugee episode of 1994, numerous local as well as international NGOs responded to its environmental rehabilitation. Amongst these many NGOs were Deutsche Gesellshaft fu Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) and Ngara District Development Organization (NDDO).

GTZ is a German NGO that has been co-ordinating and carrying out activities of Kagera Environmental Project (KEP-GTZ) which was started in July 1996 to operate in the refugee affected districts of Biharamulo, Karagwe and Ngara, with a long term goal to enable local communities and refugees carry out efficient natural resources practices in these districts through participatory approach (KEP-GTZ, 1998). The project was jointly funded by the European Union and the governments of Germany and Tanzania. NDDO on the other hand, is a local non-governmental organization which was established in 1987, with an overall objective to improve the standard of living of the rural communities in Ngara district. To realize this broad objective, it has been undertaking among others, environmental

conservation, promotion of energy saving rural technology and increasing participation of women in development activities through gender sensitisation and training.

## 1.2. Problem statement

NGOs in the developing countries have been appreciated of being major instrumental agents in land conservation initiatives (Mvududu *et al.*, 1993; Vivian and Ghai, 1994) as well as promoting rural development. This appreciation is based generally on the ground that these organisations have been able to adopt participatory approaches which guarantee full involvement of target beneficiaries in the development project planning and implementation (Clarke, 1996). This widely held assumption tends to take for granted that people's participation involves naturally both men and women But experience has shown that, very often, what is termed people's participation has, in many instances been lacking gender sensitivity. Quite often, women who are the major users of land resources have not adequately been involved in designing and implementation of development projects probably due to prevailing socio-economic/cultural factors in a given social setting or mobilizational (on the part of the change agents) factors. Some or all of these factors may or may not influence gender integration in land conservation initiatives even in refugee affected areas of Tanzania in general and Ngara district in particular.

## 1.3. Justification of the study

Although NGOs have been involved in land rehabilitation in refugee affected areas in Tanzania, little is known on their role in integrating gender in this development process. The interest has been rather on the area of coverage, quantity and quality of outputs more than on the gender integration process. Thus, there is a conspicuous lack of empirical information on the link between gender and land conservation in refugee affected areas which may determine the sustainability or non-sustainability of the latter. Findings of the present study including major constraints that limit gender integration in land conservation in refugee affected areas will be useful to NGOs /government in formulating gender sensitive strategies that will ensure full gender integration in land conservation and its sustainability in these areas.

## 1.4. Objectives of the study

### Broad objective

The broad objective of this study was to investigate the role of NGOs in integrating gender in land conservation in refugee affected areas in Ngara district in an effort to generate useful information that will assist government and NGOs to design gender sensitive and gender responsive programmes in land conservation in refugee affected areas.

**Specific objectives**

a) To find out strategies that were adopted by NGOs in land conservation in refugee affected areas in Ngara district

b) To establish type of gender integration in land conservation in the study area.

c) To identify factors that influence gender integration in land conservation in the study area

d) To assess the potential sustainability of land conservation initiatives promoted and supported by NGOs in the study area.

## 1.5. Hypotheses

**Null hypothesis**

Success and sustainability of land conservation does not depend on NGOs' gender responsive participatory planning strategies.

**Alternative hypothesis**

Success and sustainability of land conservation depends on NGOs' gender responsive participatory planning strategies

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1. Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

Ahmed et al (1991) cited by Lewis (1992) defined non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as all those organizations which are involved in various development activities with the objective of alleviating poverty of the rural and urban poor. Braton (1989) categorised them into three principal categories. The first category encompasses those community based associations which are small and intimate membership organizations; normally run by members themselves and rely primarily on limited local resources. The second category consists of national NGOs which may be either membership or service organizations, with small professional staff which provide support in the form of information exchange, management training or policy representation to community associations below. Finally, there are those international relief and development agencies which are pure service organisations, with large number of professional staff, field offices in several countries and world-wide budgets (sometimes comparable in size to those of smaller governments in Africa). In line with the definition and categories of NGOs provided above, Clarke (1996) identified four essential attributes of these organisations:

a) They are voluntarily formed and have an element of voluntary participation.

b) They are independent entities, being controlled only by those people who formed them or bodies to which have been delegated responsibilities for control and management.

c) They are not for profit, even where revenues are generated, they are used for the pursuit of their aims and goals.

d) They are not self-serving, existing only to improve life, circumstances and prospects of the disadvantaged and poor people in society.

The definition of NGOs given by Ahmed and others does not, however mention and include similar organisations such as Africa Confidential, Africa Watch and Amnesty International which are involved in issues concerning defence of human rights and promotion of democratization process which, perhaps are equally essential conditions for sustainable development.

## 2.2. NGOs in Africa

Braton (1989) traces the existence of NGOs in Africa from pre-colonial period. The author argues that during pre-colonial period, NGOs existed in the form of

organised collective action based on social network kinship and extended family whose major objective was to ensure its means of subsistence. During colonial period on the other hand, NGOs existed in the form of churches and missionary societies which became principal providers of particularly health and education services, since the colonial states stood aloof from rural development and concentrated essentially on regulatory functions of law and order. Within this period the narrative argument further goes, some indigenous African NGOs also existed and grew into ethnic welfare groups and professional associations that later formed substantially building blocks of the nationalist political parties that won independence in the 1960s. Fowler (1991) supporting this argument, gives the Gikuyu, Embu and Meru Association (GEMA), the Luo, and Akamba associations of Kenya and the co-operative association belonging to Wameru of northern Tanzania as examples of indigenous NGOs that provided an organisational basis for civil resistance and agitation against colonial rule.

In his discussion on post-colonial development policies in Africa, Braton, (1989) asserts that, immediately after independence in the 1960s, African states introduced conventional development models in which the states themselves assumed directly the responsibility for bringing about socio-economic development and adopted approaches based on top-down planning strategy that would produce major changes and improvement in the well-being of the poor ordinary citizens. Discussing the same development paradigm in its historical context, Balogun *et al.*,

(1998) maintain that the view which was instituted in the post-colonial development planning and policy reforms was that the challenges of rapid modernization would be met and the gains of independence consolidated and distributed evenly among citizens only if the central government took the lead in economic planning and management. Implementation of this economic development policy resulted into profound proliferation of state sectoral institutions which were given the responsibility of implementing various centrally planned development projects. The analysts further accuse these policies that, even where conditions and administrative logic dictated making use of local institutions and resources, government would impose a project from above on local communities which could be implemented by an urban-based cadre of officials from the respective sector. The argument concludes that under this conventional model of economic planning, voluntary/non-governmental institutions and/or groups, overshadowed by states powers, became weakened and their traditional role in social development dwindled altogether.

Ex-post evaluation of this development strategy carried out later, revealed that, after two or so decades of central planning and direct state involvement in development process, most African governments showed limited ability to provide social services and respond to felt needs of the poor particularly at rural grass-root community level (Braton, 1989; Fowler, 1991; Marcussen, 1996; Balogun *et al.*, 1998).

One of the reasons advanced was that, this institutional landscape development had brought with it a bundle of inefficiencies (Farrington *et al.*, 1993). First it has been argued that these institutions lacked information about and flexibility to adapt to local conditions (Balogun *et al.*, 1998) and that knowingly or unknowingly, the centralised planning and decision-making led increasingly to growing classes of urban-based functionaries (Farrington *et al.*, 1993) with very loose attachment and reduced responsiveness to local communities, which in turn led easily to poor and generally slow implementation of the development projects at this very level.

Secondly, these institutions were often used for political patronage to deliver resources and services to politically favoured areas (Hyden, 1983) and in certain instances, practised 'economy of affection', motivated by kinship relations and interests and sometimes giving jobs to party members and/or cadres perhaps without even considering the expertise required. This, in the long run made the costs of maintaining these state structures to be more or less bigger than those meant for project implementation and in an economic sense, usually diverted resources from other potentially more productive uses.

Given the excesses of African states' inefficiency, coupled with abject poverty among rural communities, an alternative institutional arrangement that would alleviate or at least retard the rate of poverty among rural poor, strengthen civil society and promote participatory grass-roots development became a necessity (Farrington *et al.*, 1993). This alternative institutional array was sought and found

in the realm of voluntary, self-help and more so non-governmental organisations. Thus, since the mid 1980s, all African countries have continued to witness mushrooming and growth of both local and foreign NGOs (Baldwin, 1988 cited by Braton, 1989). In Kenya for instance foreign NGOs grew from 37 to 134 during 1978-87 and local NGOs took off from 57 to 133 within the same period, an annual average growth rate of 10 and 8 foreign and local NGOs respectively. In Tanzania, the 1994 official statistics obtained from the office of the Prime Minister indicate that, there were 749 and 64 local and foreign NGOs respectively (URT, 1995) involved in social and environmental development. The number of these organisations may currently be higher, assuming that their rate of growth kept on an increase. Although precise figures are not easily available, comparable growth rates of local and foreign NGOs in other African countries have been reported (Fowler, 1991).

The growth of local African NGOs, however, has been undergoing institutional problems. First, these institutions are weak and deeply dependent on foreign donor and/or NGOs financial support and normally serve merely as conduit for the external assistance they are provided (Balogun *et al.*, 1998). As a result, it has been argued, the source of funding usually sets and dictates the priority of interests and therefore control the programme of action (Mwansa, 1995). Secondly, creation of local NGOs has not always been the exclusive domain of common citizens who do not have political or government leadership. Political leaders or

senior government officers sometimes have established NGOs mainly for their own purposes which may or may not be consonant to those of the rural poor. Fowler (1991) provides an example where a senior minister in Zimbabwe established Manicaland Development Association which has been receiving millions of dollars from foreign donors, hence enabling this government senior official to dominate all governmental, political and civic positions in his home area. The same phenomenon is evidenced by formation of various Development Associations (DAs) mainly by professional and senior public officials in many African countries (Fowler, 1991).

Foreign NGOs on the other hand are typically financially strong being financed by their home governments and in many occasions, do finance activities of the local African NGOs and have, more often than not their own self interests which become the primary purpose and guide for their actions (Mwansa, 1995).

## 2.3. The role of NGOs in natural resources management in Africa

### 2.3.1. Evidence

It has been extensively documented that, NGOs have increasingly been at the centre of the renewed search for promotion of sustainable natural resources development and management particularly in rural areas in Africa (Virtanen, 1991;

Kaluli and Tiffen, 1992; Mung'ala *et al.*, 1993; Mvududu *et al.*, 1993; Vivian and Ghai, 1994; Clarke, 1996). Virtanen (1991) and Mvududu *et al.* (1993) in their separate studies on the role of NGOs in natural resources management in Zimbabwe, found that these organisations had been involved in afforestation and communal lands management in rural areas since the mid 1980s; and their participation in mobilising rural people to participate in tree planting and agroforestry had already become more popular. Mung'ala *et al.* (1993), have reported that in 1993, more than 75 NGOs were involved in rehabilitating degraded and gulled areas in Kenya through tree planting, agroforestry, terracing and gully rehabilitation. Some of these organisations were (and may still be) found in very remote areas of the country which have received less attention from public sector extension services (Musyoka *et al.*, 1991), working closely with different local communities to solve natural resources management problems and other locally identified needs, with an emphasis on training of indigenous people to adopt new and improve indigenous natural resources management technologies. In Tanzania examples of NGOs' involvement in land conservation are provided by a Swedish NGO which, in collaboration with Tanzania Association of Foresters (TAF), a local NGO, supported tree planting in Karatu, Arusha between 1986 and 1993 (Axelson and Harborg, 1994) and GTZ which supported Soil Erosion Control and Agroforestry Project (SECAP) in the Western Usambara Mountains that aimed at dealing with erosion problems caused by excessive demands on land from population growth by introducing an agroforestry system which combined

crop, trees and livestock (Helberg, 1989).

Given the growing importance of NGOs and the disappointment with the performance of foreign aid funded projects implemented by governments, major international multilateral and bilateral donor agencies have recently shifted from funding development projects directly through government channels to NGOs sector (Farrington, 1993; Marcussen, 1996). Substantiating this shift, Graaf (1987) cited by Virtanen (1991) reported that, about 80% of all foreign development aid that reached Zimbabwe in the 1980s came through NGOs, although to a large extent through western NGOs. Marcussen (1996) has further documented that, development aid channelled through NGOs to Africa has increased drastically and dramatically, from $2.7 bn. in 1970 to $7.2 bn. in 1990. The growing importance of NGOs is summed up by Korten (1987) cited by Marcussen (1996:407):

> *In an area of declining financial resources and deepening poverty, both donors and national governments are looking to NGOs as means of getting benefits more directly and cheaply to the poor than governments have been able to accomplish on their own. Many NGOs are becoming increasingly aware of their potential to command national attention and international funding , and of the need and opportunity to exert badly needed leadership in addressing people centred development issues within a broad policy and institutional context that donors and governments have too long neglected.*

The re-direction of multilateral and bilateral donor agencies aid allocation mainly to western NGOs we suspect, might be a strategy of these international organs to control and monitor their money. This poses a challenge and a threat to the legitimacy of African governments' control over these voluntary organizations, since attempts to control them would be against the imperative desire to attract more funding from foreign donor agencies. Commenting on the actual loss of African governments' power over NGOs, Mwansa (1995:73) said:

> *Driven by poverty and want, the recipient state(s) cannot afford to challenge the NGOs lest the assistance is taken to another country. So the state becomes impotent to the extent of capitulating to the demands of NGOs.*

This great official support to NGOs by donors and governments is basically premised on the belief and assumption that, NGOs have greater capacity to promote local popular participation of development projects beneficiaries. Likewise a greater capacity to develop and strengthen local community-based institutions/organisations; with the view to empower marginal groups (DANIDA, 1993 and UNDP, 1993 cited by Marcussen, 1996; Fowler, 1991; Clarke, 1996). Participation and empowerment which are discussed in the following paragraphs, are taken to be prerequisite conditions needed for sustainability of the development project implementation and benefits.

