

# GENERAL STUDIES

SUPPLEMENTARY BOOK FOR  
A-LEVEL AND COLLEGES

2nd Edition



Konrad  
Adenauer  
Stiftung



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**2<sup>nd</sup> Edition**



**Civic Education Teachers' Association  
(CETA)- Tanzania**

Usangi House  
Tip Top Manzese  
P.O Box 54095  
Dar es Salaam,  
Tanzania  
E-mail:cetatz2003@yahoo.co.uk

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**Konrad  
Adenauer  
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**Konrad-Adenauer-Stiftung (KAS)**

P.O. Box 6992  
Isimani Road, Upanga  
Dar es Salaam, Tanzania  
Tel: 255 22 2153174

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## CETA PUBLICATION COMMITTEE





## PREFACE

The teaching of General Studies in schools and colleges has great impact on socio-economical, political and cultural developments. This is so because it encourages the student to be aware of various social, economic and political changes taking place in the country, continent and the world at large. Students being part of citizenry are entitled to know what is happening around them.

General Studies enables students to acquire appropriate national values. This is important because they ought to be responsible citizens as they are material for future leadership.

This book attempts to cover such topics as Philosophy and Religion; Cross Cutting Issues; Science and Technology in Development Process; Democratic Processes and Practices; International Relations; and Life Skills.

The topic on **Philosophy and Religion** emphasizes on the importance of co-existence among believers of different faiths for national development. Tanzanian society is composed of people of different faiths, so the issue of religious tolerance among the believers is inevitable for national unity and development.

The topic on **Cross Cutting Issues** attempts to help students comprehend various contemporary issues such as HIV/AIDS, Gender and development, environment issues, Corruption and Drug abuse. These issues have great impact on our society today and students should be aware of them so as to understand causes and effects; as well as seek appropriate solutions to combat problems associated with the issues.

The topic on **Science and Technology in the Development process** exposes students to concept of science, technology and development. It insists on the role of science and technology in improving industries, agriculture and development of social services.

The topic on **Democratic Processes and Practices** attempts to make students be aware of aspects of democracy, the basic rights and freedoms of citizens, responsibilities of citizens, rule of law and government organs.

The topic of **International Relations** exposes students to the concept of foreign policy, bilateral and multilateral relations, international peace and understanding as well as globalization.

The last topic is **Life Skills**. This topic attempts to address the issues of self reliance, moral values, personal and interpersonal skills to student. Life skills enable students to become responsible and confident citizens.

CETA hopes this book will offer great support to both teachers and students in secondary schools and colleges. It will also contribute to improvement of quality of knowledge for General Studies teachers so that they can deliver the required knowledge in line with the syllabus.

#### **CETA PUBLICATION COMMITTEE**

## CHAPTER ONE

# PHILOSOPHY AND RELIGION

### TOPIC OUT LINES:

- Meaning and nature of philosophy
- Branches of philosophy
- Relationship and importance of philosophy to man.

### **PHILOSOPHY:**

Philosophy is regarded as the most difficult as well as abstract of all subjects, far removed from issues of daily life. Despite the fact that many of us think of it being extremely far from normal interests and beyond comprehension, almost all of us are philosophical. Most people are unclear about what philosophy is, the term appears commonly used in their conversations.

The word, **philosophy** is delivered from a Greek language, *filosofia* (*philosophia*), which is a union of two words, *filia* (*philia*, that is, love) and *Sofia* (*Sophia*, that is, wisdom). Thus philosophy is love of wisdom. If one love something, he or she searches for it. Similarly, love of wisdom means searching for wisdom. However, in popular usage, many different ideas are involved in the manner we use the term. At times we mean by 'philosophy' an attitude towards certain undertakings, for example, one may say 'I disapprove your philosophy of doing agriculture' or 'I am voting for that person because I favour his/her philosophy about governance.'

Also, people talk about being 'philosophical' when they mean taking a long – range and detached view of certain immediate problems. When one is disappointed, people may suggest to him or her that he or she be 'philosophical in handling the issue,' like when one misses a bus. Here they mean to say that he or she should not be over – concerned with events of the moment, instead should ponder about alternatives. In yet another sense, we think of philosophy as an evaluation or interpretation of what is important or meaningful in life. Such usage may be indicated by the story of two people who were drinking tea together. One of them held his teacup to the front, scrutinized it thoughtfully, and then observed, 'life is like a teacup.' his companion looked up at the teacup, turned to his friend and asked, 'when is life like a teacup? He answered, 'how should I know? I am not a philosopher?'

However, philosophy has many definitions depending on one's orientation. Indeed, throughout history, philosophy has been defined to mean one thing or another. Generally, philosophy is the science of primary causes =of being for the purpose of solving life problems. It is a science because its objective is to understand concepts through an investigation of their causes. In addition, philosophy is the science of primary causes because it is **metaphysical** or it transcends experience and it does not stop until it has investigated the whole procession of causes from the ultimate cause.

It is the science of prime causes in order to find solutions to problems of life contained in the question, “Why **am I on this earth?**”

- Specifically, philosophy is the **study of science of truth or principles underlying all knowledge and being or reality.**
- It is a system of speculative beliefs such as when one speaks of Aristotelian philosophy or Marxist philosophy.
- It also denotes a set of convictions or stands on sensitive issues, such as when one speaks of Mrema's philosophy or Mtikila's philosophy.
- It also means a system of doctrine such as Ujamaa philosophy, the Idealist philosophy, and so on.
- It can mean a study of principles of a particular branch or subject of knowledge, for example, Philosophy of History.
- Philosophy also means a system of principles for guidance in practical affairs, for example, the philosophy of the United States of America on foreign affairs policies concerning the Middle East. In summary, philosophy can be defined as man's intellectual and critical activity of which he desires to understand and explain things as he experiences them as well as they are in themselves. Thus, through philosophy, man is desirous to pursue truth.

### **BRANCHES OF PHILOSOPHY:**

There are many ways of branching philosophy, writers are providing a varying number of branches of philosophy, but in this chapter let us stick to 6 branches of philosophy, as they are listed down:

- (a) Metaphysics
- (b) Ethics
- (c) Logic
- (d) Epistemology
- (e) Aesthetics

Metaphysics is a branch of philosophy which studies the whole of reality, seeking for its ultimate causes in an absolute sense. Metaphysics seeks for causes that, in the final analysis, account for being, including diverse manners of being things.

In a philosophical sense, metaphysics literally means “after physics” or “beyond physics” such that it is normally understood as the branch of philosophy that comes after natural philosophy and has for its study not merely physical being, but being as such. The discipline is also known as ontology (from the Greek word *on*, that is, being) because it studies the meaning, structure and principles of whatever exists and how it exists. In due regard, metaphysics is not limited to some kinds of being, unlike other branches of philosophy and particular sciences.

Thus, it is a study of the fundamental nature of reality and existence, including the essence of things.

**Essence** = What makes something to be what it is.

**Existence** = The isness of things, it is reality, it is BEING.

The study of metaphysics tries to solve the following questions.

- What is real?
- What is the distinction between reality and appearance?
- What are the most general principles and concepts by which our experiences can be interpreted, as well as understood?

Ontology has some fundamental characteristics that include unity, truth and goodness. The characteristics are said to be coexistent with being, such that in regard to the measure as well as manner in which a thing shares in these characteristics it possesses. Together with the study of the fundamental characteristics of being, metaphysics examines the first principles and principles of being. The former includes first, the principle of contradiction which holds that the same thing cannot be and be at the same time. Second, the principle of identity states that every being is determined in itself, is oneself as well as is consistent in itself. Third, the principle of excluded middle that states that there cannot be an intermediate between contradictions. Fourth, the principle of intelligibility that holds that everything that is, insofar as it is, intelligible.

Fifth, the principle of sufficient reason states that everything that exists has a sufficient reason for its existence. Sixth, the principle of causality holds that whatever comes to be has a cause. Seventh, the principle of finality maintains that everything acts as an end, or that all beings, when acting, tend to have definite effect.

- On the other hand, principles of being are principles that explain how being can be shared by different entities, and how such entities, while differing from one another, can still be similar as beings. Principles of being are distinguished into intrinsic and extrinsic principles. The former are potency acts as well as essence and existence. The later principles are causality and participation.
- Natural theology is part of metaphysics. Metaphysics can seek for knowledge of God only as He is related to material things as their principle or first cause. Thus, natural theology works out proofs of God's existence and it attempts to expound something about His essence and attributes. Finally, natural theology studies divine causality and the nature of evil.
- Metaphysicians do not agree on the same answer as each group regards. Its stand to be most correct of all positions. For example, on the question of composition of the universe. There is a problem whether there is any single stuff or substance of which all things are composed. Some metaphysicians (especially monists) hold that there is but one such substance. Monists reduce the composition of the universe either to matter only or to spirit (mind) only. According to them either matter is reduced to spirit consciousness or experience. They are known as idealists, such as Berkeley and Hume, or spirit is reduced to activities of matter and become nothing else but matter they are known as materialists, such as Democritus and Hobbes.
- Still some other philosophers believe that matter and spirit are two forms of existence irreducible and equally real. One of these philosophers is Descartes, according to these metaphysicians, both matter and spirit contributed to the composition of the universe.

### **Theodicy:**

Theodicy is the study of God according to human mind. It is distinct from Theology, which studies God according to revelation. Theodicy is the activity of human mind combined with experience to understand existence of God.

Theodicy tries to answer questions like:

- Is the idea of God a reality in itself?
- Can man know God without revelation?
- How does the idea of God come about?
- It is because of finiteness of man that the idea of God comes?
- Does the universe need any god for its being?
- Does man possess a free will or are our actions determined by causes over which we have no control?

In this regard, we have THEISM, which attributes everything including mind to originate from the Supreme Being, the Uncaused Causer, the Unmoved Mover, the Degree of Perfection, the Designer of Order in the Universe and the Finality of Creation.

These are five ways of proving the existence of God, using the human mind. Theism is divided into two parts, Monotheism – belief in the existence of one God, and Polytheism – belief in the existence of many gods.

### **Atheism:**

Metaphysics is divided into two areas, i.e. Cosmology and Ontology.

### **Cosmology:**

Cosmology also referred to as “philosophy of nature” is the branch of philosophy, which deals with the study of material beings that make up the physical universe. The study of cosmology tries to solve the following questions:-

- What is time?
- What is space?
- Is there a relation between time and space?
- Where does the universe come from?
- What is the finality of the universe?
- Does the universe have a purpose?

In fact, cosmology examines the being of bodies in two main ways: First, bodies as three – dimension extensions (that is, width, length and height) and second, bodies as perceived by senses, that is, as possessing certain active as well as passive properties.

The subject matter of cosmology is “nature”. Nature is defined as the principle cause of motion and rest in which it is primarily, by reason it self and not accidentally.

Motion denoted to any kind of bodily change, accidental or substantial, while rest refers to attainment of the end to which change was directed. In cosmology, motion has two meanings. In the wide sense, motion stands for any continuous as well as successive change, usually said to be movement. Cosmology deals with the issues of time and place (or space).

### **Time and Space:**

When philosophers want to understand the nature of the universe, they often begin by examining the nature of time and space. Such questions include the following.

“Can there be time without change?”

“Is space something distinct from objects in the universe?”

In this regard, some philosophers argue that time and space are absolute, that is, independent of any change in arrangement of contents of the universe. Time and space are absolute. Other philosophers are relativistic, that is, they believe that both time and space can be reduced to relationships between things in the universe. According to relativists, time and space are limited to things in the universe. Ontology is the study of being.

Dualism contends that mind and matter are two fundamentally distinct kinds of things. According to dualism, it could be impossible for a physical process to have a non – physical effect or mental event to result in changes in the physical world. Therefore, physical phenomenon results to physical changes and mental or spiritual phenomenon give rise to spiritual or mental changes. These two phenomena interact to one another and are responsible to physical as well as non – physical events.

Monism denies that mind and matter are two different things. According to monists, the two are but only one phenomenon. Monists as Materialists, assert that only matter exists and all mental phenomena are produced by the activity of matter. Soul/mind has no real existence. Idealist, on the other hand, hold that only ideas exist. All material things are an expression of an idea/ mind. There is on existence without mind and therefore, matter has no real existence.

Philosophical psychology studies human knowledge. It is also concerned with other human faculties such as desire, wish (or volition) as well as love psychology develops into philosophical anthropology. Philosophical anthropology analyses the nature of human and its immortality. In addition, it examines the mystery of personality and individual differences.

Metaphysics is having a number of theories developed by the philosophers, i.e materialism, idealism, mechanism and teleology

**Materialism:** maintains that only matter has real existence and that feelings, thoughts and other mental phenomena are produced by the activity of matter.

**Idealism:** states that every material thing is an idea or a from of an idea. In idealism mental phenomena are what is fundamentally important.

**Mechanism:** maintains that all happenings result from purely mechanical forces not from purpose, and that it makes no sense to speak of the universe itself as having a purpose.

**Teleology:** on the other hand, states that the universe and every thing in it exist and occur for some purpose.



Traditional metaphysics does not seem to meet all requirements. The conclusions arrived at by metaphysicians tend to be private and idiosyncratic. The extravagant claim of metaphysics as “the queen of sciences” is now largely abandoned for much of its subject matter is now in the domain of the empirical sciences which use the scientific methods.

### **Ethics:**

The term ethics has its roots connected with a Greek term ethos, meaning custom or conduct. It is equivalent in meaning to moral philosophy which is similarly connected with a Latin term mores, customs and behaviour.

Ethics or moral philosophy studies the moral aspect of human activity in order to orient such activity toward what is “good” for man – self-actualization. Thus, the study seeks to uncover the moral of such acts (good or bad, duty or prohibitive) in order to discover some safe perceptions that help man use correctly his freedom to actualize himself. In addition, the study does not deal with how humans behave, but how they ought to behave.

In due regard, ethics discusses problems such as:-

- What makes right actions right and wrong actions wrong?
- What is good and what is bad?
- What are proper values of life?

Problems arise about the ethics because we always have difficulties in knowing exactly the right thing to do. In many cases, our obligations culminate in conflict or are vague. In addition, people often disagree about whether a particular action or principle is morally right or wrong.

### **Moral Values:**

- The question of moral values lies outside the domain of science. Scientific investigation can tell us how people behave under a given condition (psychology). But it cannot tell us how they ought to behave under those conditions. Laws of nature can have nothing to say about good and evil.
- There are, for instance, no scientifically observable facts, which will settle the question whether or not armed robbers ought to be put to death.
- In questions about what is right and what is wrong, what is good and what is bad, we are concerned with making value judgments.

To say that such things as fairness, honesty, liberty, and democracy are good, and that murder, cruelty, exploitation, dictatorship, and dishonesty are bad, is to make a value judgment. There is no scientific proof to support the verdict that they are good or bad.

- Value judgments are expressions of attitudes or wishes of those making them. They are essentially private and not public. Since value judgments are expressions of individual preferences, they do not necessarily commit any body else.

### **Agreement on Ethical Values:**

In matters of ethics, there can be only persuasions and agreements between individuals or groups. Surprisingly, however, human societies have always shown the remarkable capacity to adhere to common ethical values. If it were not so, chaos would reign. More surprisingly still, humans as a whole seem to agree on certain basic ethical values, such as respect to others life, lusts, individualism and so on.

