“.... the very purpose of society – its raison d’être – is and must be the individual man, his growth, his security, his dignity and, therefore, his happiness.” (F. Ochieng’-Odhiambo, 2010: 170f)

Evaluative study of Tanzania’s public policies

Special focus on Education, Health and the Environment

Anders Linde
2014
Abstract
Tanzania’s policy course of action has in accordance with the politico-economic framework set by neoliberal ideals focused on implementing reforms for the improvement of the business environment in tandem with restraining the role of government in production and marketing and hence bolstered the participatory role of the private actors in many sectors of the society. Using a systematic processing of publications and documented material, in combination with a qualitative analysis and interactive synthesis method, utilizing a critical realist review approach as well as a meta-narrative analysis technique, this study argues that the promulgated policies have not brought about the envisioned all-encompassing benefits and social involvement of the people of Tanzania. The main findings of the study are on the one hand obvious shortcomings in terms of attaining substantive progress for Tanzania’s citizens in much of the studied policy areas. On the other hand, the frequently exhibited indices of macro-economical progress are by and large outweighed by the numerous manifestations of unintended consequences or downplayed ineptitudes with respect to the needs and aspirations of the county’s citizenry. The reversal is markedly apparent by the policy reforms and related procedural steps where an international agenda dominate the politico-economic discourse and influence the developmental direction of the nation. More responsive policy interventions that safeguard an inclusive development discourse and the establishment of a deliberative national arrangement targeting a consummate participation of sufficiently empowered individuals would be of great value for any forthcoming development endeavors. Complementary research efforts are arguably motivated in order to highlight and provide support of local groups and communitarian stakeholders in their struggles to become more efficiently organized and suitably equipped to claim their constitutional entitlements and gain practical recognition of their irrefutable human rights.

Key Words: Public Policy, Education, Health, Environment, Tanzania
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<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AfDB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
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<tr>
<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome</td>
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<td>AMO</td>
<td>Assistant Medical Officer</td>
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<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
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<td>CBO</td>
<td>Community-Based Organisation</td>
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<td>CDM</td>
<td>Clean Development Mechanism</td>
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<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organisation</td>
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<td>CVD</td>
<td>Cardiovascular Disease</td>
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<td>DAC</td>
<td>Development Assistance Committee (OECD)</td>
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<td>DFI</td>
<td>Development Finance Institution</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>EIA</td>
<td>Environmental Impact Assessment</td>
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<td>EID</td>
<td>Emerging infectious diseases</td>
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<td>ESDP</td>
<td>Education Sector Development Programme</td>
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<td>ETP</td>
<td>Education and Training Policy</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization</td>
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<td>FBO</td>
<td>Faith-Based Organization</td>
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<td>FDI</td>
<td>Foreign Direct Investment</td>
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<td>GAR</td>
<td>Gross Attendance Rate (school attendance)</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross domestic product</td>
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<td>GOT</td>
<td>Government of Tanzania</td>
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<td>GPI</td>
<td>Gender Parity Index</td>
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<td>HEDP</td>
<td>Higher Education Development Program</td>
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<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institution</td>
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<tr>
<td>HESLB</td>
<td>Higher Education Students’ Loans Board</td>
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<td>HIPC</td>
<td>Heavily Indebted Poor Countries</td>
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<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus</td>
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<td>HRH</td>
<td>Human Resources for Health</td>
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<td>HSSP</td>
<td>Health Sector Strategic Plan</td>
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<td>ICRI</td>
<td>International Coral Reef Initiative</td>
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<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>International Financial Institutions</td>
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<td>IFPRI</td>
<td>International Food Policy Research Institute</td>
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<tr>
<td>IGO</td>
<td>Inter-Governmental Organization</td>
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<td>IIED</td>
<td>International Institute for Environment and Development</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>ILRI</td>
<td>International Livestock Research Institute</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>IRA</td>
<td>Institute of Resource Assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISM</td>
<td>Institute of Marine Sciences, University of Dar es Salaam</td>
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<tr>
<td>ITUC</td>
<td>International Trade Union Confederation</td>
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<td>IUCN</td>
<td>International Union for Conservation of Nature</td>
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<tr>
<td>JGI</td>
<td>Jane Goodall Institute</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millenium Development Goal</td>
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<tr>
<td>MKUKUTA</td>
<td>National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty</td>
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<tr>
<td>MKURABITA</td>
<td>Property and Business Formalisation Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>MKUZA</td>
<td>Strategy for growth and reduction of poverty in Zanzibar</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOEVT</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Vocational Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOHSW</td>
<td>Ministry of Health and Social Welfare</td>
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NAR  Net Attendance Rate (school attendance)
NCD  Non-Communicable Disease
NEMC  National Environment Management Council (Dar es Salaam)
NGO  Non-Governmental Organization
NRI  Natural Resources Institute (UK)
NTD  Neglected Tropical Diseases
NWFP  Non-Wood Forest Product
ODA  Official Development Assistance
OECD  Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OOP  Out-of-pocket
PEDP  Primary Education Development Plan
PLWH  People Living with HIV
PqTR  Pupil to qualified Teacher Ratio
PSR  Public Sector Reform
PTR  Pupil to Teacher Ratio
REDD  Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries
SADC  Southern African Development Community
SDC  Sickle Cell Disease
SDG  Sustainable Development Goal
SDH  Social Determinants of Health
SEDP  Secondary Education Development Plan
SSA  Sub-Saharan Africa
TCU  Tanzanian Commission for Universities
TEA  Tanzania Education Authority
TIE  Tanzania Institute of Education
TNC  Nature Conservatory (UK)
TRAFFIC  Wildlife Trade Monitoring Network (UK)
TRI  Tropical Resources Institute (Yale University)
UN  United Nations
UNCED  United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNCTAD  United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP  United Nations Development Programme
UNECFA  United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNEP  United Nations Environmental Programme
UNESCO  United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNIDO  United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UONGOZI  Institute of African Leadership for Sustainable Development (Dar es Salaam)
UPE  Universal Primary Education
URT  United Republic of Tanzania
WCS  Wildlife Conservation Society
WHO  World Health Organization
WIOMSA  Western Indian Ocean Marine Science Association
WRI  World Resources Institute
WTO  World Trade Organization
WWF  World Wildlife Fund
1. Introduction

1.1 Research problem

A topical country in sub-Saharan Africa that illustrates the prevalent ambiguous perceptions around the continent’s actual fulfillment of their highly ambitious socio-economic development objectives is Tanzania. This iconic East African nation with a relatively peaceful history and a fairly orderly political legacy is considered to be somewhat of a ‘best-in-class’ example of a progressive developing country in sub-Saharan Africa. The actual fulfillment of the documented policy objectives for specific sectors of its national development plans should thus be possible to verify and the findings of such an investigation should hence be possible to use as indices or symptoms of the adequacy, quality and responsiveness of the Tanzania’s policy agenda. An official assessment of Tanzania’s developmental status and national accomplishments thus far was made public through the latest status report concerning the country’s attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (2010). The presented status of specific development targets highlighted a number of problematic obstacles to a satisfactory fulfillment of the desired socio-economic objectives of the country (URT, 2011[2]). Among the concerns, the report captured urgent needs of enhancements in the health and educational service sectors in terms of availability, reliability and quality. Moreover, Tanzania’s natural environment was depicted as being subject to mounting strains with extensive degradation of the country’s natural resources and a notable inadequacy in professional skills and basic awareness of good/best environment/conservation practices (Ibid.). An essential frame of reference as to the ultimate practical value of Tanzania’s adopted policies and additionally of critical importance for the entirety of her diverse and huge population would hence be to probe deeper into the primal developmental sectors of education and health as well as to scrutinize the harnessing and utilization of the natural environment and its resources.

1.2 Aim and relevance of research

The purpose with the research is to try to assess the implications’ of the realized public policy processes for the education-, health- and environment sectors in Tanzania by portraying the practical results of the promoted policies from the perspective of the ordinary citizen (common man). The research is motivated by an on-going debate about the effectiveness of liberalization policies in developing countries under the guidance of multilateral institutions (Goodhart, 2005: 9; Richards & Gelleny, 2013: 179ff). While some proponents argue that liberalization is a precondition and the ex ante of rapid, steadfast and sustained economic growth, (Krueger, 1998; Edwards, 1998; IMF, 2004; Winters, 2004; Winters & McCulloch & McKay, 2004), others are much more hesitant about the reduction of state control and dispute the premise of the supposed virtues of unregulated markets arguing that there are minute evidential facts supporting the notion of an intimate correlation between liberalization and positive socio-economic developments (Harrison & Hanson, 1999; Rodriguez & Rodrik, 1999).

1 The International Financial Institutions (IFIs) and donor community’s approval and positive outlook on the recent decades of development trajectory in Tanzania is manifested in repeated official pronouncements, as exemplified by the IMF, in their stating that: ‘twenty years of successes have made Tanzania one of the leading reformers in Africa’ (IMF, 2009)[1]: 7), and by the OECD (2013), who lauds Tanzania for employing a balanced development approach of policy co-ordination that embeds social protection within the scope of the broader social and economic policy planning framework (OECD, 2013[2]: 77).
Still other studies point to a direct antipodal relationship between economic institutions, political institutions, openness, and income levels, as in Rigobon and Rodrik study (2005) where they found that openness (trade/GDP) exerted a negative impact on income levels and democracy but a positive effect on rule of law (Rigobon & Rodrik, 2005).

1.3 Key research questions
The following two research questions serve to concentrate and distill the essence of this study:

1. How does Tanzania’s national policy framework attend to its human resource base in terms of rendering better livelihoods and ameliorated life opportunities for its citizens?
2. What are the practical results of the propagated policies from the ordinary citizens’ perspective?

The first question captures the content of the public policy-making that the government of Tanzania has promoted during the past three decades. The second question addresses the interpreted results of these policies from the popular perspective. In effect the dual questions mirror the positivistic flavor of the otherwise predominantly constructivist reasoning of this study.

1.4 Research method and theoretical basis for study
This is a desk based study involving a systematic processing of many formats and types of data, publications and other written information that combines qualitative analysis with realist synthesis of the collected material. Epistemologically, the research makes use of generalizations and scientific inferences as well as the application of thick explanations and the adoption of differentiated theoretical perspectives. Ontologically, the study incorporates social constructivism through the systematic search for complexity of perspectives and opinions to conceptualize the full scope of the research findings, as well as positivism to concretize causal chains that fit the mode of research for the observed contextual environment. (Creswell, 2009: 7f). The research work is conducted very much in the spirit of critical theory, with its visions of resurrection and empowerment of the downtrodden and the defeated, by espousing enlightenment on account of groups of people who have yet to reap the rewards of a contemporary socio-economic world order (Ibid.: 9). The theoretical point of departure for the study is the neoliberal view of the world as a marketplace and how its rulemaking advocates and participating actors will bring about socio-economic benefits to each and everyone in accordance with his/her individual demands, needs and desires. The reductionist narratives of the good virtues of neoliberal ideals talking hold in Africa and advocated and promoted within a diverse context of governance interventions linked to the structuring of capitalist institutions and state actions is a fundamental element of this discourse. The implemented institutions of liberalism with their logic of private appropriation as the foundational prerequisite for socio-economic development, versus the notion of social capital as a central aspect for a reclaimed public life, is also an argumentative basis for this research.

1.5 Disposition
The introductory chapter provides a short description of the research problem and brings forth the aim and relevance of this study. The main research questions, the theoretical basis and the methodology are briefly covered. The structure of the paper and the delimited framework in terms of selected policy areas as well as the
research boundaries (temporal and procedural) of the study are also highlighted. The conceptualized apprehensions of liberalism and various advocates as well as its contextual basis are elaborated in chapter two. This chapter also dwells on the discourse around governance and public policy development and the connections with human development and social progress, both in worldly terms as well as in its African apparition. Chapter three covers the methodological approach including the search, selection and structuring of the information and data, the analytic procedures and the integrated synthesis phase. Aspects pertaining to validity and rigor of the research as well as the epistemological approach of the study are covered in this chapter, as well as the strategy to secure truth value, applicability, and consistency. Chapter three ends with a review of the manifold information sources that constitute the basis for the desk-based research project. Chapter four presents an assessment of the outcome of Tanzania’s policy reforms for the education, health, and environment sectors. Tanzania’s citizen’s access to essential livelihood resources are also examined and evaluated. Chapter five dwells on the aspects of the ‘social contract’ as a result of Tanzania’s market oriented public policy regime and governance model. The chapter presents an appraisal of ordinary citizen’s life conditions under the prevailing policy doctrines, as well as perceptions of citizen’s views of the state and its governing representatives. Chapter six provides a summary discussion on the policy reforms in the spirit of liberalization and its transformational impacts on the country’s citizens. A summing-up concluding analysis and complementary synthesis is presented in chapter seven and the final chapter eight brings forwards recommendations and food for thought from the study as well as suggested aspects with potential for further research. Each chapter starts with a short introduction providing the basic information about the content of the chapter.

1.6 Limitations
In order to facilitate interpretations and draw unequivocal conclusions, the study is limited to some aspects and related mechanisms and subsequent consequences out of a multifaceted and highly complex contextual setting. While a desk based study is one way of generating new knowledge (or induce novel aspects and/or amalgamations of existing information) it still lacks the human touch and emotional vitality of eye-to-eye investigations and unfiltered observations forthcoming in field research. As Mikkelsen (2005) states in her guide on methods for development work and research: ‘Reflection is enhanced through practice, and guidance is provided on alternative ways to generate and analyze data for development studies in cooperation with the affected and concerned people’ (Mikkelsen, 2005: 27f). Therefore, although this study had the intent to assess the socio-economic outcome for ordinary Tanzanian citizens as a consequence of the prevailing policy agenda and adhered to governance model, some degree of amalgamation, generalization and overarching story-line identification has been necessary to embrace and rely on throughout this pronouncedly explorative review.

1.7 Delimitations
In accordance with Hill’s (2009) distinction between ‘high politics’ in managing external relations and the international regulatory structure for the world economy and other geo-political regulatory frameworks and the ‘low politics’ of delivering public services and the regulation of everyday life of people at the local context, this
study concentrating on the ‘low politics’ category of policy making (Hill, 2009: 118). The policy process investigations are moreover limited to the scrutiny and illumination of a few key policy areas and social studies domains; education; health; environment; and the social contract, with the main attention given to the policy making decisions and the guiding documents to realize the implementation of the policy decisions, as well as the analysis and assessment of the actual outcomes of the performed policy development procedures within these policy areas.

2. Research conceptualizations and study springboards

This chapter provides a brief overview of the broad field of liberal ideas in human affairs with a specific focus on neoliberalism and its discontents. A depiction is made of the efforts by the multilateral institutions and donor nations to induce neoliberal values and promote the implementation of related public policies in Africa as an integrated facet of yet more globalization: more trade, finance and direct investment flows. Furthermore, the chapter situates the corresponding interventions within a more diverse context of regional governance structures and governance interventions linked to the structuring of capitalist institutions and state actions. African countries accommodating incorporation of the regiments and requirements of the global market of commerce and trade is also briefly covered in this chapter, followed by a presentation of the concept of social capital and its logic and meaning in modern capitalist societies as a final aspect and point of departure for the study. The chapter concludes with a review of the literature basis for the study in terms of their type, originating source, aspects covered, issues addressed and value in view of the chosen approach for this exploratory research task.

2.1 The guise of liberalism and its societal practice

Liberalism brings forth an abundant flow of alternative ideas and a versatility of values. The discourse of the unbound and unrestrained individual free to act in the world spans multiple fields: philosophical; political; economical; sociological; and not least religious and spiritual facets and hues of human existence. Some discursive aspects transpire as common principles: secularism\(^2\) and universalism\(^3\) concerning intellectual and personal freedom; constitutionalism\(^4\) dwelling on political freedom, i.e. the control of and hedging against uninhibited power; and generic market economic models implying freedom in many practical and material things. Liberalism may furthermore be positioned either to the left or right on the economic scale, and as more authoritarian or more libertarian on the political scale.\(^5\) The libertarian\(^6\) perspectives on liberalism or neo-liberal worldviews all contend that a free society is exclusively based on the notion that the free market is the only competent processor of knowledge, which is partial and embodied in individuals. A contemporary devotee of the unrestrained market

\(^2\) Secularism is the principle of the separation of government institutions and persons mandated to represent the state from religious institutions and religious dignitaries (Stanford, 2014[1]).

\(^3\) Universalism refers to religious, theological, and philosophical concepts with universal application or applicability (Stanford, 2014[2]).

\(^4\) Constitutionalism is the idea, that government can and should be legally limited in its powers, and that its authority or legitimacy depends on its observing these limitations (Stanford, 2014[3]).

\(^5\) The opposite of fascism is anarchism (ie. liberal socialism), and the opposite of communism (ie. an entirely state-planned economy) is neo-liberalism (i.e. extremely deregulated economy) (Political Compass, 2014).

\(^6\) Libertarianism affirms the rights of individuals to liberty, to acquire, keep, and exchange their holdings, and considers the protection of individual rights the primary role for the state (Stanford, 2014[4]).
economic model is political economist and influential banker, Björn Wahlroos\textsuperscript{7}, who conveys a powerful tribute to neo-liberal capitalism and defends its awkward tendency to reinforce random and unequal remunerative benefits between nations and peoples. Wahlroos contends that increased inequality is not a problem, as everyone will attain better living conditions over time in tandem with expanded free trade and continued economic growth (Wahlroos, 2012). Scholars however, mull over whether or not neoliberal protagonists disparage common human essentials and foundational social components that bind individuals closer together and fosters well-functioning societies. Anthropologist, Aihwa Ong, conveys a figurative image of policy making as the art of attending to the different desires and requests of the market economy, to manage social needs and in general of indentifying and delivering short-term and technocratic solutions to different kinds of defined problems (Ong, 2006). Ong argues that people are being organized and rights and benefits are distributed to them according to their marketable skills rather than according to their membership within nation-states. Consequently, individuals are made to continuously adjust and fine-tune their lifestyles, their bodies, their health and their mental spirits, all in order to induce an optimization of their choices, their viabilities and their competitiveness under the turbulent and unpredictable conditions of the market (Ibid.). A fundamental contradiction and obdurate feature of the global neo-liberal thrust, is that the particular rights we normally expect of any liberal democracy do generally take insufficient account of the cultural, religious, traditional and ethnic diversity of individual societies. To this end, philosopher and sociologist Slavoj Žižek in “Living in the End Times” (2010), claims that the global liberal order is imposing itself as the best of all possible worlds as an imagined utopia that will become a reality when we all subject ourselves fully to the mechanisms of the market, but has abandoned all memory of alternative thoughts on how to constitute our lives and our socio-economic existence on this planet (Žižek, 2010: 38). In effect, the conditions of widespread plurality and extensive cognitive divides in societies confront liberal theories with difficult challenges in attaining general accepted principles on central moral issues. The superiority of individualism is hardly the primary theme within either most traditional cultures or with the mainstream liberal discourse, and hence it may be set forth that the notion of the fully liberalized individual, is by and large an abstraction. In an anthology of liberalism and communitarianism\textsuperscript{8}, Michael Freeden, political scientist in Oxford, purports that the mature liberal tradition has always tried to balance individual freedom with the common demands of society which has inspired philosophical movements giving prominence to concepts of social context (Freeden, 2001). This countercurrent of ideas is built around the methodological claims about the importance of tradition and social context and ontological claims about the social nature of the self, as well as normative claims about the value of community (Berman, 2006). A case in point is the concept of human rights which is an essential component in any discussion about socio-economic development, societal modernization and commercial competitiveness and Karen Bravo (2011)

\textsuperscript{7} Björn “Nalle” Wahlroos is Scandinavia’s most powerful banker. He is Chairman of Nordea, where financial group Sampo is the largest shareholder with 21 percent. Wahlroos in turn is the third largest shareholder of Sampo, who also owns the Swedish insurance company If (Pietiläinen, 2014).