### 2.3.2. Participatory approaches

Various studies conducted on the role of NGOs in social development found that, these voluntary organizations have long realised that participation by intended beneficiaries in the design, implementation and evaluation of development project activities is able to enhance markedly their effectiveness and sustainability (Marche and Ruvuga, 1994; Farrington *et al.*, 1993; Mwansa, 1995). It is also held within the NGOs kingdom that, participation process by itself enhances democracy and creates among beneficiaries a sense of identification and feeling of belonging to the development project process from the begging to the end. Paul (1991) cited by Farrington *et al.* (1993) cites the enhanced success that was achieved by World Bank supported agricultural development projects in Sub Saharan Africa once women farmers had played a decisive role in their planning and implementation or farmers' groups had actively participated in the operation and maintenance of irrigation schemes. What is proclaimed in people's participation is that, a sense of independence and self confidence coupled with a sense of control and self determination is parted in and among the grassroots poor who will use and sustain the project benefits for their own envisaged social development.

Variations however, exist in the ways in which participation is usually defined and applied. Biggs (1989) cited by Farrington *at el.* (1993) and Howlett and Nagu (1997) identified four levels or degrees of participation:

a) Contractual participation or participation for material incentives in which researchers/planners merely hire inputs for example, labour and fields from farmers, but make little or no effort to seek farmers' opinions.

b) Consultative participation in which farmers' opinions or answers to questions are actively sought by the researchers/planners who then on their own develop solutions to the problems.

c) Collaborative or functional participation in which change agents and farmers become partners in the research/planning process.

d) Collegiate or interactive participation in which farmers participate and interact with researchers/planners as equals in joint analysis, development of plans and formation or strengthening of local grassroots institutions.

The classification of the concept of participation outlined above suggest clearly that, where the third and fourth participation levels are applied, the chances of project's benefits to be sustainable are likely to be much wider since people will have actively participated in the development of a project that really addresses and meets the needs priorities and objectives identified by themselves. Nonetheless, even these two levels of participation should always be treated with caution, as they might not be gender sensitive. Where, for instance men and women are not

fully involved in any development intervention, sustainability of such development project is invariably open to doubt. Thus NGOs' work in participation must therefore be looked at and assessed primarily from its depth of interaction with target beneficiaries and from gender perspective considerations.

It is from the above conceptual interpretation of the term that, some scholars have occasionally questioned NGOs' participation approaches. Some studies conducted on the work of NGOs in rural areas in African countries found out that collaborative and collegiate participation has not always been exclusively characteristic of them. Marcussen (1996) in his review of Norwegian NGOs' work in Ethiopia and Mali found that some of these NGOs' use of food for work generally imposed on local communities in Mali with little or no discussion did demonstrate lack of collegiate level of participation expected of them. Mwansa (1995) with an experience of NGOs working in Zambia, asserts that more often than not, NGOs come with their own priority of felt needs which may not necessarily be in the interest and priority of the recipients and impose them to (rural) poor people in which they are, of necessity, required to participate. He gives an interesting example in which rural people in northern Zambia refused to participate in and rejected a water and sanitation project introduced by an Irish NGO mainly because the same NGO ignored and violated the principles of working with people to plan and establish their needs and priorities. Kamerwa *et al* (1994) reported that, USAID/UNDP supported women's agroforestry project in

Uganda that was introduced in 1990 on the request of a few women's groups, encountered difficulties arising from non-involvement of men who regarded the women's activities as a challenge to their traditional authority. These case studies demonstrate that NGOs' philosophy of participation should not be taken for granted that it always ensures deeper levels of involvement of the poor beneficiaries and promotion of gender equity.

Other scholars further suspect that some NGOs' project planning may contribute to the poor participation of the beneficiaries. In many instances where the project does not stipulate the prospects for early economic gains, rural poor may not be attracted to participate in it chiefly because their time, (mostly the only economic resource available to the poor) that would be spent on the project has economically opportunity cost and they may therefore decide to spend it in other activities that are deemed economic to them (Farrington *et al.*, 1993). Thus, nature and scope of the project to be carried out may encourage or discourage participation of beneficiaries in its implementation and sustainability and also the achievement of empowerment.

### 2.3.3. Empowering approaches

It has sufficiently been noted by majority of analysts (Cernea, 1988 cited by Marcussen, 1996); Mwansa, 1995) that since the 1980s, most NGOs have encouraged and supported the act of empowering rural people in order to enhance

their own development direction. This act of empowerment has normally taken the form of formation of new or strengthening existing local institutions/organisations with the view to create and raise awareness and consciousness among disadvantaged and marginal groups in society and create social responsibility and opportunities among them.

However, empowerment is a difficult term to define and gives a wide range of interpretations. Some see empowerment approach to sustainable development as chiefly concerned with enhancing decision-making autonomy at grassroots level, local self-reliance and direct practise of democracy that will enable rural poor to decide upon and take actions they believe as essential to their development (Friedmann, 1992 cited by Farrington *et al.*, 1993). Others see it as development of skills and abilities of rural people to enable them manage better, have a say to or negotiate with existing development delivery systems. Thus meaningful empowerment requires development of both skills and democratic environment that will ensure self decision making. Within these propositions, NGOs have claimed that strengthening of local membership organisations and building base capacity will definitely contribute to the rupture of rural poverty cycle a situation where by poor people will be enabled to determine and enjoy the fruits of their labour (Farrington *et al.*, 1991). It has been argued however that, because poor people encounter enormous constraints in the process of organizing themselves and coming together as a group, NGOs have increasingly been playing a decisive

and valid role in facilitating the strengthening and/or formation of local institutions in response to locally identified needs and priorities in the broader context of democratization of social development (Farrington *et al.*, 1991). Mwansa (1995) reported that some NGOs' success in Zambia had been demonstrated by the extent to which they had empowered the disadvantaged people at personal, group or community levels. He further contends that NGOs have assisted disadvantaged people to break out of helplessness in an effort to make them control effectively their own development direction and eventually determine their own self destiny. Marcussen (1996) also admitted that the NGOs working in Ethiopia and Mali he had surveyed seemed to have recorded some achievement in empowering local groups/institutions.

Within this grassroots development paradigm, some NGOs, if not all, have reportedly been pursuing gender equity in which men and women are equally seen as managers of natural resources and able to learn increasingly to articulate their needs and their established rights (Clarke, 1996) in the development interventions they have been supporting. Several studies have reported that NGOs have demonstrated the process of empowerment by introducing joint forest/natural resources management which aim at land conservation in which local communities are given responsibility and opportunity to manage forests resources within their area of jurisdiction and use them sustainably (Arora, 1994; Das, 1994; Wily, 1997). This strategy has enabled rural people to regain more ownership

rights as well as more access to benefits from forests resources they were deprived of by governments' regulatory powers. As a result, there have been significant improvements in the management of forest resources that had previously been under communal threat (Arora, 1994; Wily, 1997) and it is now gaining popularity among developing countries.

Some authors however, have come to note that empowerment may not benefit equally all segments of rural population (Mwansa, 1995; Farrington *et al.*, 1993). They argue that, in many cases, existing or newly formed local institutions/groups may likely be dominated by elites and also tend to be characterised by predominance of men over women which may certainly hinder efforts towards promotion of meaningful gender equity which is briefly explained in the following pages.

## 2.4. Gender

Panda and Lund (1998) define gender as a socio-cultural construct that defines the relationship between men and women in a specific social setting. It further identifies the roles that men and women play in socio-economic development process. In most African societies, gender reflects unequal relationships of power between men and women, manifested in labour division, access to and control over resources and participation in decision - making and subordination of women by men at both household and community levels. It has been reported that these

unequal relations between men and women emanate largely from and are wholly perpetuated by customary and statutory laws, belief systems and religious ideologies (Kawa, 1999).

## 2.5. Gender roles in natural resources management

### 2.5.1. Division of labour

Empirical evidence has clearly shown that women have, throughout most of the sub-Saharan Africa, traditionally been active managers of land resources such as forests and other natural resources more than men have (Turfe, 1988; Picard, 1996; Monyo, 1997) and have been contributing a great amount of their labour in their use, management and development (FAO, 1989; Monyo, 1997). Women possess unique knowledge about indigenous varieties of forests products and wild plants. They use fuelwood as their primary source of household energy. They also depend on forest products for fodder for livestock, fencing material, herbs for medicinal purposes and wild fruits/plants for domestic consumption and for carrying out income generating activities and have developed coping strategies that ensure sustainable use of forestry resources (Picard, 1996).

Besides their labouring on natural resources management, women in sub-Saharan Africa are the major agricultural food producers (Monyo, 1997). Evidence shows that around 98% of economically active women in rural areas in Tanzania are fully

attached to agricultural production (FAO, 1994 cited by Makauki, 1999) and they contribute substantially to both subsistence and commercial earnings. However, despite being managers of natural resources and major food producers, women have had less if any, access to, control and decision-making over them.

### 2.5.2. Access to and control over resources

In Africa, there is a tremendous disparity between men and women in access to and control over services, benefits and resources particularly land. Picard (1996) reported that, in many African countries, women do not have rights to own land, although there are some exceptions. The author further reported that even where women have access to use land such use rights do not allow them to acquire title to the land and that these use rights apply only as longer as they remain married. Assessing land tenure systems in Tanzania, FAO (1994) cited by Makauki (1999), reported that women were disadvantaged in access to land as compared to men. The documentation reported that, even where women possessed land, such plots were smaller and the trend was virtually towards landlessness among women. However, it is to our expectation that, the newly introduced national land policy of Tanzania, will correct this gender biased land ownership, although the country's agricultural and livestock policy which emphasises equality in land ownership that has been existing for a couple of years has done little to rectify this shortcoming.

The unequal land ownership between men and women has untold impact on land conservation initiatives and innovations (Tiruneh and Rahmato, 1994). Lack of secure access to land, for instance, discourages women from investing on it. A study on tree planting by men and women in Zimbabwe for example, demonstrated that, women were significantly less likely to plant trees on homestead land where the security of their duration of tenure was uncertain due to the likelihood of change in marital status (Fortmann *et al.*, 1997). In other places there is normally a conflict between men and women on the choice of tree species to be planted. Rocheleau and Rocheleau (1990) reported that, a farm alley cropping system using *Leucaena leucocephala* and *Cassia siamea* that was introduced in Machakos district, Kenya to promote soil fertility and moisture retention and availability of fuelwood among women failed because men trimmed the trees for poles and sometimes allowed periodic browsing by goats so that the desired mulch and fuelwood were not obtained by women. Such gender differences in property rights and use reduce the role of women in land conservation.

### 2.5.3. Decision-making

It has been documented that women in most of African countries still suffer from low level of participation in decision-making at various levels (Picard, 1996). Their low level has been reflected in their under representation in the upper ranks of government, planning bodies and research/scientific/agricultural institutions.

Makauki (1999) reported that, according to FAO (1994), women are severely underrepresented in national decision making bodies in Tanzania. The author cited data produced by FAO, which show that out of 20 Permanent Secretaries, there was only one single woman, although the situation was different in the Ministry of Community Development, Women Affairs and Children in which, 40% of its decision-makers was women, most probably due to its nature and scope. The situation is even worse at local levels, particularly in rural areas.

Lack of participation in decision-making in the development process on the part of women has had a connotation that their vital role and indigenous knowledge in production systems have been ignored or neglected. Agricultural and natural resources development project plans that were introduced and carried out in the 1960s and 1970s excluded women's participation. Such project planning strategies made a false assumption that development interventions would affect men and women in the same way. Planners and policy makers failed to realise that any development intervention has differential impact on men and women and that excluding one segment of this population would not ensure sustainable and equitable development. Consequently, most of the development projects in Africa realised less success (Monyo, 1997), resulting into unsustainable natural resources management and continued deterioration of environment thereof. Some commentators argue that, women became the visible victims of these development initiatives/process (Moser, 1991) as their needs and priorities were not instituted in such development project plans.

### 2.5.4. Evolution of Gender and Development

The realization of the paramount role of women in the development process and the global wind of change that was blowing around women's emancipation in the 1970s, attracted both academicians and activists to call for re-orientation in these gender blind development planning policies. They henceforth recommended integration of women in the mainstream of development planning process. Such challenges provided a platform for the emergence of the Women in Development (WID) approach whose broad objective was to bring effective development by integrating women into the existing development projects (CIDA and Match Int., 1992 cited by Panda and Lund (1998). Sometime later, WID approach was criticised for not challenging the root causes of gender-based inequalities and it was subsequently substituted by the Women and Development (WAD) approach. Like its predecessor, the approach concentrated on women's needs and own projects and ignored societal aspects which contributed to the structural gender inequalities in which women were still entangled.

Though WID and WAD approaches had the woman as their centre of analysis, yet their strategies did not focus essentially on the means and ways of empowering women and also looked at women as a separate social entity. The weaknesses of WID and WAD and the desire to promote equitable development that would involve and enable men and women in improving their conditions and determine

their social destiny, provided fertile ground for the emergence of Gender and Development (GAD) approach in the 1980s (Panda and Lund, 1998), the same period that witnessed the turning point in the mushrooming and growth of NGOs Braton (1989).