### **Relativism:**

This philosophy maintains that what is right or wrong depends on a particular culture concerned. What is right in one society can be wrong in another society. There is no basic standard by which a certain culture may be judged right or wrong.

### **Objectivism:**

In objectivism, it is claimed that there are objective standards of right and wrong, which can be discovered as well as be applied to all (everyone). These are inborn senses of ethics, that do not need to be taught.

### **Subjectivism:**

Subjectivists claim that all moral standards are subjective matters of taste or opinions. Everyone has his/her taste and opinions. Thus, it is impossible to have the standard moral value or practice.

In fact, the term ethics has been used in three quite related manners, signifying the following: Firstly, a general pattern or way of life, for example, people commonly speak of Buddhist or Christian ethics. Secondly, the term ethics signifies a set of rules of conduct or moral code, e.g. professional ethics (for example, medical ethics, teaching ethics and so on) or unethical behaviour. Finally, the term ethics signifies an inquiry about ways of life as well as rules of conduct. In this sense, ethics is a branch of philosophy.

### **Aesthetics:**

Aesthetics is the branch of philosophy, which deals with creation and principles of art as well as beauty. It also studies our thoughts, feelings and attitudes when we see, hear or read about something beautiful. There could be works of art such as a painting, symphony or poem, or it may be a sunset or other natural phenomena. Aesthetics also investigates the experience of engaging in activities such as painting, dancing, acting and playing. Also this branch

deals with experience and principles of criticism. Furthermore, it involves both works of art created by human beings and beauty found in nature.

Aesthetics is sometimes identified with the philosophy of art which deals with the following:-

- the nature of art;
- the process of artistic creation;
- the nature of artistic experience; and
- principles of criticism.

But aesthetics has a wider application. It involves both works of art created by human beings and beauty found in nature.

- Philosophers per se do not include this branch in philosophy, but rather, places it under science of beauty or practical philosophy.

Aesthetics, Ethics and Political Philosophy

What are the differences between Aesthetics, Ethics and Political Philosophy? How do they relate?

Aesthetics relates to Ethics and Political philosophy when we ask questions about what role art and beauty should play in a society, as well as in an individual's life. Such questions include:-

- How can people's taste in the arts be improved?
- How should arts be taught in schools?
- Do governments have the right to restrict artistic expressions?
- Are there any international standards for art and beauty?
- How standard are those international standards?

### **Logic:**

Logic is a branch philosophy, which deals with the study of the principles and methods of reasoning. Logic distinguishes between good (sound) and bad (unsound) reasoning.

Logic comes from Greek word logo V (logos meaning word). Therefore, it means the study of words. Words are uttered when we reason, when we utter words. All branches of philosophy employ thinking, whether or not such thinking will be correct, will depend on whether or not such thinking is in accord with laws of logic.

It has to be noted that logic is not a branch of psychology and that it does not deal with all types of thinking. Logic differs markedly from psychology because it does not deal with

all types of thinking such as learning, remembering, day – dreaming, supposing and so on. But it only deals with that types of reasoning known as reasoning. In addition, it has to be borne in mind that while the psychologist is concerned with mental processes of the thinker, the logicians is concerned with the reasoning itself. The logician is concerned not with why people think in certain ways, but with formulation of rules that will enable us to test whether or not any particular piece or reasoning is coherent as well as consistent. That is, whether or not it is logical.

Thus logic shows the manner and according to what rules reason gets truth, as well as acquires sound knowledge. In due regard, logic studies our mental processes such that it uncovers laws governing them. There are three orders of rational thinking, namely: Simple apprehension, that is, grasping mentally an object without affirming or denying anything about it. Judgment, that is, a mental act whereby people affirm or deny something of something else. Reasoning, that is, the mental process whereby people proceed to new knowledge from prior former knowledge.

- The three orders give a threefold division, namely, logic of the term, logic of judgment and logic of reasoning.

### **Simple Apprehension:**

Simple apprehension is the first knowledge, which we get before making judgment. Man uses sense of knowledge to have the first instance of knowing. The five senses of the human body, namely, seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling and touching (feeling) are the most important sources of knowledge of simple apprehension.

Simple apprehension also depends on the condition of a sense organ which leads to a defect on knowledge and therefore, the whole simple apprehension process. For example, a sick person undergoing malaria treatment using quinine will taste everything bitter and hearing will be partially impaired. Thus, two sensory organs will be temporarily incapacitated. This endangers the process of simple apprehension.

### **Judgment:**

Judgment is the second process of Logic. After observation of things having the same characteristics, we start making judgments. For example, when one sees a giraffe in a National Park (Mikumi or Serengeti National Park), that simple apprehension remains in one's intellect. When that person sees another creature of that type, he/she will say, "that is a giraffe". That person will judge even characteristics of that animal as when he or she saw the animal for the first time. For example, behavioral attributes, like feeding on acacia tree leaves. Thus, judgment is an essential part of the reasoning process.

**Reasoning:**

Reasoning is the final stage in Logic. It comes after simple apprehension and judgment. For example, when a person observes (biological) characteristics of a donkey and later on observes that they are similar to those of a zebra, that person can conclude that donkeys and zebras belong to the same group (family). The process can be arrived at through a process of using a syllogism.

For example, all animals having the same characteristics belong to the same family:-

- Zebras and donkeys have similar characteristics.
- Zebra and donkeys belong to the same family.

An inference of reasoning is called argument. An argument consists of a set of statements called premises together with a statement called conclusion. Normally, the conclusion is derived from premises. This is called a syllogism, that, an argument of which given two premises with a middle term, conclusion follows with necessity. The middle term is the word or clause or phrase, which joins the two premises but is not found in the conclusion.

For example, all human beings are mortal.

- All Greeks are human beings.
- All Greeks are mortal.

In the above statement:

All human being are mortal and all Greek are human beings.

- The use of human beings is in both premises. That means human beings form the middle term because the words appear in both premises.
- Again the word mortal is in the first sentence but it is not contained in the second sentence. The word mortal becomes our first term in the premises.
- Conclusion is normally joining the first term and the second term by omitting the middle term, that is, all Greeks are mortal.
- But the first premise must be universal while the second premise should not contain ideas shared by members of all those included in the first premise and others outside the premise to make the argument valid. Otherwise, the argument will be invalid.
- For example, all human beings are mortal, all Greek are mortal, and all Greeks are human beings.

The problem here is the idea of mortality, which is shared by all living things. The term mortal does not belong to human beings only and cannot be the middle term for such comparison, because one could also argue in the following manner.

- All the human being are mortal
- All dogs are mortal
- All dogs are human beings.

### **Types of Reasoning:**

There are two types of reasoning called deductive and inductive:

Deductive reasoning is undertaken whereby a conclusion is necessarily taken from the premises. Given the true and valid premises, conclusion becomes true and valid. Deductive reasoning is used to explore necessary consequences of certain assumptions.

For example all passengers in that bus died in the accident:-

- Kakeli was one of passengers in the bus.
- Kakeli died in the accident.

Inductive reasoning involves premises derived from observations of certain common phenomena. In fact, conclusion begins with generalization of certain characteristic features and results to other conclusions.

### **Epistemology (Criteriology)**

Epistemology is the branch of metaphysics devoted to the study of nature, basis and extent of knowledge. It explores the various ways of knowing, the nature of truth and the relationship between knowledge and belief. The name comes from the Greek name, episteme, meaning knowledge in the truth, as well certain sense. Epistemology is also called Criteriology, from the Greek name, criterion, meaning a criterion or rule by which one may test knowledge to distinguish the true from the false. Less frequently it is known as a knowledge to distinguish the true from the false. Less frequently it is known as Gnoseology, from the Greek name, gnosis, meaning knowledge in a quite general sense. As already presented, the diversity of names reflects the controversial aspects of the discipline.

Epistemology (Criteriology) tries to solve the following questions:-

- What are features of genuine knowledge as distinct to what appears to be knowledge?
- What is truth?
- How can we know what is true from false?
- Are there different kinds of knowledge with different grounds and characteristics?
- What is knowledge? Is it in the book? Is it in the person?
- What does “to know” mean?
- Is knowing means understanding? Or is knowing the same as remembering? Is believing also a kind of knowing?

Philosophers distinguish between two kinds of knowledge, namely, a priori and a posteriori. A priori knowledge we arrive at through thinking without appealing to experience. It is knowledge from reason alone. For example a minute consists 60 seconds. 60 minutes make one hour. Therefore, there are 3,600 second in one hour. This knowledge is arrived at through the activity of thinking alone.

A posteriori knowledge or empirical knowledge is knowledge we get through observation and experience. Such knowledge like typing, playing a piano, playing a guitar, driving a motor vehicle, riding a bicycle, tailoring and so forth are obtained through observations and experience.

### **The nature of Truth:**

Philosophers have been discussing the nature of truth since ancient time, partly because people so often use the term "true" for ideas they find congenial, and want to believe and "false" for ideas they find not congenial. People also disagree about, which ideas are true and, which are false.

### **Criteria for truth:**

Philosophers have attempted to define criteria for distinguishing between truth and error. But they disagree about what truth means and how to arrive at true ideas.

Examples include the following:

- Correspondence theory: holds that an idea is true if it correspondences to facts of reality.
- Pragmatic theory: maintains that an idea is true if it works or settles problems it deals with.
- Skepticism theory: claims that knowledge is impossible to attain and that truth is unknowable.

### **Sources of knowledge:**

(i) Intuitive knowledge:-

This is the first knowledge. It is obtained through intuition. It is the most basic and most stable knowledge, which we get without being taught. Also it is a knowledge which comes from the insight of a person. A person just come up to conclusion through experiences. He many reach the conclusion about certain issue without analytical processes and not with scientific evidences. This knowledge includes sense of prediction, telepath of the work of tradition healers/doctors. the intuitive knowledge is a source of empirical knowledge, which also is used in military plans.

(ii) Empirical knowledge:-

This is sense knowledge. It is obtained through use of our senses. It is the foundation of so many forms of knowledge that human beings obtain. It is learnt by seeing, hearing, touching, tasting and smelling. It is a kind of knowledge which is the surest and most dependable to understand the reality. Sometimes our senses are limited to give us exactly picture of an object e.g. always the stick that looks bent in the water but is not true. Other variables contributing a lot to make our senses perfect. For example, prejudices, physical fitness, weather condition etc. All these may affect our sensible knowledge of the world. Empirical knowledge is not reliable knowledge to depend on, because it needs other factors to be complete. It is only one of the avenues to understanding reality.

(iii) Scientific knowledge/pragmatism and extencionalism

This knowledge is obtained through observations, experience trial and error as well as reasoning. It is the mixture of reasoning and experience. It is stable knowledge. Its theory maintains that an idea is true if it works or settles something it deals with.

(iv) Authoritative knowledge:

This is the knowledge we get from people with authority in their respective fields. People often believe easily something given from people with authority. For example, political leaders, religious leaders, institutional authorities, elders in societies, teachers and so on. These are people entrusted with power to pass knowledge to others. Also it is the type of knowledge which its research has already been done and various books (text books) have been written about them e.g. dictionaries, journals, encyclopedias, historical and geographical books, atlas, and other written documents.

Sometimes knowledge from highly learned people, e.g. professors, doctors and other academicians, is believed because we are sure that they cannot deceive us from what they have written or said. For example through (geography we know more about the earth and its components, including cities, countries, climates, economical and political activities) and we believe everything is true.

(v) Revealed knowledge:

This is divine knowledge given to human beings through revelation. Religious knowledge has its authority based on this. Thus, God revealed it. Knowledge gained from Holy Books is believed because it was revealed. Such knowledge is only stable to followers of the same religious denomination and may not be believed by others who are not of the same faith. Also it is the knowledge which comes from revelation. Through knowledge from faith (fideis) people believed tha there were some people who received various messages from God through revelation and they put these messages



into writings and produced books such as the Bible, the Koran, the Upanishads etc. Those people believed to have been divinely inspired. The contents of the books are very useful to the believers. But non - believers could say that what is contained in the Holy Books is not revelation at all.

### **The importance of studying Philosophy:**

Thus, philosophy makes a person think about basic foundations of outlook, knowledge and beliefs. It makes one ask reasons for what one accepts and undertakes, including the importance of ones ideas, as well as ideals; hopefully that one's final convictions, whether or not they remain the same as a result of examination, will at least be rationally held ones.

### **The following aspects underscore the importance of studying philosophy.**

- (i) Philosophy is guidance of life. It is needed for the ordinary man in everyday life especially in this age of science and technology. Life lacks meaning if we cannot think and plan for the future in this fast changing world.
- (ii) Philosophy is needed to distinguish truth from false. In the fear from, or false, ideas occupying the minds with particular questions, philosophy will liberate man from such fears and false ideas.
- (iii) Philosophy stimulates learners to be more inquisitive. This is because philosophy raises the urge to learn more by understanding that we know less and less. There is no point we can say that we know everything, so learners should strive to know more at all times.
- (iv) Philosophy is the mother of all sciences. All sciences (physical and social science) are results of philosophical speculations.
- (v) Mystical life and religious life are parts of philosophy because they come as a result of man reasoning and acting to solve problems that cannot be easily solved. These sciences (political and pure) together with religious life are made perfect through reflection and speculation.
- (vi) Systems of education follow a society philosophical ideas about what children should be taught and for what purposes. Democratic societies stress that people must learn to think and to make choices for themselves. In non democratic societies people are discouraged to think and make choices. The leaders want their citizens always to be submissive.
- (vii) The value and skills taught by the educational system of any society should reflect the society's philosophical ideas of what is important.

- (viii) Philosophy helps to face the crisis / problems with concessors by investigating the situation critically with open mindedness.
- (ix) Philosophy involves accurate thinking into formal, logical and evaluating ways of thinking.
- (x) It insists to have an attempt of addressing the issue thoroughly and holistically at all levels.
- (xi) It helps in the logical analysis of a language and classification of the meaning of words and concepts, ie use of linguistic analysis, eg classification of words.
- (xii) It exposes confusion and nonsenses and clarify the meaning of the use of terms or concepts of a language.
- (xiii) If focuses in inquiring into deeper rather than partial problems of human existence, by answering philosophical questions coming up from paradigms of thoughts ie.
  - Metaphysics or idealism
  - Empiricism or realism
  - Pragmatism
  - Existentialism
- (xiii) Philosophy also deals with the systematic body of principles and assumptions underlying the particular field of knowledge /discipline eg. Science, education, arts, music, laws, mathematics and religion.
- (xiv) Moreover philosophy is used in every institution of society because it is based on philosophical ideas, ie. Law. Government, the family, marriage, industry, school, business. Philosophical differences will lead to a number of changes, including the overthrow of governments, change in laws or economic systems.

## **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MAN AND PHILOSOPHY**

This can be well explained by examining a strong relationship which exists between philosophy and other fields of human activity. This can be seen by analyzing two main fields

(i) Philosophy and science and (ii) philosophy and religion.

The relationship between philosophy and science: Science studies natural phenomena and the phenomena of the society. When science does reflect on itself it becomes the philosophy of science and examines a number of philosophic questions. That is, “what is science?” what is scientific method?” what is the value of science?”