\textsuperscript{8} Communitarianism is a philosophy that emphasizes the connection between the individual and the community and is derived from the assumption that individuality is a product of community relationships rather than only individual traits (Stanford, 2014[2]).
makes an important notation in identifying a clear gap between the conceptualization of humans under human rights laws (as rights-bearing persons) as opposed to under international trade laws (as immobile units subsumed in the production process) (Bravo, 2011: 137).

2.2 Global policy regimes
African countries are struggling in their efforts to participate fully in the globalised world of commerce and trade, despite their accommodating incorporation of the normative frameworks of the global market and their obliging adherence to the global compact of ‘Good Governance’. J.W. Smith (2005) contends that the multilateral institutions have facilitated growth of markets for the industrialized countries’ and adhered to a biased strategy of staying very much attuned to the promotion of economic policy agendas that foremost benefit their western peers’ exporting entities (Smith, 2005: 195). In addition to African countries’ under-representation at WTO headquarters because of insufficient economic and human resources, there is the complexity of WTO bodies, rules and procedures, and the frustrations related to the limited insights into the often opaque stakes behind development choices. 9 In effect, market demands frequently undermine the capacity of governments from minor developing countries to set their own national policy objectives and domestic standards (Steger, 2013: 66). Slavoj Žižek argues that market capitalism in its present form has fomented a new tendency toward global imbalances and unjustified oligarchy, masked behind a paean to multiculturalism and dedication to some tenable paragon of justice (Žižek, 2013: 39f). American political-economist and activist David C. Korten, purports to be a supporter of the idea that markets are essential and beneficial human institutions but disavows cultural values and institutions that he means are grounded in the anti-natural notion that people exist to serve the economy, which he feels leads to alienation and reification in work and life. Korten is consequently a firm believer in market participant’s mature sense of their responsibility for the whole to secure the endurance of markets (Korten, 2006 & 2009).

2.3 Economical and political imperatives
Political scientist Graham Harrison (2010) puts forward the notion that Africa is at the forefront of the all-encompassing globalization project characterized by a relentless endeavor to form and shape human civilization in an evermore market driven world order. He contends that it constitutes a powerful transformational thrust that to a considerable degree relies on neoliberal ideas and the establishment of powerful capitalist institutions. 10 In his words:

9 WTO (The World Trade Organization) is a multilateral economic institution established in 1995 and currently constituted of 159 member countries (WTO 2013[2]). It replaced the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and significantly increased its authority on global trade issues. Free trade, the main motive for the establishment of the WTO, is more than economic efficiency, it is increasingly politically driven. The WTO is therefore an organization that cannot be bypassed by any country that wishes to integrate into the world economy (Pieterse, 2004; Finger, 2008; de Crombrugghe, 2009). The WTO, does not recognise any UN legal instruments, including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 (George, 2007).

10 Economic historian, anthropologist, political economist, sociologist and philosopher Karl Polanyi in ‘the Great Transformation’, first published in 1944, showed how the steady expansion of market economic aspects of our existence has totally overwhelmed the political and the social aspects of human life on earth in terms of how economics (narrow perspective) maintains the dominating influence over the shape of the world and of our experience of it. In essence Polanyi depicts market economics as the altering of human mentalities away from a non-utility maximizing mindset to the ‘modern’ commoditized and monetized value-setting mindsets (Polanyi, 2002). Read more in Appendix A: The Transformation of the World System: Some Insights from the Work of Karl Polanyi!
“If we understand a key facet of globalization as the rolling out of neoliberalism, then we should acknowledge that any study of neoliberalism as a globalizing project should locate Africa at its heart of its research because it is a world region that has undergone such extensive and protracted neoliberal social engineering.” (Harrison, 2010: 4)

By consequence, the exacted economical and political transformations amount to a veritable de-jure legalistic imperative to conform to the preferred global model. A case in point is in the area of financial policy where liberalization schemes not only diminished local control over financial and economic policy, but also changed its objectives to the highly focused sectors of macroeconomic stabilization and debt servicing and thus awarded prioritization to the formation of financial policy instruments and key economic performance indicators such as exchange rates and interest rates, and comparatively less attention to the `real' side variables of economics (employment-, quality of public sector services, infrastructure development etc.) (Mkandawire, 1999). There is nothing more illustrative of the patrimonial stance by the foreign parties than in the IMF’s and World Bank’s open veto of government’s appointment to domestic central banks and national ministries (Martin, 2005: 296).

2.4 Good governance states and an ‘ideal’ public policy model

The market-friendly approach to development in tandem with the neoliberal agenda’s aspirations has coincided with a forceful international movement to promote ‘Good Governance’ in nations throughout the world (van de Walle & Scott, 2011). The concept is embossed by a governing system that promotes equity, participation, pluralism, transparency, and accountability for market active entities and their freely conducted collaborations, exchanges and interactions under an all-encompassing umbrella of a firm and proactively enforced rule of law (United Nations, 2009). Governance in this sense refers to the practical execution of power and policy conducted in an executive manner that is effective, efficient and enduring (Ibid.).

Graham Harrison (2004) brings forward the notion of 'governance states' as constituting a particular sub-set of states that have undergone specific processes of World Bank program lending, administrative reform, and discursive shaping. The key features of governance states include a privileged showcase status, recent economic growth, controlled processes of political transition, and the persistence of a stable and ordered state. Harrison argues that these characteristics, to different degrees, mark the contemporary cases of Mozambique, Tanzania, and Uganda (Harrison, 2004: 39ff). The IMF regard Tanzania’s structural reforms in public financial management, energy, public debt management, and statistics as the essential ingredients of the successful implementation of the comprehensive macroeconomic program for the country (IMF, 2013[2]: 11). Banks have a very optimistic view of Tanzania’s future especially with an impressive series of recent mineral discoveries, a rapidly growing population, its vast abundance of arable land and not least due to its recent multi-billion dollar European 15-year bond offering. Tanzania is therefore deemed to be an attractive FDI destination, which is moreover anticipated to increase as the country enacts further accommodating regulatory reforms and addresses its residual infrastructure bottlenecks (AfDB, 2011; FT, 2013).

In sum the international banking community praise Tanzania as one of the world’s most rapidly growing countries, and economists hails her robust macroeconomic stability, budget controls and rising revenue collection, and her

11 ‘Good governance’s conceptual idea and outcome-oriented purpose is in essence applicable for any level of exercised authority is: a government (nation state); a corporation (business entity); through customary institutions (tribe, family, etc.) (United Nations, 2009).
mounting consumer demand (Ibid.).

2.5 Social capital and sociality
In societies characterized by increasingly intensive and close interdependencies between various parties and interests, the importance of social cohesion has been readily acknowledged as being critical for societies to prosper economically and for development to be sustainable’ (World Bank 1999). In her book ‘Governing the Commons: The Evolution of Institutions for Collective Action’ (1990), political scientist Ellinor Ostrom expresses her sympathy for the formation of a deliberative institutional arrangement for making decisions that also incorporates a facilitating context that provides a real possibility to influence and shape decisions. This is somewhat of an antithesis of the liberal model of society and its vision of democracy where no one ever needs to account for their opinions, argue for them and last but not least, transform and develop them through the confrontation with other stakeholders and interests (Ostrom, 1990). Swedish political scientist Bo Rothstein in his book, ‘Sociala fällor och tillitens problem’ (2003), introduces the concept of ‘social traps’ as being situations where individuals, groups or organizations are unable to cooperate owing to mutual distrust and lack of social capital, even where cooperation would benefit all. Examples include pervasive corruption, ethnic discriminations, depletion of natural resources and misuse of governmental systems. In a complex society with extensive interdependencies between people the dependency on established trust in the generalized other becomes more pronounced. Rothstein accordingly argues that it is the existence of universal and impartial political institutions together with public policies which enhance social and economic equality that creates social capital (Rothstein, 2003). Professor of Public Policy, Robert D. Putnam, submits that social capital constitutes the basic foundation not only for democracy but also for economic growth. Expressed in economic terms, social capital reduces the transactional costs within society, i.e. the costs related to the acquisition of adequate information about other actors and stakeholders in society and to limit the risk factors that are apparent in their mutual dealings with one another. Limiting the transactional costs is crucial if one aims to facilitate an expansion of the volume and value of economic exchange and attain a more advanced division of labor in society. In other words, ‘social capital’s’ specific weight as a growth factor increases in line with society's mounting degree of complexity (Putnam, 2005). British historian Tony Judt in his book ‘Illa far landet’ (2011) explores the deterioration of public services and the reduction of them to leased networks of private service providers. Judt contends that the weakening of the bonding between individuals in their social interactions engenders a contradictory increased dependence on and subjugation to the state that in its turn is tempted to seek its goals through more imperative means (Judt, 2011).

3. Methodology
This research is conducted as a desk based study. It is a broadly conceived and comprehensive review conducted in an explorative but still systematic fashion, from the probing location of existing literature sources in tandem with a concomitant selection and evaluation of the identified contributions, over the analysis and synthesis phases of the findings to a successively attained composition stage allowing for the subsequently reasoned discernments and conclusive determinations reached about the chosen topic. The study is consistently guided through its
methodological exploration of the perceived phenomenon of the chosen topic via the devise of inquiries to gauge and evaluate the complex set of factors and causality mechanisms that underlie the uncovered issues and apprehended impressions that surrounds and evolve from the two basic research questions.

3.1 Literature – systematized search, selection and structure

The purpose of the literature review was to provide a context for the research as well as to constitute its theoretical basis. Furthermore it was important in determining the nature and limitations of the study and by helping to clarify its position vis-à-vis the existing body of knowledge. Additionally the literature review was critical for the identification of the relationships between the literature and the research topic and not least valuable as it provided a verification of its contribution to a raised understanding and refined knowledge of the chosen subject. The process was initiated by an extensive browsing in libraries and on the internet to get a feel for the overall topic of research and to scope the width of the planned study, followed by both a hand search of potential sources across the subject matter as well as an electronic search of internet sources. The aim of the literature review was to gauge whether or not all relevant information was feasible to identify and could be obtained or if the methods used would introduce bias. In order to bring an adequate degree of rigor to the study, conscious efforts was made to maintain a reasonable level of awareness of implicit value stances that could bias the interpretation and assessment of both the relevance and validity of the information in the review process. Furthermore, the review has been guided by dedicated efforts to ensure validity and in limiting bias through its comprehensive approach of incorporating and synthesizing a wide array of sources of information and data. Accordingly, a propensity of incorporating a plurality of literature sources as well as an overall strife to contain diversity of perspectives and richness of views has informed the literature review (Creswell, 2009: 33ff). Information and data have been extracted and juxtaposed from a great number of sources to form a broader narrative built from a larger effective literature selection, thus relying on the distended selection to facilitate the subsequent interpretation and concluding reasoning of the research topic. Thus it amounts to a process of successively organizing the interpreted and assessed information into a format that engender and enable a summarized depiction of the findings. Given the complexity of multi-cultural national contexts in a divided socio-economic reality such as the Tanzanian example exhibits, a heuristic approach was found to be advantageous in forming a generalized comprehension of the investigated issues and specifically for the clarification of the related causal mechanisms. Therefore, to achieve a richer understanding of the studied phenomenon it has been necessary to integrate the evidence with a piecing out of more detailed insights of the local circumstances as well as incorporating the perspectives of the concerned community representatives and locally affected stakeholders. A key aspect of the information collection process has been the diverging treatment of the official policy documents and the policy evaluating documentation. The governmental policy documents conveying governmental plans, programs and national ambitions and goals have been categorized as the main point of reference and starting point for the study, and have thus been examined and acknowledged ad litteram, without paraphrasing or further interpretations from any ideological perspectives, or paradigmatic perspectives. This is in diametrical contrast with the disparate policy evaluating literature which has
been the subject of various aggregations, comparisons, and positioning displacements as well as frequent contextual reflections and paradigm contemplations.

### 3.2 Analytical approach – inclusive exploration and heuristic interpretation

The source analysis involved the categorization and indexing of the selected literature sources for purposes of making sense of the information and data and to highlight key messages, typical features and core findings. Moreover, the intention with this meticulous activity of discerning labeling to foment order and structure of the cumbersome input material was to bring the collected information into a more usable state where similarities and differences could be readily recognized, summarized and tabulated. The aim of the analysis phase of the research work was hence to decipher and understand the larger picture by using the collected information and data to grasp the targeted issues, describe the related phenomenon and conceive and formulate its meanings. The analysis process was to a large extent carried out in concurrence with the data collection activities so that new analytic steps informing the process of additional data collection and new data informing the analytic processes, thus resulting in a qualitative data analysis processes that was not entirely distinguishable from the continuous operations of extraction of data (Creswell, 2009: 176). This was an explicit step in conceptually interpreting the data set as a whole, when molding the disparate source information and data into coherent depictions of what was actually being studied. It amounted to sorting and organizing the selected source information and to transforming the collected material into credible and meaningful findings. As such the analysis was concerned with both the specific contributions of each specific literature source and what could be inferred or implied by combining the disparate types of information, and their differentiated areas of interest and varied viewpoints, as well as their diverse levels of quality, text substances specifics and topic treatments in detail. The analysis also involved a conscious look out for eventual patterns and contextual frameworks around the chosen topic such as economical, social, political, historical aspects, which were subsequently identified, organized and fitted in the structure of the research paper. The approach has by and large, relied on an inductive reasoning process to interpret and structure the meanings that were derived from the information and data. The resulting interpretations and assessments of the selected and collated material was hence a highly constructivist exercise in which the selected processed information was interpreted and awarded a relative degree of importance (weight) on a rather fluid scale concerning the virtues of specific pieces of researched material in order to accommodate between diverging interpretations and where each specific paper/report/book source was to be positioned within it.

### 3.3 Synthesis - critical realism and meta-narratives

This is a desk based study involving a systematic processing of many formats and types of data, publications and other written information that combines qualitative analysis with a realist synthesis of the collected material. It is very much a project concerned with bringing the partial inputs from individual sources together to form an all-encompassing and common understanding of the discrete issues under perusal. A substantial share of the literature contributions that are included in the synthesis may be conceived as case studies whose intended
designation is to be reflected upon as the original discrete occurrences of evidence and then utilized as the underpinnings of a successively revised and refined process of concatenating synthesis in order to ultimately devise an over-arching narrative of the topic in focus. This implies a practical need for a considerable degree of amalgamation and generalization during the analysis and discussion of the study’s material finding irrespective of their specific individual settings and local contexts that in reality vary considerably along the spatial and multi-cultural social specter that defines the nation state of Tanzania. The intimate relationship between social contextual settings and specific governance models and policy agendas, as well as the proposition that comprehensive empowerment do require challenging the structures of society that block widespread empowerment, constitute an essential element of the theoretical foundation for how public policies in Tanzania could be perceived on the part of her ordinary citizens. The idea of empowering people in their own local communities in contrast to adhering to a centralized process where policies are devised and implemented at the national and international level, is at the core of John Friedmann’s conceptual thoughts on the appropriation of power and his basic conviction that unless people have an active role in directing their own destinies long–term progress will not be achieved (Friedmann, 1998: vi). Framing this research within the context of empowerment places it squarely in terms of what John Friedmann termed “the emerging practice of an alternative development with its claims to inclusive democracy, appropriate economic growth, gender equality, and intergenerational equity” (Ibid.). However, while power is clearly the core concept within empowerment, this study does not dwell on detailed conceptualizations of power but do adopt the view that power in human societies is a variable sum and that empowerment of a less powerless group does not necessarily entail negative effects or a decrease in power for the incumbent entities possessing great power and influence. The research work is hence imbued by reflexive deliberation on the aspects of contextual settings and political environments as basis for empowering people to overcome their mental restrictions imposed by set power relations and entrenched social structures. In assuming a critical realist position with specific attention to and focus on scrutinizing the disparate shreds of evidence, followed by evaluation and integration of the findings and subsequently by the elaboration of over-arching storylines, including the development of an eventual discernible hypothesis a meta-narrative review technique was utilized as a way of systematically processing the large mass of heterogeneous and quite unwieldy body of publications as well as additional serendipitous findings amassed and collated during the course of study (Star, 2002; Greenhalgh et.al, 2005). The chosen procedure thus facilitated the nonlinear process of interpreting and making sense of the effect of policies on the population and how people perceive them from their life situations.

3.4 Accuracy – Purposive openness and reflective interpretations

In this study, the checking of accuracy of the findings (qualitative validation) has been accomplished through the integration of multiple information and data sources to improve the understanding of a complex public policy situation and to guide the research in addressing the subject matter and its perceived consequential issues and residual problems. Triangulation has been consistently applied in seeking convergence and corroboration of information from different source types and to elaborate and enhance it by using input from various sources as
well as to help further inform acquired data. The overall ambition with the triangulating approach has been to expand the breadth and range of information in order to make sense of frequently inconsistent information which often requires embedding the data at hand with a holistic understanding of the specific situation and general background knowledge about the specific case and class of social phenomena. Most importantly, this modus operandi shifts the focus on triangulation away from a purely technological means of ensuring validity, but rather directs the research to be centered on the construction of plausible explanations about the particular phenomena being studied. The findings extracted from the subjective positions derived from the research experience and background typical of different sources of information work to highlight the fragmented nature of reflexivity as a construction of reality. The engagement with a broad range of information sources has encouraged a deeper understanding of and a more comprehensive identification with the parties and stakeholders that constitute the plaintiffs in this procedural analysis of the manifestations of justice, equality and vicissitudes of power that this study is really all about. The study has consistently been guided by self-reflection and reflectivity about how the interpretation of the findings as well as the formation of over-arching narratives are all is shaped by our background, our history and culture, history, and not least by our socioeconomic origin. A consistent and conscious attempt has been made to rely on the usage of rich, (thick) textual descriptions to convey a richer impression of the findings of the study. To this end, an uncompromising attitude of comprehensiveness has constituted a goal for this research where apparent contradictions or exceptions have not been regarded as posing any discouraging inconveniences to the study’s findings, reasoning and subsequent conclusions. It has thus been viewed as more helpful to conceive contradictory data as being complementary rather than competing perspectives and hence allowing for an issue or specific aspects to be examined from various angles. Any diverging or discrepant information or data have merely been acknowledged as additional inputs that provide further scope for refining the task of building over-arching themes, and thereby acting to strengthen the study’s attained levels of realism and validity.

3.5 Reliability – Representative revelations and contextual awareness

The rigor in this study may be ascribed to the designated research approach and information processing methodology that has been applied throughout the course of this work. In qualitative research, truth value is usually obtained from the discovery of human experiences as they are lived or perceived by knowledgeable informants, e.g. specialists in the field or from peers in research. The understanding of peoples' perceived life situations as well as their apprehended feelings of empowerment is this study’s specific interpretation but the methodology is fairly straightforward in how the various impressions and related synthesized over-arching narratives have been obtained. As long as sufficient descriptive information and data is produced, the desire for an adequate level of research applicability is possible to attain. Nonetheless, variability is to be expected and consistency may be defined in terms of its dependability despite the fact that it involves the incorporation of a

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12 Thick description is for American anthropologist Clifford Geertz, a methodological imperative which takes into account the structure and nature of a culture's semiotic (symbols and meanings) and requires hermeneutic interpretations (Geertz, Clifford, 2000: 5).
range of experience and impressions rather than some average state of things. To this end, and in order to increase the worth of the research findings, emphasis should be placed on achieving a reasonable level of data neutrality by considering all potential sources of information and related depictions of the issues under scrutiny, for example, by incorporating a multitude of informant perspectives and alternative types of posted or publicized observations. In accordance with the above delineation of ways to securing truth value, applicability, and consistency of the research, the qualitative reliability of this study has been accomplished by following a wide and open approach in terms of selected sources and maintaining an un-biased state-of-mind when processing the vast information material.