The main emphasis of GAD approach is on empowerment of disadvantaged men and women through addressing their practical needs and priorities determined by themselves to improve their own socio-economic conditions. The approach is primarily concerned with the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities and expectations to men and women with a major goal to promote equitable, sustainable development with men and women as political and economic decision makers at both household and community levels. Within GAD approach, there have been developed several gender analysis tools which are commonly used to test different gender issues in the development initiatives. These tools include Harvard Analytical Framework, Moser Framework, and Gender Analysis Framework (Panda and Lund, 1998).

Harvard Analytical tool looks mainly at three major profiles namely; the activity profile which provides all productive and reproductive tasks and duties of men and women and also different age-groups, the access to and control profile which identifies the resources used and who has the control over them and associated benefits and influencing factors which outline the factors such as economic and/or

political that perpetuate gender differentiation in a given society. The major weakness of this tool that has been identified by gender analysts is that it overlooks diversity and conflicts of interest among women.

Moser Framework focuses on the different gender needs and priorities of men and women through a basic distinction of practical and strategic gender needs, where practical gender needs (PGNs) refer to their engendered situation within the gender based division of labour, while strategic gender needs (SGNs) refer to the subordinate position of women in comparison with men; i e. gender relations of power between men and women. The main emphasis of this method is changing gender relations as they entail power relations although, its scope does not go beyond gender which may give chances for sources of women's subordination to be overlooked.

Gender analysis framework looks at the impact of any development intervention upon men and women at household and community levels. The method considers gender based division of labour, time resources and socio-cultural factors as parameters of analysis in development project process. The main shortcoming of this method is that, it focuses broadly on project rather than policies (Panda and Lund, 1998).

Thus, these gender analysis tools are essential building blocks for effective gender sensitive project planning as they reveal how gender difference defines people's rights, responsibilities and opportunities in resources management.

GAD approach has so far influenced some re-orientation of the role of men and women in socio-economic development. Several studies have reported active participation of women in development interventions particularly in natural resources conservation and also in addressing the problem of land degradation (Hyma *et al.*, 1993; Bajracharya, 1994).

## 2.6. Land degradation in Africa

### 2.6.1. General overview

Land degradation is one of the developing countries' most processing environmental problems, Sub Saharan Africa in particular (SIDA. 1993). Both natural and social scientists agree that, though natural factors such as soils, topography, vegetation and climate do determine to a lesser extent, forms and severity of land degradation, population growth emanating from natural increase or from refugees has been reported to be the most direct contributing factor to this process. Evidence shows that rapid population growth exerts intense pressure on land resources (forests) mainly for the expansion of croplands, pasture, energy,

wood and shelter (Kikula, 1998). Africa, with the world's fastest population growth rate (Cooper *et al.*, 1996) has increasingly been experiencing high rates of land degradation through deforestation. It is estimated that 2.3 million ha of open forest-lands were cleared each year between 1980 and 1985 largely for subsistence agriculture (Misana and Nyaki, 1993). However, population density and availability of arable land differ greatly from one country to another in the region. Countries with low per capita arable land and high population growth have been experiencing acute economic and environmental crisis of poor agricultural performance, deforestation, land degradation with marked desertification (World Bank, 1991). In such countries, the traditional shifting cultivation which has been the mode of agricultural production is now under serious stress. As land has become more and more scarce, fallow periods have declined to as little as three years (Larson *et al.*, 1996), which in turn do not allow enough time for soil fertility to be sufficiently restored. As a result, people in their struggle to survive, are forced to move onto marginal lands in semi-arid areas and into tropical forests to establish new and productive croplands.

People's demand for fuelwood, has further extended land degradation. For instance, fuelwood accounted for closer to 80 % of domestic energy needs in Sub Saharan Africa by 1991 (World Bank, 1991) while in Ethiopia and Kenya, it acounted for 93 % of domestic energy generation between 1989 and 1992 (Haile,1989; Omosa *et al.*, 1992) and it has been estimated that, at the current

rates of fuelwood consumption, around one half of Africa's expected around one billion people would experience acute fuelwood energy shortages by the year 2000. Overgrazing has also caused land degradation in the region. Official statistics indicate that there were over 160 million herds of cattle which were grazed on 750 million hactres of which, approximately one quarter has been severely desertified through overgrazing (World Bank, 1991) Tanzania has not been an exception and its case is briefly examined in the following sections.

### 2.6.2. Land degradation in Tanzania

Land resource base, particularly forests in Tanzania has continuously been undergoing more and more depletion (Mnzava, 1988) cited by Misana and Nyaki (1993). It is estimated that the country's forest area has declined from 44,3000,000 ha or 50 % of total land are in 1938 to 38,096,000 ha or 43 % of total land area in 1987 (Mnzava, 1988) cited by Misana and Nyaki (1993). The underlying factor behind rampant land degradation in Tanzania is rapid population growth, which exerts heavily pressure on forest lands primarily for subsistence agricultural production to meet the increasing demands for food and also for energy and shelter supplies.

It is documented that, on the average, about 300,000 to 400,000 ha of forest and bushlands are being cleared annually for subsistence agriculture to increase food production (Misana and Nyaki, 1993). The expansion of croplands has, many

often than not, taken the form of shifting cultivation which has particularly been detrimental to vegetation. Most peasants in many rural areas in Tanzania have been practising slash and burn agriculture whose major result has been certainly destruction of land vegetation cover and further land degradation through soil erosion. It has been recorded that this agricultural practice has had marked impacts on areas where more apparently tobacco production is predominant such as Chunya, Iringa, Songea, Tabora and Urambo districts (Misana and Nyaki, 1993). In these areas, large pieces of land are almost completely cleared annually for tobacco production and abandoned after about three years of cultivation and shift to other fresh areas. Over and above forests are cleared each year for fuel to cure tobacco. It is estimated that tobacco production and processing alone account for an annual deforestation rate of around 2 % in these affected areas.

Continued land degradation is accelerated by increasing household energy demands. It has been established that approximately 90 % of the population in Tanzania rely solely on woodfuel as the major source of household energy (Misana and Nyaki, 1993). Woodfuel production has led to complete depletion of forests within the vicinity of villages, forcing rural women to walk long distances and hours searching for and carrying firewood, hence consuming most of their productive and leisure time and energy. The most affected regions commonly mentioned include Cost, Dodoma, Kigoma, Mbeya, Mwanza, Shinyanga, Singida, Tabora, and Tanga (Misana and Nyaki, 1993). As a result of this combination of

land uses, some estimates indicate that degraded land in Tanzania is between 33 and 45 % of the total land area.

### 2.6.3. Land conservation efforts in Tanzania

Efforts to halt land degradation in Tanzania have, all along been in place before and after colonial rule. In 1929, colonial administration established a Soil Conservation Advisory Committee (Mbegu *at el.*, 1983; Wood, 1992 cited by SIDA, 1993); Kikula (1998). Under the advice of this committee, the government adopted the policy of improving land use methods which included mainly tree planting, contour ridging, terracing, destocking and barn of large scale burning (Temple, 1972; Kikula, 1998). Besides this policy, several pieces of legislation were passed and land use schemes such as Uluguru Land Usage Scheme, Sukumaland Development Scheme and the Usambara Mountains Development Scheme were initiated all geared towards land conservation and natural resources management. These externally introduced measures however, were in direct conflict with the existing peasant form of production based on multipurpose use of cattle, communal organization of labour and the traditional use of indigenous agricultural systems which could control soil erosion (SIDA, 1993). Many of these land conservation schemes consequently failed mainly because they were based on local labour sometimes through coercion, but usually without local sanctions.

Post independence government also made deliberate efforts towards land conservation (SIDA,1993). In the 1970s and 1980s major soil and water conservation projects were initiated (Kikula, 1998). These include notably Hifadhi Ardhi Dodoma (HADO), Hifadhi Ardhi Shinyanga (HASHI), Lushoto Soil Erosion Control and Afforestation Project (SECAP) and Soil Erosion Control and Afforestation Project in Arumeru district (SECAPA) whose major objective was to rehabilitate severely degraded/eroded areas. While these projects have relatively been fruitful in the areas where they have been carried out, some places have of recent past been severely degraded by refugees. One of these areas is Kagera region.

## 2.7. The refugees crisis and land degradation in Kagera region

### 2.7.1. An overview

Between 1994 and 1996, Kagera region which boarders Burundi and Rwanda on the north-western, experienced rapid, and long lasting land degradation that was caused by rapid and sudden increase in its population. This resulted from large influxes of refugees from these bordering countries, following the assassination of the former Burundian and Rwandan presidents and the subsequent massacre of civilians that broke out in Rwanda in 1994. It is estimated that, by the end of 1996, about 690,000 refugees from these neighbouring countries were housed in Biharamulo, Karagwe and Ngara districts whose estimated total local population

was around 780,000 (KEP, 1997). With this large influx of refugees, evidence collected indicates that a total of 95,000ha of the region's savannah woodlands were cleared for refugees camps sites, construction materials, fuelwood and subsistence agricultural production and other forest related products between 1994 and 1996 (KEP, 1997). This natural resources destruction was more concentrated in Ngara district (our case study district) which between 1994 and 1996 hosted over 480,000 refugees from Burundi and Rwanda, against its indigenous population which was estimated at 189,000 at that particular material time.

The overall results of this abrupt process in the region in general and Ngara district in particular, were great loss of forest cover that contributed to increased land degradation, decline in the productive capacity of soil, accelerated soil erosion, damage to hydrological conditions of the water catchments, reduction of biodiversity, fast run-off of rain water and reduced infiltration of water which in total called for both national and international immediate attention.

### 2.7.2. NGOs response to the land degradation in Kagera region

Since then, various international and local NGOs (Mvena et at., 1997) responded to this environmental crisis in the affected districts. Among the NGOs that became involved in land conservation in Ngara district were Deutsche Gesellshaft fu Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) and Ngara District Development Orgnization

(NDDO). These NGOs have been carrying out environmental conservation activities in the district more or less in collaboration with the district government authorities, UN agencies and local communities with the view to enable local communities and refugees to carry out efficient natural resources management practices in refugees affected areas. Local communities were mobilised to participate in the reforestation and conservation of degraded areas and water catchments, community based/joint forest/natural resources management and construction/building, adoption and use of energy saving improved stoves.

These NGOs supported reforestation and conservation of degraded areas and water catchments, through providing tree seeds and seedlings, mainly of exotic tree species and other forest inputs to schools, church related institutions and individual farmers. Through this support, some of these target beneficiaries have been able to establish their own tree nurseries accompanied with tree planting in their plots. One of the water catchments that have been earmarked for conservation is Murgwanza River Basin. Initially 4000 *grevellea robusta* seedlings have been provided to local communities and planted in the basin which was formerly surrounded by *eucalyptus* and was at the verge of drying up.

Joint/community based forest/natural resources management in which villagers, individuals and local groups are provided the opportunities and responsibilities to

own and manage existing natural resources/forests has also been attempted, starting with Goyagoya Natural Forest to which villagers surrounding it have been given opportunity and responsibility in partnership with forest department to conserve, manage and use it in a sustainable manner. Joint/community forests/natural resources management and conservation of water catchments approach however has been introduced on a pilot area basis, starting with the above mentioned river basin and natural forest respectively and had not gained vigorous popularity in many villages.

Rural energy saving stove technology has been introduced in the district. Stove technicians were trained and attached in villages to train local men and women to build these utensils although their number was still insufficient to transfer this technology to large area. About 800 improved stoves have reportedly been built and are in use in the villages. This technology has been conceived gender relevant as it aimed at reducing fuelwood energy consumption rates which will reasonably reduce the problem of fuelwood among rural women.

# CHAPTER THREE

# METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

## 3.1. Description of the study area

### 3.1.1. Location and size of the study area.

The study was conducted in Ngara District Ngara is one of the six administrative districts that make up Kagera RegionOthers are Biharamulo, Bukoba (R), Bukoba (Ur), Karagwe and Muleba. It is situated in North-Western Tanzania, bordering the countries of Burundi and Rwanda on the South-West and North respectively. On the East and North-Eastern, Ngara borders Biharamulo and Karagwe districts respectively, while on the extreme South, it is borded by Kibondo district, Kigoma Region. The district lies between longitudes 30 15' and 31 15' East and between latitudes 2 10' and 3 0' South. (DALDO, 1999) Ngara district is administratively comprised of four Divisions, namely Kanazi, Murusagamba, Nyamiyaga and Rulenge. The district has an area of 3,744 square kilometres, equivalent to 360,000 hactres with an estimated population of 202,890 (DALDO, 1999). A map of Ngara district is shown in figure 1.

### 3.1.2 Economy of the study area

The economy in the study area depends largely on agricultural and livestock production. Major food and cash crops grown include banana, beans, cassava, millet, sweet and irish potatoes, vegetables, fruits and coffee respectively. Livestock kept consist mainly of local cattle, goats, sheep and chicken. Dairy cattle keeping has currently been introduced (albeit on a small scale) ( DALDO, 1999).