Philosophy has given birth to several major fields of scientific study. Up to 1700’s no distinction was made between science and philosophy. Eg physics-was called natural philosophy, psychology – moral philosophy etc .

In 1800’s sociology and linguistics separated from philosophy and became distinct areas of study. Logic has now developed to branch of mathematics and basic science.

Philosophy and science differ in many respects. Science has thus resolved disagreement about these matters. Philosophy has not. As a result, controversy has always been characteristic of philosophy.

Tooth (philosophy and sciences) seek to discover the truth to answer questions. Solve problems and satisfy curiosity Generally the civilization and development of man contributed a lot to philosophy. Philosophy facilitated all aspects of man to develop, eg religion, natural or physical and social sciences.

## **DIFFERENT PHILOSOPHICAL IDEAS**

- Philosophical ideas of Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Karl Marx, George Hegel, Kwame Nkrumah and Julius Nyerere
- Their historical background
- Their contributions to current situations in democracy, education, governance, economy.
- The influence of Plato’s and Aristotle’s ideas on current socio – economic development of Tanzania.

- Philosophical ideas of Kwame Nkuma and Julius K. Nyerere.
- The historical background of K. Nkuma and J.K Nyerere.
- Their contributions to:- Democracy, Ujamaa, Socialism, Education and African Unity.

The application of Nyerere's philosophical ideas

a) Greek philosophers: Socrates, Plato and Aristotle

### 1. **Socrates (469 – 399 B.C)**

Socrates was a Greek philosopher born in Athens, who profoundly affected Western philosophy through his influence on Plato. Socrates advocated dialogue. Encountering someone who claims to know much, Socrates pretended to be ignorant and sought assistance from the one who claimed to be more knowledgeable. As Socrates began to raise questions, however, it became clear that the one reputed to be wise, really did not know what he claimed to know, and Socrates emerged as the wiser one, because he at least knew that he did not know. Such knowledge, of course, was the beginning of wisdom.

He believed that vice is the result of ignorance and that no person is willingly bad. Correspondingly, virtue is knowledge, and those who know the right, act rightly. His logic placed particular emphasis on rational argument and the quest for general definitions, as evidenced in the writings of his younger contemporary and pupil, Plato and of Plato's pupil, Aristotle. Through the writings of these philosophers, Socrates profoundly affected the entire subsequent course of Western speculative thought.

#### **Standpoint of Socrates:**

- No man willingly does evil. According to Socrates, evil and wrong actions arise from ignorance and the failure to investigate why people act the way they do. So Socrates devoted himself in seeking the truth and goodness.
- Human nature leads people to act correctly and in agreement with knowledge.
- He differed from other people only in knowing that he was ignorant. His insistence on his ignorance reminded others of their own ignorance.

He shows that other people do not know what they claim to know. Socrates question people who claim to know or understand something about which he claims to be ignorant. He does not provide answers to his questions. He only shows that the answers provided by others are not adequate. So in short Socrates believed in education, free will, knowledge and virtue.

### **End of Socrates:**

Socrates was regarded with suspicion by many of his contemporaries, who disliked his attitude toward the Athenian state and the established religion. He was charged in 399 BC with neglecting the gods of the State and introducing new divinities. He was also charged with corrupting the morals of the young, leading them away from the principles of democracy; and he was wrongly identified with the Sophists.

He was condemned to die, although only a small majority voted for his death. When, Socrates proposed to the court to pay a small fine because of his value to the State as a man with a philosophic mission, the jury was so angered by this offer, it therefore voted by an increased majority for his death penalty.

Socrates friends planned for hid escape from prison, but he preferred to comply with the law and die for his cause. He spent his last day with his friends and admirers, and in the evening he calmly fulfilled his death sentence by drinking a cup of hemlock.

## **2. Plato: (427 – 347 BC)**



Plato was a student of the famous Greek Philosopher, Socrates. Among other things, which affected Plato's philosophy, was the character of his teacher, Socrates. Socrates believed on truth and defended truth until his death. The Greek government accused him for having instigated young people to rebel against it. He was forced to take poison and he died by defending the truth.

Plato was a Greek philosopher and one of the most creative and influential thinkers in Western philosophy. He was the first to use the term philosophy, which means "love of knowledge". Chief among Plato's ideas was the theory of forms

which proposed that objects in the physical world merely resemble perfect forms in the ideal world, and that only these perfect forms can be the object of true knowledge. The goal of this philosopher was to know the perfect forms and to instruct others in that knowledge.

Plato's writings in dialogue form. Philosophical ideas were advanced, discussed, and criticized in the context of a conversation or debate involving two or more persons.

The dialogues may be divided into early, middle and later periods of composition. The earliest represent Plato's attempt to communicate the philosophy and dialectical style of Socrates. Several of these dialogues take the same form as those of Socrates.

The dialogues of the middle and later periods of Plato's life reflect his own philosophical development. The ideas in these works are attributed by most scholars to Plato himself, although Socrates continues to be the main character in many of the dialogues.

The works of the later period include that knowledge is to be identified with sense perception, a critical evaluation of the theory of forms, further consideration of the theory of ideas or forms, a discussion of the relationship between pleasure and good, Plato's views on natural science and cosmology, and a more practical analysis of political and social issues (Laws).

### **In general terms Plato believes:**

- In dialectical method (dialogue)  
A dialogue is a conversation involving two sides. Plato's dialogue involved discussing philosophical problems while the two sides are giving opposing arguments for the sake of arriving at a conclusion.
- That all people desire happiness.  
Although sometimes people act in a way which do not produce happiness, they do this because they don't know what actions will produce happiness.
- That happiness is a natural consequence of a healthy state of the soul.  
So all people should desire virtues (behaviour considered to be of very high standard)  
Sometimes people do not seek to be virtuous because they do not realize that virtuous produce happiness.
- That the basic problem of ethics is a problem of knowledge.  
If a person knows that moral virtue leads to happiness, he/she naturally acts virtuously.
- That it is worse to commit an injustice which can cause someone to suffer, because immoral behaviour is a symptom of a diseased soul.
- That it is worse for a person who commits an injustice to go unpunished than to be punished, because punishment helps cure this most serious of all diseases
- That the real nature of any individual thing depends on the form in which it shows itself.

For instance a certain object is a triangle because it appears in a form of triangularity.

It differs from other ordinary things that we see around us. Ordinary things change, but their form do not change. That means a particular triangle may be altered in size of shape, but the form of triangularity can never change.

Plato's political philosophy was based on his theory of the human soul. He argues that human soul is divided into three parts.

- (a) the rational part (the intellect)
- (b) the will
- (c) the appetite/desire

These parts occasionally conflict with each other. For instance a person may desire some things but fight this desire with the power of the will.

In a properly functioning soul, the intellect (the highest part) should control the appetite (the lowest part) with the aid of the will.

According to Plato, like the soul, the State also has three parts:

- (i) The philosopher Kings:  
These govern the society.
- (ii) The Guardians  
They keep order and defend the society
- (iii) The ordinary citizens  
These are farmers, merchants and craft workers who provide the society's material needs.

The philosopher Kings represent the intellect (the ability to think in a logical way and understand things especially in an advanced level). The Guardians represent the will and the Ordinary citizens represent the appetite.

Plato's idea society resembles a well functioning soul because the philosopher kings control the citizens with the aid of the Guardians.

Plato's believed that though the body dies and disintegrates, the soul continue to live forever. After a time the soul is made a body again and return to the world.

According to Plato, learning consists of recalling what the soul experienced in the realm of the forms. He urged strict censorship of the art because of their influence in molding people's character

(The ability to think in a logical way and understand things especially in an advanced level) the Guardians represent the will and the ordinary.

Plato believed that there are two worlds, the world of ideas and the world of forms. He held that this physical world and every material object, is an idea of the real thing represented by the object. The real objects exist in the world of forms. According to him, he saw the world of forms as the perfect world where every material object comes from, and will be joined again after disappearing from this world. This philosophy was later known as IDEALISM.

### 3. Aristotle: (384 – 322 BC)



Aristotle was Plato's student, but he took his own way. He denied the existence of the two worlds and he asserted that only the material world exists. Ideas were seen as just operations of the mind and he do not contain any reality in themselves. When we think of an idea, it does not mean that the idea exists somewhere separate from the matter. This philosophy resulted to MATERIALISM.

Plato and Aristotle are regarded as Great Greek philosophers and founders of idealism and materialism philosophies, respectively. They were also concerned with the prevailing economic problems facing Greece at their contemporary time (428 – 322 BC). During that time, the economy of Greece was based on slave labour. Greece was regarded as a democratic state because the ruled ones were satisfied, although oppression and exploitation existed in the society.

Philosophers of that time also supported the system because they also benefited from it. Plato and Aristotle supported slavery though they discouraged violence. Plato accepted social inequality and argued that people have a variety of gifts from God. Everybody had to concentrate on what nature made him. He held the opinion that social stratification in a society consists of rulers (nobles), philosophers, soldiers, artisans and producers. For Plato, both wealth and poverty led to poor, wealth produced luxury and idleness, while poverty led to poor standards of conduct. He held that the upper class should not own private property, but devote themselves to offer service to their people.



Aristotle supported private property on the grounds that it was more productive since it received more attention apart from giving pleasure to the owner. Common property was not conducive to peace because it was a source of complaints among partners. Aristotle supported exchange of commodities (barter system) but rejected commercialism for monetary profit. He argued that money did not bring about man's satisfaction and did not satisfy the necessities of life. The rich in coins may be in need of food.

Aristotle who was a Greek philosopher and a student of another philosopher called Plato, believed.

- In logical reasoning in his form of argument called syllogism.
- That the essence of things can be discovered only through reasoning.
- That the goal of human being is happiness.
- That human beings achieve happiness when they feel their reasoning is functioning. A happy life for human beings is a life governed by reason. Mans happiness depends on living in conformity with nature.
- That the principle of life in a living creature is soul not matter.
- That upbringing and training of the young in a society should involve both moral and political education.
- This means that children and citizens should be taught the virtues and examples of being good and doing good.
- That rhetoric (eloquent, artful and articulate public speaking) as a subject should be incorporated in the curriculum.
- That apart from God, there are things that do not change.
- The ethics and politics study practical knowledge. This knowledge enables people to act properly and live happily.
- That nature is in a continuous process of change.
- That moral virtue is a matter of avoiding extremes in behaviour. For instance the virtue of generosity is the mean between stinginess and wastefulness.
- That tragedy affects the spectator by arousing the emotions of pity and fear. A tragedy is a serious play that ends sadly, especially with the death of the main character, while it is intended to teach a moral lesson.

Aristotle therefore criticizes art of morality because he believes that it is difficult if not impossible to teach a moral lesson by arousing the emotion of pity and fear to the intended person.

To practice his ideas, Aristotle established his own school in Athens called the Lyceum. The school was called Peripatetic (walking strolling school) because much of the discussions in this school took place while the teachers and students were walking about the Lyceum grounds.

#### 4. **Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel (1770-1831)**

Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel was a German idealist philosopher, who became one of the most influential thinkers of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

He proposed that truth is reached by a continuing dialectic, in which a concept (thesis) always gives rise to its opposite (antithesis) and the interaction between these two leads to the creation of a new concept (synthesis).

##### **So Hegal:**

- Is the father of dialectics.

Hegel advocated dialectical method in reaching the truth. Dialectics involve a discussion between two people each seeking the truth of the topic being discussed. In the discussion opposed points of view may be given in the first instance. Each side however may gradually come to understand the other's position, and ultimately both of them may come to agree to reject their initial standpoint and accept a new and broader view and that does justice to the issue at hand.

In summary, truth is reached by a continuing dialect in which a concept (thesis) produces its opposite (antithesis) and the interaction between thesis and antithesis lead to new concept (synthesis)

Hegel believed that any proof of development has positive (thesis) and negative (antithesis – rejecting or discarding the old) aspects of growth and the emergence of new forms (synthesis)

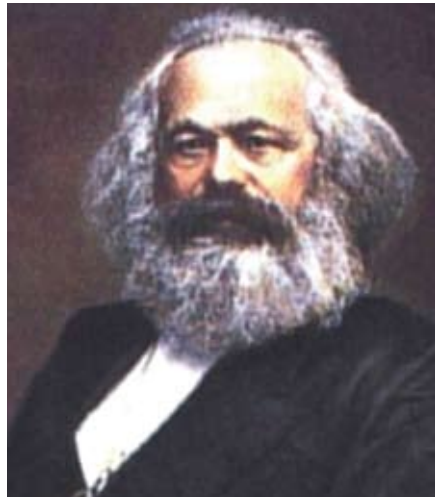
- Insists that the task of philosophy is to know the infinite and to see all things in God.
- Identity is reached only through an experience of difference.

**For example:**

- Truth is absence of error, but it is know to be true if error has been experienced and truth has triumphed.
- God is good and powerful, but his goodness and power will not be seen if evil has not been present and God triumphed over it.
- Adam and Eve were innocent in the Garden of Eden, but their fall was necessary if man was to attain moral goodness.
- Believe that people are objects of right (law), and what law needs from them is mere obedience, no matter what the motives of obedience may be.
- Believes that all people are equal before law.
- Believes that disputes emanating from sovereign States could be settled by violence alone. This is because each nation is an individual and sovereign in its own sphere and it cannot yield easily.

**5. Karl Marx (1818 – 1883)**

Karl Marx was a German political philosopher and a revolutionist. He was a cofounder with Friedrich Engels of scientific socialism (modern communism), and as such one of the most influential thinkers of all times. Karl Marx with Friedrich Engels, defined communism. Their most famous work was the Communist Manifesto produced in 1848, in which they argued that the working class should rebel and build a Communist society.



**Karl Marx:**

- Was greatly influenced by the theories of Hegel.
- Disclosed that economic forces were increasingly oppressing human beings. For instance the capitalistic class exploits the working class by appropriating the surplus produced by the later.

- Discovered that the History of society is the history of class struggles between exploiting and exploited social classes – exploiting rulers or employers against the exploited workers.
- Believed that individual, not God is the highest being. The people have made themselves what they are by their own labour and reasoning.
- Predicted that the capitalist system would be eliminated by a worldwide working class socialist revolution and would be replaced by a classless society. In this classless society the major means of production would be publicly owned.

**According to Karl Marx Capitalism would destroy itself in the following ways:**

- (a) Industry and business would grow and the owners would get rich.
- (b) The owners would pay very low wages to their workers so as to get super profit.
- (c) The poor workers would be unable to buy the goods that the system produced.
- (d) Economic depression would occur due to the accumulated goods that would have not been sold.
- (e) The depression would worsen until the workers revolt and take over the industries and overthrow the State in power.

In this regard, it was assumed that the workers would revolt and take over the industries and other means of production. Therefore social classes would end.

Karl Marx predicted that such revolutions would take place first in Western European nations that had highly developed economies. He was uncertain if Russia would experience such a revolution. In fact he died before witnessing any workers revolution.

All in all Karl Mark considered capitalism as the most efficient and dynamic system ever devised. But it contained flaws that would destroy it. Such flaws were the severe periods of inflation, and depressions. The most serious flaw in the capitalist system was that it accumulated more and more wealth but became less and less capable of using this wealth. As a result Marx saw the accumulation of wealth resulting to the rapid spread of human sufferings. It is these sufferings that made a socialist revolution inevitable.