3.6 Sources and referenced material
This study draws on five main types of sources. The first of these is the United Republic of Tanzania’s governmental Portal for Public Services providing access to a repository of guidelines, legal and regulatory instruments, and public sector programs, development policies, and specific plans pertinent to human development aspirations and national socio-economic objectives. The second source is the storage of information resources at the IFIs and the donor community’s development knowledge repositories. This compound archive of program reviews, performance evaluations, as well as legal, commercial and social works, deliberations and theories and not least governing ideological writings play a central role as an overarching framework and contextual background to the study’s design and execution. The third source is the rich range of policy, research and statistical data published by the IGOs and NGOs. This material is a critical provider of detailed knowledge and moreover serves as useful comparative injunctions and helpful tools of contrasting points of reflection around the study’s findings on the basis of exhibiting alternative approaches, specific beliefs, implicit goals and ultimate purposes. The fourth, and probably most important, source is the diverse scholarly and professional material published in academic journals, proceedings from scientific, professional, and trade conferences, presentations and reports by representatives from international organizations, NGOs and other development stakeholders engaged in field research, experimentation and a wide plethora of various problem solving endeavors, promotional activities as well as in identification of best practices in the areas of policy development, program implementation and public regulation facilitation. This material represents expertise and practitioners for each focus area of the study (policy procedures/programs, educational-, health-, environmental-, and social progress aspects). The fifth source is the abundant fountain of insights of cultural, ethnical, historical, philosophical and religious aspects as well as economical-, social-, and political experiences, views and understandings to be found in literary works penned by often deeply engaged writers, travelers, activists, anthropologists, environmentalists, conservationists, political scientists and political economists et.al of many geographical origins, schools of thought and ontological outlooks.

4. Policy agenda effects for Tanzania – Perceptions
This chapter focuses on three sectors of fundamental importance for the citizens of Tanzania; education; health; environment; and attempts to provide an assessment of the consequential outcomes of the neoliberal agenda and related policy reforms for the focused sectors from the local community perspective in terms of practical
availability of public products and services. Further, Tanzania’s citizen’s access to essential livelihood resources are also examined and evaluated.

4.1 Education\textsuperscript{13}

Primary Schools

In Tanzania, only 3.5\% of all grade 6 pupils had sole use of a reading textbook (UNESCO, 2014: 6). Findings show stark educational outcome disparities between urban and rural areas in Tanzania and socioeconomic status also comes to bear on learning outcomes (Uwezo, 2012: 43). At age 11, children from households classed as non-poor are almost twice as likely to pass the Kiswahili and numeracy tests as their counterparts in ultra-poor households (Ibid.). Teachers are pressured to solely shoulder much of the practical implications of fulfilling the primary educational ambitions, including having to deal with enormous numbers of pupils and working longer hours, devoid of corresponding levels of compensation, as well as being excluded from participating in key decisions regarding details in plan implementation. The average student/teacher ratio increased from 38 pupils per teacher in 1999 to 56 in 2005 (Havnevik & Isinika, 2010: 227). Regional variations present huge disparities in teacher deployment, with some districts primary PTRs range from a low 28 to 1 in Iringa district, to levels in excess of 80 to 1. The pupil to qualified teacher ratio (PqTR) reaches to above 100 to 1 (UNESCO, 2011[1]: 35ff). Hence, many teachers working in rural settings are frequently frustrated with their strained working conditions and with the limited support they receive from the local communities where they live and work and by consequence affect their motivation and willingness to stay and work in remote areas (UNESCO, 2011[1]: 37). Tanzania is facing a youth unemployment crisis rivaled by few other nations in the world. In 2012, Tanzania was home to more unemployed 15 to 24-year-olds per capita than 109 other countries. In a survey by the NGO ‘Restless Development’, out of over 1,000 young people across Tanzania, only 14 percent reported working a formal, wage-earning job (Restless Development, 2012). Each year, 900,000 young Tanzanians enter a job market that is generating only 50,000 to 60,000 new jobs. A huge problem for the young job-seekers is their meager educational merits as schools are deemed to basically fail to teach the skills and intellectual prowess employers are looking for (GlobalPost, 2013).

Secondary Schools

Parents perceive a downward trend in the quality of secondary schooling, and largely blame the government and teachers for the decline. The students do not receive adequate training in raising their critical intellectual capacities nor in promoting their capabilities for independent thinking (Wedgwood, 2007; UNESCO, 2011[1]: 30). On 18 February 2013, the Government of Tanzania announced that 240,903 out of 397,126 students who sat the 2012 National Form Four exams failed, putting the failure rate at 61\% (up from 46\% in 2011) (Twaweza, 2013).\textsuperscript{14} Merely 10\% of those who leave primary school in Tanzania are admitted into secondary schools, and the

\textsuperscript{13} For a review of Tanzania’s education policy framework, see Appendix B: Education policy in Tanzania – Brief Summary!

\textsuperscript{14} Read more about the results from the 2012 National Form Four exams in Appendix C: Perceived trends of secondary education in Tanzania!
secondary schools are to provide first and foremost general proficiency (Brock-Utne, 2007). Moreover, the NAR\textsuperscript{15} and GAR\textsuperscript{16} are low in an international comparison at the secondary school level (UNICEF, 2012: 107). Reviews show that the rate of transition to secondary schools remains the lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa, despite the growth of private secondary schools (UNESCO, 2008[1]). Tanzania’s most recent Demographic and Health Survey (2010) indicates that only one in four secondary school-age adolescents in Tanzania actually attends secondary school, and one in three youth of any age attends secondary school. While there is a small difference between the NAR for secondary school-age females and males (25 percent and 26 percent, respectively), the secondary school GPI\textsuperscript{17} is 0.85, indicating a higher proportion of males than females attends the secondary level (GAR of 34 for males and 29 for females). Secondary school-age youth in rural areas, however, present much worse secondary school attendance rate numbers (44 percent and 19 percent, respectively). The most striking difference in the secondary school NAR is across wealth quintiles. The secondary school NAR in the wealthiest households (49 percent) is more than five times that in the poorest households (9 percent) (URT, 2011[3]: 18). Tanzania placed second to worst out of 68 countries in the 2013 Global Gender Gap report due to a dramatic discrepancy between boys and girls in educational attainment (WEF, 2013[1]: 8). According to the Ministry for Education and Vocational Training, a total of 5,157 girls dropped out of primary schools due to pregnancies in 2011. Among Tanzanian girls ages 15–19, 18 percent are already married and 17 percent have given birth to at least one child. By age 19, 44 percent of young women are either mothers or pregnant with their first child (WAMA, 2012). Furthermore, the number of girls in secondary schools has decreased from 48 per cent in 2004 to 45 per cent in 2009 (allAfrica, 2012). Besides other challenges that the government is facing in terms of providing education to girls, they are also struggling with helping pregnant girls continue with schooling. Fewer than one in five (18%) girls who enroll in secondary school complete their course of study. Pregnancy is a common cause for school drop-out. Every year, more than 8,000 girls leave school due to pregnancy (WAMA, 2012). Pregnant schoolgirls are allowed to seek secondary education informally by registering as private candidates, but Tanzania is faced with a severe shortage of dormitories in primary and secondary schools which contributes to the meager results and poor academic performance among schoolgirls (Ibid.).

**Higher Education**

Statistics prepared by the University of Dar-es-Salaam in 2006, rate Tanzania has having the lowest participation rate at university level among the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. Comparisons between SADC members indicated that South Africa had a participation rate of 9.11, Kenya 1.47, Uganda 1.23, Lesotho 0.98, Malawi 0.42, Mozambique 0.33, and Tanzania 0.27 (TEA, 2008). In effect, net enrolment to tertiary education, which is an important indicator for the capacity to build human capital, is the lowest in East Africa (Havnevik & Isinika, 2010: 227). To this end, the gross enrolment rate for tertiary education in Tanzania also

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\textsuperscript{15} NAR = Net Attendance Rate  
\textsuperscript{16} GAR = Gross Attendance Rate  
\textsuperscript{17} GPI = Gender Parity Index
present a very large gender imbalance with a large overweight for male students compared with female students (WPHEGT, 2013). The private higher educational sector has grown in comparison with the public sector, 32% of all higher educational students were enrolled at a private university in 2006 (Benjamin & Dunrong, 2010). In 1995 there were only three public universities, while in 2011 there were 32 (8 public universities, 3 public university colleges, 12 private universities and 9 private university colleges) (UNESCO, 2011[2]: 50). Higher Education receives 60% to 65% of the total budget allocated to education (approximately 600 billion TZS), of which around 50% goes into the Higher Education Student Loan Board (UNESCO, 2011[2]: 72). The UNESCO report however, points to a number of inadequacies related to the provisioning of higher education in Tanzania, among them:

- The lack of knowledge of the English language used for teaching in the higher education institution (HEI) system is a major drawback for entry and permanence. This situation affects in particular students from the rural areas;
- The Tanzanian Commission for Universities (TCU) has established lower entry points to allow a larger number of candidates to access these HEI (but does in effect provide a way for allowing students coming from different social and economic levels, and thus differently qualified to access higher education;
- The R&D infrastructure is still underdeveloped, as well as research equipment is obsolete in several areas. R&D investment approximates only about 0.2% of GDP, well below the developing country benchmark of 1% (CHET, 2011: 97). Poor policies and lack of promotion of innovation discourages academicians to do innovative research, only about 20% conduct R&D at present;
- A large number of staff has only the first university degree and the number of doctoral level candidates is low. Moreover, doctoral level students that return from abroad often find difficulties to access vacancies in universities, resulting in brain-drain. (Ibid.:75ff).

4.2 Health

General state of public health

A study conducted in Rufiji on health inequalities demonstrates an association between infant mortality and economic status, with the poorest households having higher probabilities of child death than the least poor (Mwageni et al., 2005: 19ff). Household socio-economic inequality and deficient maternal education have been associated with under-five mortality in the same district (Nattey et al, 2013). Results from another survey conducted in 2010 in Dar es Salaam show a positive correlation between averages ‘out of pocket’ (OOP) health expenditure and chronic disease (Gustafsson-Wright et al., 2012). Hypertension, asthma and arthritis were noted as the most commonly reported chronic diseases with 15% of the working-age population being mildly or severely hypertensive. The study also shows a significantly higher prevalence of diabetes, anemia and HIV/AIDS than for

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18 The first public higher education institution in Tanzania was established in 1961, as a college of the University of London. In 1970, it became an independent national university called University of Dar-es-Salaam. Other principal public universities are the Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro (1984, before which it was the Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry of University of Dar es Salaam); and Open University of Tanzania (established for distance education in 1995) (Benjamin & Dunrong, 2010).

19 For a review of Tanzania’s health policy framework, see Appendix D: Health policy in Tanzania – Brief Summary!
Kenya. According to the results, 15.2% of the working-age population in the Tanzania sample tested positive for HIV/AIDS, compared to 3.3% in the Kenya sample (Ibid.). In another study on malaria prevention in Northern Tanzania, results show that poor households living in rural areas spend significantly less on all forms of malaria prevention compared to their richer counterparts (McElroy et al., 2009). Similarly, during Tanzania’s National Programme for Insecticide-Treated Nets (ITNs), 1995–2008, insufficient focus was allocated the poor and rural population where the corresponding costs prevented the majority of households from purchasing bed nets. The poorest segments of the population, were thus in practice prevented from net distribution and awareness-raising campaigns (WHO, 2011: 162). Moreover, studies indicate that malnutrition and micronutrient deficiencies such as Anaemia, Vitamin A and Iodine deficiencies are common among the poor children in Tanzania. Children from poor families are stunted compared to children from the least poor households (REPOA, 2009: 5ff). Likewise, parents’ education affects children’s nutrition, so that the children of mothers with secondary education are much less likely to be stunted but very few mothers have secondary education (Ibid.:8). Studies have shown that among older adults, men reported better health status than women and that aging people within rural Tanzanian settings reported significant deteriorating health status, quality of life and physical ability. To this end, poor quality of life and well-being, and poor health status in older people were significantly associated with factors such as marital status, sex, age and not least level of education. In short, the process of ageing in rural settings is assessed to be challenging with a marked decrease in the general level of public health for individuals burdened by deprived livelihoods and meager existences (Mwanyagala et al., 2010). Human schistosomiasis is second only to malaria in SSA for causing severe morbidities and Tanzania is the second country that has the highest burden of schistosomiasis in SSA, Nigeria being the first. As schistosomiasis occurs in rural areas where the majority of the population is highly stricken by poverty, improvement of the life standard of these communities should go hand in hand with schistosomaisis control activities (Mazigo et al., 2012). Sickle cell disease (SCD) is another NCD that is on the rise in Tanzania. Tanzania has one of the highest annual births of SCD individuals in the world, estimated to be up to 11,000 births a year (7 per 1000 live births) (SCF, 2014).

Quality of health services

Many district health facilities are understaffed as well as under-utilization and demonstrate a troublesome sub-optimized productivity of health staff. Furthermore, many health service facilities are not well-stocked and commonly lack the necessary medicines and equipment to provide quality health care (Hutton et.al., 2012; Kwesigabo et.al, 2012). Moreover, national health figures, frequently obscure steep local variations with local health service capabilities varying widely between regions, despite the fact that the health system in Tanzania has broader reach than in many other SSA countries, with one health facility for every 9,000 people (Bryce et.al., 2003; Alonso et.al., 2008). Qualified health workers fill only 35 percent of all positions in the dispensaries, health

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20 In Tanzania, human exposure to schistosomiasis is mostly related to occupational activities such as fishing, farming or recreational activities around the basin or within the permanent or temporal water bodies such as lakes, rivers, dams, swampy areas or road side ditches (Mazigo et al., 2012).

21 Tanzania ranks 4th in the world, with the highest number of SCD birth a year, after Nigeria, India and DRC (SCF, 2014).
centers, and hospitals. While the world average for health worker (clinical staff, nurses and all types of health workers) density per 1000 population is 9.3, there is marked inequality with 18.9 health workers per 1000 population in Europe and only 2.3 in Africa. Tanzania has 0.39 nurses and 0.25 clinical staff (medical doctors, assistant medical officers and clinical officers) per 1000 population (Hutton et.al.,2012). Although medical doctors serve in some of the district hospitals, many are run by assistant medical officers (AMOs) (clinical officers with a further 2 years clinical training), supported by clinical officers and enrolled and registered nurses (Kwesigabo et.al, 2012). The shortage of nurses in some cases means that hospitals cannot afford to have the staff feed and bathe patients, forcing family members to leave their fields and livelihoods to care for someone who is admitted into the hospital (Langwick, 2011:31). The unsatisfactory situation has led to the hiring of under qualified nurses, some with only a basic primary education of 7 years and a single year’s introduction to nursing courses, who end up performing the tasks of a trained nurse (Hutton et.al., 2012). There is no formal procedure in Tanzania for accreditation of the health facilities that have been established or are being planned for (Hutton et.al, 2012).

**Availability of health services**

Often, the poorest members of the population, which overwhelmingly reside in the rural areas, are the hardest to reach for preventive health activities and awareness raising campaigns. To this end, the distance to the health facilities has also been acknowledged as one of the key SDHs (Mrisho et al., 2012). The health care institutions are as underfunded as they are understaffed and moreover the hospitals often run out of medicine. Even when medicine and water are available in the hospital, the poor road standards make it difficult for many to get to any hospital, particularly in the rainy season (Langwick, 2011:30f). A recent health facility survey health facility survey to collect data on staff employed, their main tasks, availability on the day of the survey, reasons for absenteeism, and experience of supervisory visits from District Health Teams, found that only 14% (122/854) of the recommended number of nurses and 20% (90/441) of the clinical staff had been employed at the facilities. Furthermore, 44% of clinical staff was not available on the day of the survey. Amongst the clinical staff, 38% were absent because of attendance to seminar sessions, 8% because of long-training, 25% were on official travel and 20% were on leave. RCH clinic nurses were present for 7 hours a day, but only worked productively for 57% of time present at facility. Almost two-third of facilities had received less than 3 visits from district health teams during the 6 months preceding the survey (Hutton et.al, 2012).

Cancer has been recognized as a serious public health problem in Tanzania, but not yet comprehensively addressed in practice. At the health facility level, there is limited knowledge about prevention and treatment of NCDs in general, and often the required medicines are unavailable. Tanzania has one of the Africa’s highest cancer rates but only one specialist cancer treatment centre, the Ocean Road Cancer Institute (ORCI) in Dar es Salaam (cancerCareAfrica, 2007, uicc, 2014). The increase of NDCs such as cancer and cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) is becoming a major public health concern since it is the cause of death and disabilities and indirectly affects the opportunities for positive societal developments. The

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22 Read more about the structure of Tanzania’s health service sector in Appendix E: Health Systems Profile for Tanzania!

23 Read more in Appendix F: Human Resources for Health in Tanzania!
implementation of the policies and strategies set to improve quality of life and social wellbeing of the people of Tanzania remain patchy, thus reducing the potential benefits for society as a whole (Mfinanga et al., 2011; Mayige et al., 2011).

Cost of health services

NCDs are a silent rising health burden in Tanzania and the costs of health care for managing NCDs are high, thus exerting added strains on the country’s poor (Mfinanga et al., 2011). In all of the public health facilities in Tanzania, user fees are required, with low fees at the primary care level and higher fees at the referral level. Patients that cannot afford to pay regular insurance premiums are unable to enroll in the insurance scheme and are less likely to get treatment due to user fees. As of 2010, only 8.6% of the population has subscribed to prepaid health insurance plans (World Bank, 2011: 26ff). Subsequently, there are few safeguards to protect the poorest of society who cannot afford prepaid health insurance, even though some groups as children less than five years old and pregnant women among the poor are designated fee exemptions. However, due to lack of information, the poor may not even know their eligibility for a waiver and even if they do, they are often denied a waiver due to an abuse of the system or a difficulty of validating their poor status (WHO, 2008: 874). Maternal health services fee exemptions are also poorly enforced; nearly three-quarters of women who delivered in one rural district in Tanzania reported paying for delivery (Galea et.al, 2008). In addition to user fees, patients face substantial out-of-pocket costs for drugs, supplies (gloves, syringes, plastic sheets), informal payments (e.g. tips), and transportations. Wealthier families have better knowledge about danger signs, and are more likely to visit a health facility when ill, and more likely to have a shorter journey to the health facility than poorer families (Langwick, 2011:31). The ultimate consequence of the fee-based public health system is that those who are most vulnerable cannot access health services because they are too expensive to be afforded by the average person.

4.3 Environment

National regulatory approach

Tanzania’s approach and work philosophy with environmental mainstreaming has been highlighted as a successful strategy for institutional change in order to improve development policy practical outcomes including a comprehensive communication package so that all key stakeholders (including marginal groups) were provided sufficient knowledge about environment and sustainable development issues, and were adequately informed about the policy, strategy, plan, initiative or decision concerned (IIED, 2009: 76ff).