# NGARA DISTRICT

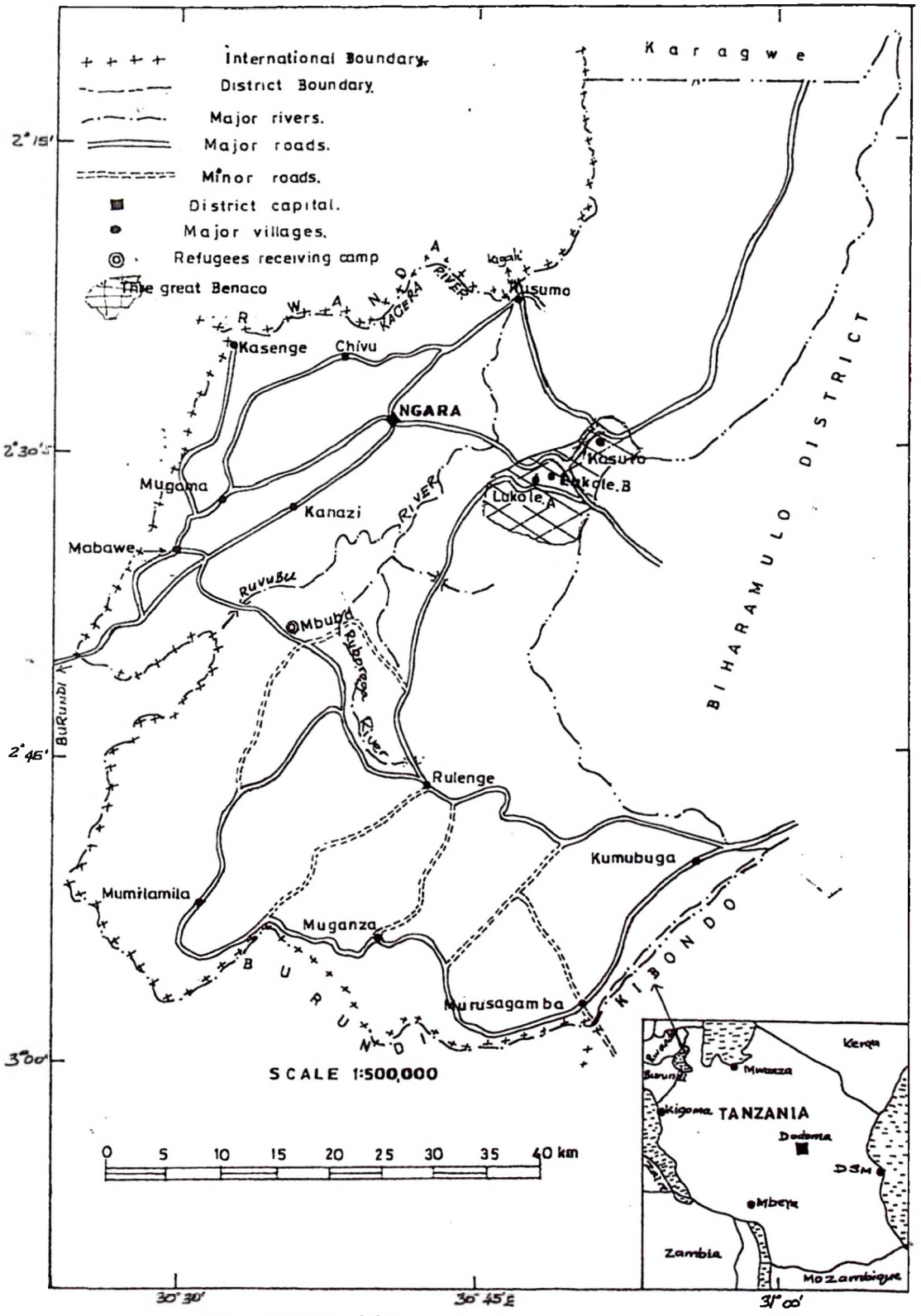


Figure 1 Ngara District Map

### 3.1.3. Refugee episode of 1994 in Ngara

Between 1994 and 1996, following the death of both Burundian and Rwandan heads of state in a plane crash in 1994 and subsequent civil and ethnic genocide that broke out in Rwanda in which thousands of civilians were massacred, Ngara, Karagwe and Biharamulo districts experienced and hosted unexpected large influxes of refugees from these neighbouring countries. However, official informations admit that, Ngara was the most affected district; with an estimated influx of over 480,000 refugees housed in the then five refugee camps of Musuhula, Lumasi, Lukole, Keza and Benaco (with more than 250,000 refugees) (KEP, 1997). The refugee population outnumbered the district resident population which was estimated to be around 180,000 by that time (UNHCR, 1999). Official statistics indicate that, more than 16,000 ha of forest cover were completely cleared for refugee settlement and other land uses. As a result, areas surrounding refugee camps were severely faced with a serious decrease in vegetative cover and loss of biodiversity (KEP, 1997).

### 3.1.4. Response of NGOs to the refugee situation

In response to the negative impact of refugees on the environment in the study area, large number of local and international NGOs came in some to provide initially humanitarian relief services and some, more interestingly to rehabilitate the

environment that had been severely degraded. NGOs' involvement in environment rehabilitation has been the primary reason that prompted the selection of the study area with the view to investigate their role in integrating gender in land conservation initiatives in this particular refugee affected area. Initially two NGOs; namely, Co-operative American Relief Everywhere (CARE) International (Tanzania) and Karagwe Development Association (KARADEA) were proposed to be studied. However, upon arriving in the field, CARE had already left Ngara and its environmental conservation activities it had initiated (through CARE-KEP) in the study area were assumed and taken over by GTZ, hence KEP-GTZ. KARADEA on the other had changed its name and scope. It was then known as Relief for Development Society (REDESO) and its chief concern was to provide environmental services inside refugee camps and not with local communities. Therefore Kagera Evironmental Project (KEP-GTZ) and Ngara District Development Organization (NDDO) were alternatively studied.

## 3.2. Research design

The study made use of a cross-sectional design which allowed information to be collected at one point in time. The selection of this particular research design was justifiably necessitated by limited resources, including time scale.

### 3.3. Sampling procedures

Target population of this study consisted of all men and women in Ngara district. To obtain the desired population sample, multistage sampling technique was used. This technique has been generally recommended in social surveys as it makes possible to study large and diverse populations and whose list of exact individual subjects to be studied is not easily available Wards, villages and eventually households which provided the survey subjects made up the sampling phases.

In the first place, simple random sampling was used to select four wards from the sample frame of 17 wards which make up Ngara district. The selected wards were Kabanga, Kibimba, Rulenge and Rusumo. Using the same method two villages were selected from each ward to obtain a total of eight villages. These villages were Kabanga and Djulaligwa selected from Kabanga ward and Buhororo and Ruganzo from Kibimba ward and Mbuba and Rulenge from Rulenge ward. Kasharazi and Kasulo villages were sampled from and Rusumo ward. From each village six households were again randomly selected. Thus 48 households were obtained for the present study, leading to a total of 96 respondents since male and female gender groups of each household were treated separately.

## 3.4. Data collection tools

### 3.4.1. Primary data collection

Structured questionnaires were the major tools used in field data collection. Two types of questionnaires were designed i.e. one for the household female and male members and another one for staff from two selected NGOs engaged in land conservation in the study area. Household female and male members' questionnaire focused essentially on respondents' socio-economic characteristics, environmental degradation/conservation awareness and their connection with their participation in land conservation initiatives. NGOs staff questionnaire on the other hand covered generally the organisation's strategies employed in land conservation with the view to discover how such strategies promoted gender integration. Gender integration in this study was defined as involvement of both men and women in land conservation by NGOs, largely through provision of training on land conservation to men and women, formation and strengthening of village environmental committees that would promote equal representation of men and women, conduction of public meetings on land degradation/conservation awareness creation among men and women, full participation of men and women in planning and implementation of land conservation activities/initiatives and practice of land conservation methods.

The primary data collection was thus conducted through administration of the questionnaires. To ensure validity the household questionnaire was subjected to pre-test at Buhororo village so as to allow necessary adjustments in some questions. The whole exercise was undertaken by the author, assisted by an experienced community development worker and it was done by visiting household members in their homes. Field observations were also made in an effort to supplement the information from the respondents that related to observable land conservation activities.

### 3.4.2. Secondary data collection

Secondary data on land degradation/conservation, NGOs, gender and refugees were obtained from various sources, including Sokoine National Agricultural Library, KEP-GTZ, Ngara District Natural Resources Offices, United Nations Information Centre- Dar Es Salaam and Institute of Development Management Mzumbe, Morogoro.

## 3.5. Data processing and analysis

The data that were gathered from field survey were, as a pre-requisite, summarized (for that information obtained from open ended questions) coded and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software in order to

make realistic inferences based on the study sample. Frequencies and percentages were mainly the major descriptive statistics that were computed. However, where deemed appropriate, Chi-square test was used to detect possible association between gender and participation in issues related to land conservation initiatives and other qualitative parameters. Where such a test was applied, the level of statistical significance was sought at 0 1 %, 1 % or 5 %.

### 3.6. Limitation of the study

NDDO denied the author the access to its secondary information on the ground that the chief executive of the organisation who was the sole custodian of the information was on a long official trip outside the country. However, access to the this information would not likely improve quality of the available data for the present study.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents and discusses findings of the present study.

## 4.1. General socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

General socio-economic characteristics that were put into account were age, gender, marital status, size of the household and economic occupation and are presented in Table 1. These characteristics were considered important generally because they sometimes have certain influence on development initiatives introduced in a given social setting (Howllet and Nagu, 1997).

### 4.1.1. Age

It was observed from the findings that majority of male respondents (58.33 %) were between the age of 30 and 47 years. Majority of female respondents (64.59 %) on the other hand were found within the age of 30-53 years (see Table 1). It was found that 18.75 % of female respondents ranged from the age of 18 to 23 years while non of the male respondents was found within that range. The study observed significant difference in age ($P<0.05$) between men and women. This difference could be associated with the common phenomenon in which young men migrate from rural areas to urban or semi-urban areas in search of white collar jobs

or good life as evidenced by Pereka and Kinabo (1997). It was further observed that, women did not have longer life expectancy contrary to the contention reported by Pereka and Kinabo (1997) that women in Tanzania have longer life expectancy.

However, it was found that, majority of men and women who participated in land conservation process were found in the age group of 30- 47 years. This implies that land conservation initiatives in the study area involved energetic and active group of people who were economically productive.

Table 1: **Distribution of respondents by socio-economic characteristics by sex (n=96)**

| Characteristic | Male (n=48) | | Female (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Age Category | | | | |
| 18-23 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 18.75 |
| 24-29 | 4 | 8.33 | 4 | 8.33 |
| 30-35 | 11 | 22.92 | 9 | 18.75 |
| 36-41 | 10 | 20.83 | 8 | 16.68 |
| 42-47 | 7 | 14.58 | 7 | 14.58 |
| 48-53 | 5 | 10.42 | 7 | 14.58 |
| 54-59 | 6 | 12.50 | 4 | 8.33 |
| 60 and above | 5 | 10.42 | 0 | 0 |
| Marital Status | | | | |
| Single | 4 | 8.33 | 0 | 0 |
| Married | 43 | 89.58 | 39 | 81.25 |
| Divorced | 1 | 2.09 | 4 | 8.33 |
| Widow | 0 | 0 | 5 | 10.42 |
| Level of Education | | | | |
| No Education | 0 | 0 | 3 | 6.25 |
| Primary education | 35 | 72.92 | 39 | 81.25 |
| Secondary education | 10 | 20.83 | 6 | 10.42 |
| Post secondary education. | 3 | 6.25 | 1 | 2.08 |
| Household Size (persons) | | | | |
| 1 - 3 | 4 | 8.33 | 4 | 3 |
| 4 - 6 | 17 | 35.42 | 17 | 2 |
| 7 - 9 | 11 | 22.92 | 10 | 20.83 |
| 10 and above | 17 | 35.42 | 16 | 33.33 |
| Economic occupation | | | | |
| Farming | 44 | 91.67 | 45 | 93.75 |
| Livestock Keeping | 28 | 58.33 | 24 | 50.00 |
| Non-farm Business | 5 | 10.42 | 5 | 10.42 |
| Wage employment | 1 | 2.08 | - | - |

Source: Survey data (2000)

### 4.1.2. Sex

Since the study was organized on an attempt to assess gender integration in land conservation initiatives that had been introduced and supported by NGOs in the study area, efforts were directed towards obtaining an equal number of male and female respondents. Thus, 48 women and 48 men were sampled and interviewed. The study observed that there was unequal participation of men and women in which women were less involved in implementation of land conservation activities, although the difference was not statistically significant ($P>0.05$). However, it was evidenced that sex was associated ($P<0.05$) with membership to village environmental committees where they existed and contribution of ideas in the public meetings held for land conservation awareness creation. The situation however, was different in the case of training in land conservation whereby almost equal number of men and women attended it.

### 4.1.3. Marital status

Results of the present study indicate that 89.58 % and 81.25 % of male and female respondents respectively were married while 8.33 % of male and non of female respondents were single. It was again observed that 2.09 % and 8.33 % of male and female respectively were found divorced. On the other hand no male respondent was widowed, while 10.42% of female respondents were widowed. There was a significant relationship ($P<0.05$) between marital status and sex. This

association was explained by the fact that 10.42 % of women were widowed while non of men were found in this marital status and that 8.33 % of male were single while non of female were single.

Findings of this study reflect certainly a high rate of marriage which is a common phenomenon in most of rural areas in Tanzania. This was probably compelled by social responsibilities that require collective action by wife and husband short of which an individual in single marital status would face difficulties to accomplish. Similar findings were reported by Makauki (1999) in Turiani Division, Morogoro.

### 4.1.4. Level of education of respondents

This study found that almost 73 % and 81.25 % of male and female respondents had attained formal primary education respectively; 20.83 % and 10.42 % of men and women interviewees possessed secondary school education while 6.25 % and 2.08 % of men and women had post secondary school education respectively (refer to Table 1).