**(i) Some Philosophies of the Contemporary Time:**

There are six contemporary philosophies today ruling the world. Although everyone, every state or institution has its own style of philosophy. Among those six contemporary philosophies, two movements have had their greatest influence in Continental Europe. These are existentialism and phenomenology.

**(ii)** Some other three have been more influential in the United States and Great Britain. These are: Pragmatism, Logical Positivism and Philosophical Analysis. One movement has originated in the capitalist world and has spread to many parts of the world today. This is Liberal philosophy.

**(iii) Existentialism:**

Among the great philosophers of existentialism, is the French author Jean Paul Sartre. This philosophy became influential especially during the Second World War (1939-1945) and after the War. The Second World War witnessed despair and separation from the established order. These feelings led to the idea that people have to create their own values. In a world in which traditional values no longer govern. Existentialism insists that choices have to be made arbitrarily by individuals who thus create them, because there are no objective standards to determine a choice.

**(iv) Phenomenology:**

This philosophy was developed by a German philosopher, Edmund Husserl. Husserl conceived the task of phenomenology, hence the task of philosophy, as describing phenomena the object of experience accurately and independently of all assumptions derived from science. He thought that this activity would provide philosophic knowledge of reality. He termed his philosophy as phenomenology of the spirit.

**(v) Pragmatism:**

John Dewey and William James both of USA maintained that knowledge is subordinate to action. They held that meaning and truth of ideas are determined by their relation to practice. Therefore an idea, which is not practical, is meaningless/void.

**(vi) Logical Positivism:**

This philosophy which was developed in Vienna, Austria, in the 1920s, believes that philosophy should analyze the logic of language of science. It regards science as the only source of knowledge. It claims that metaphysics is meaningless. It bases

this claim on the principle of verifiability by which a statement is meaningful only if it can be verified by sense experience.

(vi) **Philosophical Analysis:**

This generally tries to solve philosophic problems through analysis of language or concepts. Some versions of this philosophy attempt to show that traditional philosophic problems dissolve, that is, disappear on proper analysis of terms in which they are expressed. Other versions use linguistic analysis to throw light on, not dissolve, traditional philosophic problems. The most influential philosophers practicing philosophic analysis have been Bernard Russel of England and Ludwig Wittegenstein who was born in Austria but studied and taught in England.

(vii) **Liberal Philosophy:**

Liberal philosophy began with the rise of capitalism in its different stages. Feudalism in Europe had limited individual freedom and centred power on the monarchs. The state controlled both the economy and political affairs of the state. It is associated also with Renaissance in Europe (1304 – 1550).

The English political revolution referred to as Common Man's Charter. It had elements of liberal philosophy where common people wanted liberation from absolutism practiced by King Charles II. This brought about the freedom of the parliament.

It was followed by the French Revolution of 1789 where the Monarch such as King Louis XVI and his wife Maria Antoinette were assassinated. This revolution brought an end to monarchical rule as an attempt to liberal philosophy in France.

With disintegration of communism and disappearance of socialist ideology, which emphasized on the interest of the state over the interest of individuals, liberal philosophy now predominates. The world emphasized on individual interests.

**Principles of Liberal Philosophy:**

- Emphasis is on freedom, equality and opportunity for an individual as well as the government to remove obstacles for enjoyment of those freedoms.
- Economic opportunities should be created to enable individuals to enjoy.
- The government should limit its intervention on private matters for individuals to enjoy their liberty.

- Individual rights and freedom should be given priority. For example, freedom of expression, assembly, press, association, speech and so forth.
- The government should have transparency in the governing process in order to check abuse of power.
- There must be free competition in economic sectors and politics. Freedom should permit the private sector investments, free market economy, multiparty politics, and so on.
- When the conflict between the interest of the state and individual interests occur, individual interests should be given priority.

## PHILOSOPHICAL IDEAS OF KWAME NKRUMAH AND NYERERE

### 6. Kwame Nkrumah (1909 - 1972)

Nkrumah spent many years working to acquire independence to the British Colony of the Gold Coast (later Ghana). This was achieved in 1957, when Ghana became the first sub – Saharan African colony to gain independence. Kwame Nkrumah became the first Prime Minister of Ghana between 1957 and 1960. He also became the first President of Ghana between 1960 and 1966. He was the first black African postcolonial leader.



In 1964 he declared the CPP the only legal party in Ghana. While Nkrumah was visiting China in 1966, his government was overthrown by the army coup. Nkrumah lived in exile in Guinea, where Guinea President Sekou Toure appointed him a honorary co – president of Guinea. He died in 1972 in Romania while receiving treatment for throat cancer.

In short, Kwame Nkrumah:

- Associated the backwardness of Africa and the Africans with imperialism.
- Spearheaded African nationalism.
- Advocated African unity
- He vigorously spoke for African common market for her raw materials and industrial goods.

Advantages of African unity according to Kwame Nkrumah:

- Speaking with one voice
- Dictating prices for our raw materials
- Determining prices of goods from outside. This will help African to escape the trap of imperialist exploitation and oppression.

## 7. Julius K. Nyerere (1922 – 1999)



Nyerere joined politics in 1954 and founded Tanganyika African National Union (TANU). He became Tanganyika's Prime Minister when TANU won the elections of 1960. He was the first Prime Minister when Tanganyika became independent in 1961. He resigned early in 1962 to concentrate on restructuring TANU for its post independence role. Elections in 1962 brought him back as President of a Republic. In 1964 following a revolution on the Arab – dominated islands of Unguja and Pemba a mutiny in his army, Nyerere formed a union of the two countries, with himself as the President. Committed to African liberation, he offered sanctuary in Tanzania to members of the African

National Congress and numerous other rebel groups from Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Angola, and Uganda.

His government emphasized Ujamaa “familyhood”, a unique form of rural socialism. Nyerere stepped down as President in 1985, but he continued as head of the ruling party. CCM which was formed by the merger of TANU and ASP in 1977 until 1990.

The country maintained an expanding educational system and a strong sense of national unity. Nyerere remained active in international politics until the final months of his life.

### **Aspects of Tanzanian life philosophy:**

Tanzanian philosophy has been that of UJAMAA and education for self Reliance, designed and developed by Julius K. Nyerere.

- Tanzania's Ujamaa philosophy was based on human equality to social, economic and practical organization of societies. It was based on equality, love, peace and mutual assistance.



- The doctrine (partly socialist) demanded that there had to be a an organization of societies in such a manner that it had to be impossible or very difficult for individual desires to be pursued at the cost of the other people, or for individual strength to be used for exploitation of others.
- The purpose of Socialism (Ujamaa) was the well being of people, and the basic assumption was acceptance of human equality. For socialism, there was as belief that every individual man and woman, whatever colour, shape, religion, race, creed or sex was an equal member of a society, with equal rights in society and equal duties to it.

### **Characteristics of Socialism:**

- (i) The means of production are in the hands of people or the hands of their freely elected government.
- (ii) There is democracy. People run their own government through their elected representatives.
- (iii) Means of production are friendly, and therefore, there are no antagonistic contradiction, no exploitation of man by man.
- (iv) Everybody works and is paid according to his/her contribution.
- (v) There is planning of the economy under a centralized socialist system.

### **The Arusha Declaration:**

On the 5<sup>th</sup> February, 1967, Tanzania announced the policy of socialism, commonly known as The Arusha Declaration. The themes of the Declaration were:-

- (i) To have public control of the economy through control of the major means of production.
- (ii) To have development through self reliance.
- (iii) Stress to be on rural development.
- (iv) To have equality among people; and
- (v) Emphasis had to be on rural socialism.
  - All private sectors were nationalized, including financial institutions, industries, large scale agricultural production, schools, hospitals and so on.

- Various policies were enacted to elaborate the Declaration. They included:
  - Education for Self – Reliance.
  - Socialism and Rural Development.
  - Varied paths to socialism.
  - The target is man;
  - Principles and development.
  - Ten years of the Arusha Declaration.
  - Siasa ni Kilimo;
  - Decentralization.

### **Education for self – reliance:**

Education has to be transmitted from one generation to the next, with accumulated wisdom and knowledge of society. It strives to prepare young people to be useful in their societies and their active participation in enhancing development.

Independent Tanzania, like all other colonized countries, inherited the education system of the colonial powers (the British). This education system had so many weaknesses. It induced an attitude of human inequality, the domination of the weak by the strong, especially in the economic field. Moreover, this system was theoretical than practical, inculcating the Western value and preparing schoolers for white color jobs.

### **Steps taken to reshape Tanzanian Education System:**

- (i) Racial distinction in schools was abolished. Also discrimination on religious grounds was abolished. Schools owned by missionaries were nationalized with the exception of Catholic Seminaries.
- (ii) The number of secondary schools and post secondary education institutions were increased. This has enabled a good number of students to have access to education.
- (iii) Technical schools and vocation centers were established to provide practical education.
- (iv) The school curricula were reshaped to be highly Tanzanian in content and context.
- (v) The Tanzanian Institute of Education (TIE) was introduced to enable the majority of citizens get at least primary education in order to eradicate ignorance.
- (vi) Adult education was introduced to enable the old population to know how to write and read.

There are six contemporary philosophies today ruling the world. Although everyone, every state and institution has its own life philosophy. Among these six contemporary philosophies, two movements have had their greatest influence in Continental Europe. These are existentialism and phenomenology.

## **RELIGION:**

It is an English word religion which has a Latin etymology. However, there is disagreement over whether the Latin religare, meaning to bind together (suggesting possibly the concept of a group or fellowship) or relegere, meaning to rehearse, to execute painstakingly, referring possibly to the repetitious nature of liturgy. As it can be noticed, each word makes sense as a root and that each word taps a dimension of religion that will be included in the definition.

### **Meaning of religion:**

In attempting to define religion formally, the following definition is probably less elegant than some, yet more inclusive than many characteristics of religion: Religion is a system of beliefs and practices by which a group of people interprets, as well as responds to what they feel is sacred and , usually supernatural as well.

Religion is an organized system of beliefs. Ceremonies, practices and worship that focus on one Supreme God (Deity) or gods (Deities).

- **Atheists**  
Principally, these believe that no God or gods exist. Good examples are the Communists who believe in material rather than spiritual or idealistic things
- **Agnostics:**  
These are neutral in that they hold that the existence of God cannot be proved or disproved.
- **Theistic:**  
They believe in God or gods. Most of the major religions are theistic. They teach that God or gods govern or greatly influence human actions.

**In involving several characteristics of religion. The following attempts to define the meaning of religion.**

- Religion is an organized system of belief, practices, ceremonies and worship that centres on a Supreme Supernatural Being (God).
- Religion is an ideology because it comprises a doctrine, belief, symbols, which constitute any ideology.
- Religion is a quest for values of the ideal life involving three phases: the ideal, practices for attaining values of the ideal and the theology relating the quest to the environing universe.
- Religion also means a particular system in which the quest for the ideal life has been embodied. For example, Christianity, Islam, Judaism, Buddhism, and so forth.

**Aspects of religion include:**

- Main recognition of a controlling supernatural power worth of obedience, reverence and worship.
- Spiritual attitude to the supernatural being (power)
- Manifestation of the feelings in the conduct of life.

**Origin of Religion:**

Religion comes as answers to questions, that the human mind cannot provide an appropriate answer to. When man is faced with sentiments of terror and need for protection in the face of disturbing events of life, including nature, he cannot provide satisfactory answers to questions using his reason. Therefore answers are expected from the supernatural power. This is the position of materialism.

Man would like to live forever. He cannot provide appropriate answers to questions such as death and he cannot explain the source of life. With fear of disappearance from the world and existence in general, man came up with the idea of God as the solution to these problems. Finally, man “home” for those who die. All religions are concerned with the question of life after death. This is the position of Atheism and Scientism. Man has created God.

God revealed himself to people of the past and showed them his nature, power, wishes and laws. These have been passed from one generation to another. This is the position of Theism (the belief that everything originates from God)

### **Types of religion:**

Generally there are several ways of categorizing religion, but a number of writers give as different types of religions. The main two groups are Christianity and non Christianity.

Christianity is divided into Roman Catholics, Protestants and Orthodox. The Protestants have several branches, including Pentecoste, Adventist, Anglican, Lutheran etc.

Non Christian are divided into the following types: Islamic, Hinduism, Buddhism, Sikhism, Judaism, Shinto's, Bahai etc.

In other words, religion comes in many forms: Christianity, islam, Judaism, Buddhism, Hinduism, Confucianism, Taoism, Shintu, Bahai, etc.

Regarding the object of devotion, there are two types of religion:

- (i) **Monotheism:** This is the belief in ONE supernatural Being, omnipotent (all powerful), omniscient (knowing everything) and omnipresent (every where). Such religions are Judaism, Christianity, Islam, Hinduism and Buddhism.
- (ii) **Polytheism:** This is the belief in MANY supernatural beings. These include gods or goddesses of rain, moon, sun, winter, harvest and so forth. Many pre-colonial African societies belonged to this group.

### **Major and common characteristics of a Religion:**

- (i) Belief in diety or in power beyond the individual
- (ii) A doctrine (accepted teaching) of salvation.
- (iii) A code of conduct.
- (iv) The use of sacred stories.
- (v) Religious rituals (acts and ceremonies)

### **Secular and non Secular States**

#### **a) Religious / non-secular states**

These are states, that are governed in accordance to an established religion (Theocratic states). Religious laws are part of the states constitutions where a government in power abides by a particular religion. Example Vatican, Iran, Saudi Arabia, etc.

**Religious states are of two types:**

- (i) States, that recognize only ONE religion and forbid citizens to believe in any other religion. A state religion is the official religion of a state as seen in Iran, Saudi Arabia, The Vatican City, etc
  
- (ii) States with official religion but other religions are permitted to exist. In such cases, only leaders must be from the official religion, but other religions are permitted by the constitution. Examples of such states include Britain, the Netherlands, Republic of Ireland and Israel.

Britain is a Christian country under the Anglican Church as the official religion. The head of state (Queen or King) is also the head of the Anglican Church. Anglicanism is part of the culture of the country although other religion are also allowed to operate.

In Japan, the Monarch must be a SHINTO (the Japanese Buddha)

The Republic of Ireland is a Catholic state, although other religious are also allowed to operate. Britain is Anglicanism and Ireland is Catholicism.

Although Israel theoretically is as secular state, but practically, it is a religious state. To be in power you must be a ZIONIST. Zionism is a belief in Israelites to be God's chosen race. Their religion is regarded to be the truest of all religious and that their ancestors have had spoken with God who gave them the land they are occupying. The Promised Land. The official religion is Judaism.

**(b) Secular States**

Secular states are states without official religion. Individuals are free to follow any religion. Such states include Tanzania, Kenya, Germany, South Africa, U.S.A, etc

**Reasons why Tanzania is a secular state:**

- (i) The number of Christians, Muslims and non – believers is almost the same. Declaring Tanzania as a religious state, it means denying other religions their rightful recognition.
  
- (ii) Respect of the United Nations “Declaration of Human Rights, especially Article 18, which emphasizes on the right to freedom of thought, conscience and worship.

“Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and worship. This includes freedom to change the religion or belief and freedom; either alone or as a group, in public or in private. To manifest ones religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

- (iii) The need to maintain unity and cooperation of different believers, so as to facilitate mobilization of citizens for economic, political and social activities.

### **Advantage of Being a Secular State:**

The following are advantages of a Secular State:

- political stability
- peace and harmony
- unity and cooperation;

There is ample time for politicians to deal with political and state matters, religious matters are left in the hands of the religious leaders. This creates separation of responsibility, respect and tolerance.

If a state is not categorically secular, there is a danger of political instability social insecurity, and religious clashes such as those witnessed in Nigeria, Sudan and Northern Ireland. As a result, people’s development is jeopardized and hatred creeps in.

### **Roles of Religion in a Society:**

- True religion charges its followers to be mindful of their duties in a society they live in.
- It advises political leaders to rule their people justly, kindly and with charity.
- It teaches people to be obedient to their lawful authorities and to abide to the established laws.
- It helps the state to make sure that there is high morality within society. For example, condemnation of corruption, prostitution, crimes and many other bad behaviours.
- Provision of social services to people such as hospitals, schools, water, sanitation and communication infrastructure.
- To give asylum to those in need. For example, refugees, orphans, widows and so forth.

- To give reverence and love to mankind
- To foster or promote peace and orderliness
- To create unity and solidarity within the society.
- Sometimes a religion acts as social service provider, including health, education, sanitation etc.

### **Some concepts related to religion in Tanzania.**

#### **(i) Freedom of Religion:**

- Every person is free to belong to any religion of his/her liking.
- A person is free to practice religion in public or private and to manifest his or her religion in teaching, worshiping and observance.
- Followers of any religious sect cannot be prevented to join any political party or leadership.
- The state should not involve itself in religious activities unless they contravene the established laws of the country.
- The government may not force religious beliefs to its citizens.
- All religious matters should be regarded private.

#### **(ii) Tolerance and peaceful coexistence:**

When there is a need for tolerance and peaceful co – existence among believers or followers all religions work for common good of the people. The affinity (resemblance) among religions is not apparent in creed and ceremonies. It is clearly founded in the areas of ethics or moralities. For example one's relationship to another or neighbour.

There are striking parallels among different religions; for example:

- All religious work for the common good of the people.
- The resemblance of ethics among religions in their creeds is not by coincidence, but essential for the common good. For example one's relationship with another.
- Christians. Whatsoever you would like that men should do to you, do even so to them.



- Muslims sunnah holds that, no none is a believer until he desires for his brother that which he desires for himself.
- Tolerance will enable different religions to exist peacefully and deliver both material as well as spiritual benefits to citizens.

These are Golden Rules of the existing religions, emphasizing true concern for others' needs and welfare.

### iii) **Hatred and conflict among religions:**

**These are caused by the following aspects /patterns:**

- Some religions claim to be the only revelation of God and therefore, superior to all other faiths.
- When a religion involves itself in politics, its members are likely to be used by politicians to spread hatred and disturbance to other believers of different religions.
- When the government interferes with activities of a certain group while allowing another group to enjoy freedom of religion.
- When tolerance and peaceful coexistence is not accommodated.
- When use of force becomes one of the strategies for converting people to one's religion. For example, Jihads and Crusades.

### **The Relationship Between the State and Religion in Tanzania.**

The relationship between the state and Religion in Tanzania is observed in various aspects, but the main one is in the United Republic's Constitution. The Constitution of Tanzania, Article 19, provides freedom of belonging to a religion of ones choice. Tanzania state, though secular, it gives her citizens a freedom of religion affiliation and worship. That is, every citizen has right to worship.

Religious institutions and other religious activities are practiced outside the government influence or control. These institutions are non – governmental organizations (NGOs).

Every Tanzanian citizen is free to worship via a faith of his/her choice. The state is aware of the fact that people who practice their religious faithfully are good citizens. By abinding to the law of God, they automatically abide to the laws of country. The government of Tanzania and its people are God fearing.

The relationship between the states and religion in Tanzania:

- The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania (Article 19) guarantees the right to worship. The state gives citizens freedom of choosing their own religion.
- Religious activities are allowed by the state unless they contradict the established laws.
- Religious institutions and other religious activities are practiced outside the government sphere of control.
- The state encourages religious activities knowing that people who practice their religion faithfully make better citizens.
- When singing the National Anthem, we pray for God to help our nation and its people.
- All top government officials take oaths in which they swear to serve the nation faithfully. They end up by saying: so help me God.
- All religious holidays (Christians and Muslims) are public holidays.

### **Challenges of Religion Today:**

What are the challenge of Religion today? Today there are several institutions acting as Quasi – Religion. These are not real religions. They are temporal ones and not authentic. Examples may include: Nationalism, patriotism, devotion to scientific humanity, all these have become substitute of formal religion.

The belief in the all efficacy (artifacts) of technology is one of such sciences of faith for millions of pupils. Both are source of explanations and the object of devotion. Communism and Fascism of Lamu, Hitler and Mussolini, as well as Karl Marx, is said to be some of religions of today. Generally, they agreed that the real religions always operate as the agent in other world, acting as opium to the followers (members of the society). A devotion to social values, to purely human objectives is enough for a religion.

Quasi – Religious are groups of believers who appear inform of religion but are not real according to what they preach, believe and practice, are not real religions.

- **Quasi** – religions are temporal not universal, and in many cases follow some individuals who are normally radical.
- The emphasize on personal revelations.

- They preach segregation, hatred and call upon their believers to be against the existing authority.
- Followers are made to believe that they are the most holy in the world. They have been given a special mission to convert others who do not know God.
- Unbelievers can be even killed for the sake of God.
- Another name for quasi –religion is “Religious fundamentalism.”

### **Nationalism:**

This is patriotism related to religion. It is identification of a certain religion in a certain nation. Some existing social problems connected with a certain nation are therefore identified with religion. For example, nationalism led to birth of Lutheranism from the Catholic Church as a response. The Germans nationalism against Italians; the Anglican Church from Catholic Church, and so forth.

Colonialism was identified with Christianity. Some colonial masters used Christianity to justify colonialism and made people surrendered to colonial rule. When African nationalistic movements started, Christianity and colonialism were all fought because they were identical, for example, in Mozambique.

### **Science and Technology:**

As science and technology advances, religious beliefs are likely to decrease or disappear. Some of the problems formerly solved by religion can now be well explained in science (they are under the microscope). The belief in technology is one such faith. Science is for millions of people, both the source of explanation and the object of devotion. This is why religious beliefs in developed countries are disappearing.

### **Communism and fascism:**

- They consider religion as opium of people.
- As for them, religion is for the weak and coward people.
- Religion is a source of exploitation, blocking the thinking capacity of people. Man should get out of this block.
- Religion is an illusion, a way imposed to monitor peace and obedience to those in power (for further discussions refer to Lenin, Stalin, Hitler, Mussolini and the like)

### **Atheism and Agnosticism:**

Please refer to notes under theodicy concerning atheism and agnosticism under this topic.

Causes of intra and inter religious conflicts:

- Lack of education / illiteracy to some followers and their learders, specifically their duties and responsibilities in their society.
- Poverty among followers contributes to the above problems.
- Too much freedom of worship some. Some leaders misuse their freedom while propagating their faith.
- Globalization and liberalization may cause conflicts within religion and with other religions.
- Weak leadership ie. Political / government leaders fail to put in place regulations to overcome existing problems.
- Foreigners may influence conflicts within or with other religions e.g. the Jamaican who was chaise away from Kenya in 2009.
- Advancement of and application of science and technology in a society e.g. the information technology and its spread among the society.
- Sometimes religions leaders enterfere or combine religions teachings with politics. These could cause enmity between the government and religious institutions. Eg. Civic education towards 2010 election, prepared by the TEC, in 2009.

### **Effects of Intra and Inter Religious Conflicts:**

- Weakening unity and solidarity among followers of the same religion, as well as other religions.
- Creating an atmosphere of tension and fear among people of the same religion, or other religions, or the entire community.
- Undermining socio-economic development of citizens. They fail to achieve their goals due to the existed conflicts.
- The situation will limit employment and provision of social services because of religionalism.
- The conflicts may lead to political instabilities, even civil war.

## **Importance of Practising Religious Tolerance**

- Promotes peace, order, harmony among people in the country which has diversified believers.
- Promotes development in all aspects, economic, social, culture, as well as political development.
- It allows benefactors to support the country whose people are not attached to a specific religion.
- It attracts foreign investors to invest in a country without fear, and creates employment.
- It facilitates good leadership, ie political and religious institutions join hands in leading people.
- It promotes freedom of worship and association of the citizens.

**Revision questions:**

1. Define philosophy and explain its main branches.
2. Show the significance of studying philosophy.
3. Metaphysics is the mother of philosophy. Substantiate.
4. Examine the importance of religion to national development.
5. Briefly explain the following philosophical concepts
  - (i) Liberalism
  - (ii) Materialism
6. Discuss about the philosophical ideas of Julius Nyerere on education for self reliance and steps taken since independence to reshape Tanzanian education system.
7. Show the importance of religious tolerance in multicultural societies like Tanzania.
8. Show the advantages of separating religion from the state.
9. What are the challenges of religion today?
10. With reference to the role of religion in the modern society, discuss the Marxist view about religion.

## CHAPTER TWO

### CONTEMPORARY / CROSS - CUTTING ISSUES

#### TOPIC OUTLINES:

- Gender and Development
- Environmental issues
- HIV/AIDS
- Corruption
- Drug abuse

#### I. GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

##### **Gender concepts**

**Gender** refers to different social roles assigned to males and females by a society. It the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female and the relationship between men and women which these attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and learned through socialization processes. They are context/time-specific and changeable.

Gender is a development strategy as it helps to clarify fears and misconceptions, and brings to focus the different social relations among male and female, hence helps decision makers to construct the gender issues and places.

**Sex** refers to the biological characteristics / differences which define humans as female or male. People are born female or male, but learnt to be girls and boys who grow into women and men. This learned behavior makes up gender identity and determines gender roles. Therefore gender is different from sex, as sex shows biological differences, while gender shows relationships between male and female.

**A gender relation is** a concept which is used to explain the unequal power relations between men and women. Unequal gender relations also determine men's and women's status, opportunities and the value of their work and contributions in a society, where household work is not valued like paid work which is performed outside the household.

**Gender discrimination** refers to unequal treatment between male and female. This happens when a certain sex (male or female) is treated better or worse than the opposite sex.

It becomes an issue for it expresses gaps in development which are a result of institutionalized differential treatment between men/women, girls and boys. Discrimination starts from the family level through socialization e.g. a girl child helps with family chores while a boy child goes out to play with friends.

**Gender oppression** refers to a situation whereby one sex is treated in a continually harsh way or made to feel anxious, uncomfortable or unhappy. It occurs from imbalance of power between men and women. Women are oppressed because of the power gap which arises from imbalance in resource command; usually women are placed in a subordinate position.

**Gender stereotyping** refers to people's perceptions and attitudes created by the socialization process, which is perpetuated by gender division of labor, particularly in traditional institutions, for example initiations.

**Gender analysis** is a systematic way of looking at the different roles of women and men in any activity, institution, or policy, and at the different impacts of these on women and men. It is about who does what, has access to and control over what, benefits from what, for both sexes in different age groups, classes, religions, ethnic groups, races and castes.

Gender analysis also means that in every major demographic, socio-economic and cultural group, data are separated by sex and analyzed separately according to sex.

**Gender division of labor (GDL)** refers to the different work that women and men generally do within their home, community and in public, and includes tasks /activities that are mostly carried out by men and women.

**Sex division of labor (SDL)** refers to the biological division of labor. While GDL is the social division of labor that starts from the household, to communities and goes all the way to the workplaces. Pregnancy is a biological/sexual division of labor, while the rest that happens outside pregnancy is social division of labor, which can be performed by both men and women.

In GDL, women are normally given roles that have less value and little financial recognition. Most of the work load is given to women on assumption that they have plenty of time to perform unpaid community work.

Gender division of labor is set according to the culture, geographic location and socio-economic factors, including education, technology, economic crises and wars.

### **Gender balance**

Refers to the numerical equality between women and men. Efforts to promote gender balance include achieving equal representation of women and men in councils, companies, utilities and committees.



**Gender equality** refers to the rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men, does not depend on whether they are born male or female. It also involves equal distribution of economic gains.

**Gender equity** refers to fairness of treatment for men and women according to their respective needs. Equity is the means to achieve gender equality through equal treatment (fairness), and which takes into account the advantages and disadvantages of men and women through for example implementing the affirmative action /policy to create gender balance.

Therefore, gender equality is related to justice, while gender equity relates to fairness by giving equal opportunity to both men and women through for example provision of equal opportunities to employment and equal pay, access to property such as land, education and training, health facilities and to participate in planning developmental activities.

**Empowerment** is the process and end-result of improvement in autonomy through various means, such as access to knowledge, skills and training. It is the inner will and ability to change a given situation positively.

**Gender sensitive** refers to the ideas, initiatives or actions that take into account the particularities pertaining to the lives of both women and men, while aiming at eliminating inequalities and promoting an equal distribution of resources, benefits, burdens, rights and obligations to both men and women.

## **Meaning of Patriarchal and Matriarchal Systems**

**Matriarchy** refers to a system whereby a woman has power in all aspects of life, for example the mobilization of resources.

In this system a woman is more superior to a man. It is a woman centered system since all the decisions are made by women.

Matriarchy is a complex subject which is difficult to define and often evokes strong reactions. The word *matriarchy* is used in several senses. It has often been used to denote a social-cultural organization in which women are the recognized leaders in the community. In other instances, it refers to a social organization in which the political status of a person depends on matrilineal descent, or to a cultural system in which the mother is the head of the family, or in which inheritance of family property is through the maternal line. It has also been used to define the social pattern of societies in which the deity is a goddess.

So far, there is no evidence of a complete matriarchy—a society in which women had the final say on every aspect of communal life. At the same time, there is no known society in which women had absolutely nothing to say about any aspect of communal or personal life. Evidence from African societies, though strongly suggesting that there are no purely matriarchal societies, nevertheless shows many traits of matriarchal practices in the sense that,

even in what appears to be all-male rule, one finds tendencies of mother-centeredness. With this understanding, what follows is an attempt to map a range of matriarchal possibilities.

In order to understand the problems of using terms such as *matriarch*, *matriarchy*, and *matriarchal*, it is important to look at the areas of power, the means of such power, and the mechanisms used to enforce decisions. A closer examination of female leadership often reveals that the relative position of women, in terms of freedom and control, depends largely on the size and nature of the group being discussed. It seems that women have always had the greatest possibility of governing at the level of the family, whether nuclear or extended. Women also appear to have more responsibility in relation to matters affecting other women, both in modern industrialized society and in peasant societies.

Only rarely have women governed entire nations. In addressing the sphere of women's power, scholars point to the education of children, arrangements for marriages, types of work, the ownership of property, social status, and the spiritual welfare of the community.