Local integration and operational standard

Despite the comprehensive suite of strategic plans, problems have prevailed during the course of assisting communities to prepare more detailed management plans of their respective village land and in signing of management plans and also a persistent lack of trained staff to assist communities to implement the plans, lack of equipment and a more genuine integration with the local governments’ plans to ensure their overall sustainability.

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24 For a review of Tanzania’s environment policy framework, see Appendix G: Environment policy in Tanzania – Brief Summary!
Furthermore, the lack of an efficient property rights operational regime, has subsequently led to feeble enforcement of the conservation regulatory instruments, incomplete collection of baseline data and not least to an unsustainable harvesting of environmental resources (NORAD, 2009: 16ff). Hence, Tanzania falls short of securing an adequate level of protection for its complex ecosystems and these systems essential capabilities to perpetually furnish their life-sustaining products and services for both nature and people alike (Kivuyo & Mawalla, 2008: 58ff, WCS, 2009: 6, URT, 2009[3]: 15ff). The imbalances in the attempts to improve the development policy practical outcomes have pitted the pro-donor factions against potential challenges from political opponents about the policy reforms and resulted in detrimental practical consequences for ordinary Tanzanians (Harrison, Holtom and Mulley, 2009: 271ff). The desired augmentation of recipient ownership codified by the 2005 ‘Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness’ has for all practical purposes solidified the entrenched positions of the privileged groups. Consequently, a plethora of allegations of chronic mismanagement, rent-seeking and pervasive corruption in the forestry, fisheries and wildlife conservation sectors further contribute to substantial doubts over the efficacy of the much-lauded environmental mainstreaming (APPP, 2011[1]: 71ff; CMI, 2009: 9ff, OECD, 2011[1]: 7).

Foreign interests

Much of the foreign investments flowing into Tanzania has and is targeting the exploitation of the natural resources such as minerals, wildlife/forestry as well as coastal and marine resources, and thus in its turn induce considerable implications for the sustainability of the natural resources and the livelihood of various communities who depend on the natural resource for their survival (Harrison, Holtom and Mulley, 2009: 271ff). Trends show that there is an increasing influx of investors into the rural areas, which is subsequently posing challenges for rural based small producers whose livelihoods are dependent access to the land and their availability to utilize nature’s surplus in a sustainable way (Kant & Kijazi, 2010, 2011; LDPI, 2011[1],[2]; Goldman, De Pinho & Perry, 2013).

Persistent pressures on nature

In sum, Tanzania is presently burdened by a massive barrage of threats to its rich natural endowments and the combined effects of the manifold human induced issues is a mounting environmental crisis that includes: Climate volatility and climate extremes, Land use change, biodiversity loss and land degradation; Rapid urbanization with huge challenges related to water, sanitation, and waste management; Agricultural overutilization and unsustainable range management; Illegal and unsustainable deforestation; Illegal and unsustainable wildlife exploitation; Insensitive mineral exploitation without regard to environmental and social impacts, Commoditization of biodiversity and natural resources by booming safari tourism and sport (big game) hunting; Excessive pollution and improper treatment and disposal of solid and liquid hazardous wastes; Serious threats of obsolete chemicals; Destruction of wetlands, due to expanding populations and industrial activities; Coral reefs degradation, due to

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25 The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness was made in 2005, by donor governments, accompanied by some key recipient governments and a large number of international NGOs, where they agreed a set of principles for how to make their aid better support development. Measurable targets were outlined and a deadline to meet them was set to 2010 (Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, 2005).
overexploitation of resources and destructive fishing practices.\textsuperscript{26}

5. Social capital aspects of Tanzania - Impressions

This chapter dwells on the concept of social capital in its Tanzanian dress and its empowering consequences for the general public in terms of the perceived endeavors and potentials to safeguard people’s security, and in maintaining societal stability, and not least in the ostensible attempts towards fostering fairness in human affairs. Neoliberal ideals and the social outcomes for the people of Tanzania are thus in focus in the chapter sections. Generalized impressions of people’s wellbeing, their level of life satisfaction and opportunity perspectives are thus provided, as well as an appraisal of ordinary citizen’s possibilities in attaining amicable life conditions under prevailing policy doctrines. Lastly, perceptions of citizen’s binding to and trust in the power of the state are depicted.

Private thrusts versus public interests

Powerful business interests are increasingly involved in the appropriation of formerly locally governed and/or public sector led ventures is underscored by recent indices of official development assistance (ODA) flows to the private sector which have exhibited growing figures in recent years. Belgium and Sweden are examples of donor countries, where aid channeled to the private sector has increased by four and seven times respectively since 2006 (Eurodad, 2012: 4). The findings casts doubt on whether the provided financial support is really being promoted to the most credit-constrained entities and organizations in the world’s poorest countries (Ibid.). It has frequently evolved into arrangements whereby local intermediaries facilitate economic activities conducted by foreign interests. A case in point is the privatization of the Dar es Salaam Water & Sanitation facilities against a negative opinion against the privatization process and an inadequate public consultation prior to the sell-out.\textsuperscript{27} Notwithstanding the consistent difficulties and persistent struggles with corruption, lack of administrative efficiency, the capture of media by monopoly houses, the unfulfilled development objectives and numerous project misfortunes, the country is praised by the multilateral institutions for its meticulous adherence to their advocated recommendations to tighten monetary policy and stabilize the economy, in essence portraying the transformational trajectory as an ad notam rulebook application of the market economic theoretical fundamentals (IMF, 2009[1]; Jensen & Rutherford & Tarr, 2010; Cull & Spreng , 2011). Tanzania has also made efforts and contributed to building a better relationship between the IMF and many African countries (IMF, 2009[2][3]).\textsuperscript{28} IMF’s favorable outlook on Tanzania’s privatization programs was confirmed by the recent disbursements of additional financial resources for Tanzania\textsuperscript{29} (ABR, 2013).

\textsuperscript{26} For a detailed summary of the threats to Tanzania’s natural environment, see Appendix G: Environment policy in Tanzania – Brief Summary!

\textsuperscript{27} Read more in Appendix K: Rise of DFIs – Case of the Dar es Salaam water supply and sanitation project!

\textsuperscript{28} The IMF held a conference in Dar es Salaam in 2009, titled: ‘Changes, Successful Partnerships for Africa’s Growth Challenge’, resulted in IMF doubled its financing towards Africa, and interest rates for its loans were lowered to zero, and the debt framework was made more flexible. IMF regards this conference as a changing moment in strengthening its ties with Tanzania (CHANGES, 2009).

\textsuperscript{29} IMF review board made an additional US$57 million available for disbursement bringing total resources under management to US$114 million under the fifth review of the Policy Support Instrument (PSI) (ABR, 2013).
Polarizations of power and influence

The nation-state of Tanzania may by and large be regarded as a politico-economic context incused by a few but highly leveraged and exceedingly influential entities in existing structures rather than an open multifaceted environment brimming with numerous innovative drivers of novel creative development. The patrons in government and business have by and large been self-centered in character as opposed to the envisaged entrepreneurial and productive stratum that was expected to augur. The prospective benefits of the neoliberal policy programs of expected rising living standards, economic efficiency, individual freedom, etc. have not been uniformly distributed across Tanzanian society. The Tanzanian society has accordingly been subjected to widening socioeconomic gaps and the policy reforms have fostered mounting divisions between different groupings and in essence become a harbinger of potential tensions in the society through inequality in terms of rights and opportunities (HakiElimu, 2006; SIDA, 2008; Gerster, 2009; Whitehead, 2009: 398; Africa Review, 2013; Oxfam, 2013). Issa Shivji, professor in constitutional law in the University of Dar es Salaam's Faculty of Law, has made the argument that Tanzania did not experience a transition from an authoritarian to a democratic state because the transition itself was initiated from the top and thereby preempted any potential political movement from the bottom. Rather it represented a well-known model of imperialistic policy and tutelage by its rapid transition from state nationalist authoritarian rule to neo-liberal compradorial rule (Müller, 2013: 68f).

Faint social progress and feckless equality

The authorities’ dismal accomplishments in terms of promoting equitable social progress and societal fairness across all groupings of the nation may lead the observer to apprehend the Tanzanian government as being somewhat tone deaf as so much of the current polity efforts and governance attention seem to be particularly concerned about the pragmatic issues around economic efficiency and remunerative guarantees for the involved main parties (investors and rentiers). Even when compared with its neighboring countries, Tanzania presents a relative weaker impression of its greater human wellbeing, level of life satisfaction, and opportunity perspectives, i.e. the country’s indices providing an estimate of the social and environmental context that enable individuals to flourish, and attain life satisfaction under amicable environmental conditions, are thus comparatively modest also from a regional viewpoint (UNDP, 2013: 146; SPI, 2014: 90f; HPI, 2012: 26).

Human rights deficiencies

Despite the adoption of liberalized politics in Tanzania, trade unions have been unable to effectively promote and protect workers’ rights nor has it paved way for the beginning of a new era where trade unions are politically active, and today less than 5 percent of the labor force is unionized, and workers’ rights are limited (Babeiya, 30

30 A compradorial politico-economic environment is characterized by a few but highly leveraged and influential capitalists in existing governance structures rather than an open context with numerous innovative drivers. Post-colonial Africa’s structural realities have customarily catalyzed a limited group of elite beneficiaries that have tended to be compradorial in their activities (Ambrose, 1995: 7).
31 See more in Appendix L. Tanzania at a glance: Economic-/Social-/Political brief impressions!
32 According to the frameworks for measuring the multiple dimensions of social progress, benchmarking success, and catalyzing greater human wellbeing, there is a highly positive and significant relationship between life satisfaction, environmental caution, opportunity and social progress (HPI, 2013; SPI, 2014)
Workers are reportedly dismissed for involvement in trade union activity, and strikes are often declared illegal (Fischer, 2011; Freedom House, 2011; Amnesty, 2013[1]). Moreover, activists and political opposition who engage in demonstrations and political protests critical of the government are frequently brutalized by the police (Ewald, 2011: 159). The Tanzanian constitution provides for freedom of assembly; however, the government does not always respect this right and demonstrations must have police authorization and at present civil society is constrained in terms of partisan engagements and involvement in politics. While charity walks and officially sanctioned processions can easily obtain police permission, demonstrations that call attention to perceived rights abuses, or those that are organized by politically active civil society organizations (CSOs) and opposition parties, are actively discouraged (Freedom House, 2012: 9; USDOS, 2013).

Deteriorating public confidence

Tanzanians progressively exhibit an increasing distrust in their Government. Surveys clearly demonstrate that all branches of the Government, the President, the Parliament (or legislature) and the Courts of Law (or judiciary) are regarded as exploitative, inadequate, self-promoting and untrustworthy and urgently need to improve their conduct and the practical exercising of their authority to regain the trust and approval of the people (AFROBAROMETER, 2013). By and large the very foundation of the beckoning equal, fair, rewarding and transparent economic and political environment has thus not been conceded. The understandable disapproving sentiment among the populace about their public representatives is also made evident by various global indicators on national governance that brings the inadequacies in current power and policy exercising to the fore (TI, 2014; WEF, 2013[2]; World Bank, 2013, RSF, 2013; Amnesty, 2013[2]).

6. Tanzania’s neoliberal approach – Evaluating discussion

Jeremy Gould and Julia Ojanen (2005) argue that Tanzanian politics are marked by a disjuncture between what is conceived as ‘policy’ and what actually takes place in politics. In their account, the former is a consensual and technical problem-solving exercise, while the latter relates to informal competition between interest groups, revolving around the hierarchically controlled state machinery and its offspring in the form of patrimonial deployment of public resources (Gould & Ojanen, 2005: 54). This chapter submits a deliberation on the perceived implications of Tanzania’s neoliberal policy agenda from a human benefit perspective. It subsequently provides an impression of the public resources that have been made available by the government of Tanzania and to what degree they are attainable and of real use to all of its citizens.

6.1 Human knowledge versus paradigm adaptation

The sharp focus and the enormous expansion of primary school education in Tanzania from the 1990s and onwards has been justified by arguments of equality and evidence that in countries where primary education is far from universal, investments in the primary education sector has accomplished the highest socio-economic rates of return (Chonjo, 1994). The prioritized push for UPE has by many scholars been identified as the major cause of

the deterioration in quality at all levels of education in Tanzania and even evolved into a colloquial term associated with low quality education as the letters UPE has been jested as standing for ‘Ualimu Pasipo Elimu’ (teaching without education). The principles of the 1997 World Development Report, which states that ‘…the pressure from global markets is creating strong demand for local and regional governments that can provide the infrastructure and skilled labor force that multinational business needs’ (World Bank, 1997[2]: 120). The World Bank does simultaneously encourage the implementation of constructivist approaches to teaching, and an increase in the teacher/student ratios, as well as reduction of the duration of teacher education programs. Consequently, the World Bank sets as a goal for the secondary education development program the increase in the teacher/student ratio from 1:22 to 1:30 and a reduction in the length of diploma programs from two years to one (Vavrus, 2009).

According to Athumani J. Liviga, lecturer in Political Science and Public Administration at the University of Dar es Salaam, contends that the most serious consequence of the transformations that Tanzania has had to endure since the neo-liberal ideology for socio-economic governance was adopted as the principal way to guide the nation into the future, has been that Tanzanians are losing their dignity and humanity and the right to think for themselves (Liviga, 2011). The liberalization processes in Tanzania thus seems to have often been pursued without due concern being given to the needs of rural communities and ordinary peoples requirements for development, enhancement and support.

6.2 Technology or accessibility? Trade-offs between means and ends in public health

It is commonly acknowledged that in order to ensure a decent level of public health services in a country it is critical to construct and safeguard an appropriate, robust, and sustainable health service model focused on quality and reliability. The Tanzanian government is heavily dependent on donor funding for its health care expenditures as is made evident by the involvement of a gradually more self-assertive private sector in the global health services market. Accordingly, the past decades have witnessed a spectacular growth of huge global programs providing funds for specific technical interventions such as new drugs and vaccines aimed at combating specific diseases. Something that has directly affected the management, financing, and organization of Tanzania’s public health services with a private sector that is increasingly involved in various aspects of the national health policy sector plans and programs. One essential implication of the practical implementation of these policies is that health interventions other than those defined as essential are increasingly funded by user fees and communities based financing or have alternatively been transferred altogether to the private sector. Health care has by consequence by and large turned into a commercialized phenomenon, and in effect reduced the capacity and legitimacy of the state to provide a basic fundamental service to its population. Aspects of the pertaining health initiatives and therapeutic measures are hence viewed as causing fragmentation and distortions of policy priorities and moreover to have neglected the essential political and economic conditions that underlie the desperate poverty conditions of the country. Something that may be regarded as another unfortunate outcome of the neoliberal agenda in terms of promoting policies that have compounded the formidable task of attaining the goal of true universal health care that is also affordable for all of Tanzania’s citizens.
6.3 Preservation or despoilment? Usage of Tanzania’s wealth in natural resources

Tanzania is one of the African countries frequently being honored for its dedicated and ambitious protective measures around its natural environment as a developing nation, and which is accordingly made evident by its conscious mainstreaming of environmental considerations into its poverty reduction strategy policy reforms and related official documents and sustainable development strategies, within the broader context of a harmonized and productive relationship with international donors (IMF, 2009)[1]; Harrison, Holtom & Mulley, 2009: 271ff). The positive outlook of Tanzania is to a large extent based on the macro-economical statistical data in tandem with other agreeable attributes such as political stability and multiparty democracy. The benevolent views and general appreciation of Tanzania’s chosen policy options and the overall positively judged outcomes of the country’s political and economical transformations has thus generated material consequences, in terms of a disproportionately large volume of development aid, which in 2012 was almost $2,8bn, the largest on the continent and representing almost 7% of the total aid flows to Africa (OECD, 2013[1]). Nonetheless, as Tanzania was opened up for liberalization and free-trade policies, the influx of investors who were interested in land and natural resources grew. Due to lack of express provisions regarding right to access, protection and management of the environment in the constitution, courts in Tanzania continuously face difficulties in rendering adequate interpretations of such rights that in the local contexts have major impacts on peoples livelihoods including their right to live in a clean and healthy environment (LEAT, 2012: 8). It is unquestionably necessary to redress and establish both wise environmental policies and prudent conservation strategies if the integrity and sustainability of the richness of Tanzania’s natural world is to be ensured.

6.4 Empowered people or liberalized individuals?

It can be argued that evolution of public opinion over the pros and cons of the most adequate governance model depend on the key considerations of popular understanding of what democracy or a market really is and subsequently on the subsequent mass perception of what these regimes actually do accomplish in practice (Bratton, Mattes & Gyimah-Boadi, 2005: 10). Each and every political-economical paradigm thus engenders its set of characteristic attitudes and behaviors of both compulsory and discretionary nature. The ruling elite allows various degrees of freedom and voluntary market exchange within the interstices of each specific system whose overall structure in principle is defined by its governance model and related level of coercive state intervention. In general, the founding fathers of independent post-colonial Africa were in general striving to form communal societies based on egalitarianism in terms of prosperity and welfare, i.e. no individual would prosper at the expense of the society and the society would not ignore the stagnation of any of its members (Ochieng’-Odhiambo, 2010: 152).34 Despite her egalitarian legacy, the public policy developments in Tanzania over the course of the past decades have abided by a neoliberal agenda which encouraged and prioritized the growth of business and private interests with the material resources for organizing change and further reform of

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34 Read more about earlier ideals relating to African politico-economic theory and practice in Appendix M: Fathers of Independent Africa!
the politico-economic context of the country. The mismatch of incentives between various factions among the political elites, the financiers and the entrepreneurs is a pertinent trait in the contemporary commercialized context. At the same time, the huge and widening gap between the ‘haves’ and the ‘have not’s, is a worrisome development for the future stability of Tanzania. In essence, the decision of what areas of human activity to leave to voluntary exchange, and what to subject to compulsory rules and regulations, is to a large extent a reflection of the mindset of the governing elite, and provides an implicit depiction of the extent of appropriation from the perspective of the governing elite, of what is deemed to be of importance in order to optimize remunerations by political means (Carson, 2011: 75). The current social unjust conditions in the country will most likely continue to fester and hence foster further ill sentiments as long as the inequalities from the applied policies are not countered or resolved in a comprehensive, equitably satisfactory and sustainable way.