The large percentage of both men and women being literate is likely to be a reflection of the philosophy of Universal Primary Education and Literacy Campaign that were introduced by the government of Tanzania in the early 1970s.

These findings differ from those reported by FAO (1989) in which, only 5 % of Nepalese women were found literate.

Although results show that 6.25 % of female respondents had not attained primary education and 10.42 % and 2.08 % had attained secondary and post secondary education respectively compared to their men counterparts, this difference was not statistically significant (P>0.05).

Such a considerably high rate of literacy is an important input which may enable local people to be aware, understand and adopt improved land management technologies more easily. Similar opinion was held by Mandara (1998) and Shenduli (1998) cited by Makauki (1999) who found out that knowing how to read and write was sufficient in adoption of technologies whose dissemination demanded simple leaflets, pamphlets, posters, newspapers or other simple written materials.

The study found that, respondents with post secondary school education did not attend training on land conservation, although this was not statistically significant (P>0.05).

### 4.1.5. Household size

The household size in this study was sought by considering all persons living in a single household. Hence, children, parents and dependants constituted the size of the household of a respondent.

The study found out that 35.42 % of male and female respondents had household size of between 4 and 6 persons. Household size of over 10 persons was possessed by 35.42 % and 33.33 % of male and female respondents respectively. A proportion of 22.92 % and 20.83 % of male and female respondents had households of between 7 - 9 persons. A small portion of male and female respondents (8.3 %) had household of between 1 and 4 persons (results are shown in Table1). The present study observed statistical relationship ($P<0.01$) between household size and age, indicating that young people had households with smaller size.

These findings are contrary to those reported by Makauki (1999) who found out that, 10 % of his respondents had household of over 13 persons, while 80.6 % of respondents had household of between 1 and 4 persons in Turiani. The reason why the household size was bigger in the study area was that, extended family system was still prevailing, in which children and dependants were regarded as assets rather than liabilities. The distribution of the number of household members in the

study area indicated that there was a reasonably sufficient labour force for land conservation activities based on the age distribution.

### 4.1.6. Major economic occupation of the respondents

Respondents were asked to mention their major economic occupation, in which they were largely engaged. Results (presented in Table 1) show that majority of men and women respondents were found to depend mainly on farming, followed by livestock keeping. The major crops that were grown by most respondents included maize, beans, banana, cassava, sweet and irish potatoes and coffee as food and cash crops respectively. Livestock kept included chiefly local cattle, goats, ship and chickens. Only a minor percentage of respondents was earning living from non-farm business, ranging from wage employment to carpentry and petty business.

This type of economy confirmed the view held in policy and research circles that about 90 % of rural people in Tanzania depend mostly on agriculture for their livelihood (Howlett and Nagu, 1997). This calls therefore for proper and sustainable land conservation and management or else the economy in the study area may collapse.

The study observed that respondent who was wage earner did not participate in implementation of land conservation activities, attend training in land conservation, nor was he a member of the village environmental committee. His participation was observed at the level of attending and contributing ideas in public meetings. However this observation was not significant ($P>0.05$) to warrant statistical association between economic occupation and participation in implementation of land conservation activities, attendance to training on land conservation, nor membership to village environmental committee.

### 4.1.7. Property ownership, control and inheritance

Respondents were asked to mention properties they own, control and the person with right to inheritance. Results are shown in Table 2. Findings indicate that, land was the first major property owned by majority of the respondents, followed by house, trees and livestock. Further investigation found out that these properties were jointly owned and controlled between men and women in the household. Majority of male and female respondents also confirmed that decisions on the use/disposal of the household resources was usually arrived at jointly between husband and wife in cases where a household was male-headed (refer to Table 2).

**Table 2: Household property ownership, decision-making and persons with right to inheritance by sex (n=96)**

| Aspect | Male (n=48) | | Female (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Property owned | | | | |
| Land | 46 | 91.67 | 40 | 83.33 |
| House | 37 | 77.08 | 35 | 72.92 |
| Trees | 25 | 52.08 | 28 | 58.33 |
| Livestock | 28 | 58.33 | 24 | 50.00 |
| Control-over property | | | | |
| Yes | 43 | 89.59 | 40 | 83.33 |
| No | 4 | 8.33 | 5 | 10.42 |
| No response | 1 | 2.08 | 3 | 6.25 |
| Joint-decision making over property | | | | |
| Yes | 46 | 95.83 | 2 | 87.50 |
| No | 1 | 2.08 | 1 | 2.08 |
| No response | 1 | 2.08 | 5 | 10.42 |
| Person with right to inherit properties | | | | |
| Male children | 14 | 29.17 | 5 | 10.42 |
| Female children | - | - | 1 | 2.08 |
| Female and male children | 33 | 68.75 | 41 | 85.42 |
| Others | 1 | 2.08 | 1 | 2.08 |

Source: Survey data (2000)

Connected to property ownership, control and decision making, respondents were asked to mention who culturally had the right to inherit household properties among female and male children after the demise of the household head(s) (i.e. father and mother). The study found that majority of men (68.75 %) and women (85.42 %) respondents mentioned that household properties were collectively

inherited by both female and male children in instances where parents passed away. Only about 29 % of male and 10 % of female respondents still attached the right to inheritance of household properties to male children only (see Table 2). These results suggest that there has been a change towards recognition and consideration of the right of female children to share with their brothers household properties left behind by their parents, although no evidence was established to show that this cultural change had basically been promoted by NGOs working in the study area. These findings appear to be similar to those reported by Picard (1996) in which both sons and daughters in Madagascar were allowed to inherit land, although the plots for women tended to be smaller than those for men. Such a situation could be contrary to what has been prevailing in most African societies in which female; both children and adults had no rights to property inheritance. The study did not establish that property ownership, control and inheritance had any relationship ($P>0.05$) with participation in land conservation process among men and women

It is shown clearly that, the pattern of land tenure in the study area was based on individual household ownership (together with other properties). This may facilitate easily the adoption of innovations geared towards its appropriate use and management. This assumption is in agreement with studies conducted on land tenure systems in different parts of the world which found out that private land ownership had proved to reduce damage on it (Tiruneh and Rahmato, 1994; Hofstad, 1997).

## 4.2. Awareness on land degradation/conservation among rural men and women

### 4.2.1. Existence of land degradation

According to the distribution of respondents by awareness on the existence of land degradation presented in Table 3, about 96 % of men and 90 % of women respondents reported that there was the problem of land degradation in their areas.

Table 3: **Awareness on land degradation and its causes by sex**

| Parameter | Male(n=48) | | Female (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Presence of land degradation | | | | |
| Yes | 46 | 95.83 | 43 | 89.58 |
| No | 2 | 4.17 | 5 | 10.42 |
| Cause of land degradation[a] | | | | |
| Refugees from Burundi and Rwanda | 41 | 89.13 | 34 | 79.07 |
| Large scale forest burning | 21 | 45.65 | 24 | 55.81 |
| Deforestation | 15 | 32.61 | 19 | 44.18 |
| Poor farming systems | 12 | 26.08 | 10 | 23.25 |
| Overgrazing | 7 | 15.22 | 8 | 16.60 |

[a] Applicable only to respondents who were aware of the existence of land degradation (n=46 and 43 for male and female respondents respectively).

Source: Survey Data (2000)

This sufficient bigger proportion of men and women respondents being aware of the problem may reflect its large extent, intensity and negative effects particularly on renewable natural resources within the study area as reported by UNHCR (1996) and Mvena *et al.*,( 1997). The study observed no relationship (P>0.05) between knowledge on the existence of land degradation and age, marital status, level of education, size of the household and economic occupation of the respondents.

### 4.2.2. Causes of land degradation

Respondents who were aware of the existence of land degradation were requested to mention factors which caused the problem in their areas. It is shown in the results presented in Table 3 that, a large proportion of men (89.13 %) and women(79.07 %) (a proportion of 85.42 % and 70.83 % of total male and female) respondents associated greatly land degradation with refugee influxes from Burundi and Rwanda ( see Table 3). They were in fact bitter on the issue of refugees; pointing out that, besides destruction of the environment, refugees worsened the security situation and looted some of existing social amenities like schools by using their furnitures for cooking. This effect was also reported by Mvena *et al* (1997). Other secondary factors that were mentioned to have caused land degradation included large scale forests burning, deforestation, poor farming systems and overgrazing. The study noted that, respondents who had no formal

education associated land degradation with refugees and overgrazing only. Nonetheless, this association was not statistically significant (P>0.05).

Nevertheless, though the coming and settlement of the refugees in the study area accelerated greatly land degradation, yet indigenous people had also been bringing about land degradation chiefly through forests burning (seasonal wild/bush fires) and cutting outside their farms at the rate that may be higher than that they had mentioned, even before the break out of the refugee episode. Studies conducted in Ngara (and in Biharamulo and Karagwe) confirmed also that deforestation and seasonal bush fires were the most eminent environmental constraints in these districts (KEP, 1997). Similarly, evidence shows that even after the arrival of refugees, local population participated actively in further degrading land by clearing forests and selling timber, building poles and firewood which were extraordinarily demanded by refugees and supported by foreign NGOs/aid agencies for furniture, camps construction and energy respectively (Mvena et al 1997).

### 4.2.3 . Awareness on the presence and initiator of land conservation project

Respondents were asked to tell whether they were aware of land conservation project in their areas or not. The study found out that about 90 % of men and women respondents were aware of land conservation project which was being carried out in their areas. No statistical evidence was gathered to show that, age,

gender, marital status, level of education, household size, economic occupation and property ownership had relationship (P>0.05) with knowledge on the existence of land conservation project among the respondents.

It was further shown that majority of men (62.80 %) and women (76.74 %) respondents who were aware of the existence of land conservation project mentioned NGOs to be the initiators of land conservation projects. The NGOs mentioned included CARITAS, Kagera Environmental Project (KEP-GTZ) and Ngara District Development Organization (NDDO). The rest of respondents mentioned district authority and village government leaders to be the initiators of the land conservation projects in their areas. The study noticed that majority of respondents in each socio economic category mentioned that land conservation project had been initiated by NGOs, hence confirming that general socio-economic characteristics had no significant relationship (P>0.05) with knowledge on the initiator of land conservation project.

Majority of KEP-GTZ and NDDO staff also mentioned their organisations to have initiated land conservation project they were running. Results seem to suggest that land conservation activities in this terribly refugee affected area had notably been left in the hands of NGOs, reflecting that, government became less effective to initiate and run such activities, probably due to lack of resources. Such a situation has been a tradition in Tanzania where land/soil conservation projects have been

sometimes initiated and heavily funded by donors (Kikula,1998). Examples of such land conservation projects include Hifadhi Ardhi Dodoma (HADO), Hifadhi Ardhi Shinyanga (HASHI), Hifadhi Mazingira Iringa (HIMA), Soil Erosion Control and Agroforestry Project in Lushoto (SECAP) and Soil Erosion Control and Agroforestry Project in Arumeru (SECAPA).

Table 4: **Distribution of respondents by awareness, initiator and activities of land conservation project by sex**

| Parameter | Men (n=48) | | Women (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Awareness of project | | | | |
| Yes | 43 | 89.58 | 43 | 89.58 |
| No | 5 | 10.42 | 5 | 10.42 |
| Initiator of project[a] | | | | |
| District authority | 6 | 13.95 | 4 | 9.30 |
| Villagers | 4 | 9.30 | 1 | 2.33 |
| Village government leaders | 6 | 13.95 | 5 | 11.63 |
| NGOs | 27 | 62.80 | 33 | 76.74 |
| Project Activities[a] | | | | |
| Tree nursery establishment | 29 | 67.44 | 19 | 44.19 |
| Tree panting | 34 | 79.07 | 38 | 83.72 |
| Agroforestry | 11 | 25.58 | 10 | 23.26 |
| Contour ridging | 4 | 9.30 | 7 | 16.28 |
| Improved stoves | 1 | 2.33 | 4 | 9.30 |

[a] Applicable only to respondents who were aware of projects existence (n=43 for each sex category)

Source: Survey data (2000)

### 4.2.4. Strategies of NGOs on land conservation initiatives in Ngara district

KEP-GTZ and NDDO's staff were asked to mention strategies that were adopted by their organisations in carrying out land conservation initiatives in Ngara. Eight out of nine staff mentioned that conduction of public meetings for awareness creation (mobilization), training of both men and women on land conservation, provision of forest inputs and physical implementation of activities by men and women were the major strategies that were adopted by NGOs.

### 4.2.5. Land conservation project activities

Respondents who were aware of land conservation project were asked to mention activities that had been carried out and the results are shown in Table 4. A remarkable large number of men (79.07%) and women (83.72%) mentioned tree planting as the major activity that had been carried out. Another major activity that was mentioned by majority of both male and female respondents; i.e. 67.44% of men and 44.19% of women was tree nursery establishment. Less than 26% of both sex categories mentioned land conservation activities to include agroforestry, contour ridging and soil and water conservation and dissemination of improved energy saving technology (improved stoves).

Tree nursery establishment and tree planting were also mentioned by NGOs field staff who were interviewed as the major activities that had been carried out in the land conservation projects though some mentioned water catchment conservation and joint community based forest management which were being carried out on pilot area basis. Based on the percentage of respondents, results show that land conservation in the study area involved mainly tree planting and tree nursery establishment. These activities are similar to those that were found being carried out by numerous NGOs in Kenya (Buck et al,1984) mainly because in places where such NGOs were working had been severely deforested.