Most writing on matriarchy is the work of anthropologists. Some theorize that matriarchal societies were earlier stages of societal development, or as primitive. The community of the Iroquois Indians has been singled out as one in which women had great influence. Iroquois women could take the role of *sachems* (chiefs) and, as such, constituted an important part of the governing segment of the society. Even here, however, the physical strength of men, their dominance in fighting, and their tendency to compete led to attitudes involving superiority and control. Among the Kuna Indians of Panama, women are described as being physically as strong as men, or even stronger. As a result, Kuna women control drunkenness and fighting at fiestas: if the men become too drunk and begin to fight, the women simply move in and separate them.

One important source of power for women in non-industrialized societies is food production and small business entrepreneurship. The areas where women are the food producers are also the areas in which women have the most say. When the pattern changes either in industry or in cash-crop farming, a shift of power also takes place. Similarly, in areas where women have a prominent position in business entrepreneurship, as do the so-called market women of West Africa, they have freedom of movement and more self-determination. These factors often bring out aspects of female leadership or female power that may be referred to as matriarchal.

In Africa, matriarchal features are evident among communities such as the Ibo of Nigeria, the Ashanti/Akan of Ghana (West Africa), the **Kwaya** of Tanzania (East Africa), and the Chewa of Malawi (Southern Africa). Sjöö and Mor (1976) report that many indigenous communities in Asia, the Pacific, and North and South America are "matriarchal." What these groups have in common are strong female roles in food production and strong community adhesiveness. In many of these societies, the role of women is more important than that of women in typical western societies, but this does not mean that they are truly matriarchal, except in a very limited way.

The word *matriarch* is used to refer to a woman who has a prominent leadership role in her community or is publicly respected especially for her long and consistent impact on the society or the family. In Chinese and African societies, the oldest woman in the family—often a grandmother or the great-grandmother—is a matriarch, because she commands a great deal of respect and authority. She has to be consulted on all family decisions, and she has the veto power. The rest of the family respects her and gives her a place of honor in the home. Each family has its own matriarch, and her power is recognized in her own immediate and extended family setting to a greater extent than in the society as a whole, even though generally these matriarchs are respected by the entire communities. Age plays a very important role, because *matriarch* is not a title but a status. Younger women do not qualify to be called matriarchs even if they provide leadership in the family. Age in these societies is a positive and powerful sign of experience and wisdom.

In some polygamous societies, the oldest wife is a matriarch. She is expected to provide leadership to junior wives and has a special supervisory role over family matters. There is also considerable authority invested in her by society. She can stop the male members of the family from taking an action pertaining to family property or family members. She is immune from being beaten or ordered around by her husband, and in many cases she is the only wife allowed to sit in the council of men when important decisions regarding family matters are being discussed. If she is not present in person, she is the first to be told about the decisions made, and she is the one who tells other wives. She is also expected to be responsible and fair in her judgments and actions. This is what makes polygamy work and what makes communally structured societies appear to be matriarchal.

Some matriarchs gain this status by relationship to men considered to be patriarchs, such as presidents, chiefs, or bishops. In the Anglican churches in Africa, the wives of bishops act as patrons of churchwomen's organizations, such as the Mothers' Union, and are treated as matriarchs.

In the Bible, matriarchs are the wives of patriarchs, the key figures in the patriarchal history of Israel. In these narratives, Sarah seems to be the only one whom traditional biblical scholarship recognized as a matriarch. This may be due to the emphasis in the biblical text and subsequent tradition that Sarah, and not Hagar, bore the son promised by God, and thus became the mother of the people who inherit the promise given to Abraham. Jeansonne (1990) and Bellis (1994) include particularly good references to the biblical matriarchs.

Present-day biblical scholarship, such as that exemplified in the *Oxford Companion to the Bible* (Metzger and Coogan, 1993), recognizes the bias in the traditional interpretation of biblical stories, and in particular, the patriarchal history of Israel as told in the book of Genesis. In order to reclaim the inclusivity of history, rather than referring to patriarchs, the dictionary adopts the term *ancestors of Israel*. With the use of such an inclusive term, it becomes possible to name all the other women in the Genesis history who would warrant the recognition as matriarchs: Sarah, Hagar, Rebecca, Leah, Rachel, Bilha, and Zilpa. All these women were related to the patriarchs of Israel, and they, too, contributed to the history of Israel.

Matriarchs are also women who have been prominent and powerful and made great achievements in their own right. In Africa, women who have founded indigenous African churches are often considered matriarchs. Women such as Indira Gandhi and Golda Meir may eventually be seen by history as matriarchs for the prominent roles they played in world politics at a time when they had few female counterparts. Thus, the use of the term can be determined by context or group.

When linked to property inheritance, matriarchy is sometimes confused with matrilineage. Matrilineal descent exists in a societal structure in which inheritance and family descent pass through the female line. Men or children may have access to property only as a result of their relationship to the woman who is the legal owner. This means that the children are recruited into and given inheritance through the lineages of their mothers, hence *mater-linear*. In this system, it is the brother of the mother, the maternal uncle, and the birth mother who give the children their identity and inheritance. Marriage does not confer rights of inheritance or descent on the spouse. Identity and inheritance are therefore passed on to the children through a brother-sister relationship and not through a husband-wife relationship. Males in this system are the source of lineage, identity, and inheritance not for their direct progeny but rather for those of their female siblings.

Matrilineal descent does not always translate into matriarchy, but it paves the way for matriarchal possibilities. Logically, it seems that matrilineal practices have the potential to influence the status of women in society. The subtleties of economic superiority deriving from ownership of land, a house, or other properties give these women a head start and greater bargaining power than their sisters who have no right to ownership of family property except through their male associates.

The Ashanti/Akan people of Ghana, for example, are definitely matrilineal, but one would not necessarily describe them as matriarchal. The *ohemaa* (queen mother) occupies a prominent role in the governance of community matters, but the public image of the ruler is the *ohene* (king). The queen mother presides over the team of kingmakers. Akan women are very powerful and control most family decisions. Local folklore has it they would have been even more powerful were they not prone to menstruation and pregnancy.

Nsugbe (1974) describes the Ohaffia Ibo leadership as having two headships of matrilineage, one generally male and the other always female. The male attends to secular duties such as the settling of disputes among the patrilineage, protection of the rights and properties of the clan, and the appointment of those who apportion matrilineal lands. In the absence of the male heads, the females act. But the main responsibility of the female heads is to attend to the sacred duties of society. The female head presides over the patrilineage for ritual events such as sacrifice to the sacred pots, each of which represents an ancestor. A male cannot be ritual head; the status is obtained matrilineally and by lineage seniority.

Among the indigenous Yoruba (Nigeria), although most political rulers are males, the women do have representation at the highest level, the king's council, through their leader,

the *iyalode* (Bolanle Awe, 1977). Unless one were to argue that African patriarchies like the Yoruba make provision for women's voices, it would be unthinkable to describe the Yoruba as matriarchal.

For the past three decades, the study of matriarchy by female scholars has taken on a new dimension by shifting its setting from the social-cultural realm into the religious. With the focus on worship of the female deity, the Goddess became the anchor of this search. Although the rewriting of women's religious history may be one of the results, the main aim of these studies has been to establish whether the worship of a female deity had any effect on the status of women in cultures where one was worshiped.

Ancient Goddess-worshipping societies are sometimes referred to as "matriarchal." Two views of these societies compete for recognition. One assumes that because these societies worshipped the Goddess, women must have had a high status. If this theory were true, it would support women who have argued that a society's deity and symbols of worship, if cast in a particular gender, influence the way society shapes its views about gender and power. Hence, the male core symbols of Judeo-Christianity—evident in the male deity, God the Father, male meditating persons, and male-dominated language of the Scriptures repeated in prayers and worship rituals—impart a higher regard for men in these societies, at the expense of women. A potential conclusion of this argument is that matriarchy is good for women and bad for men, just as patriarchy is good for men and bad for women. Another issue for women is that in almost all instances in which there are female deities, there are complementary male deities. The female deities are usually assigned fertility roles, and therefore there is almost always a relationship between male deities and female deities. Women are presently challenging the interpretations that have tended to regard female deities merely as symbols of sexual relations.

The converse view says that in early matriarchal societies, women held high status; therefore, the Goddess was worshipped. This theory underscores the argument that whoever has the dominant power in society determines not only the secular, but also the religious agenda. In Greek society, where there was much emphasis on female deities, there were certain religious rites in which only women engaged. Then women were indeed in complete control and made all decisions, that excluded men. Some of these rites were not necessarily symbolic of women's high status. The feminist investment in this view is meant to lay a foundation for the advocacy of shared leadership. Women have over time argued that many world religions are a result of the dominance of patriarchy, and the low status of women in society is a result of its religious practice as translated into sexism. The men rule and tame the world and all that is in it, and they have also determined how religion is to be organized in this world; even the male God is a result of men is determining who should be worshiped. This state of affairs is not good for the whole society, and it can change only if one group does not become hegemonic.

Some women scholars of matriarchy have been interested in the search for models of female leadership. This search has taken the form of archaeological documentation and revisiting

the interpretation of the religion of the Goddess (Sjöö and Mor, 1976; Stone, 1976). By exploring how the Goddess was worshiped, they have attempted to reconstruct what may have been the role of women in such a society. They have also posited theories that attempt to explain how and why change came about. They have speculated on the kind of leadership that matriarchy could have produced as a way of debating whether males and females differ in how they conduct the affairs of a society. For example, is matriarchy any more just and peaceful than patriarchy? Some scholars offer evidence which suggests that ancient matriarchal societies had more balanced and egalitarian communities. In order to avoid being snared in the trap of pitting matriarchy against patriarchy, they suggest that the study of matriarchy should use other terms, such as *matrifocal* or *matristic* societies, which help retrieve such special features of matriarchy as its communitarian orientation.

For feminists, patriarchy does not mean only the rule of the father—or the rule of males—but carries connotations of an unjust hierarchical and dualistic ordering of life that discriminates against women. Though some have argued that matriarchy should not be seen as the opposite of patriarchy, the popular mind will always see the two in opposition. The latter says that ancient matriarchal social systems and religions were organized on different premises from patriarchy. Matriarchy, on this view, indicates an entirely different orientation of consciousness around which entirely different patterns of personal, social, cultural, and spiritual relationships could and did occur. According to this understanding, some women conclude that the central characteristics of matriarchy are the gathering and binding of peoples, the care of the weak and vulnerable, and the conservation of what promotes the community.

The recent interest of woman scholars in the study of matriarchy focuses on the connections among power, control, property ownership, and the status of women. A further factor needing consideration is the source of power. This cannot be explained simply as a result of tradition in a society. The evidence points to the strength of individual personalities and their reputation for having been successful in previous social crises. Women who are thought to control supernatural powers also inevitably have a certain corresponding power within society.

***Patriarchy*** refers to the system in which a man has power over the women and resources. Men are the ones who make decisions. This system is mostly common in developing countries like Tanzania. This system is heavily discouraged since it favors males over females, thus it perpetuates gender discrimination.

It also results to gender imbalance in all aspects of development, like education, employment, politics etc.

### **The traditional beliefs and practices of patriarchal societies in Tanzania:**

***Polygamy*** is a system whereby a man marries more than one wife for prestige and respect. In some societies a man is respected and valued more if he has many wives, so women are taken as a symbol of wealth and presitige. For example, Maasai (Tanzania).

**Beating of women** It involves an act of inflicting physical punishment on a woman body purportedly to have committed a mistake. This is mostly done by married men in order to exercise the power they have over their wives. This is also done to show that women are under control of the men. It is also done as a sign of love, especially by the Kuria tribe (Tanzania).

**Widow inheritance** It happens when a woman who lost her husband and she is taken by one of the relatives of her late husband as his wife. This is also done to stop the widow from inheriting the property of her late husband like a land or a house.

**Early and forced marriage** there are some tribes that prefer to marry young girls under 18 years, who do not even understand the impacts of that decision. Some parents also convince or force their daughters to be married due to economic reasons, or friendship, or for cultural reasons. For example a suitor may be coming from a tribe which is free from superstition. Sexual pleasure, most men take women as the instruments of fulfilling their sexual pleasure. This is seen when women are humiliated after sexual intercourse, once a man has met his sexual desires.

Source of income, girls are used as a means of generating wealth through the payment of bride price. Some parents demand high bride price from suitors in order to enrich themselves. This practice makes a girl to be like a property which is bought at the market. Therefore, the married woman cannot make any decision against her husband because of the high bride price paid to her marriage.

Patriarchal system is also observed in the education institutions where the number of males is greater than females. This is more serious at the higher learning institutions (colleges and universities).

This system is also seen in politics that involves government leaders and representatives in the parliament. The number of women is low compared to men.

Institutions that perpetuate gender discrimination in Tanzania's society include the following;

**Family institutions:** It is believed that boys propagate lineage and support to the family, while girls leave their homes to get married. This marginalizes girls' participation in many activities. Many families prefer to educate boys or spend more money on them at the expense of girls when a choice has to be made between the two:

- Traditional institutions; Initiation ceremonies play a major role in perpetuating bias. Girls who have undergone initiation ceremonies become passive in school. Traditional counselors and elders initiate girls with emphasis on submissiveness to men. Because of this, women do not take part in decision making at home.

- Religious institutions; Religious doctrines and leaders' references to the Holy Bible or Koran on the submissive nature of women deny them opportunities to hold leadership positions and decision-making, for instance in churches and mosques, decisions made usually discriminate against women.

### **Constraints on Girls' Education**

- The school is sometimes seen as an alienating force that undermines cultural values.
- Traditional attitudes towards marriage view on investment in girls' education as 'watering another man's garden attitudes', whereby any benefits will go to another family.
- Socialization patterns assume that girls should be docile and passive, while boys are expected to be aggressive, adventurous and outgoing. This is to the advantage of girls when they have to share facilities and equipment with boys. Girls are also expected to suppress their brilliance or be subjected to ridicule.
- Women's social status in a society and negative attitudes to women as subordinates influence decision-making in girls' education.
- Traditional practices, for example early marriage and initiation rites interfere more with girls' education than that of boys.

### **School constraints**

- Education policies exclude pregnant school girls and adolescent mothers.
- Policies are gender blind in selection and posting teachers.
- Policies for monitoring gender equity in education are inadequate.
- School management practices in many cases discriminate against girls.

### **The traditional beliefs and practices of matriarchal societies in Tanzania:**

Matriarchal system is a cultural system whereby a woman has power in all aspects of life including property ownership and decision making. It doesn't mean that a man is not having power completely, but its position is not much valued like that of a woman, though his influence is recognized.

Matrilineal is a system in which lineage is traced through the mother and maternal ancestors. The mother is highly respected and valued, because she is the head of the family.

### **The contrast between matriarchal and matrilineal systems:**

In matriarchal, the power is centered on a woman while in matrilineal, the lineage is traced from the woman.

Matriarchal societies are witnessed in Southern Zone of Tanzania; in Yao, Makua and Makonde tribes whereby a woman has power in all spheres of life. But still there is no convincing literature which really describes in detail how this system is practiced.

Matrilineal system is also found in royal clans and Kurichiyas of Kerala, India and Hopi Navajo and Gitksan of North America.



Although, till now patrilineal system is dominating in many parts of Tanzania and the world at large.

How patriarchal system in Tanzania influences the development of gender relations in our society.

**Gender relations** is a concept which is used to explain the unequal power relations between men and women

Gender relations also determine men's and women's status, opportunities and the value of their work and contributions in a society, where household work is not valued like paid work performed outside the household.