7. Conclusions
Tanzania’s rigorous program of liberalization systematically sown and stabilized via the country’s intimate relationships with the multilateral institutions and the foreign donors under the auspices of development partnerships have strapped the country to an enigmatic wheel of opportunity and policy delusion. It is partly a struggle and continuous grappling with a context dominated by trade and policy development to accommodate the expectations and norms of the global market and partly a pursuit of additional development options and further trade opportunities. The Tanzanian political-economical discourse envisages a policy path forward that will perforce require the governing entities to promote and sustain a competitive and dynamic private sector in order to be able to partake and hopefully play a more participatory role in world events and simultaneously ensure a favorable social and progressive individual trajectory for all of its citizens. The notion of the benefits of mutual exchange is nonetheless to a considerable extent delimited to a question of economic and social privilege that favors the relatively propertied and well-connected parties of society. An attempt to summarize the appraisals and impressions from this study of the market-oriented integrated and free trade accommodating state of Tanzania, brings forth a picture of a country fraught with multiple problems of inequality and a marked sense of elusiveness among people’s views of nationhood and community. It is by and large a story of massive concentrations of wealth, rigid economic and political hierarchies, and inequitable modes of progress. The analysis of the Tanzanian context shows that poverty rates are among the highest in the world and that her population is vulnerable to poverty because of the inherent discriminatory structures. Despite sustained economic growth there has been minute impact on improvement of the livelihoods of the poor. Tanzania is on track in achieving the quantitative targets on primary education but surveys indicate that children are completing primary education without competence in basic literacy and numeracy. Child mortality has been reduced, but maternal mortality still

35 Read more in appendix N: Financial elites versus Political Elites!
36 Little seems to change over time, as made evident by how Adam Smith (1776) famously tagged the ruling elite of his time: “All for ourselves and nothing for other people, seems, in every age of the world, to have been the vile maxim of the masters of mankind.” Adam Smith (1776), The Wealth of Nations, Book III The Different Progress of Opulence In Different Nations, chapter IV., available [online] at: http://www2.hn.psu.edu/faculty/jmanis/adam-smith/wealth-nations.pdf
remains high. Income disparities have widened due to increased unemployment, poverty and lack of an adequate social protection system. Indigenous people lack legal protection and are frequently embroiled in land conflicts. Weaker members of society lack equal employment opportunities, suffer from stigmatization from the society in general and improper health facilities. Women face extra challenges in economic empowerment and access to decision-making at all levels and continue to be more likely than men to be poor and illiterate, and usually have less access than men to and control over resources, including land and water, limited access to higher education and traditional practiced restrictions of land and property inheritance. Tanzania is burdened by serious degradations of its natural environment manifested by serious degrees of deforestation, soil erosion, overgrazing, and misapplication of water resources as well as by huge losses of biodiversity. The country displays limited capacities to enforce environmental management policies, laws and regulations and thus lack control over the land and its resources. Large-scale land investments have increased leading to land conflicts between poor villagers and powerful investors. With the growing demographic pressure on the land and the current trend to offer land to private investors, marginalized groups and their communities are increasingly pressured, not least by an increasing food insecurity of the country. In total, the collective impact of the significant land and water degradation on peoples’ livelihoods as well as the equivocal protection of their lands have had immense consequences for the rights of different groups in the society. Few people have access to information and are provided opinion on matters of public interest. Most of the media outlets are urban-based and are not reaching the rural population in any practical sense of the word. Tanzania’s central government continues to maintain presence at the local level and appropriates substantial sources of revenue from local governmental entities rendering the latter more accountable to the central government than to their immediate population. Tanzania rank high in corruption, a grave problem for the country which ominously is on the rise even with the police force and the judiciary. Relations between civil society and governmental entities are frequently of adversarial nature when they are critical to government policies, and there are uncongenial incidences of persecutions by government agencies of protesting parties. In summary, the resultant vector of the nations’ neo-liberal policy agenda is imposing pressures on people’s everyday lives and moreover is exerting massive strains on the natural resources of this richly endowed land. The multiple guiding indices of the socio-economic context: structural poverty; vague and inane actions to raise the human capital and lack of coordination in order to ensure good health of the population; ambiguous conditions of labor; unfair and untenable concentration of wealth and social power; a ravaged environment and a rapid depletion of the country’s resources and natures’ capabilities to reproduce life, nonetheless all point to an inadequate public policy context promulgated under an improper form of governance. Essentially, the public policy process and related mode of governance lack transparency, it denies participation in decision-making among marginalized groups, and it engenders corruption in the public services and leaves much to be desired concerning the rule of law. Consequently, one of the major challenges facing policymakers is how to induce innovative ideas into the neoliberal agenda to deal vigorously with the prodigious quantum of small-scale human endeavor that is responsible for such a significant portion of human efforts and contributions in terms of
production and services, essentially forming the basic tenets of life and common livelihoods for innumerable local communities and individuals.

8. Recommendations
Adequate efforts should be made by the government to synchronize actions of community support and investment initiatives with national/regional plans and development policies. To this end the government should promote a dialogue with private sector representatives on existing and planned laws, regulations and policies in regards to environmental, social and governance/anti-corruption matters, particularly in view of risk preparedness and compliance. With further elaboration of creative ideas attentive to inclusive development including the provisioning of comprehensive and responsive public service packages to meet the true needs of its young and vibrant population, confidence in the polity will be restored and the chances of securing long-term benefits for the nation as a whole will be more likely attained. Groups that may be considered as key to forming a more inclusive policy process are members of communities and local organizations claiming and implementing policies and practices for social accountability, sustainable use of natural resources and equitable development. Likewise members of community, regional and national networks that represent the common interests of people affected by the same issues and are active in social- and environmental- and gender equality development ventures. The most important aspects of fostering an all-encompassing socio-economic context in Tanzania must be to facilitate the empowerment of marginalized people, to help them become informed and organized so that they can claim their rightful endowments and take a pro-active part in the development of their country. More external support and collaborative engagements with peer organizations that may bring experience and expertise to the impending issues is thus required in order for engaged groups to become more efficiently organized and better able to claim their constitutional and moral rights. To this end, more research of public policy interventions that carry innovative approaches and promote methods to ensure inclusion and ownership of marginalized people should be of great value for any forthcoming development objectives.

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Appendices

Appendix A. The Transformation of the World System: Some Insights from the Work of Karl Polanyi


“The richest 25% of the world’s population consumes 80% of the world’s limited natural resources. If there is to be any way of closing these enormous gaps the regions of China, Asia, Latin America, and Africa will have to be able to provide their populations with the basic amenities of modern life. They will have to have access to the natural resources required to do so. This implies an absolute decline in the use of these resources in the capitalist heartlands. It is difficult to conceive how the capitalist organisation of the economy, based on ever growing consumer demand can adjust to what amounts to a radical change of lifestyles. Unfortunately it is more likely that military power will be used to appropriate scarce resources.

………the contradictions between the requirements of the capitalist economy for unlimited expansion and the requirements of people to live in mutually supportive relations cannot be resolved without a civilizational change to transform institutions governing economic life. This is a long-term process, but in the history of humanity, the past two centuries of industrial capitalism are a moment.

……… none of the great economists, not Smith nor Marx nor Schumpeter nor Keynes, projected a long untroubled future for capitalism. Nor did Karl Polanyi. Many non-profit initiatives of civil society are examples of social solidarity based on cooperation, not competition, on association, not individual gain. Important as they are, however, they cannot substitute for democratic control of the state which remains essential to the organisation of economic livelihood in a modern society in the North as in the South.

The transformation of the capitalist order requires a new calculus of the value of work, the value of human needs and the value of nature; basic human needs of security, affection, respect and protection have no place in formal economics. Economic decisions have to be made. But the value system must be one that accords with the realities
of real people living in real societies, and a very real dependence on the natural environment and its very real limitations. Economics has to return to some very basic questions of use value and exchange value. We have to take into account the real value of human effort and work, and that is very different from its market value. We have to protect nature and our social and cultural heritage. People do not like to be valued and respected only for the income which they can earn and to be totally disrespected if they are not able to earn income for whatever reason.

The reconciliation of criteria of technical efficiency with distributive justice and democratic process was the problem which Karl Polanyi attempted to solve in the debate with Ludwig Von Mises, mentor of Friedrich Hayek, on the feasibility of an associational democratic socialist economy. He did not solve the problem, but the legacy of his research into institutions of non-market exchange, the use of single purpose moneys or reciprocal and redistributive arrangements of various kinds may expand the boundaries of the possible. This is the challenge which Karl Polanyi has presented to us and to future generations.” (Polanyi Levitt, 2004).

References to appendix A

Appendix B. Education policy in Tanzania – Brief Summary
All public higher education in Tanzania is controlled by the government through Ministry of Education and Vocation Training. The overall strategic direction as set out by Tanzania Development Vision 2025 highlights education as a strategic agent for mindset transformation and for the creation of a well educated nation, equipped with the knowledge and skills necessary to adress the challenges facing the nation (URT, 1995[1]).

Primary Education
A series of educational policy reforms aiming to improve the quality of education while ensuring equity to access to education in Tanzania was initiated in the mid 1990s. The ‘Education for All’ (EFA) movement and the education targets within the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have provided an impetus for many African countries to push for ‘Universal Primary Education’ (UPE). Aside from the rights based argument for the importance of UPE, policy documents have frequently justified the need for investment in education by pointing to the poverty alleviating benefits that are claimed to be associated with it (Wedgwood, 2007). The comprehensive Education and Training Policy (ETP)37 embraced both formal and nonformal education, vocational training and higher education. The Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) was launched in 1997 in order to enable the implementation of a holistic and integrated program to education development including concrete development plans for each sub-sector of the educational policy area. ESDP was revised in 2001 and 2008 and is a key part of the systemic public sector reform that is supporting MKUKUTA – the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (URT, 2008[1]; URT, 2010[1]). A number of specific sub-sector plans were developed; the first was the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) in 2001 for the primary education sub-sector, which has the highest priority within the education sector.

Secondary Education
The current policy guidelines for the secondary schools in Tanzania are to be found in the ETP of 1995 (URT, 1995[2]). In this document one finds both general aims and objectives for the whole of the education system and specific aims and objectives for different parts and levels of the system. The specific aims and objectives for

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37 ETP determines the overall principles and goals for the education sector, as well as clarifying the importance of cooperation between the Government of Tanzania and the international funding and technical agencies (URT, 1995[2]).
secondary school education in Tanzania are outlined as follows:

1. to consolidate and broaden the scope of baseline values, knowledge, skills and principles acquired and developed at the primary education level;
2. to enhance further development and appreciation of national unity, identity and ethic, personal integrity, respect for and readiness to work, human rights, cultural and moral values, customs, traditions, and civic responsibilities and obligations;
3. to promote the development of competency in linguistic ability and effective use of communication skills in Kiswahili and in at least one foreign language;
4. to promote opportunities for the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes and understanding in prescribed or selected fields of study;
5. to prepare students for tertiary and higher education, vocational, technical and professional training;
6. to inculcate a sense and ability for self-study, self-confidence and self-advancement in new frontiers of science and technology, academic and occupational knowledge, and skills;
7. to prepare the students to join the world of work (URT, 1995)[2]: 6).

Hence, it is clear that the education system in Tanzania is meant to give students both creative and proficiency qualifications. Bullet point no. 1, 4 and 5 raises the aims that focus on general proficiency qualifications. The aim mentioned in bullet point no. 3 refers to preparing students for the acquisition of special proficiency qualifications. Moreover, according to bullet point no. 6, the aim of secondary education in Tanzania is also to inculcate self-confidence in students and enhance creative qualifications needed to make advancement in new frontiers of science and technology. In 2003, the Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) was introduced. The reform plans have subsequently been revised and published in later versions as, SEDP II and PEDP III respectively (URT, 2010[2]; URT, 2012[1]). Various efforts are currently undertaken by the Government of Tanzania through Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE), and by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training in partnership with the United Nations Industrial Development organization (UNIDO) to develop and introduce entrepreneurship education curricula in secondary schools and in diploma teachers training colleges (TTCs), with an aim to foster an enterprising mindset among students by stimulating their abilities of creativity and innovativity, and equipping them with the basic understanding of business management skills (TIE, 2011).

Higher Education

The higher education sector is challenged to cope with the socio economic and technological advancement in general, as envisaged by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Tanzania vision 2025 which seeks to develop a well educated and learning society. The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 states that ‘we need to have a nation whose people have a positive mindset and culture, which cherishes human development through hard and smart work, professionalism, entrepreneurship, creativity, innovativeness and ingenuity and who have confidence in and high respect for all people irrespective of gender.’ (URT, 1995[1]). An array of various legal and policy frameworks has been put in place including: the Education Act No.25 of 1978 as amended from time to time (now the Education Act, Cap.353), the ETP of 1995, the Higher Education Policy of 1999, revised 2007, the ESDP of 1997 revised in 2001, the Higher Education Development Program (HEDP) for 2010-2015 (TEA, 2008; URT (2010)[3]). The specific aims and objectives for higher (tertiary) education in Tanzania are outlined in the ETP of 1995 as follows:

1. to enable people with the requisite baseline qualifications to access and benefit from opportunities of higher levels of intellectual, professional and managerial skills;
2. to prepare middle and high level professional human resource for service in the different sectors of the economy;
3. to provide opportunities for intellectual, scientific and technological excellence and high level performance;
4. to prepare student to join the world of work (URT, 1995)[2]: 8).

The main goals of the HEDP are to enhance and diversify curriculum, increased access, equity and quality and capacity of the higher education system (URT (2010)[3]: ix). In sum these macro-level policy programmes and
strategy frameworks all aim for expanding public facilities and encouraging private universities, and not least affirmative action to augment female participation and to promote interest for science and technology. Tanzania established the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education in November, 1990 with the sole responsibility of coordinating and overseeing policies of Higher Education, Technical Education, Science and Technology, and committed to statements of vision and mission as follows:

- **VISION**: The Ministry’s vision is to have a Tanzanian Society that will be competitive, knowledgeable, scientific and technologically anchored among the community of Nations by 2025.
- **MISSION**: The mission of the Ministry is to facilitate the generation of human capital for wealth creation through policy development, implementation and monitoring the provision of higher and technical education, research and consultancy and the promotion of application of Science and Technology (URT, 2006).

The Tanzanian Education Authority (TEA) was established in 2001 through the Education Fund Act No. 8 of 2001 as a public organization whose main objective is to support schools, colleges, universities by providing grants and soft loans from its Education Fund, for the improvement of quality, equity and access in education at all levels. Grants include text books, laboratory equipment, while loans are addressed to infrastructure development. (TEA, 2008). To encourage student enrollment to higher education, the students’ loans board (HESLB) was established under the act of parliament No. 9 of 2004, as amended by act No. 9 of 2007, CAP 178 (HESLB, 2008). The main target group is Tanzanian students eligible and needy and who are pursuing advanced diplomas and or degree studies at accredited higher learning institutions in and out the country.

**References to appendix B**


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**Appendix C. Perceived trends of secondary education in Tanzania**

On 18 February 2013, the Government of Tanzania announced that 240,903 out of 397,126 students who sat the 2012 National Form Four exams failed, putting the failure rate at 61% (up from 46% in 2011). The 2012 Form Four results have been labelled “disastrous” and “shocking” and have prompted the Prime Minister to form a Commission to investigate what caused the poor results and to provide recommendations (as yet unpublished) (Twaweza, 2013).

Below follows excerpts from the most recent nationally representative education data available to date. The data
have been collected by Sauti za Wananchi (www.twaweza.org/sauti) a mobile phone survey in Tanzania and the first of its kind in Africa. The data used in this brief were collected from 18 March to 3 April 2013. The brief also presents findings from the Sauti za Wananchi baseline survey (face to face interviews) which was implemented between October and December 2012. The baseline survey was conducted among 2,000 households across mainland Tanzania, while Round 1 of the mobile phone survey reached 1774 of these households (89% of the baseline survey sample) (Ibid.).

The survey results indicate that parents perceive a downward trend in the quality of secondary schooling, and largely blame the government and teachers for the decline. Parents subsequently urge the government to increase the number of teachers who are better qualified and properly paid in order to improve education in Tanzania (Ibid.)

Survey results [online] Available at: http://www.twaweza.org/uploads/files/SzWENBrief2-FINAL.pdf

**Citizens are aware of downward trend:** Sauti za Wananchi asked respondents to give their perception of the trend in the quality of secondary education over the last 10 years. In line with published pass rates, the majority of citizens perceive a downward trend in education quality.

![Perceived trend in the quality of secondary education over the past 10 years](http://www.twaweza.org/uploads/files/SzWENBrief2-FINAL.pdf)

Source of data: Sauti za Wananchi, Mobile Phone Survey - Round 1, April 2013.

**Teachers attend only part of lessons:** During the Sauti za Wananchi Baseline Survey (face to face interviews, November 2012) in each household that had a child or children attending primary or secondary school, one child was randomly selected to provide information about their school. We asked these students whether teachers were present during all the lessons on the last day they attended school.

![Teacher attendance in primary and secondary schools](http://www.twaweza.org/uploads/files/SzWENBrief2-FINAL.pdf)
Parents blame government and teachers: During the Sauti za Wananchi Baseline Survey (face to face interviews, November 2012) in each household that had a child or children attending primary or secondary school, one child was randomly selected to provide information about their school. We asked these students whether teachers were present during all the lessons on the last day they attended school.

Source of data: Sauti za Wananchi, Mobile Phone Survey - Round 1, April 2013.

References to appendix C

Appendix D. Health policy in Tanzania – Brief Summary
The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 states that one its main objectives is achievement of high quality livelihood for all Tanzanians. Concerning the health aspects this is expected to be attained through (a) access to quality primary health for all; (b) access to quality reproductive health services for all individuals of appropriate ages, (c) reduction in infant and maternal mortality rates by three-quarters of current levels (1995) (URT, 1995[1]).

Disease profile of Tanzania
Communicable diseases, maternal and perinatal conditions, and nutritional deficiencies are still remaining as the leading causes of death but chronic diseases are increasing, but the World Health Organisation (WHO) projects that over the coming years Tanzania and similar countries in SSA will experience the largest increase in death rates from cardiovascular disease (CVD), cancer, respiratory disease and diabetes (WHO, 2005[2]: 57). Studies of morbidity in Tanzania indicate that between ~15-30% of deaths are results of NCDs38 including injuries (URT, 2004: 13ff). The Adult Morbidity and Mortality Project (AMMP) was executed in three regions of Tanzania (Dar-es-Salaam, Hai and Morogoro) between the years 1992 and 2004. The project aimed at defining the cause and rates of mortality in both rural and urban communities in Tanzania. Many different causes of death were coded and the identification of the precise reasons for incidences of mortality were not completely settled, but

38 Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) are the leading causes of death globally, killing more people each year than all other causes combined (WHO, 2010[1]; WHO, 2010[2]).
NCDs including injuries were found to be of substantial order compared with other causes (URT, 2004). The most prevalent were found to be cardiovascular, cancer, diabetes, central nervous system, and chronic respiratory diseases. The studies moreover demonstrated that older people suffer more from NCDs compared to other age groups (Ibid.). Cancer is an emerging and increasingly serious public health problem in the WHO African Region (WHO, 2010[1]). For the past few decades, the number of cancer patients has been steadily rising and cancer is currently the second leading cause of NCD mortality in Tanzania (URT, 2013: 16). Cancers related to infectious agents (cervix, liver, Kaposi sarcoma, urinary bladder) are among the dominant types of the disease. Cervical cancer was the most frequently diagnosed cancer (31,500) and the leading cause of cancer death (21,600) in women in Eastern Africa in 2008, accounting for about 25% of the total new cancer cases and deaths. Kaposi sarcoma was the most commonly diagnosed cancer and the leading cause of cancer death among men in Eastern Africa in 2008 (ACS, 2011). However, cancer remains an under-recognized health condition throughout most of Africa, and improved surveillance systems for determining cancer incidence, mortality, and prevalence of risk factors are of great need. Only a minute share of the population on the African continent is covered by cancer registries (GHS, 2014).

**Sickle cell disease**

The Government of Tanzania has recognized the public health burden of sickle cell disease. In 2009, the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare included SCD as a priority condition in the national strategy for NCDs and intends to strengthen sickle cell services in health facilities at all levels (URT (2009)[1]: 20; SCF, 2014). Although there is a wide variation in the severity of disease in affected individuals, individuals with SCD will require life long hospital care for acute and chronic complications. Children are at more risk of dying of the inherited disease if it is not contained (WHO, 2012; Wonkam et al., 2012). Dedicated sickle cell services have been provided in Muhimbili National Hospital since the 1980s. In 2004, a clinical, academic and research centre was established at Muhimbili (http://www.muhas.ac.tz and http://www.mnh.or.tz/).