### 4.3. Gender integration in land conservation project

#### 4.3.1. Participation of respondents in land conservation project

Information on participation of male and female respondents in land conservation projects is shown in Table 5. According to the table, findings of this study show that 72.09 % of male respondents who were aware of land conservation reported to have been involved in land conservation project activities, whereas the proportion was 58.14 % for their female counterparts. Approximately 28 % and 42 % of male and female respondents respectively did not participate. This was equivalent to 25 % and 38 % of total men and women respondents respectively. This difference between men and women who were involved in land conservation

project activities was not statistically significant (P>0.05). This implies that NGOs engaged in land conservation in the study area had attempted to promote and involve women in such initiatives, although the degree of women involvement was still low compared to that reported by Helin (1989), in which more than 90 % of women participated in land conservation in refugee affected areas of Luuq, Somalia that was promoted and supported by NGOs.

Generally this study found out that respondents' participation in land conservation project activities was highly associated (P<0.05) with their awareness and knowledge on land degradation and also on their awareness and knowledge on land conservation project. This implies that, farmers adopt technologies that solve known problems and also due to expected benefits. In case of the present study, rural communities expected to solve their widespread problem of land degradation that threatened their subsistence production.

Table 5: **Participation and level of participation in land conservation project activities by sex**

| Parameter | Male (n=43) | | Female (n=43) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Participation | 31 | 72.09 | 25 | 58.14 |
| Yes | 12 | 27.91 | 18 | 41.86 |
| No | | | | |
| Level of participation[a] | | | | |
| Planning | 7 | 22.58 | 8 | 32.00 |
| Decision making | 1 | 3.23 | 2 | 8.00 |
| Implementation | 23 | 74.19 | 15 | 60.00 |

[a] Applicable only to respondents who participated (n=31 and 25 for male and female respectively)

Source: Survey data (2000)

### 4.3.2. Level of participation

Results shown in Table 5 indicate that, majority of men (74.19 %) and majority of the women (60 %) respondents who participated did so mostly at the level of project implementation other than in planning and decision-making. An overall assessment however indicated clearly that involvement of men and women in planning and decision making on land conservation projects in the study area had not been well adopted by the NGOs; if the objective was to achieve what gender equity and sensitive planning of projects advocates (Panda and Lund, 1998).

### 4.3.3. Non participation

Respondents who had not been involved in the land conservation project activities were asked to give reason(s) which essentially hindered them from participating and results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: **Distribution of respondents by reasons for non participation by sex**

| Reason | Male (n=12) | | Female (n=18) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Have other own activities | 2 | 16.67 | 1 | 5.56 |
| Was not mobilised and educated | 6 | 50.00 | 13 | 72.22 |
| Was not involved in group | 4 | 33.33 | 4 | 22.22 |

Source: Survey data (2000)

The primary reason which was given by majority of both male (83.33 %, representing around 20.83 % of total male respondents) and female (94.44 %, leading to over 35.42 % of total female) respondents was that, they had not been mobilised and educated in land conservation and group formation initiatives in their areas. Another reason that was mentioned to have hindered the rest of men and women was that they had other activities. (See Table 6).

Based on the number and proportion of the respondents who were not involved in land conservation activities due to lack of mobilization, results suggest that mobilization was significantly associated ($P<0.05$) with gender integration. This implies that NGOs involved in land conservation in the study area still had not yet fully mobilised and educated rural women in issues covering land conservation, contrary to Helin (1989) who reported that, NGOs achieved full women involvement in land conservation process in Luuq, Somalia through rural mobilization and education.

This relative low level of mobilization on the part of NGOs can partly be attributed possibly and most likely to lack of enough and skilled staff. For instance out of 6 KEP-GTZ staff, only one staff had university qualifications related to management of natural resources. The rest had education qualifications ranging from mere primary education to post secondary certificate in agriculture. Such staff had certainly minimal specialized skills in issues related to land conservation. Similar weaknesses were identified by Lewis (1992), in his study on the role of NGOs in social development. Secondly, NGOs seemed to have not been involving fully other development related departments in mobilizing rural communities. For instance, community development department that could have played a crucial role in mobilizing local communities was not directly involved in the NGOs' land conservation initiatives.

## 4.4. Grassroots capacity building

### 4.4.1. Existence of village environmental committees

Respondents in this study were asked to mention whether or not there existed village environmental committees in their villages and the results are presented in Table 7. Results indicate that about 46 % and 38 % of male and female respondents respectively, knew that there existed village environment committees in their villages, 35 % of male and female respondents said that there were no environmental committees in their villages. The rest of the respondents had no information whether or not such organs existed. The difference between men and women who knew the existence of village environmental committees however was not statistically significant ($P>0.05$).

The present study observed that village environmental committees had not been clearly established as part of village development organs like other committees such as health, finance and planning and were not functional and active in cases where they existed. Further more, NGOs did not seem to take trouble to promote such grassroots institutions, although they were expected to empower local communities through strengthening their grassroots institutions (Farrington *et al.*, 1993) including village environmental committees. Given lack of strategy to strengthen local institutions related to land conservation/natural resources

management, on the part of NGOs, sustainability of land conservation initiatives in the study area is objectively open to doubt.

### 4.4.2. Membership to the village environmental committees

It is shown in Table 7 that out of respondents who admitted presence of village environmental committees, 22.22% of female (which is merely 8.33% of the total female respondents) and 68.18% (representing 31.25%of total male respondents) said that they were members of such bodies. Going by statistical considerations, membership to village environmental committees was highly associated ($P<0.001$) with sex. These findings confirm the general situation in which women are underrepresented in different community decision making bodies in most African societies as reported by Picard (1996). Further investigation on the composition of these organs by sex found out that, even where women were members of such committees their membership was usually outnumbered by that of men. The number of village environmental committees members ranged from 5 to 8.

Table 7: **Knowledge on and membership to village environmental committees by sex (n=96)**

| Parameter | Male (n=48) | | Female (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Presence of Village Environmental Committee | | | | |
| Yes | 22 | 45.83 | 18 | 37.50 |
| No | 17 | 35.42 | 17 | 35.42 |
| Do not know | 9 | 18.75 | 13 | 27.08 |
| Membership to the village environmental committee[a] | | | | |
| Yes | 15 | 68.18 | 4 | 22.22 |
| No | 7 | 31.82 | 14 | 77.78 |

[a] Applicable only to respondents who were aware of the existence of village environmental committees (n=22 and 18 for male and female respondents respectively)

Source: Survey data (2000)

### 4.5. Modes of land conservation awareness creation among local communities

#### 4.5.1. Conduction of public meetings

Table 8 presents distribution of respondents by knowledge on the conduction of and attendance to and contribution of ideas in public meetings on land conservation awareness creation based on sex.

Table 8: **Distribution of respondents by knowledge on, attendance to and contribution of ideas in awareness creation public meetings conducted by NGOs by sex.**

| Parameter | Male (n=48) | | Female (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Knowledge on public meetings | | | | |
| Yes | 32 | 66.67 | 24 | 50.00 |
| No | 6 | 12.50 | 9 | 18.75 |
| Do not know | 10 | 20.83 | 15 | 31.25 |
| Attendance[a] | | | | |
| Regularly | 24 | 75.00 | 13 | 54.17 |
| Occassionally | 5 | 15.63 | 9 | 37.50 |
| Not at all | 3 | 9.37 | 2 | 8.33 |
| Contribution of ideas[b] | | | | |
| Yes | 29 | 100 | 18 | 81.82 |
| No | 0 | 0 | 4 | 18.18 |

[a] Applicable only to respondents who were aware of conduction of public meetings (n=32 and 24 for male and female respectively)

[b] Applicable only to respondents who attended public meetings (n=29 and 22 for male and female respectively)

Source: Survey data (2000)

Results denote that, about 67 % of male respondents had knowledge on public meetings conducted by NGOs to create awareness among local communities on land conservation; about 13 % rejected the idea claiming that such meetings were not being conducted and nearly 21% had no any information about public meetings

on land conservation awareness creation. On the other hand, exactly 50 % of women respondents had knowledge on conduction of the meetings, about to 19 % rejected to have heard of such meetings and around 31 % had no any information as regards land conservation awareness creation public meetings (refer to Table 8). Statistical test revealed that there was no significant (P>0.05) difference between male and female respondents who had knowledge on the conduction of land conservation awareness creation public meetings.

### 4.5.2. Attendance to the public meetings on land conservation awareness creation

Respondents who were aware of public meetings organized and held for the purpose of creating land conservation awareness among local communities, were asked to rate how often they attended them and the results are recorded in Table 8. Based on the number of respondents who attended such meetings, findings show that more men than women had ample time to attend such meetings. Whereas 75 % of male (which is exactly 50 % of total male) respondents had attended these meetings regularly, 54 % of female (representing 27.08 % of total female) respondents had attended them at the same rate. A small proportion of male respondents (around 16 %) and a relatively large proportion of female respondents (nearly 38 %) had attended these meetings occasionally. However, statistical test did not reveal significant difference (P>0.05) between men and women who

attended public meetings. Chi-square test revealed that there existed strong relationship ($P<0.001$) between awareness on the conduction of public meetings on land conservation and attendance to them among respondents.

### 4.5.3. Contribution of ideas in the public meetings

Respondents who had admitted to have attended public meetings were asked to respond to whether or not they had been contributing their ideas during the meetings. Results in Table 8 show that 100 % and almost 82 % of male and female respondents respectively contributed their ideas. About 18% of female respondents who had been attending public meetings did not contribute their ideas.

If the results were calculated basing on the total number of respondents, they would show that 60.42 % and 37.50 % of men and women respectively contributed their ideas.

Results show that contribution of ideas in the public meetings was highly associated ($P<0.001$) with sex, indicating certainly that there was still gender disparity. Probable explanation could be that, some women in the study area might still be inclined to traditional outlook of not speaking out in front of men or change agents had not yet created self confidence in and among women or may be women were not given equal chances as men to contribute their ideas. These findings differ

with those reported by Picard (1996) who contended that women in central Madagascar were playing a prominent role in local public meetings.

### 4.5.4. Provision of training on land conservation by NGOs

Respondents were required to mention if NGOs had been providing training on land conservation to both men and women. Results are shown in Table 9. Findings denote that 62.50 % and 56.25 % of male and female respondents respectively agreed that training on land conservation had been provided to both men and women. Nearly 17 % of male and 21 % of female respondents denied the idea that training on land conservation had been provided to both men and women. Around 17 % of both men and women had no any information regarding provision of training on land conservation to men and women. Less than 7 % of men and women did not respond. No significant relationship ($P>0.05$) existed between sex and knowledge on provision of training on land conservation. Provision of training on land conservation was also affirmed by staff from KEP - GTZ and NDDO.

Table 9. **Awareness on and attendance to training on land conservation provided by NGOs by sex**

| Aspect | Male (n=48) | | Female (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Training to both men and women | | | | |
| Yes | 30 | 62.50 | 27 | 56.25 |
| No | 8 | 16.67 | 10 | 20.83 |
| Do not know | 8 | 16.67 | 8 | 16.67 |
| No response | 2 | 4.16 | 3 | 6.25 |
| Attendance to training[a] | | | | |
| Yes | 23 | 76.67 | 22 | 81.48 |
| No | 7 | 23.33 | 5 | 18.52 |

[a] Applicable only to respondents who were aware of provision of training on land conservation by NGOs (n=30 and 27 for male and female respectively)

Source: Survey data (2000)

### 4.5.5. Attendance to training in land conservation

Respondents who were aware of training on land conservation conducted by NGOs were requested to say whether or not they attended such training and the results are shown in Table 9.

Findings indicate that 81.48 % of female respondents who were aware of training on land conservation, attended the training, while 76.67 % of male respondents who were aware of training in land conservation had attended the training (representing nearly 46 % and 48 % of the total female and male respondents

respectively). The study found strong association (P<0.001) between awareness on provision of training on land conservation and attendance to it. This suggests that most people, particularly women in the study area who were made aware of training on land conservation attended it.

### 4.5.6. Mode of training in land conservation, knowledge obtained and its adequacy and usefulness

Respondents who were aware of training in land conservation were asked to mention how it had been conducted, knowledge obtained and its adequacy and usefulness and the response is presented in Table 10. Findings show (with percentage of total respondents in brackets) that majority of both male and female 83.33 % and 77.78 % (52.08 % and 43.75 %) respectively said that training on land conservation had been conducted through seminars. As regards knowledge obtained, majority of men 65.22 % (31.25 %) ranked awareness on land degradation and tree nursery establishment techniques as the first knowledge they obtained; followed by appropriate land use as pointed out by 60.87 % (29.17 %) and different types and uses of trees as claimed by 47.38 % (22.92 %). It was observed that, 100 % (45.83 %) of women ranked tree nursery establishment techniques the first followed by awareness on land degradation which was pointed out by 68.18 % (31.25 %), followed by different types and uses of trees which were mentioned by 54.55 % (25.0 %). Appropriate land use and agroforestry was

given by 40.91 % (18.75 %) of women as the knowledge obtained. Agroforestry was least ranked by both men and women indicating that it was not likely given due attention. Women conceived highly knowledge in tree nursery establishment with expectation that tree nurseries and hence tree planting would produce trees that would reduce scarcity of fuel wood while men were interested in the availability of building poles. As for adequacy and usefulness of the knowledge obtained from training on land conservation 66 % (33.33 %) of men and 90.9 % (41.66 %) of women mentioned that the knowledge they had obtained was really useful but inadequate. The rest assumed that the knowledge was sufficiently useful and adequate (see Table 10). The underlying implication is that a need for continued and regular training of local communities particularly women on land conservation still existed.