Gender relations have resulted to bad cultural systems like patriarchy (the dominating system) and matriarchy where power is placed on a certain sex (male or female).

Both of these patriarchy and matriarchy have acted as obstacles towards achieving development, since development needs an atmosphere where there is equal value, respect, rights and equal decision making between a man and woman so that everyone would participate fully at all levels of development.

### **Patriarchy has influenced the development of gender relations in various ways:**

In patriarchal system only males are allowed to inherit properties like a land or a house from the parents, not females. Therefore this perpetuates gender discrimination since women will continue to be poor and submissive to men, who have power over resources.

Also in patriarchal system, females are not given an access to education, because they can't develop the lineage of their family. That is why the number of illiteracy in Tanzania is higher in females than in males.

Moreover in patriarchal system, women are given heavy load especially household activities like taking care of the children, preparation of food, and other family cores are unpaid, while men engage in paid work.

In addition, in patriarchal system, women are producers and men are consumers. This can be seen in the rural areas where women engage in farming and harvesting, but they don't benefit much out of all their work. Instead the men decide whether the crops should be sold or consumed. This perpetuates male supremacy.

In patriarchal system, women are perceived as weak and narrow minded, therefore they do not make critical and logical decisions as men do. This negative perception has made women to be disrespected and have lost trust in the society.

In patriarchy system, men are highly accepted to become leaders since they are believed to be strong and capable to reason critically, they can make sensible decisions compared to women. This bad belief is seen in representation between men and women in the governing system in Tanzania, where most of government leaders and members of the parliament are men.

### **Impact of gender discrimination on social and economic development:**

**Gender discrimination** refers to unequal treatment between male and female. This happens when a certain sex (male or female) is regarded to be better or worse than another.

### **Impact of gender discrimination on social development;**

#### ***In family institutions;***

**At home,** girls are assigned to do family chores, like washing and cooking while most of the time boys are just free and wait for food, watching televisions or doing other things that please them. In most of the families girls have little time to rest or socialize.

Male children are more respected and loved than the female children; this can be witnessed during birth, when a husband is very pleased when his wife gives birth to a male child compared to a female child. Also some women are even divorced because of not having a male baby. Most parents believe that a woman does not develop the family lineage that is why women are not allowed to inherit properties, because they don't develop the family lineage.

Girls are not given the opportunity to make decisions in matters that concern the family; even others are not consulted in matters that directly affect their welfare, like marriage. Also in some families a girl or a woman is restricted to urge before a man or to interrupt while a man is talking.

Some parents are reluctant to invest much on their daughters, on the belief that they will not benefit anything. It is as if they are developing another family, a family which the girl is married to.

Women are restricted to eat certain kinds of food on the belief that, it will cause complications while giving birth. In some tribes pregnant women are not allowed to eat eggs because the expected child could be abnormal mentally or physically. All these bad beliefs are imposed in order to favor men and perpetuate subordination of women.

Also in other tribes like Maasai, when food is prepared, men must be served first before women. This means that it is better for a woman to miss food than a man. Therefore men should eat first after they are satisfied, then women follow. In other tribes women are not allowed to look at men while they are eating.

### ***In education institutions;***

Girls are given lower expectations in academic performance than boys, although they are as capable as boys. This may discourage some girls and drop out of school. Some are even laughed or mocked by boys for going to school when they are supposed to get married.

Girls are encouraged to study home economics, due to the negative attitude that they are not good at science subjects. Home economics is a study to help girls to be expert in house keeping and budgeting.

Girls are not supported to go for further studies. Most of the girls get married after completing elementary studies or even before. Also illiteracy is higher in girls than in boys.

### ***In health services;***

Most girls/women are affected by reproductive health, spread of diseases; and are not knowledgeable enough on the reproductive health because they are marginalized. Sometimes women are restricted to seek for health services instead they stay at home to care for their husbands and children. Such a situation is more pronounced in the rural areas.

### **Impact of gender discrimination on economic development:**

Increase of economic gap between men and women, most women are low income earners because usually they engage in unpaid works at homes compared to men who do paid works, usually done away from homes.

In some tribes women are not allowed to work, they are supposed to take care of the children and her husband. Also women have few opportunities of getting jobs due to negative attitude towards them. They are regarded to be less productive. This is a common assumption.

In some tribes women are not allowed to inherit properties like land, or a house. These are essential factors in production. Most women work harder but they don't benefit much out of their work.

### **Indicators of gender discrimination in Tanzania**

**Female genital mutilation (F.G.M).** This is a practice of removing a part of a female reproductive organ, like a clitoris, labia or both for the purpose of reducing the sexual desires. This impairs the physical, biological and psychological well being of the individual. This practice is characterized by excessive bleeding, sharing of razor blades, scissors, and knives; therefore there is high susceptibility for transmission of HIV/AIDS. It also results to a lot of complications during giving birth.

**Early and forced marriage;** This happens when a young girl is married at a tender age before reaching 18 years. This practice is mostly done by pastoral societies like Maasai, whereby parents receive the pride price of a baby girl. This due to the desire of the parents to get more wealth accrued from dowry. Furthermore, it is a prestige to marry a very young girl.

**Food taboos.** There are some tribal restrictions that are imposed on women regarding type of foods not to be eaten by them. This is done in order to deny them the foods that are associated to men because of taste or mere prestige.

**Polygamy** means a custom of having more than one spouse at one time. This is most evidenced in societies where there is unequal treatment on both sexes.

**Beating of women.** This is an act of inflicting corporal punishment to a woman. This is caused by a negative perception that if a husband does not beat his wife, he will not be respected. It is also done as a sign of subordination that a woman is under a man or disrespectful to women. Although in other tribes like Kurya in Mara, if a wife is not beaten by her husband, she assumes that she is not loved. For them, to be beaten is a sign of love.

**Widow inheritance** is a habit of marrying a wife of a deceased husband of your relative like a wife of your brother who was a close relative. This shows how women are devalued, disrespected and not even given a chance to choose whom prefer to marry.

**Lacks of decision making** In most cases women are not involved directly in process of making decisions even an issues that directly affect their life. This is caused by the traditions and customs that restrict women from deliberating with them. It is also caused by the negative perceptions of the community that women are weak and they can not make sound decisions. This is also created by the inferiority complex of the women themselves.

**Ignoring women education** due to the assumptions that women are not potential to the society so there is no need of giving them education. This is also done purposely to make women a subordinate class.

**Forbidding women to inherit properties.** In most cases women are not allowed to inherit anything in the family because of the traditions and customs which treat a woman as a servant to a man. For this reason she is not allowed to own family property. Only men are entitled.

**Questions:**

1. What is the difference between gender and sex?
2. Discuss the difference between patrilineal and matrilineal systems.
3. How gender becomes an issue, select any of gender issues in your society.
4. Define the following terms
  - (a) Gender role
  - (b) Gender discrimination
  - (c) Gender oppression
5. With concrete examples suggest ways of overcoming gender gaps.
6. Account for the constraints hampering the movement against subordination of women in Tanzanian.

## II: ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

### Introduction:

- a) Meaning and Components of the environment.
  - i. Definition of the environment.
  - ii. Components of the environment.
  - iii. Importance of environmental components and how they are inter-related.
  - iv. Environmental problems.
  - v. Solutions to environmental problems.
  
- b) Natural Hazards, Catastrophes and Epidemics
  - i. Definition of natural hazards, catastrophes and epidemics.
  - i. Examples of natural hazards, catastrophes and epidemics including earthquakes, floods, volcanic, eruptions, drought and famine,
  - ii. Precautionary measures against hazards catastrophes and epidemics.

Environmental issues are issues or matters that are very sensitive and related to the environment. The question of environmental problems needs discussions or debates so as to find out ways to solve or reduce or cope with them, depending on the nature of their occurrence.

### Meaning of the environment

Environment refers to the surrounding, conditions and influences affecting the growth or development of the living things. It implies everything that makes up our surroundings and affects our ability to live on the earth. The air we breathe, the water that covers most of the earth's surface, the plants and animals around us, and much more.

In recent years, scientists have been carefully examining the ways that man affects the environment. They have found that man causes air pollution, deforestation, acid rain and other problems that are dangerous both to the earth and to man. These days, when people talk about "the environment", they are often referring to the overall conditions of our planet, or how healthy it is. The unhealthy condition of the earth is due to pollution.

### ***Components of the environment***

The environment is composed of the earth, which means, land and water and the atmosphere that is air. In brief, the basic components of the environment are land, water and air.

#### ***Land***

Land consists 30% of the earth's surface. The most important natural resource of land is soil. Soil is formed by weathering processes where natural forces wear away rock and break it into tiny particles.

Soil is the uppermost layer of the earth, containing mineral matter, air, water and micro-organism. All agricultural practices and most human activities take place on land surfaces. Added to land surfaces are flora and fauna. Flora refers to plants including forests. Fauna refers to animals. Flora and fauna contribute greatly to an environmental ecosystem of mutual support between plant and animal life patterns.

#### ***Importance:***

Support agricultural practices – All plants grow on the surface layer of the earth, most plant roots are found in this layer. That is why all agricultural practices and most human activities take place on land.

- a. Preservation of under-ground water. Water-table is found under the land ground and from there the wells are drilled to get water for various human activities.
- b. Keeps homes for various minute living organisms eg. Bacteria, such organisms help in breaking down dead or dying matter into nutrients that can be used again to feed the plants.

#### ***Water***

Water is a transparent fluid consisting of hydrogen and oxygen. It is a basic necessity of life.

Water is one of the most abundant substances on earth. Most of the earth surface is made up of water; it covers 70% of the earth's surface.

#### ***Importance***

For economic use, water can be used to generate electricity power, irrigation, and navigation, cooling of machines and making a variety of drinks.

For domestic use, water can be used for drinking, bathing, cooking, washing and in toilets.

## *Air*

The earth's atmosphere is composed of air. Air is a thin layer of a mixture of gasses that surrounds the earth surface. It is made up of 75% nitrogen, 21% oxygen and 4% other gases.

## *Importance*

Air is very important resource as it supports life of all living things. It protects life on earth from the damaging radiation and temperature extremes. It helps the plants to make food through the process known as "photosynthesis", with carbon dioxide. It also helps in combustion (oxygen) that enables vehicles and machines to operate

## **Major Environmental Problems**

The question of environmental problems is now becoming so crucial because the earth's natural system is being destroyed at an alarming rate by human activities.

The major problems facing the environment today are pollution, global warming, soil degradation, depletion of ozone layer, desertification and destruction of flora and fauna.

## **A: Pollution**

That has its origin in a Latin word 'Polluere' which means contamination of any feature of the environment. Any definition of pollution should take account of the fact that:

- It is not merely the addition of a substance to the environment, but its addition at a rate faster than the environment can accommodate. There are natural levels of chemicals, such as arsenic and mercury in the environment, but only if these levels exceed certain critical values, they can be considered pollutants.
- Pollutants are not only chemicals; forms of energy like heat, sound, alpha-particles, beta-particles and X-rays may also be pollutants.
- To be a pollutant, a material has to be potentially harmful to life. In other words, some harmful effects must be recognized.
- Using the above criteria, it is arguable that there is such a thing as natural pollution.
- We know for example that sulphur dioxide, one product of the combustion of fossil fuels, is a pollutant, and yet 70% of the world's sulphur dioxide is the



result of volcanic activity. To avoid 'natural pollution', some scientists have come to the conclusion that pollution is the result of human activities. It occurs in each of the three main types of habitat: air, land and water.

## **Air Pollution**

### **Definition**

Air pollution refers to the contamination of air by such substances as fuel exhaust and smoke. When the concentration of gases other than oxygen and /or the solid particles increases, the air is said to be polluted. The layer of air, which supports life, extends about 8 km above the earth's surface and is known as the troposphere. While there may be small localized variations in the levels of gases in air, its composition overall remains remarkably constant. All most all air pollutants are gases added to this mixture. Air pollution has existed since humans first used fire, but it is only since the industrial revolution in the 19<sup>th</sup> century that its effects have become significant. Almost all air pollution is the result of burning fossil fuels, either in the home, by industry or in the internal combustion engine.



*Air Pollution*

Air pollution is a serious problem for those living in big, congested, industrialized cities with heavy traffic. The concentration of pollution can vary in different countries and within the country as mixing and natural and artificial barriers hamper dilution of pollutants. Some pollutants do not rise above 600 meters above the earth's surface.

### **Causes**

The causes of air pollution can be categorized in the following types:-

**(a) Natural Causes:**

- (i) Volcanic eruptions that emit sumptuous gases and harmful dust
- (ii) Natural air pollutants, such as pollens, spores, cells of fungi etc.

**(b) Man-made causes:**

Domestic fires, coal-fire power stations- they emit carbon dioxide (Co<sub>2</sub>), sulphure dioxide (So<sub>2</sub>) and hydrocarbons

Automobiles or motor vehicles – They release large amount of Carbon dioxide (Co<sub>2</sub>) [13.7], Carbon monoxide (Co) [77%], Oxides of nitrogen (Nox) [7.7%].

Industries/Factories – release large amount of carbon dioxide (Co<sub>2</sub>), sulphur dioxides (So<sub>2</sub>), smoke and many other compounds.

Agricultural activities – pollute air through the use of insecticides, herbicides and pesticides.

Rockets – destroy the atmosphere into two ways. Firstly, by discharging smoke into the atmosphere. Secondly, by physical destruction of ozone layer.

### **Effects**

**(a) On humans:**

Air pollution can affect our health in many ways with both short-term and long-term effects.

**Short-term effects**

Irritation in the eyes, nose and throat, and upper respiratory infections such as bronchitis and pneumonia.

Other symptoms include headaches, nausea and allergic reactions.

### **Long-term effects**

- (a) Include chronic respiratory diseases, lung cancer, and heart disease, even damage to the brain, nerves, liver and kidneys.
- (b) Increase of government expenditure – The government might be forced to increase health budget for medical and health care of its citizens.
- (c) Lost productivity in the work place due to many people suffering from diseases e.g. TB and Cancer.
- (d) Population decrease – All the diseases associated with air pollution may lead to the death of many people
- (e) On vegetation:
  - Sulphur - dioxide damages crops and other plants
  - Fluoride damages the leaf tissues
  - Photo - chemical smog bleaches and blazes important leafy plants
- (f) On animals  
The Livestock near the industrial areas ingest fluorine compounds that fall on the foliage. This leads to fluorosis i.e. abnormal calcification of bones and teeth. It also results in loss of weight, frequent diarrhea and a lame walk. Effects of pollution on animals are similar to those of human beings.
- (h) On climate, it causes global warming and greenhouse effect. This is the act of the world receiving high temperature or heat due to increase of carbon dioxide and other gases in the air. It also causes acidic rains which affects plant growth and human life.

### **Solutions:**

Air pollution can be controlled in different ways:-

- (a) The population growth should be checked to reduce increase of Carbon dioxide
- (b) Planting a lot of trees can reduce Carbon dioxide in the environment
- (c) Nuclear explosions should be checked and if possible avoided
- (d) Reduction in the use of fossil, fuel (coal, oil and natural gases) by switching to another sources of energy e.g. Solar, biogas, wind, tidal energy etc.
- (e) Installation of air cleaners and scrubbers in the industries to remove soot and smoke.