**Malnutrition**

Malnutrition is one of the greater challenges facing Tanzania. Hence, malnutrition among children, women, and vulnerable groups, is recognized as an indicator of social well being or poverty level. The most recent analysis of the prevalence of childhood anaemia shows that children under five years of age in sub-Saharan Africa have the lowest mean concentrations of haemoglobin and the highest anaemia prevalence (Stevens et al., 2013). For Tanzania, UNICEF’s latest report on child malnutrition (2013), presents a wide variability of the prevalence of childhood undernutrition across regions and socio-economic groups (UNICEF, 2013: 98f). At the national level, 42 percent of children under five years of age are stunted, 16 percent are underweight, 5 percent are wasted and 59 percent are anaemic (UNICEF, 2013: 98f). The numbers on child malnutrition are significantly high even put into SSA perspective where Tanzania is the third worst affected country; only Ethiopia and the Democratic Republic of Congo do worse (Uwazi, 2010: 5). In stark contrast to the positive gains in child survival, nutritional data show negligible improvement in childhood stunting. The rate of stunting far exceeds the MKUKUTA target of 20% by 2010 (PHDR, 2012: xxii). Stunting in children constitute, in essence, a scourge for the continued socioeconomic development of Tanzania (Bundara, Mwanri & Masika, J., 2013). Studies have shown that income growth alone will not attain the objective of securing adequate levels of nutritional intake among the populace in poor countries. Only a combination of income growth at the household level with large scale nutrition interventions has been deemed to be sufficient to bring about the desired results (World Bank, 2005: 12). Studies also confirm a notable difference in nutritional status between urban and rural areas in terms of moderate and severe malnutrition, where urban children tend to do better than their rural counterparts (IFPRI, 2006: 57).

**Health sector reforms**

The Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (MOHSW) states that the health sector’s mission is to enable people to improve their well-being by; integrating social welfare and health offices at Regional and Council level; ensuring
gender sensitive socio-economic wellbeing; establishing an efficient system for delivery of social welfare services; and by improving social protection in the communities (URT, 2009[1]: 39). Beginning in 1994, the Health Sector Reforms were implemented to improve the access, quality and efficiency of health service delivery. Although the declared aim was to increase access to high quality health care, the reforms focused on reductions in public expenditure and reducing the role of the state (World Bank, 2012:10). The reduction in absolute numbers of public service staff was significant during the 1990s when the government retrenched the health sector with a subsequent loss of one-third of the workforce (CMI, 2006: 2; URT, 2008[2a]: 2; CEGAA, 2009: 3). Consequently, in 2006, the MOHSW estimated that Tanzania’s health staff shortage was 65 per cent for those working in public facilities and 86 per cent for staff working in private facilities (URT, 2008[2a]: 16f). The primary health services development programme MMAM/PHSDP 2007–2017, stated that an additional 144700 health workers would have to be trained and employed to work in the public sector and correspondingly, a further 39400 health workers for the private sector, in the ten year period up until 2017 (URT, 2007[1]: 34ff).


The Tanzania ageing policy was established in 2003 to guide services provision to the elderly in order to mitigate a number of problems facing them which include: Inadequate health services, pension, lack of older people participation in decisions affecting National Development, HIV/AIDS, brutal killing of older people, older people women in particular (URT, 2003[3]).

A minor share of the populations has subscribed to prepayment plans, namely the National Health Insurance Fund (NHIF) and the Community Health Fund (CHF). The NHIF, which serves 4.6% of the population, is a compulsory insurance for public servants who must contribute 6% of their incomes. The CHF is a voluntary insurance scheme in which people who work in the informal sector in rural areas can subscribe by contributing a flat rate that allows for access to health care services within a district (World Bank, 2011: 26ff).

References to appendix D


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Appendix E. Health Systems Profile for Tanzania

Organisational Pyramid of the Tanzanian national health infrastructure (WHO, 2004: 34)
Tanzania is currently divided into 21 administrative regions and 132 districts. Services are organized in a pyramidal structure of dispensaries and health centers at the base, and then subsequently district hospitals, regional hospitals, and national referral hospitals at the apex (URT, 2003[1]: viiff; WHO, 2004: 34; URT, 2009[2]: 8ff, World Bank, 2012: 10). Most local community health posts employ a few village health workers (VHWs). VHWs provide health education and care for minor ailments to families in their home with supervision by staff at the next level of referral, the dispensary (Kwesigaboa et.al, 2012).

The dispensary is the most peripheral level of health service delivery, catering for between 6,000 to 10,000 people (Hutton et.al., 2012). Dispensaries are ideally run by a clinical assistant (a secondary school graduate with 2 years of training in anatomy, physiology, hygiene, diagnostic methods, and treatment of common illnesses) (Kwesigaboa et.al, 2012). The clinical assistant is aided by an enrolled nurse (secondary school graduate with 2 years training in nursing care of minor ailments)(Ibid.). Dispensaries provide maternal and child health care, treat simple medical problems during pregnancy such as anemia, assist with normal deliveries, and offer basic outpatient curative care to between 6000 and 10 000 people (Ibid.). Some dispensaries include basic laboratory and dental services, conduct outreach, and provide therapy for tuberculosis patients (Ibid.).

Supervising the dispensaries are health centers that are expected to serve about 50,000 people, approximately the population of one administrative division, providing in-patient services for patients referred from lower levels (Hutton et.al., 2012). Clinical officers (secondary school graduates with 3 years of basic clinical training) run health centers supported by enrolled nurses. Although intended to provide preventive care, health centers normally have 10–20 beds and provide reproductive health services and minor surgery (Kwesigaboa et.al, 2012). Both public and private providers operate dispensaries and health centers (World Bank, 2012: 10).

Higher up the service pyramid, each district is supposed to have a district hospital. 55 district hospitals are owned by the government, and 13 designated district hospitals are owned by faith-based organizations (FBOs). There are also 86 other hospitals at the first referral level (owned by the government, parastatals, and the private sector), as well as 18 regional hospitals, which function as referral hospitals for the district hospitals, plus 8 consultancy and specialized hospitals (Ibid.). Where there is no public hospital, an available FBO hospital is often designated as the district hospital. District hospitals offer outpatient and inpatient services not available at dispensaries or health centers, including laboratory and x-ray diagnostic services and surgical services, including emergency obstetric care (Kwesigaboa et.al, 2012).

Several districts (ranging from 4 to 8) are grouped into a region each of which has a regional hospital. There are currently 18 regional hospitals throughout the country. Personnel include general surgeons, general medical physicians, pediatricians, general and specialized nurses and midwives. The regional hospitals also maintain the public health staff who organizes the health programs to protect the population and prevent disease and injury
The regional hospital has specialists in various fields and offers additional services not available at district hospitals. Four specialized referral hospitals provide specialized care to regions grouped into four zones. These are teaching hospitals that provide complex health care requiring advanced technology and highly skilled personnel. The national referral hospital is the highest level of inpatient services (Hutton et. al., 2012).

References to appendix E


Appendix F. Human Resources for Health in Tanzania

Excerpts from published articles and reports presenting the concerns and longterm threats posed by human resource shortages for health service delivery in Tanzania.

“While the world average for health worker (clinical staff, nurses and all types of health workers) density per 1000 population is 9.3, there is marked inequality with 18.9 health workers per 1000 population in Europe and only 2.3 in Africa (Hutton et. al., 2012). There is also marked variation within Africa: in Chad there are 0.16 nurses per 1,000 population, and Tanzania has 0.39 nurses and 0.25 clinical staff (medical doctors, assistant medical officers and clinical officers) per 1000 population (Ibid.). In Tanzania, on average there is one prescriber (generally mid level providers trained in-country, rather than medical doctors) in each primary facility with the workload averaging 29 outpatients per clinician per day in health centres and 20 in dispensaries (Ibid.). Marked inequalities in the distribution of health workers are documented in Tanzania in terms of per capital distribution and rural urban imbalances. While the average is 1.4 health workers per 1000 people in the country, this varies greatly between districts, from 0.3 per 1000 in Bukombe district to 12.3 per 1000 in Moshi district (Ibid.). The health worker shortage in Africa has been attributed to low output of new health workers by medical schools, out migration to other sectors and to more lucrative countries because of retention related factors including poor remuneration and adverse working conditions at home (Ibid.). HIV/AIDS has both increased demand for skilled health workers and directly reduced their availability. There is also an urban-rural imbalance of health workers with more staff in urban centres” (Ibid.).

“The number of health workers in Tanzania has declined sharply over the last decade. The present number of health personnel in Tanzania is low both by international standards and relative to national staffing norms, and an even greater shortage of health workers is expected in the future. Due to geographical imbalance in the distribution of health workers, the shortage is most strongly felt in rural areas. The shortage is amplified by low productivity and sub-standard performance in some parts of the health workforce. Although the human resource situation of the Tanzanian health sector seems to be recognised as a crisis by the political leadership, the fundamental reasons for the crisis have yet to be addressed. Among the challenges ahead are the need to place the human resource issue higher on the agenda in national policy processes and documents, the need to address financial constraints, the need for further evidence on which policies are most effective in addressing the various aspects of the problem, and the need to strengthen the Human Resource Department of the Ministry of Health. An important challenge for health policy makers in Tanzania is to design a human resource strategy that appropriately reflects and responds to the current crisis.” (CMI, 2006: 3).

“The study findings indicate a critical demand for addressing the human resource for health crisis. One has to increase
deployment immediately in order to meet health needs within the community. In June 2009, the 103 observed districts exhibited a human resources for health (HRH) shortage of 50%. However, the districts requested less than the staffing norm recommends. It has also been shown that the requests are only loosely associated with existing gaps. The reasons for this pattern are not clear. Both demand and/or supply side related factors come into consideration and should be investigated by a subsequent study. The overall deployment rate amounts 35% of the requested health staff. Likewise, deployments to districts are only weakly related to their requests. Thus there is need for a deployment policy that addresses local conditions. This is especially important because many (26%) graduates who were sent to rural areas did not report at their duty station. A new deployment policy should take countermeasures like innovative incentive packages that are gender-sensitive and make living and working in hardship areas more attractive. The observed attrition rate, which occurred because of staff that reported and left immediately, amounts 7 percent. At the moment, this does not look like a major concern since one cannot expect every worker to be satisfied with the found conditions, but one should observe this development carefully. Overall, the deployment process has lowered the districts’ HRH gap by 4%. With the current attrition rates and small cohorts of health workers entering the public sector annually, the shortage of health workers is expected to remain high for a long time.” (Sikika, 2010).

“The health of the general population is endangered by inefficiencies in the use of resources to adequately provide proper universal healthcare. However, there is not sufficient attention in rural communities and amongst health workers for the concept of vulnerability. Health policy makers commonly tend to focus on the practical effects of interventions, and see less value in the benefits that structural interventions could have for a wide range of other health and social issues and hence are not encouraged to work towards cross-sectional goals” (Peabody, 2012).

References to appendix F


Appendix G. Environment policy in Tanzania – Brief Summary

The Constitution of Tanzania makes a clear connection between a healthy environment and the wellbeing of the citizens of the country. Despite the lack of specific provisions for the protection and management of the environment, the United Republic of Tanzania Constitution of 1977 (as amended from time to time), have a bearing on the same (LEAT, 2012: 8). Under Article 27 of the Constitution, the public is called upon to ensure that the natural resources of the country are managed properly:

1. Every person has the duty to protect the natural resources of the United Republic, the property of the state authority, all property collectively owned by the people, …

2. All persons shall be required by law to safeguard the property of the state authority and all property collectively owned by the people, to combat all forms of waste and squander, and to manage the national economy assiduously with the attitude of people who are masters of the destiny of their nation.39

Natural environment of Tanzania

Tanzania has exceptional biodiversity. These ecosystems provide multiple benefits to society, which in turn have economic benefits, though these are rarely captured by markets (UKAID, 2011: 8). Tanzania covers an area of 945,000km2 and is one of Africa's most ecologically rich countries. The diverse climatic and physical conditions

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39 The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania (URT, 1998[1]).
range from arid, semi-arid, and mountainous areas of afro-alpine vegetation, woodland and dry land savanna. About 40% of Tanzania is covered by forests and woodlands, which host various types of ecosystems. Tanzania's eastern coastline extends about 240km north to south along the Indian Ocean. Out of the land mass area, water bodies cover 61,495 Km² (6.52% of the total area), 88% of which is made up of the three big lakes of Victoria, Tanganyika and Nyasa. Other major water bodies include Lake Rukwa and the soda lakes, Natron, Manyara, Burunge and Eyasi. There are several inland major wetlands including the Malagarasi/Moyowosi and Lake Manyara, both of which have been declared Ramsar sites of international significance under the international Ramsar Convention⁴⁰ (United Nations, 1976; LEAT, 2001; ETOA, 2004). Following the Rio Declaration in 1992,⁴¹ Tanzania made concerted efforts to address and alleviate the huge environmental concerns by taking a comprehensive set of legislative steps to safeguard the adherence to a roadmap focused on sustainable development. The government subsequently launched a major political thrust aimed at formulating or reviewing national policies for all sectors related to protection of the environment (Pallangyo, 2007). The Planning Commission under the President’s Office was charged with national development planning and economic management that included the integration of environmental concerns and moreover had a direct bearing on a number of line ministries and government departments of relevance to environment and sustainable development. The related implementation programmes and policy enforcement activities have received extensive practical assistance and field support by a massive amount of NGOs and Community-Based Organisation (CBOs) as well as many academic institutions, business and commercial actors and a multitude of professional associations (Ibid.).

Farmland and its Use

Presently, the best agricultural lands in the country are ever more densely populated which in turn results into their degradation, making the soil increasingly unfit (and less accessible) for cultivation. Soils are generally very shallow and extremely prone to erosion and as agriculture is the most important economic sector in the country, soil degradation is hence having a massive impact on people’s livelihoods and their actual means of consumption and outright long-term survival (LEAT, 2001: 4). Tanzanian agriculture is characterized by small-scale farming where the average plot size has remained constant at around 2.5 ha. Many households are still using hand hoes to till their land; only 3.2 per cent of land is irrigated; and the use of tractors (3 per cent) or other inputs such as high yield variety seeds (17 per cent), chemical fertilizers (7 per cent), pesticides (9 per cent) remains marginal (World Bank, 2013[3]: 45ff). The most common production technique used by the small-scale farmers are fallow and rotation agriculture, where each plot is merely cultivated for some years before it is left idle in order to recover the nutrient balance. However, mounting population pressures and the subsequent waves of migration to urban centers implies a gradual shift to a more market-oriented consumption pattern of food which in its turn results in increasingly more intense and persistent farming methods to provide for the needs of the relentlessly growing and densely populated nodes of urban and semi-urban settlements (Aune et.al., 2001). The result is soil erosion and depletion of nutrients, and ultimately a decline in yields if the natural nutrients in the soil are not replaced artificially with either commercial fertilisers or natural sources like mulch, cow dung etc. (Ibid.). The urban and

⁴⁰ The Ramsar convention was developed and adopted by participating nations at a meeting in Ramsar, Mazandaran, Iran on February 2, 1971, hosted by the Iranian Department of Environment, and came into force on December, 21 1975. Presently there are 168 contracting parties. The state parties meet every three years as the Conference of the Contracting Parties (CCP). Amendments to the original convention have been agreed to in Paris (in 1982) and Regina (in 1987). There is a standing committee, a scientific review panel, and a secretariat. The headquarters is located in Gland, Switzerland, shared with the IUCN. Contracting Parties are required to designate at least one site as a Wetland of International Importance. The identified wetland must have international significance in terms of its ecology, botany, zoology, limnology or hydrology. Criteria to determine international significance have been developed and supplemented with Guidelines (Strategic Framework 2008) (IEDS, 2012).

⁴¹ The principles of sustainability were accepted by all nations at the Earth Summit in Rio in 1992. The 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) was a historic watershed. It placed the environment crisis at the top of the international agenda, and linked environment with development in a new paradigm of sustainable development (United Nations, 1992[1]; TWN, 2012).
Semi-urban areas are also associated with life in increasingly sub-standard and overcrowded conditions without the sufficient means for attaining decent levels of livelihoods, particularly in unplanned areas which have been growing rapidly in recent years. The massive inflow of people to the urban population centers, leading to employment in a maze of insecure and informal and frequently minutely remunerative sector activities, all contributing to a concurrent situation characterized by bad health, malnutrition, and abhorrent living conditions in a continuously reproduced pauperized social context and a degraded environment (Lusugga Kironde, 1995). The combination and synthesis of human actions and natural outcomes in terms of land intensification, attempts of conservation, and malicious degradation of the natural environment occur more or less in parallel in most localities. The nature and development of livelihood strategies at the subcommunity level varies between individuals in specific community, but overall the general trend is that the land area under cultivation is consciously expanding, and fallow areas are being reduced. New settlements are being established exterior to the nucleus population centers and increasingly new potential natural resources (heavy and fertile soils) are being explored as technological adoption evolves and land regulatory bodies permits. The vegetation cover has been characterized by a general decrease in land cover, including stark deforestation ventures since the end of the 1970s, followed by reactions of both reactivation and formation of new gullies, sheet erosion, and increased flood incidence in the nucleus settlements. Thus, the development of relatively scarce natural resources has implied a conscious and methodological harnessing and inexorable use of marginal and risk-prone land. (Birch-Thomsen, Frederiksen & Sano, 2001).

Water resources and its Use

Tanzania is well endowed with water resources sharing three of the largest and most important inland lakes (Lake Victoria, Tanganyika and Nyasa) in Africa, a diverse river system, numerous wetlands and an ocean coast-line. Lake Victoria supports one of the most densely populated areas in the whole of Africa all of which are dependent on the lake for food, water, and electricity. However, this the world's second largest fresh water lake by area, faces growing environmental challenges in the form of invasive species, pollution, and rapidly falling water levels implying environmental repercussions. Pollution has been an issue in Lake Victoria ever since the shoreline populations began to grow from the 1950s onwards. Subsequent changes in land use have incurred higher and higher flows of silt and chemical compounds into the lake. In tandem with population growth and the establishment of new industries, ever augmented volumes of industrial and human waste has been discharged into the lake, and drastically downsized fishing yields have been registered in recent years. Environmental and social concerns have further been raised from the fact that nearly 3% of the lake’s total volume was lost between 2006 and 2008. At least 30 million people depend on the lake for their livelihood and the retreating shoreline has affected water-supply systems, boat operators, fishermen, and farmers alike (Saundry & Fund, 2012).

In total, Tanzania’s freshwater and wetland ecosystems are under severe strains. The viability of these water resources and not least their sustainable accessibility for human usage is high due to massive demands for irrigation water, the lack of proper water management, excessive water wastage, and also because of diaphanous land tenure arrangements. Many irrigation schemes abstract water from seasonal rivers, which are already water stressed without adequate attention to maintaining the level of flows and water levels to conserve sensitive environments.

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42 In 1995 FAO conducted a review of the annual renewable water resources of the African countries. This information was compared with surface runoff estimates, calculated for each of the 136 basic units (in GIS) and based on the surface runoff map of Africa. All calculations were based on renewable water resources, and mainly on surface water resources, except for arid countries where renewable groundwater already plays an important role in irrigation development. Non renewable groundwater resources (fossil water) were not taken into consideration (FAO, 1997).