Table 10: **Mode of training, knowledge obtained in land conservation and its adequacy/usefulness by sex**[a]

| | Male (n=30) | | Female (n=27) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Mode of training | | | | |
| Workshop | 5 | 16.67 | 6 | 22.22 |
| Seminars | 25 | 83.33 | 21 | 77.78 |
| Knowledge obtained from training | | | | |
| Awareness on land degradation | 15 | 65.22 | 15 | 68.18 |
| Tree nursery establishment technique | 15 | 65.22 | 22 | 100.00 |
| Types and uses of trees | 11 | 47.38 | 12 | 54.55 |
| Appropriate land use | 14 | 60.87 | 9 | 40.91 |
| Agroforestry | 6 | 26.09 | 9 | 40.91 |
| Adequacy and usefulness of knowledge | | | | |
| Adequate and useful | 8 | 33.33 | 2 | 9.09 |
| Inadequate but useful | 16 | 66.70 | 20 | 90.90 |

[a] Based on respondents who were aware of training on land conservation (n=30 and 27 for men and women rspondents respectively)

Source. Survey data (2000)

### 4.6. Institutional support provided by land conservation project

Table 11 shows distribution of respondents by support which was provided by land conservation project. It was found out that majority of men (58 %) and women (47 %) (representing 52 % and 42 % of total male and female respondents) respectively who were aware of provision of support by land conservation project reported that such support had been mostly forest inputs support. The same was

affirmed by NGOs staff who were interviewed. Forestry support which was repeatedly mentioned by both NGOs and local people included mainly tree seedlings, wheel barrows, water cans, insecticides, sieves, pangas and hoes. A considerable proportion of women (25.58 %) respondents also mentioned technical support (a reflection of the introduction of household energy saving technology particularly improved stoves by some NGOs in which women were interested). Few respondents in both categories mentioned provision of equipments support. Financial support and organisational support were the least mentioned. Another big proportion of men and women interviewees made mention of agricultural inputs support which was being given by other NGOs/governments agents which were involved in both environmental and agricultural improvement initiatives. For example, Kagera Agricultural and Environmental Management Programme (KAEMP) was witnessed distributing banana suckers and cow dung/ manure to different villages.

Table 11: **Institutional support provided by land conservation project by sex**

| Support | Male (n=43) | | Female (n=43) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Technical | 3 | 6.97 | 11 | 25.58 |
| Organizational | 3 | 6.97 | 2 | 4.65 |
| Financial | 2 | 4.65 | 3 | 6.97 |
| Equipments | 6 | 13.95 | 5 | 11.63 |
| Forest inputs | 25 | 58.14 | 20 | 46.51 |
| Agricultural inputs | 13 | 30.23 | 12 | 27.91 |

Source: Survey Data (2000)

## 4.7. Land conservation methods that were introduced by land conservation project

Respondents were asked to point out land conservation methods that had been introduced and practised. Findings indicate that majority of respondents, even those who were either not aware of the existence of land conservation project or did not participate in training in land conservation mentioned tree planting, mulching and use of manure/dung (organic fertilizer) and to a lesser extent agroforestry and contour ridging to be land conservation methods that were commonly practised (Table 12). The reasons noted were that, those people who were not involved in the project, learnt these methods from their neighbours who had been participating in training on land conservation. It was further observed that most of peasants in the study area had traditionally been growing largely banana and coffee that require mulching for moisture retention, fertilizer and trees for windbreak and kept livestock mostly local cows and goats which produced manure which was applied in the fields for fertilising these perennial crops. O'kiting'ati and Mongi (1986) cited by Makauki (1999) reported similar practices in Kilimanjaro where such crops are commonly grown. The study notwithstanding, did not find any evidence which showed that practice of land conservation methods had an association ($P>0.05$) with socio-economic characteristics of the respondents.

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Table 12: **Distribution of respondents by common land conservation methods and their practice by sex (n=96)**

| Method | Male (n=43) | | Female (n=43) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Contour ridging | 13 | 27.08 | 7 | 14.58 |
| Mulching | 22 | 45.83 | 28 | 58.33 |
| Tree planting | 31 | 64.58 | 30 | 62.50 |
| Use of manure | 21 | 43.75 | 19 | 39.58 |
| Agroforestry | 11 | 22.92 | 11 | 22.92 |
| Reasons for practice | | | | |
| To conserve land | 25 | 52.08 | 24 | 50.00 |
| To increase soil fertility | 25 | 52.08 | 25 | 52.08 |
| To increase food production | 23 | 47.92 | 22 | 45.83 |

Source: Survey data (2000)

### 4.7.1. Reasons for practising land conservation methods

Table 12 presents findings in which the study found out that almost the same number of male and female respondents practised land conservation methods they had mentioned mainly for the purposes of conserving land, improving and increasing soil fertility all geared for increased food production.(see Table 12)

### 4.7.2. Potential benefits expected from land conservation project

Respondents mentioned different benefits that they expected from land conservation and the results appear in Table 13.

Table 13: **Respondents' views on expected benefits from land conservation project by sex (n=96)**

| Benefit | Male (n=48) | | Female (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Firewood/poles | 44 | 55.10 | 26 | 50.98 |
| Soil fertility increase | 28 | 57.14 | 26 | 50.98 |
| Medicine | 5 | 10.20 | 6 | 11.76 |
| Control of soil erosion | 25 | 51.02 | 21 | 41.18 |
| Fruits | 9 | 18.37 | 14 | 27.45 |
| Fodder for animals | 10 | 20.41 | 8 | 15.69 |

Source: Survey Data (2000)

Results suggest that in the tree planting activities medicinal trees were either not seriously considered or local communities were not enlightened on such important tree use (see Table 13). This was justified by a small number of respondents who considered medicine and fruits as viable benefits. It was also noted that a smaller percentage of respondents mentioned fodder for animals as a benefit expected, indicating that dairy cattle keeping(zero grazing) in the study area had not been effectively introduced. Field observation could hardly sight rural households with

cattle at zero grazing, although on the contrary, most of households at the district headquarters practised in-house cattle keeping. Thus, cattle keeping left on a free grazing system, might to a certain extent frustrate efforts towards land conservation and protection.

### 4.8. Working relations that had been existing between NGOs engaged in land conservation and government

Respondents who had earlier asserted that the land conservation project(s) had been initiated by NGOs were requested to make an assessment of the working relations that had been prevailing during project implementation. An overall assessment made by majority of men (about 67 %) and women (around 70 %) respondents (which is about 38 % and 48 % of total men and women respondents) admitted that there had been good co-operation between government and NGOs during project implementation. Others mentioned good communication and government representation, except a minor proportion of both men and women who mentioned that there had been communication breakdown between government and NGOs. For the purpose of comparative assessment, KEP-GTZ and NDDO staff were also requested to make assessment of the relations between their organizations, government and other development agencies in the district. Eight out of nine staff from these two NGOs reported that the relations had been extremely good and that co-operation between government and

among NGOs/development agencies, coupled with information sharing had been prevailing all along. Only one staff informed that relations had been poor; accompanied with misuse of resources, uncoordinated and overlapping activities.

Table 14: **Respondents' views on working relations between NGOs and government at village/ward level by sex**

| Relations | Male (n=28) | | Female (n=33) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Good communication and consultation between NGOs and government | 9 | 32.14 | 14 | 42.42 |
| Government representation in the project meetings | 9 | 32.14 | 11 | 33.33 |
| Good cooperation between government and NGOs in project implementation | 18 | 64.29 | 23 | 69.69 |
| Communication breakdown between NGOs and government | 4 | 14.29 | 1 | 3.03 |
| Poor cooperation between government and NGOs | 2 | 7.14 | - | - |

Source: Survey data (2000)

Although working relations between government and among NGOs at both grassroots and district levels were favourably described as good by majority of local men and women and NGOs staff, the study found out that, there was a

marked lack of co-ordination of NGOs' activities. For instance, the aspect of project information sharing among stakeholders/partners that had been claimed by majority of NGOs staff to have been existing, was completely dismissed by either availability of flimsy or total lack of land conservation project reports in the District Natural Resources Office (DNRO) which is the co-ordinator of natural resources protection and management. Observations further showed that many DNRO staff seemed to be less informed of what was going on in the field. These findings are in agreement with those reported by Lewis (1992) and Marcussen (1996) who found out that there was little desire on the part of many NGOs to work with government and to co-ordinate with other partners.

### 4.9. Status of the land conservation project

Respondents who previously had said were aware of land conservation project were asked to point out its status. Results on this aspect indicate that 75% and 78% of men and women (representing 68.75% and 75% of total male and female respondents) respectively held that the project was still going on. Only a proportion of between 2.3% and 11.4% of both men and women in the group claimed that the project had either been completed or abandoned or did not know its status (see Table 15).

Table 15: **Respondents' views on the status of the land conservation project by sex**

| Project status | Male (n=44) | | Female (n=46) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Complete | 1 | 2.20 | 1 | 2.17 |
| Going on | 33 | 75.00 | 36 | 78.26 |
| Abandoned | 5 | 11.36 | 5 | 10.87 |
| Do not know | 5 | 11.36 | 4 | 8.70 |
| Total | 44 | 100.00 | 46 | 100.00 |

Source: Survey data (2000)

The assertion by majority that the project was still going on was supplemented by field observations through which it was found out that most of the available NGOs staff who were to be interviewed were to be obtained only on an appointment basis as they were in the field, away from their NGOs' head offices. Such could be an indication that they were in the field on the mission of following up project activities.

### 4.9.1. Sustainability of the land conservation project

Sustainability of the land conservation activities was sought through asking respondents to judge whether or not they were sustainable. Results depict that around 73 % and 70 % of men and women who were initially aware of land conservation, maintained that land conservation activities were expectedly

sustainable (the proportions represent 66.67 % of total male and female respectively) ; against less than 25 % of men and women who predicted them to be non-sustainable.(see Table 16)

Table 16. **Respondents' opinions on sustainability of land conservation project by sex**

| Opinion | Male (n=44) | | Female (n=46) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| They are sustainable | 32 | 72.73 | 32 | 69.57 |
| They are unsastainable | 7 | 15.91 | 11 | 23.91 |
| Non response | 5 | 11.36 | 3 | 6.52 |
| Total | 44 | 100.00 | 46 | 100.00 |

Source: Survey data (2000)

### 4.9.2. Reasons for sustainability or non-sustainability of land conservation project

Respondents were asked to give reasons for sustainability or non-sustainability of land conservation activities. Majority of men (around 57 %) and women (54.35 %) who held land conservation to be sustainable were of the opinion that they had obtained useful education in and knew numerous benefits of land conservation that were liked by people. On the contrary, 11.36% and 26.09 % of men and women who condemned them to be unsustainable held that many people had not been fully

involved and educated in land conservation. This proportion of respondents who conceived land conservation activities unsustainable was not statistically significant (P>0.05).

Table 17: **Respondents' reasons for sustainability or non-sustainability of land conservation project by sex**

| Method | Male (n=44) | | Female (n=46) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Reason for sustainability | | | | |
| Beneficiaries have education | 25 | 56.82 | 25 | 54.35 |
| Government will take over | 1 | 2.27 | 1 | 2.17 |
| Reason for non-sustainabilty | | | | |
| Many people were not involved | 5 | 11.36 | 12 | 26.09 |
| It is donor dependent | 2 | 4.55 | 1 | 2.17 |
| Project was short lived | 1 | 2.27 | 1 | 2.17 |

Source: Survey data (2000)

### 4.10. Recommendations for better and sustainable implementation of land conservation activities

Respondents were requested to give recommendations on better and sustainable implementation of land conservation activities in the study area and results are reported in Table 18.

Table 18: **Respondents' recommendations for better and sustainable implementation of land conservation activities by sex (n=96)**

| Recommendation | Male (n=48) | | Female (n=48) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| Train men and women | 40 | 83.33 | 40 | 83.33 |
| Not to burn and clear forests | - | - | 2 | 4.17 |
| None | 8 | 16.67 | 6 | 12.50 |
| Total | 48 | 100.00 | 48 | 100.00 |

Source: Survey data (2000)

Majority of men and women (83.33%) recommended explicitly that NGOs/government should regularly and continuously train and involve fully men and women in land conservation initiatives/efforts. Women respondents (around 12.50 %) further went on to recommend that people should not burn and clear forests. This type of recommendation is considered important because if trees, as part of land conservation were sufficiently planted, but at the same time the traditional habits of bush fires and forest felling are not arrested/contained, then the whole exercise may become meaningless and useless.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of this study

## 5.1. Conclusions

a) Land conservation activities in refugee affected areas are largely dependent on the initiatives and support of local and foreign NGOs. However local NGOs are financially weak and their capacity to undertake land conservation activities is dependent on availability of an external donor agencies' support.

b) Conduction of public meetings for awareness creation and training on land conservation and provision of forestry inputs to some local communities physical implementation of land conservation activities by men and women are the strategies that have been adopted by NGOs in undertaking land conservation initiatives. But public meetings and training in land conservation as a tool of mobilization of rural men and women are not conducted on regular basis.

c) Process planning of land conservation initiatives is not practised by NGOs. Majority of men and women who are involved in land conservation project participate at the level of implementation rather than at all levels of project cycle. This type of planning can threaten sustainability of land conservation activities.

d) Lack of regular gender equity mobilization and education in land conservation initiatives to men and women contribute largely to less achievement of full gender integration in land conservation initiatives. Mobilization capacity of NGOs is not sufficient and it seems some development related departments which can play a decisive role in mobilizing local communities have not been directly involved in land conservation initiatives carried out and supported by NGOs. There is also a marked lack of adequate co-ordination of NGOs' land conservation activities and co-operation among NGOs and between government natural resources related departments. As a result, some NGOs' information on their land conservation activities were neither available to other partners nor to government natural resources related departments. The study confirmed this through search of information on the land conservation activities of NDDO from the District Natural Resources Office (DNRO), but could not get any. No systematic, efficient and regular reporting system had been established

e) Village environmental committees which have an important role in monitoring environment conservation activities at the grassroots level have not been well established. NGOs seemed to have overlooked this essential grassroots institution which form part of sustainable undertaking of land conservation initiatives and empowerment of the rural poor in this development process, of which they are expected to promote and strengthen.

f) Sustainability of land conservation in refugee affected areas depends greatly on extent of awareness among, training and full involvement of men and women.