43 By 2050, freshwater availability will be further strained, with 2.3 billion more people than today (in total over 40% of the global population) projected to be living in river basins experiencing severe water stress, especially in North and South Africa, and South and Central Asia. Global water demand is projected to increase by some 55%, due to growing demand from manufacturing (+400%), thermal electricity generation (+140%) and domestic use (+130%) (OECD, 2012).
freshwater and wetland habitats and species. In essence, there is generally a lack of scientific understanding, organizational structures and comprehensive regulatory statutes in order to properly be able to manage water resources along rivers and waterways in their full complexity (Charnley, 1997). Consequently, people living downstream commonly experience water shortages for irrigation, watering livestock, and household use. Conflict is rife between upstream and downstream users in many locations (Ibid). Another huge problem is the growing threat of obnoxious discharges of untreated effluent is continuously polluting the ocean, lakes and rivers, subsequently gradually transforming fresh water resources into cesspools unfit for human consumption and ultimately destroying the aquatic habitats and marine ecosystems (LEAT, 2001: 4).

Tanzania’s coastal and marine ecosystems occupy an area of about 241,500 km2 (PEW, 2013[3]) or 20% of Tanzania and constitute an important area for fisheries, but is relatively poorly monitored and managed. Fishing in this zone is dominated by foreign fleets from countries such as France, Spain, China, Taiwan, and Japan. The total number of the licensed foreign vessel is not known and the level of fishing by these vessels is unclear as the majority of the foreign fishing fleet is fishing illegally (WWF, 2008: 59). Coral reefs are found along about two thirds (600 km) of Tanzania’s coast, with the most well developed reefs around Tanga, Pemba, Unguja, Mafia, Kilwa (Songo Songo Archipelago) and Mtwara (Wagner, 2004). The health or degradation of coral reefs greatly affects surrounding seagrass beds, and mangrove forests, as well as fish, crustaceans, sharks, sea turtles, and marine mammals. Reefs protect coasts from strong wave action and help prevent shoreline erosion. Coral reefs have great economic importance, supporting artisanal fisheries in Tanzania, and creating an important tourist attraction. Damage due to strong wave action during storms is common on exposed reefs all along the coast of Tanzania and the 1998 coral bleaching event had profound and long-lasting effects on the ecology of the coral reefs, and as the dead coral crumbles into rubble, with consequent loss of structural complexity, fish abundance decrease greatly (Ibid.). Human threats to the coral reefs have been radically augmented during the past decades with rising population pressure and subsequent overutilization of coral reef resources in a number of ways, particularly, for various types of fisheries, tourism and coral mining. To a considerable extent the coral reefs have been degraded due to the persistent application of unsustainable or pure destructive methods of exploitation and pollution. The main centers of pollution are Dar es Salaam, Tanga, and Zanzibar town and, to a lesser extent, Mtwara, Lindi and Bagamoyo, where there are industrial, institutional, and domestic discharges; agrochemical pollution; and construction activities. (Ibid.). Moreover, Tanzania’s coastal ecosystems are in a general state of degradation by human activities that have been allowed to run amuck. Consequently, the overall mangrove coverage is continuously being clear cut and the related mangrove ecosystems are being altered by overexploitation of mangrove wood for construction and fuel, and from cutting of substantial areas of mangroves for solar saltpans, agriculture and aquaculture (e.g. rice and shrimp ponds), industries, and urban and hotel developments (WWF, 2008: 19).

Forest resources and its Use

Deforestation in Tanzania is an acute stage of absenteeism in terms of regulatory control and prudent and sustainable management. Forest cover is currently being dilapidated, diluted and outright disintegrated at an alarming rate, causing an ominous augmentation of the magnitude of the looming desertification processes and has adversely affected soil fertility, water catchment areas and water flow (LEAT, 2001: 4). Based on recent reports from the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism and the National Audit Office of Tanzania, respectively, and verified by independent observers of the REDD mechanism\(^{44}\), deforestation in Tanzania is estimated at more than 400,000 ha per annum (URT, 2009[4]: 4, URT, 2012[3]: ix; REDD, 2013[1]). Forest resources have been heavily

\(^{44}\) The UN-REDD Programme is the United Nations collaborative initiative on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation (REDD) in developing countries. The Programme was launched in 2008 and builds on the convening role and technical expertise of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) (REDD, 2013[2]).
Public policies in Tanzania

The overall trend in forestland tenure over the past century is a rather clear picture of a steady erosion of local community rights and hence responsibility and capacity to manage resources. The results of the policy reforms on management structures for forest resources are mixed, both in terms of operational efficiency and sustainability (Petersen & Sandhövel, 2001; Balkwill, Luoga & Witkowski, 2005; Abdallah & Sauer, 2007; Lund & Treue, 2008; Kant & Kijazi, 2010, 2011). The outcome of five decades of disparate, inconsistent, unfulfilled and feebly consummated environmental policies may be epitomized by the hard facts of forest cover per capita that, by taking account of population growth in combination with deforestation estimates, exhibits a dramatic decline from 6.3 hectares from 1961 to around 0.7 ha in 2010 (Hurst, 2003; Ylhäisi, 2003). The pace of deforestation has in later decades stayed locked in high gear, and in total, between 1990 and 2010, Tanzania lost 19.4% of its forest cover or around 8,067,000 ha (FAO, 2010: 14). Tanzania was once regarded as being among the greenest countries on the African continent. The forests constitute the main energy source for the population in Tanzania, for cooking and heating. Moreover, the forests provide various non-wood products (NWFPs), which also are essential for the livelihoods of many Tanzanians. The NWFPs include fruits, nuts, traditional medicine, honey, beeswax, tannins and gum arabic. Forests also provide shelter for wild animals, support critical plant biotopes and compose the context of living complexity and exotic beauty which are the bases of the tourism industry (FAO, 2000). The Tanzanian forests and their natural riches are however increasingly confronted by a plethora of ‘modernization’ menaces that to a substantial extent is being brought about by relentless acts of deforestation with ever more dire consequences for the long term sustainability of their complex ecosystems. Roughly 40 per cent of Tanzania is still covered by forests and woodlands but heavy pressure from agricultural expansion, livestock grazing, wild fires, over-exploitation and unsustainable utilization of wood resources and many other human activities mainly involving the expansion of arable land from the lowlands towards the mountains, as well as rapidly rising energy needs and not least the commercial (and frequently illegal45) logging activities are all taking a huge and steadily growing toll on the forest resources of the country and contributing to the forest degradation in the country. (FAO, 2010; REDD, 2013[2]). If the current rampant logging practices are left to thrive the outcome could very well mellow into a killer of both national and community level development efforts and thereby have detrimental impacts on the entire society and on each and every individual in the country. It is in essence such an alarming trajectory that it poses a direct hazard to the continued stability of the nation and hence calls for urgent policy changes to increase participation, as well as harmonization of values and institutions of different stakeholders at both the local, national levels of governance as well as in the incorporation of international standards in forest management into national laws and regulations and specific locally anchored guidance directives (Lund & Treue, 2008; UNEP, 2009: 35ff; Kant & Kijazi, 2011; TFCG, 2011: 12ff). A ‘monstrous’ perpetrator of the unbending deforestation trends is the country’s extreme reliance on charcoal as a major source of fuel for the majority of its nearly 45 million residents. In recent years local activities related to collecting firewood processing of forest resources for charcoal have increased dramatically. It is estimated that Tanzania’s urban centers consume over one million tons of charcoal every year with nearly 500,000 tons being burned annually, and half of it consumed in the country’s commercial capital of Dar es Salaam (IPPmedia, 2012). Biomass use accounts for over 90% of total energy consumption and the rapid population growth of both urban and rural areas has placed a severe strain on the country’s biomass resources, leading to further deforestation and also frightening desertification of certain areas. In essence, the high consumption levels of the natural resources coupled with poor forest management and

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45 Illegal logging has become a major concern in Tanzania. In one instance, over 100 containers containing illegally obtained timber were seized at Dar es Salaam harbor in 2004. Logs of tree species which were not allowed to be exported were in the containers. The declarations showed the containers had logs of tree species which were allowed to be exported. In December 2009, MNRT reported that 57% of revenue (approximately 23 billion Tanzanian shillings) from forest products was not collected during the 2008/2009 financial year (URT, 2012[3]:ix).
negligible regulation of the charcoal trade, envisages an impending crisis of the natural environment that needs to be revisited. The concurrent ravages of the Tanzanian forests by the excessive charcoal consumption is a real threat to their long-term persistence and will ultimately necessitate urgent actions in terms of radical policy interventions for alleviating the current levels of forest loss (Mwampamba, 2007; Felix & Gheewala, 2011).

Environmental policy aims
Tanzania is frequently praised for its conscious and methodological mainstreaming of the country’s environmental considerations into a comprehensive policy framework that is subsequently and systematically applied in all of its development planning. The National Environmental Policy identifies six (6) major problems, which require urgent attention. These are problems of: land degradation; lack of accessible, good quality water for both urban and rural inhabitants; environmental pollution; loss of wildlife habitats and biodiversity; deterioration of aquatic systems; and deforestation.46 Further, the Government of Tanzania (GOT) admits, in this policy, that the country needs to adopt environmentally sustainable natural resource management practices in order to ensure that long term sustainable economic growth is achieved (URT, 1997[2]: 5). Additionally, the country has elaborated comprehensive strategies for supporting the sustainable implementation of the designated and signed laws e.g. MKUKUTA and MKURABITA in the mainland and MKUZA in Zanzibar (RGoZ, 2007, 2010; URT, 2008[3] & 2010[1]). Tanzania has furthermore adopted Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) regulations and guidelines (IIED, 1998: 66). Environmental concerns have also been mainstreamed in the MKUKUTA, and various sectoral policies have been reviewed and modified to incorporate management of environmental aspects such as the biodiversity concerns due to its diverse ecosystems, topography and climate. In recognition of the need to conserve and exploit biological resources sustainably, Tanzania signed the International Convention on the Conservation of Biological Diversity on June 12, 1992, and ratified it on March 1, 1996. Biological diversity has thus been acknowledged is a key asset for the nation. Most of the people depend on it for food, medicine, building materials and energy. Other values of bio-diversity include tourist attraction and decomposers of organic wastes and soil conditions (URT, 2001). One of the main objectives of the policy directives has been to increase the role of local communities in controlling and benefiting from conservation activities in the different management unit areas such as wildlife, forest and beach management et.al.47 Considerable emphasis has been placed on developing locally anchored standards in the development process of forming the framework of environmental regulations which also reflect local conditions and prevailing values in order to ensure responsibility and a sense of ownership among the local communities (Richards, 1998; Madulu, 2001). 48 In essence, the introduced environmental policy directives, related to the revision of specific laws, have been accompanied by a piloting of community member’s involvement in the particular preservation and conservation processes and in anticipation of the subsequent release of new regulations (UNEP, 2001; CLEIAA, 2003; URT, 2002 & 2003[2]; ICAT, 2005; TNRF, 2005).

Environmental Laws & Regulations
A primary objective with Tanzania’s environnetal strategies has been to mobilize and secure the resources and build the capacity to map out the entire country and carry out a comprehensive land use planning from the national level to the local community level. Moreover, the corresponding institutional infrastructure for matters and challenges of environmental management in Tanzania have been distributed and formalized including the incorporation of the EIA provisions contained in the Environmental Management Act, (2004) at the end of 2005.

46 Read more about Tanzania’s richness in biodiversity in appendix I: Biodiversity hotspots in Africa!
47 A key example is the Miombo woodlands which are central to the livelihood systems of millions of rural and urban dwellers in Tanzania for domestic and agro-industry activities. Deforestation is alarming, improvement of processing techniques of miombo products is crucial, as well as finding alternative energy sources and to make them accessible to the poor communities. Read more in appendix J: The Miombo Woodlands!
48 The HEAL (Health & Ecosystems Analysis of Linkages) Consortium, highlights multiple examples of the impact on human health from environmental degradation, including sickness, death and even childhood reductions in IQ (HEAL, 2011). Read more in Appendix K: Ecosystems and Communicable Diseases!
The Act includes provisions for incorporating EIA/Strategic Environment Assessment in national, sectoral, district and community planning processes. The responsibility for determining the appropriate level of environmental assessment (screening) lies with National Environmental Management Council (URT, 2002; ICAT, 2005). The terms of reference for EIA studies is approved at the central level and the district and sectoral levels are consulted by the proponents during scoping and will review the EIA reports. The local community’s involvement is further effected through people’s direct involvement in the field work or through participation in programs, provision of environmental education, or through sharing the benefits of the concerned social service programs (Richards, 1998; Madulu, 2001; URT, 2003[2]). Building up the land administration system based on the law and anchored in appropriate systems that will avail information in a timely fashion has been regarded as indispensable in maintaining functioning property rights and transparent businesses management regimes (Hamza & Kimwer, 2007). Tanzania has over the years formulated and signed a whole series of legislative bills into environmental laws, policies and strategies over the years; the Wildlife Conservation Act no 12 (1974); the Forest Act no 14 (2002); the Fisheries Act no 22 (2003); the Environmental Management Act no 20 (2004). Related policy documents including the environmental policy of 1997 (URT, 1997[2]), the forestry policy as well as the wildlife policy of 1998 (URT, 1998[2]; URT, 1998[3]) and the tourism policy of 1999 (URT, 1999).

Environmental Threats
Tanzania faces numerous threats to its natural environment and the combined effects of the manifold issues are a rapidly mounting national crisis that includes:

- Climate volatility and climate extremes;
- Land use change, biodiversity loss and land degradation;
- Rapid urbanization with huge challenges related to water, sanitation, and waste management;
- Agricultural overutilization and unsustainable range management;
- Illegal and unsustainable deforestation; Illegal and unsustainable wildlife exploitation
- Insensitive mineral exploitation without regard to environmental and social impacts;
- Commoditization of biodiversity and natural resources by booming safari tourism and sport (big game) hunting;
- Excessive pollution and improper treatment and disposal of solid and liquid hazardous wastes;
- Serious threats of obsolete chemicals;
- Destruction of wetlands, due to expanding populations and industrial activities;
- Coral reefs degradation, due to overexploitation of resources and destructive fishing practices.

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49 In a recent police campaign from late September to late October 2013, conducted under Interpol’s Project Wisdom and Project Leaf programs, which aim to combat elephant poaching and illegal logging, respectively, some 660 people were arrested in five countries: Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Seized were 240 kilograms of elephant ivory, 856 logs, 20 kg of rhino horns, 302 bags of charcoal, 637 firearms, nearly 2,000 rounds of ammunition, 30 chainsaws, 200 kilos of cannabis and khat, 65 pellets of heroin, 47 animal parts and 44 vehicles, according to a statement issued by Interpol, which went on to note that the wildlife products were often concealed within timber and charcoal shipments. The seizures represent only a fraction of the illicit wildlife products thought to be flowing out of Africa. Conservationists estimate that 22,000-35,000 elephants are currently killed each year to meet ivory demand in China, Vietnam, Japan, and the Philippines (MONGABAY, 2013).


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Appendix H. Biodiversity hotspots in Africa

The safeguarding of biodiversity provides ecosystem resilience to allow both people and natural communities to cope with periodic environmental strains and habitat stress. This implies a transition towards sustainable, regenerative production systems that also recognize that local community members are the custodians and mangers of a sophisticated agro-ecological system that provides a multitude of public goods and services (e.g. water, soil, landscape, energy, biodiversity, and recreation (UNCTAD, 2013[4]). Natural habitats such as forests have for a long time been providing local people with the means for survival, supplying food (meat, nuts, seeds, fruits and vegetables), fodder, firewood, construction materials, medicinal plants and wild genes for domestic plants and animals. Forests furthermore cater for a range of essential ecological services such as maintaining the hydrological cycle via the absorption and storage of rainfall and the enabling of springs and streams, by balancing humidity levels and regulating the local climate and dampening temperature variations, by contributing to the processes of soil formation and maturation, by storing and cycling of essential nutrients, by absorbing and breaking down pollutants and not least by offering / providing natural sites of beauty and exploration for touristic recreation and scientific research (WWF, 2013 [1]).

Out of 25 globally known biodiversity hotspots, Tanzania harbours six: the Eastern Arc old Block-Mountain Forests (Usambara, Ngoru, Uluguru, Uluguru and Udzungwa Mountains); the Coastal forests (e.g. Pugu, Rondo); the Great Lakes for Cichlid fishes (lakes Victoria, Tanganyika and Nyasa); the marine coral reef ecosystems; the ecosystems of the alkaline Rift-Valley Lakes (e.g. Natron and Eyasi); and the grassland savannas for large mammals, for example, harboring the famous Serengeti National Park. About a quarter of Tanzania’s land area is covered by protected ecosystems in form of forest reserves, national parks and game reserves. (Myers, 1990; Myers et.al., 2000; Küper et.al., 2004; URT, 2009[3]; United Nations, 2010: 73ff). According to the World Resources Institute (WRI)(2005), the Copenhagen Consensus on Human Challenges (2011), and the World Wildlife Fund (WWF)(2012), biological diversity is essential to people not only through its direct provisioning of products and services for the benefit of material welfare and livelihoods, but it also contributes to security, resiliency, social relations, health, and freedom of choices and actions (WCS, 2005; CC, 2011; WWF, 2012). In East Africa, the WWF (2013) describes how biodiversity is a crucial matter of life on which human societies depends for their long-term survival and cultural reproduction. Despite of all its richness, the region still caters for...
some of the highest rates of poverty on the planet and subsequently its peoples are extremely dependent on the viability of the region’s natural resources—clean freshwater, healthy forests and mangroves, and abundant fish and wildlife. In sum, these resources must be managed sustainably to ensure their longevity and thereby continue to benefit the people who rely on strong and healthy ecosystems for their livelihoods and ultimate survival (WWF, 2013[1][2][3][4][5][6][7]).

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Innumerable conservation goals have been set since the first United Nations conference on the environment in Stockholm in 1972 which have progressively been formalised in a series of Multilateral Environmental Agreements such as the target of ‘achieving a significant reduction of the current rate of biodiversity loss at the global, regional and national levels as a contribution to poverty alleviation and to the benefit of all life on Earth’, set at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro on 5 June 1992 and entered into force on 29 December 1993 (United Nations, 1992[2], Vikström, 2006).
Appendix I. The Miombo Woodlands


“Miombo woodlands make up a significant proportional of total forested land in Tanzania, and most of it is in general lands. The main concentrations of this formation are found in the western and the southern part of the country. Miombo woodlands are central to the livelihood systems of millions of rural and urban dwellers in Tanzania for domestic and some agro-industry activities. Utilization of miombo woodlands is unsustainable and inefficient. Deforestation is alarming, marketing and improvement of processing techniques of miombo products is crucial. To develop alternative energy sources and to make them accessible to the poor community is paramount. To invest on addressing constraints emanating when implementing collaborative management is crucial.” (Abdallah & Monela, 2007).

“In Tanzania, the apparent main reasons behind forest depletion and degradation have been reported to include clearing for agriculture, overgrazing, commercial and domestic fuelwood production, mining, forest fires for various reasons (e.g. tsetse eradication, shifting cultivation and hunting) and harvesting industrial wood (Misana, 1988[1]). Shifting cultivation may account for more than 50% of deforestation on Tanzania mainland. Charcoal making becomes the second contributing factor. Illegal harvesting and mining activities are also reported (Iddi, 2002) to contribute to deforestation in Tanzania. However, several scholars (e.g. Vanclay, 1993; Misana et al., 1996) have argued that not all causes behind forest depletion are real, others are simply apparent or symptoms, and hence, in order to tackle the problem of forest depletion and degradation a clear and deep understanding of the causes of deforestation is essential. For these scholars, the current deforestation problem is a complex socio-economic problem generated by the interaction of economic, social, political, historical and natural factors. Thus, the real causes of forest depletion and degradation, include among others poverty, overpopulation, inadequate agrarian policies, corruption and greed, ignorance and carelessness, undervaluation of natural forests, and open access into public forestlands (general lands). Adequate solution to forest depletion and degradation can only be achieved by addressing these real causes of deforestation.” (Abdallah & Monela, 2007).

“Forest depletion and degradation has several impacts that affect people’s livelihoods and their environment. Some of these impacts include erosion and loss of soil productivity; acute shortages of timber, fuelwood and other forest products and services; drying of water sources and shortage of water for various purposes; floods, sedimentation of rivers, reservoirs and irrigation systems; global warming, and species extinction due to habitat fragmentation and over-exploitation. In Tanzania, due to deforestation, many parts of the country have been experiencing serious soil erosion problem particularly in the central region where miombo woodlands dominate (Misana, 1988[2], Misana et al., 1996). Deforestation has also affected the potential of water catchment areas in terms of the quantity and quality of water they supply. Increased sedimentation of rivers and dams, river sands and frequent flash floods are reported in several parts of the country (e.g. recent floods in Mwanza, Shinyanga and Tabora where 60% of total forest is miombo woodlands). The resulting lack of water and poor quality of water have been, in many cases, associated with incidences of many water-borne diseases such as typhoid, diarrhoea and cholera. Addressing effectively the problem of forest depletion and degradation will mitigate/reduce or eliminate those hazards and improve rural livelihoods. This can be achieved through good miombo woodland governance and sound management practices.” (Abdallah & Monela, 2007).

References to appendix I


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Appendix J. Ecosystems and Communicable Diseases

Information extracted from HEAL web-site concerning ecosystem degradation and biodiversity loss and the suggested correlation with an increasing transmission of some communicable diseases such as malaria and certain emerging and neglected tropical diseases. Information avialable online at: http://www.wcs-heal.org/approach/explore-currently-understood-linkages/ecosystems-and-communicable-diseases

“The communicable diseases that are most strongly linked with ecological change and environmental degradation in the scientific literature include certain vector borne diseases such as malaria, water-borne infectious diarrhea, certain neglected tropical diseases such as schistosomiasis, and some emerging infectious diseases (EIDs) such as Nipah virus” (Molyneux et al., 2008: 287ff).

“It is estimated that there were more than 200 million cases of malaria worldwide and about 1.2 million deaths from the disease in 2010. Despite advances in prevention and treatment of the disease, it remains a major public health threat, particularly in Africa, where 90% of deaths caused by malaria take place. The most common pathogens that cause malaria are Plasmodium falciparum, Plasmodium vivax, Plasmodium ovale, and Plasmodium malariae; of these, Plasmodium falciparum causes the most severe disease and is responsible for most of the deaths from malaria, especially in SSA” (Murray et al., 2012; Crawley et al., 2010).

“Deforestation and forest fragmentation have been linked to increases in the risk of malaria transmission. In the Brazilian Amazon, researchers found that a 4.3% change in forest cover resulted in a 48% increase in the incidence of malaria. The increased incidence of malaria did not occur immediately but 5 to 10 years after the deforestation; researchers hypothesized that the changes to land cover that took place after deforestation, such as the secondary growth of shrubs, provided habitat that was more favorable for the mosquito vector that causes malaria in the region, Anopheles darling.” (Olson et al., 2010).

“Diarrheal disease is defined as three or more loose or watery stools within 24 hours. Globally, it is estimated that there are two to four billion cases of diarrhea annually, causing more than one million deaths among young children in low- and middle-income countries. A number of infectious agents cause diarrheal disease in these countries, including rotavirus, Shigella, Vibrio cholerae, Escherichia coli, and Salmonella. Risk factors for diarrheal disease include malnutrition, lack of access to clean drinking water, poor sanitation and hygiene, and crowded living conditions.” (Ahs et al., 2012; Kumar & Subita, 2012).

“Intact ecosystems such as forests play a direct role in water availability by helping to maintain watersheds that provide water to downstream human communities. Forests are thought to play a role in maintaining critically important hydrological services through a number of mechanisms, including decreasing storm flow and soil erosion and regulating local climate, among others. In Indonesia, researchers analyzing the relationship between watershed protection and diarrhea risk found that as the quantity of water available to a village increased, the incidence of diarrhea decreased.” (Pattanayak & Wendland, 2007).

“The neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) are a group of viral, bacterial, and parasitic infections that impact more than one billion people globally. They occur primarily among the poorest populations in low-income countries and are a major cause of disability. These diseases have historically not received the same degree of funding for prevention and treatment as other communicable diseases such as malaria, HIV/AIDS, and tuberculosis. Globally, NTDs cause more than 500,000 deaths annually.” (Pongsiri et al., 2009; Kappagoda & Ioannidis, 2012).

“Risk factors for NTDs include malnutrition and lack of access to clean water and sanitation (Kealey and Smith 2010, Kappagoda and Ioannidis 2012). The impacts of ecosystem change and degradation on NTD risk and transmission have not been well studied but research on one of these diseases, schistosomiasis, suggests that there are important linkages.” (Pongsiri et al., 2009; Molyneux et al., 2008: 287ff).
“EIDs are defined as diseases that have newly evolved or have existed in the past but are now increasing in frequency, expanding in their geographic range, or expanding their host range. EID events have increased in frequency over the last several decades. This is most likely the result of a number of global factors including alterations in the natural environment, urbanization, increased international travel, and the international wildlife trade. Almost 60% of all EIDs are zoonoses, meaning that they are transmitted from animals to humans. In the past few decades, EIDs have included Nipah virus infection, West Nile virus infection and hantavirus pulmonary syndrome.” (Coker et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2008).

“Ecosystem degradation and biodiversity loss can impact infectious disease emergence or re-emergence though a number of mechanisms, depending on a number of factors specific to the type of pathogen, host, and ecosystem. For example, degradation of natural systems could lead to new contact between species that result in the transmission of a specific pathogen. Nipah virus, native to fruit bats in Malaysia, made the jump to pigs when bats sought out new sources of food due to degradation and loss of their native forests. They found fruit orchards around pig farms; contact between the two species resulted in the transmission of the virus to pigs, and subsequently to humans. Transportation of infected pigs then led to the spread of the infection regionally and into neighboring Singapore.” (Keesing et al., 2010; Barrett & Osofsky, 2013: 364ff.)

References to appendix J


Appendix K. Rise of DFIs – Case of the Dar es Salaam water supply and sanitation project

The rise of development finance institutions (DFIs) has been spectacular during later years. DFIs providing support to private investments in the South have followed market-driven patterns regarding the sectors and type of companies that they finance. Eurodad (2012) found that:

- Only 25% of all companies supported by the European Investment Bank (EIB) and IFC were domiciled in low-income countries.
- Almost half goes to support companies based in OECD countries and tax havens.
- Around 40% of the companies in Eurodad’s sample are big companies listed in some of the world’s largest stocks.
exchanges (Eurodad, 2012: 5).

The eurosdad findings casts doubt on whether the provided financial support is really being promoted to the most credit-constrained entities and organizations in the world’s poorest countries (Ibid.). A case in point reported by the World Development Movement (2013), is the controversy over The Dar es Salaam water supply and sanitation project, which lasted from 2003 to 2010, and included loans of $48 million from the AfDB and $34 million from the EIB (WDM, 2013). A condition of the loans, as well as debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative for Tanzania, was the privatisation of Dar es Salaam’s water. City Water, a consortium which included Biwater from the UK and HP Gauff Inegnieure GmbH from Germany, began operating Dar es Salaam’s water in 2003. ActionAid’s research (2004) based on interviews with Tanzanian government officials, NGOs, donors, think tanks and private companies in Dar es Salaam in June 2004, found that:

- Donor pressure has been crucial in pushing the government to privatise the water system in Dar es Salaam;
- There has been very little public discussion or consultation about the reforms;
- Most Tanzanians are opposed to the privatization process;
- The reforms are unlikely to meet their stated objectives; and
- Poor people’s needs – particularly those of poor women – have been largely ignored in the reform design (actionaid, 2004).

Ultimately, City Water was not able to fulfill its contracted service provisioning obligations as a utility company for the citizens of Dar es Salaam. For example, by 2009, 70 per cent of customers were meant to have access to water 24 hours a day, but in reality only 30 per cent did. The Dar es Salaam water authority subsequently terminated their contract, in May 2013 and on 1 June the company’s three British managers were deported. In 2007, a UN arbitration ruled that Tanzania was justified in terminating the contract, and ordered City Water to pay damages, but it has paid nothing, and the company’s owners are protected by complex legal structures which prevented them from being responsible. Instead, in 2008, a tribunal at the World Bank found that Tanzania had violated a trade treaty between the UK and Tanzania, and Tanzania are now due to repay the $61.5 million to the World Bank on loans for a water project which yielded ‘no positive results’. Loans, such as the one for the Dar es Salaam water project, have increased the Tanzanian government’s foreign debt to $7.7 billion, which corresponds to about 30 per cent of GDP. Tanzania’s debt payments are expected to reach 10 per cent of government revenue by the end of this decade, including payments on the water project. This is assuming the economy grows by 7 per cent a year; otherwise it will be higher in relative terms (Ibid.).

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Appendix L. Tanzania at a glance: Economic-/Social-/Political brief impressions

Poverty

One-third (33.6%) of Tanzanian households were below the basic needs poverty line in 2007, only marginally less than the poverty rate in 2001 of 35.7%, despite GDP growth averaging 7% per annum over the intervening period. The majority of Tanzanians remain engaged in agriculture where the poverty rate for rural households (37.6%) is more than twice the rate for Dar es Salaam (16.4%). The most recent data indicate around 23% of all households in rural mainland Tanzania were food-insecure. (PHDR, 2012: xxiv; PHDR, 2009[1]: xxi; PHDR, 2009[2]: 5). One major reason behind this unfortunate and (miscalculated?) real outcome beyond the positive statistical
numbers is that the commendable economic growth is concentrated to specific business sectors like construction, mining and tourism with both considerable overseas control and ownership and with comparatively limited needs for local labor input or employment opportunities whereas a large portion of the population is engaged in agriculture constituting three-quarters of the poor in Tanzania. Of the 12.9 million people who live in poverty in Mainland Tanzania, 10.7 million or 83% of the total reside in rural areas. (Havnevik & Isinika, 2010: 226f; PHDR, 2009[2]: 5). Tanzania is unlikely to achieve the Millennium Development Goal targets for poverty reduction, food security, maternal mortality or access to potable water and sanitary facilities (URT, 2011[2]: vii). In 2007 33% of the mainland population was still below the basic needs poverty line; in 2009 56% of under-5s were underweight or stunted from lack of food; and 43% of the rural population lacked access to potable water (Ibid.). Food security is further threatened by predictions that climatic changes will result in a 33% fall in maize yields nationally, and up to 84% in central regions (URT, 2007[1]: 7).

Land contestations
There are also mounting political contestation and raised social anxiety and subsequent protests connected with widespread allegations of land-grabbing51 by foreign companies for bio-fuels and agricultural commodity exports. The current emphasis on foreign investment in agriculture spearheaded by the Tanzania investment Centre (TIC) has led to land opportunism where rich and elite people, local and foreign investors, are rushing in rural areas to acquire big tracts of land (Haule & Dismas & Respikius, 2013). Social activists are increasingly alleging the investment friendly policies by the government to be tantamount to ‘cultivating hunger, by pointing at the nominally common practice by the influential global agribusiness to influence and persuade African government officials to invest in commoditized agricultural produce (HAKIARDHI, 2009: 14)52. Chambi Chachage has in research commissioned for PELUM Tanzania53 (2010) made an in-depth study of Agribusiness, Forestry and Biofuel companies in the Morogoro, Iringa and Pwani regions respectively. The study has managed to show how such ventures pose threats to land access, ownership and use among villagers in Tanzania. In relation to this, the study has found out, villagers’ food sovereignty and labour value is also under threat (PELUM, 2010:40).

Corruption
Allegations of chronic mismanagement, rent-seeking and pervasive corruption in the government further contribute to substantial doubts over the efficacy of Tanzania’s governance and the transparency of its aid and development ventures. OECD (2011) have emphasized the importance of securing adequate capabilities for multilateral coordination of implementation and monitoring and oversight activities and the critical aspects of establishing effective and sustainable country-level governance arrangements to properly manage resources and programmes (OECD, 2011[1]: 9ff). According to Eirik G. Jansen at the U4 (www.U4.no) resource centre for corruption challenges and part of the Chr. Michelsen Institute (CMI: www.cmi.no), in Bergen, Norway, the extent of government corruption in Tanzania has reached catastrophic levels. Jansen (2009) pronounce that both management and staff in the ministries, together with politicians and people from the local population, have  

51 In the global rush for Africa's land, prevailing legal frameworks make local rights vulnerable to dispossession, and provide only limited opportunities for villagers to defend their rights. Once a piece of land becomes of outside interest, legal options for local people to defend their rights, negotiate a fair deal and hold governments and companies to account are severely constrained, not only by entrenched power imbalances, but also by the weak rights that villagers have under both national and international law (Cotula, 2013: 120).

52 The Land Rights Research and Resources Institute (LARRRI/HAKIARDHI) is a Tanzanian national level non- governmental, not for profit organization that was founded in 1994. The Institute was established in recognition of the need to generate and sustain public debates, and participation in the rural areas on issues of land tenure through activist researches, lobbying and advocacy for policy changes, critical analysis of policies and laws and active participation in policy processes. [online] at: http://www.hakiardhi.org/

53 PELUM Tanzania is a legally registered national network of Non Governmental organizations (NGOs), founded in 1995, that have come together to facilitate learning, networking and advocacy in ecological land use management for sustainable agriculture. Members of this network work with smallholder farmers and livestock keepers in promoting sustainable agriculture in Tanzania. [online] at: http://pelumtanzania.org/pelum/
plundered the nations riches and exploited the resources in a way that is not sustainable. Furthermore, these covertly, shady and fraudulent activities and dealings are frequently carried out in close collaboration with foreign investors. (CMI, 2009: 8ff).

References to appendix L


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Appendix M. Fathers of Independent Africa

Africa is rising; we westerners are repeatedly being told, after decades of economic ruin, civil war and governmental mismanagement. Impressive economic growth statistics are continuously making the headlines: burgeoning African middle class, mushrooming mobile phone sales and enormous internet usage uptake – these things are intensely deliberated, moulded and broadcasted, thus reminding the world of the capitalist way to ‘El Dorado’. Africa is in essence the Mother of All ‘emerging markets’ or rather ‘emerging continents’. Nonetheless, it is demand for the riches in the ground – Africa’s mineral and oil wealth – that is driving the economic growth behind all these ‘Africa Rising’ narratives. Professor Megan Vaughan, President of the African Studies Association of the UK (ASAUK) said in a speech at the 2012 ASAUK biennial conference: ‘What is also striking is the fact that what is saving Africa is the supposedly redemptive power of capitalism. Africa is now where it’s all happening, where you can still encounter capitalism in the raw. In Dambisa Moyo’s words, “Africa can remind the world of the capitalist way”. Professor Vaughan highlighted the ‘Manichaean\(^{54}\) quality of these simplistic (reductionist) narratives of the good virtues of liberalism, democracy and capitalism talking hold in Africa (but only if the West will help Africa defeat the bad African traits of traditionalism (‘tribalism’), authoritarianism, and ‘poor macroeconomic policy’. Professor Vaughan derided the current dominating (simplistic) discourse by stating that, ‘in psychological terms, the inability to see anything but black and white, utter darkness or blazing light, is the mark of an infantile mindset.’ (Vaughan, 2012).

60 years on from independence in Africa capitalism reigns supreme in Africa. Individualism is manifested in the grabbing attitude of politicians who in many regards are rentiers at the expense of the masses. Even communist China is capitalist in Africa. But, at the outset of the newly independent nations of Africa there were many proponents of a more consciously ambitious way towards a more all-encompassing, balanced and distributed path for economic-, social- and political development.

Kwame Nkrumah (1909-1972)


“By reason the egalitarian tenet, philosophical consciencism seeks to promote individual development, but in such a way that the conditions for the development of all become the conditions for the development of each; that is, in such a way that the individual development does not introduce such diversities as to destroy the egalitarian basis. The social-political practice also seeks to co-ordinate social forces in such a way as to mobilize them logistically for the maximum development of society along true egalitarian lines.”

Léopold Senghor (1906-2001)


“...because capitalism works only for the well-being of a minority. Because whenever state intervention and working-class pressure has forced it to reform itself, it has conceded only the minimum standard of living, when no less than the maximum would do. Because it holds out no prospect of a fuller being beyond material well-being. That

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\(^{54}\) A religious system with Christian, Gnostic, and pagan elements, founded in the 3rd cent. a.d. and widespread in the Roman Empire and Asia until the 5th cent. (surviving until the 13th cent.), based on the supposed primeval conflict between light and darkness, and representing Evil as coeternal with God; (more generally) dualism (OED, 2000).
is why under the capitalist system, the political, cultural, and spiritual liberties, which are often quoted, are enjoyed only in theory; on the surface. They are not lived. Under this system the word is not bound up with ideas, the act not linked with the word; there is, in short, a gap between practice and theory, between life and ethics. The result is the theoretical contradiction of free enterprise, with its doctrines of laissez-faire and lassiez-aller, and the anarchy of its practical application. There can be no concrete freedoms – political, cultural or spiritual – without economic freedom.”

Julius Nyerere (1922-1999)


“So that if the members of any group within our society are going to argue that because they happen to be contributing more to the national income than some other groups, they must therefore take for themselves a greater share of the profits of their own industry than they actually need; and if they insist on this in spite of the fact that it would mean reducing their group’s contribution to the general income and thus slowing down the rate at which the whole community can benefit, then that group is exploiting (or trying to exploit) its fellow human beings. It is displaying a capitalist attitude of mind”

References to appendix M

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Appendix N. Financial elites versus Political Elites

Stephen Haber, professor of Political Science, History and Economics at the Stanford Institute for Economic Policy Research (2010) highlights the inherent conflict of interest between [financial] development and governments in developing countries as follows:

“…..the growth of banks and securities markets is not possible without a government that can enforce financial constraints; but the government relies on those same banks and markets to provide it with a source of finance. Unless there are political institutions that limit the government’s authority and discretion, it will have strong incentives to govern the financial system to facilitate its own political survival, at the expense of the development of the securities markets and banking systems that finance the private economy. That is, the institutions of liberal democracy – broad suffrage, party competition, checks and balances – are causally linked to having a large financial sector that allocates capital broadly.” (Haber, 2010: 16)

Stephen Haber elaborates further around the frequent mismatch of incentives between the political elites, the financiers and the entrepreneurs as follows: “The entrepreneurs prefer a system that favors universal enforcement of property and contract rights, because such a system will allow them to collateralize their assets and reputations. The political elites may not, however, favor the creation of strong property rights institutions, because that will prevent them from seizing assets in the event that they need to commandeer them to maintain their power. The incentives of the financiers are not clear-cut, but there are conditions under which their incentives will align with the political elites. If they have been successful in making private deals with the political elites to limit the number of banks, they may have strong incentives to prefer low levels of public investment in the institutions that protect universal property and contract rights. They can obtain all the protection they need through private deals with the government officials, while the entrepreneurs face a barrier to entry imposed by an uncertain legal environment.” (Haber, 2010: 18f).

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