## 5.2. Recommendations

a) Public meetings and training on land conservation promoted by NGOs as tool of mobilization of rural communities be conducted on regular basis, with central focus on equal representation of men and women. Given insufficient number of staff and sometimes skills, however, NGOs should strive to involve all development related departments to play their traditional role of mobilizing and creating awareness among rural communities on issues covering land conservation and development.

b) NGOs' land conservation activities should be co-ordinated and monitored by the district natural resources related departments. Even if NGOs are

increasingly showing more interest in land conservation initiatives, that remains of public interest only if they are willing to incorporate their plans in the district holistic planning process and share their experiences with other development partners This calls inevitably for systematic, efficient and transparent reporting system. Otherwise the NGOs projects will remain isolated and most likely non-replicable.

c) NGOs in collaboration with district government responsible authorities should encourage formation and/or strengthen village environmental committees with equal representation of men and women so that these grassroots institutions take charge of monitoring sustainable land conservation, management and use at this local level.

d) NGOs should adopt process planning that ensure participation of intended beneficiaries in designing/planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of land conservation project/initiatives, with full and equal involvement of men and women.

e) NGOs' land conservation initiatives should direct/focus more to rural communities than schools and church related institutions, because the former are more disadvantaged than the latter.

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# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX 1: HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS' STRUCTURED QUESIONNAIRE

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**THE ROLE OF NGOs IN INTEGRATING GENDER IN LAND CONSERVATION IN REFUGEE AFFECTED AREAS IN TANZANIA:THE CASE OF NGARA.**

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**Questionnaire for Household Members**

Please, you are kindly asked to provide sincerely information on the following questions. All information provided will strictly be treated confidentially

Respondent's Name_____
Village_____
Ward _____
Date_____

**A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

Please tick (✓) where appropriate

1. What is your age?
   _____1)18 - 23
   _____2)24 - 29
   _____3)30 - 35
   _____4)36 - 41
   _____5) 42 - 47
   _____6) 48 - 53
   _____7) 54 - 59
   _____8) 60 and above.

2. Gender of the respondent
   _____1) Male
   _____2) Female

3. Marital Status
_____1) Single
_____2) Married
_____3) Divorced
_____4) Widow

4. How many people live in your household?
_____1) 1 - 3
_____2) 4 - 6
_____3) 7 - 9
_____4) 10 and above.

5. What is your highest level of education
_____0) No education
_____1) Adult education
_____2) Primary School education
_____3) Secondary School education
_____4) Post Secondary School education
_____5) Others (specify)_____

6. What is your major economic occupation?
_____1)Farming(specify)_____
_____2) Livestock keeping (specify) _____
_____3) Both 1 & 2
_____4) Wage employee
_____5) Non-farm business(specify)_____

7. What property do you own?
_____1) Land
_____2) House
_____3) Livestock(specify)_____
_____4) Woodlot (forest)
_____5) Both 1,2,3 & 4 above

8. How did you acquire the property you own?
_____1) Inherited
_____2) Bought
_____3) Given by relatives/friends
_____4) 1 & 2 above
_____5) Others(specify)_____

9. Do you have the authority to dispose any of the property you own at your own will?
   _____1) Yes
   _____2) No

10. Do you consult your partner when you want to buy clothes, medicines, or pay school fees?
   _____1) Yes
   _____2) No

11. Who has cultural right to inherit your property?
   _____1) Male children
   _____2) Female children
   _____3) Both
   _____4) Others(specify)_____

12. Is there land degradation in your area?
   _____1) Yes (Go to Q.14)
   _____2) No
   _____3) Do not know

13. What caused this land degradation
   _____1) Refugees from Burundi and Rwanda
   _____2) Local poor farming systems
   _____3) Local overgrazing
   _____4) Large scale burning
   _____5) Deforestation
   _____6) Both 1,2,3,4 & 5 above

**GENDER INTEGRATION**

14. Are you aware of any land conservation project in your village/ward
   _____1) Yes (Go to Qn. 16)
   _____2) No

15. Who initiated the idea of the project
   _____1) Government
   _____2) Villagers
   _____3) Local village government leaders
   _____4) NGOs (specify)

16. What activities have been carried out by the project
_____1) Establishment of tree nurseries
_____2) Tree planting
_____3) Agroforestry
_____4) Contour ridging
_____5) Soil and water conservation
_____6) Others (specify)_____

17. Were you directly involved in the project activities?
_____1) Yes (Go to Q.19)
_____2) No (Go to Q.20)

18. How did you participate ?
_____1) Participation in planning
_____2) Participation in decision making
_____3) Participation in implementation
_____4) Participation in monitoring

19. Why did you not participate in the project?
_____
_____
_____

## B: INSTITUTIONAL ORGANIZATION AND CAPACITY BUILDING

20. Is there local environmental committee involved in the land conservation and management?
_____1) Yes(Go to Qn. 22)
_____2) No
_____3) Do not know

21. Are you a member of the committee?
_____1) Yes (Go to Qn. 23)
_____2) No

22. How many members compose the local environmental committee?_____

23. How often does this committee meet:
_____1) Once every month
_____2) Twice every month
_____3) Quarterly
_____4) Others (specify) _____

24. Has the project been conducting public meetings on land conservation awareness creation?
_____1) Yes (Go to Qn. 26)
_____2) No
_____3) Do not know

25 How often have you been attending these meetings?
_____1) Regularly
_____2) Sometimes
_____3) Not at all

26. Have you been contributing your ideas freely?
_____1) Yes
_____2) No

27. Has the project been providing training in land conservation for both men and women
_____1) Yes (Go to Qn.29)
_____2) No
_____3) Do not know

28. Have you attended any training in land conservation?
_____1) Yes (Go to Qn.30)
_____2) No

29. How has this training been conducted
_____1) Through workshops
_____2) Through seminars
_____3) Others (specify)_____

30. What knowledge and skills did you obtain from the training?
_____1) Awareness on environmental degradation
_____2) Establishment of tree nurseries techniques
_____3) Types and uses of different trees
_____4) Agroforestry
_____5) Soil erosion control
_____6) Appropriate land use

31. Do you find the knowledge and skills in land conservation adequate and useful?
_____1) Adequate and useful
_____2) Inadequate but useful
_____3) Neither adequate nor useful
_____4) Do not know

## D: PROJECT SUSTAINABILITY

32. Please mention support that has been provided by NGOs in land conservation.

_____1) Technical
_____2) Organisational
_____3) Financial
_____4) Logistical
_____5) Equipment
_____6) Forestry inputs
_____7) Agricultural inputs

33 Mention any 3 land conservation methods introduced by the project that you have voluntarily adopted

_____1) Contour ridging
_____2) Mulching
_____3) Tree planting
_____4) Agroforestry
_____5) Preparation and use of organic fertilizers (manure/dung)

34. Where do you practice these methods?

_____
_____

35. Why do you practice these methods?

_____1) To conserve land
_____2) To improve and increase soil fertility
_____3) To increase food production

36. What benefit do you get or expect to get from the project?

_____1) Fire wood
_____2) Soil fertility increase
_____3) Control of soil erosion
_____4) Folder for animals
_____5) Fruits
_____6) Medicines

37. What are your comments on the land conservation methods?

_____
_____
_____

38. What have been the working relations between NGOs and government authorities at village/ward level.

_____1) Good communication and consultation between NGOs and government
_____2) Government representation in the project meetings
_____3) Good cooperation between government and NGOs in project implementation
_____4) Communication and consultation break-down between NGO and government
_____ 5) Poor cooperation between government and NGOs

39. What is the status of the project?

_____1) Completed (Go to Qn.41)
_____2) On going
_____3) Abandoned

40. In your opinion, do you think the project is potentially sustainable?

_____1) It is sustainable
_____2) It is not sustainable

41. Give reasons

_____
_____

42. What recommendations would you give for better sustainable operation of the project.

_____
_____

**Thank you for your kind cooperation**

## APPENDIX 2: STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SELECTED NGOs' STAFF

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### THE ROLE OF NGOs IN INTEGRATING GENDER IN LAND CONSERVATION IN REFUGEE AFFECTED AREAS IN TANZANIA:THE CASE OF NGARA.

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**Questionnaire for Selected NGOs' Staff.**

Project Name_____
Respondent Name_____
Position of the respondent_____
Organization_____
Date_____

### A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Age of the Respondent_____

2. Gender of the Respondent
   _____1) Male
   _____2) Female

3. Marital status
   _____1) Single
   _____2) Married
   _____3) Divorced
   _____4) Widow

4. Highest Professional Qualification_____

5. When did you join the organization?
   _____1) Since its establishment in Tanzania
   _____2) Less than a year ago
   _____3) A year ago
   _____4) Two years ago
   _____5) More than two years ago

## PARTICIPATION OF BENEFICIARIES

6. When did this project start?
   _____1) A year ago
   _____2) Two years ago
   _____3) Three years ago
   _____4) More than three years ago

7. Who initiated the project idea?
   _____1) Government
   _____2) Villagers
   _____3) My organization
   _____4) Others (specify)_____

8. What were the goal and objectives of the project?
   1. _____
   2. _____
   3. _____
   4. _____
   5. _____

9. What strategies did your organization adopt in order to realize the project objectives?
   1. _____
   2. _____
   3. _____
   4. _____

10. What was the planned term of the project
    _____1)Long term
    _____2)Medium term
    _____3) Short term
    _____4) Emergency

11. Did the project objectives address the needs and priorities of both men and women?
    _____1) Yes(Go to Qn.12)
    _____2) No

12. Which men's priorities were addressed?
    1. _____
    2. _____
    3. _____
    4. _____

13. Which women's priorities were addressed?
    1. _____
    2. _____
    3. _____
    4. _____

14. What were the project main activities?
    1. _____
    2. _____
    3. _____
    4. _____
    5. _____

15. How did the project ensure involvement of both men and women in its implementation?

    _____
    _____
    _____

16. At what level of the project were men and women involved?
    _____1) Planning and designing
    _____2) Implementation
    _____3) Monitoring
    _____4) Both 1,2 & 3.

17. At implementation level, in which activities were men involved?
    1. _____
    2. _____
    3. _____
    4. _____

18. In which activities were women involved?
    1. _____
    2. _____
    3. _____
    4. _____

19. How was people's perception with respect to the ownership of the project?
    _____1) Theirs
    _____2) Government's
    _____3) NGOs'

20. Does women's low social status have any implication on their participation in the project?
_____1) Yes(Go to Qn.21)
_____2) No

21. Please specify
_____
_____

## INSTITUTIONAL ORGANIZATION AND CAPACITY BUILDING.

22. Is there local environmental committee that is involved in the land conservation and management?
_____1) Yes(Go to Qn.23)
_____2) No

23. How many members compose this committee?_____

24. What is the composition of the members of the committee by gender?
Number of men_____
Number of women_____

25. When was the environmental committee formed
_____1) At the initiation of the project
_____2) Later during implementation
_____3) Do not know

26. How often does this committee meet.
_____1) Once every month
_____2) Twice every month
_____3) Quarterly
_____4) Others (specify) _____

27. Has the project been providing training in land conservation for both men and women
_____1) Yes (Go to Qn.28)
_____2) No

28. How has this training been conducted
_____1) Through workshops
_____2 ) Through seminars
_____3) Others specify)_____

29. Was the training conducted separately for men and women?
_____1) Yes
_____2) No(Go to Qn.30)

30. Have women been contributing their ideas freely?
_____1) Yes
_____2) No(Go to Qn31)

31. What are the possible reasons which inhibit women's contribution of their ideas to the project success?
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

32. Has the training been effective?
_____1) Yes
_____2) No
_____3) I'm not sure

**PROJECT SUSTAINABILITY.**

33. What land conservation methods did the project introduce?
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

34. Have these land conservation methods been voluntarily adopted by both men and women in their farms?
_____1) Yes
_____2) No

35. What type of support has your organization been providing to the project?
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

36. Has the support been provided on a cost recovery basis?
_____1) Yes
_____2) No

37. What have been the working relations between your organization and other development agencies in the district?
_____1) Very poor
_____2) Poor
_____3)Good

38. Comment on the effects of these relations on the project
_____
_____
_____
_____

39. What are the expected benefits of the project ?
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

40. Have they been achieved?
_____1) Yes(Go to Qn.41)
_____2) No

41. Are these benefits equally shared between men and women?
_____1) Yes
_____2) No (Go to Qn. 42)

42. What should be done to ensure gender equity in access to these benefits?
_____

43. In your opinion, do you think the project is sustainable?
_____1) It is sustainable
_____2) It is not sustainable

44. Give reasons
_____

**Thank you for your kind cooperation.**