- (f) The government can enact laws to control and minimize air pollution, eg. to ban smoking in public places.
- (g) Recycling also helps to prevent pollution. It reuses some wastes that otherwise could have been burned

## **Water Pollution**

### **Definition**

Water pollution refers to the contamination of water by such substances as human and animal wastes, toxic chemicals, metals and oil.

### **Causes**

Water pollution occurs through the following sources:

- a) Domestic waste – the pollutants present are excreta, food residue, cleaning agents, detergents, suspended solids, ammoniac nitrogen, cyanide, oil etc.
- b) Agricultural practices – The pollutants present are fertilizers, excess of nitrogen, phosphorous and potassium.

Spraying of agricultural chemicals, such as insecticides, fungicide, nematicides, rodenticides, herbicides and soil fumigants have contributed to water pollution. While practicing agriculture, it releases a lot of chemicals and wastes. Water from rain or melted snow flows from farmland into streams and carries chemical fertilizers and pesticides that farmers have used on their farmland.

- c) Electric power plants and nuclear power stations – These stations need a lot of water for cooling power plants. The hot water released in lakes and rivers causes sudden rise in temperature, hence adversely affecting flora and fauna.
- c) Oil tankers – When being loaded or unloaded or burst in accident, may release oil in water. The oil leaks from the tankers cover the water body. This prevents air from getting into the water and so leads to the death of marine organisms.
- d) Industrial activities - cooling discharge waste chemicals into the rivers, lakes and ocean.
- e) Fishing by using explosive materials like dynamites.
- f) Bombing test in the water bodies

## **Effects of water pollution.**

Spread of diseases like typhoid, cholera, dysentery, diarrhea and others.

Creating unpleasant environment for recreation because floating debris may hinder boating and swimming activities to take place along the beaches.

Mass destruction aquatic life. Oil spilled by ships may kill marine organisms because the oil leakage covers the water body, hence prevent oxygen from getting into the water. The result is dying of marine organisms due to lack of oxygen.

Increase in poverty. People who depend on marine activities as their source of income will be affected economically. Marine activities include fishing, tourism, and transportation.

Bad smell from the water bodies due to decomposition of waste creates unpleasant condition for people around the affected area. Example, area around Sea View, Msasani and Kivukoni in Dar es Salaam.

Colloidal substances cause turbidity of water thus unfit for drinking or industrial use.

Scarcity of safe and clean water for peoples use.

## **Solutions to water pollution:**

(i) Sewage treatment.

The sewage can be treated to prevent it from polluting the water. The most efficient sewage treatment plants use three separate process – primary, secondary and tertiary treatment. Whenever possible, sewage facilities should be available in the houses.

(ii) Treatment of industrial effluents.

The industrial wastes should be treated to remove harmful chemicals before dumping them into water. Industrial wastes can also be reduced by using manufacturing processes that reuse pollution chemical as raw materials.

(iii) Treatment of sewage.

1<sup>st</sup> step: Large and suspended particles are removed.

2<sup>nd</sup> step: Air is supplies to make use of microbial activity to decompose the organic waste compounds. The water is then chlorinated to remove the bacteria.

3<sup>rd</sup> step: Nitrate and phosphates is removed by making the water pass through the iron exchangers. Since sewage treatment is expensive, most of the developing countries like Tanzania apply the first two steps.

- (iv) Boiling of drinking water. Water should be boiled in order to kill germs and other micro-organism that carry various water-borne diseases.
- (v) The Government should enact strict laws against those who cause water pollution. Example industrialists or owners of factories who pump wastes into rivers, lakes and seas must be penalized.



*Water Pollution*

- (vi) Mass education on environment. This education can be offered to students in schools and colleges. It can be provided by non-governmental organizations and government institutions through campaigns on environment including water pollution.
- (vii) People should be discouraged to use chemicals or dynamites in fishing.
- (viii) Proper checking of oil containers to avoid oil spills.

- (ix) People should be discouraged from carrying out activities in prohibited areas, eg. farming in the water catchments areas
- (x) Population control. Rapid population growth has resulted into increased food needs. This means expansion of farm areas and increase in use of fertilizers and pesticides.

## **Soil Pollution.**

### **Definition.**

Land or soil pollution refers to the dumping of wastes in the soil or land. It involves piling up toxic chemical compounds, salts or radioactive materials that can affect plant and animal life.

### **Causes of land or soil pollution.**

Soil pollution can occur due to various causes, such as:

- (i) Dumping of industrial wastes.  
Excess of agrochemicals in the form of agricultural pesticides, fertilizers etc.
- (ii) Dumping of discarded wastes, like paper, food, plastics, ect
- (iii) Air pollution, like acid rain
- (iv) Water pollution, like pollutants finding their way into the soil.
- (v) Discharge from latrines/toilets.
- (vi) Rotten fruits and garbage
- (v) Wastes from public utilities or homestead.
- (vi) Volcanic eruptions
- (vii) Bad farming practices, e.g overgrazing, monoculture, bushfire, etc
- (viii) Mining activities and large constructions.
- (ix) War, including use of landmines.

**Effects of soil pollution.**

- (i) Death of microorganisms, animals and plants due to excessive use of pesticides, herbicides and fertilizers.
- (ii) Famine. Land pollution can lead the soil to lose its fertility and become unproductive. Resulting to poor food production.
- (iv) Debris like rotten garbage can be a source of house flies accumulation which may lead to the outbreak of diseases, like diarrhea, cholera and dysentery.
- (v) Damage of landscape. This is due to scattered food, papers, plastics etc; they tarnish the beauty of the landscape.



*Soil waste*

**Solutions to soil pollutions.**

- (i) Government to enact strict laws to prevent land pollution.
- (ii) Treatment of chemical wastes. Wastes can be treated before they are released, so as to make them harmless.



- (iii) Proper use of artificial fertilizers and pesticides. Use natural or organic manure where possible.
- (iv) Recycling. Example discarded tin cans, bottles, and old vehicles. These items can be processed to be used again, like in making aluminum, cooking pots.
- (v) Mass education on environmental care. By educating people on the importance of environmental protection, will take proper measures against land/soil pollution and degradation.
- (vi) Practice good farming methods, e g fallowing, crop rotation, contour farming, and mixed cropping.
- (vii) Government to emphasize Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) before launching any big project.
- (v) Population explosion control.
- (vi) Afforestation and reforestation.

## **B: Land Degradation.**

### **Definition.**

It is the process through which the uppermost layer of the earth surface is destroyed and turned into useless or unproductive for economic undertakings. Soil degradation involves soil erosion, leaching and increase in salinity and acidity. As well as the decline in fertility.

Land/soil degradation is mainly due to human and natural activities.

### **The causes of soil degradation.**

**Poor agricultural methods** like monoculture, over cropping, cultivating in the slope areas, shifting cultivation and improper use of chemicals.

**Deforestation.** This involves large-scale removal of forest, prior to its replacement for other land use. It causes the land to be bare. Construction of large infrastructure. Building of roads, railways, domestic houses and dams.

**Unplanned mining activities.** Use of dynamites or bombs, that can destroy the land.

**Poverty, illiteracy and ignorance** have contributed a lot to the destruction of the land. Some people do not have awareness of protecting the land and its soil.

**Dumping of toxic wastes.** This may cause land/soil to lose its fertility because of becoming toxic.



*Gully erosion*

**Effects of land /soil degradation.**

- (i) Decrease in agricultural production. This is due to loss of fertility.
- (ii) Destruction of communication systems like roads, railways and bridges caused by soil erosion.
- (iii) Environmental refugees. People move from areas that have been affected by land degradation to other suitable ones.
- (iv) Deforestation. A bare land cannot support the growth of plants.

### **Solutions to land/soil degradation.**

- (i) Reforestation and afforestation. Constant planting of trees in areas previously affected by deforestation and in the new areas.
- (ii) Application of proper farming methods, like crop rotation, inter cropping, contour farming and destocking.
- (iii) Population control. Population should be controlled so as to avoid excessive use of land, which may exhaust it.
- (iv) Government to enact strict laws to protect land from misuse.
- (v) Environmental education to the citizen

### **C. Global Warming.**

**Global warming** refers to the increase in the average temperature of the earth's surface. It is mainly contributed by the increase of gases or accumulation of greenhouse gases in the air. These gases are produced through human activities in industries or factories, from vehicles, ships, airplanes and from burning woods and bushes.

**Green-house effect** refers to the gradual warming of the earth's atmosphere which is thought to be caused by increased level of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>). Ozone occur naturally in the atmosphere while others like Nitrous oxide and Chlorofluorocarbon occur in the atmosphere due to human activities.

Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) contributes half of the effect of all greenhouse gases because of the vast amount vented into the atmosphere at 0.4 percent annually.

Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) are made up of Chlorine, Fluorine and Carbon atoms. CFCs from aerosols, air conditioners, foam packaging and refrigerators are the most damaging of the greenhouse gases.

Nitrous oxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) is produced mainly from motor vehicle exhausts (combustion process) and fertilizer manufacturing plants. It breaks down the ozone layer, and is destructive by 290 times. Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) or natural gas. It comes from fossil fuels, rice cultivation, waste dumps, biomass combustion and ruminants. It affects the concentration of ozone in the atmosphere and causes much of the greenhouse effect.

Human activities have always had an effect on the climate. But with the industrialization, the effects have multiplied. Every year, industrial activities release almost 6,000 millions tons of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere, along with hundreds of millions of tons of other “green-house gases” such as methane and chloro-flouro-carbonates. Forest fires also contribute considerably to the emission of “greenhouse gases”.

Once released in the atmosphere, carbon dioxide remains there for a period between 50 and 200 years. Methane on the other hand, remains for only ten years, but can absorb between 30 and twenty times as much heat as carbon dioxide.

All this makes the temperature of the earth’s crust to increase above the limits of the natural variations. Detailed scientific analyses have shown that the average global temperature of the earth surface has increased by 0.5 degrees in the last hundred years.

The estimated contribution to the increase of the earth’s temperature by different sources of emissions are as follows; 20% from chemical products (CFC’s, halons) 15% from tropical deforestation and 15% from agricultural activities and refuse.

If emission of “green-house gases” continue to increase at their current rate, then by the middle of the next century the temperature could reach the highest level and last for 20,000 years. It could have an unsettling effect on our planet.

## **Causes of Global Warming:**

### **A. Man Made:**

- Fossil fuel- burning of fossil fuels releases carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide is always present in the air. Air consists of about 0.03% carbon dioxide. But there are signs that the amount of carbon dioxide in the earth’s atmosphere is increasing. Carbon dioxide prevents heat to escape from the earth into space. As a result, the earth’s temperature increases. This will lead to melting of the ice caps causing severe flooding because there would more water in seas and oceans.
- Growing industrialization – has contributed a lot to emission of carbon dioxide from vehicles and toxic gases from industries and power plants.
- Deforestation. Is a large-scale removal of forest, prior to its replacement by other land uses. Deforestation enhances global warming because 70% of the oxygen we breathe comes from the photosynthesis in the plants. The mass destruction of trees or forest plants

through incineration and burning releases tones of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. This is the main cause of global warming.

- Increase in population. Increase of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere goes hand in hand with rapid population increase. Man breaths out carbon dioxide, which is one of the major components of greenhouse effect.
- Use of refrigerators, air conditioners using chlorine as a means of cooling
- Perfumes and cosmetics having methane gas.
- Rice farming discharge methane gas which contributes to the ozone layer.
- Bush fires.
- Wars – sophisticated weapons.
- Space exploration activities.

#### **B. Natural Causes:**

- Volcanic eruptions. They release large amounts of gases which lashes into the atmosphere.
- Solar radiation. This is the radiant energy emitted by the sun.
- Winds – carry out dusts and aerosols in the atmosphere.
- Natural fires.

#### **Effects of global warming.**

- Increase in global temperature. The temperature of the earth's crust is increasing above the limits of the natural variations. Between 1980 and 1990 the earth's crust experienced the eight hottest years of the whole of the century.
- Rise in the sea level due to melting ice. Increase of temperature has led to the melting of ice and therefore increases water volume, which has resulted into floods in many parts of the world.
- Disappearing of lowlands and islands. Due to rise in sea level, the lowlands countries and some islands will disappear.
- Destructive rains. When the land surface becomes warm rapidly than oceans this causes very heavy rains and floods. For example, El-Nino.

- Drought and famine. Due to climatic changes that may result into long period of drought (La-Nino), and changes rainfall patterns. The areas, that formally experienced enough rain, would turn into dry land, hence drought and famine.
- Outbreak of diseases. The ultra violet radiations that reach the earth surface, warm it and can cause damage of human skin (skin cancer). Can also cause eye problems and affect the immunity of the body system as well as vitamin D Synthesis.
- Disturbance of ecosystem. A large number of species survive on specific habitat requirements (e.g. forest, water, and marshy areas). Any climatic changes will have an adverse effect on such species.
- Spread of diseases e.g. Malaria which is endemic in this country.
- Psychotically disturbance.



*Air Pollution*

## **Solutions to global warming.**

Reduce greenhouse gas emissions. This can be done by restricting the use and make use of substitute. E.g. The adoption of biogas technologies, which convert methane from manure into energy.

Afforestation and reforestation. Planting of many trees is very important in combating the global warming, because plants have the ability to absorb most of the greenhouse gases, like Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and produce oxygen.

Population control. Human beings emit a lot of Carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. They are also responsible for depletion of natural resources like forests. Increased population lead to more demand for food and shelter, hence people are forced to clear land for new settlements and agriculture that contribute to deforestation.

Avoid burning of fossil fuel (coal, oil and fuel wood) that emit Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>). Other sources of energy can be used such as wind, hydroelectric power and solar.

Anvil education: people should be educated on how protect trees, family planning and use of renewable sources of energy.

International community to adhere to International Protocol Treaties related to global warming.

## **D: Depletion of Ozone Layer.**

### **Introduction.**

Ozone is a form of oxygen (O<sub>3</sub>). The ozone layer is a protective layer that filters out much of sun's harmful ultra-violet radiation. The stratosphere is the layer of the atmosphere between 16km (10 miles) and 50km (30miles) above sea level. It is rich in ozone, the same molecule that acts as a pollutant when found at a lower level of the atmosphere in urban smog. Up at the stratospheric level, however, ozone forms a productive layer that serves a vital function. It absorbs the wavelength of solar radiation known as ultraviolet-B (UV-B). UV-B damages deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), the genetic molecule found in energy living cells, increasing the risk of occurring problems such as cancer in humans. Because of its protective function, the ozone layer is essential to life on earth.



*Ozone layer*

**I. The main cause of depletion of ozone layer.**

Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) are the main cause of ozone layer depletion. It is the class of chemical used in refrigeration, insulation, foam, and in several manufacturing processes. CFC molecules are virtually indestructible until they reach the atmosphere. Here, intense ultraviolet radiation breaks the CFC molecules apart, releasing the chlorine atoms being reacting with ozone, breaking it down into ordinary oxygen molecules that do not absorb UV-B. The chlorine acts as catalyst that is, it takes part in several chemical reactions yet at the end emerges unchanged and able to react again.

A single chlorine atom can destroy up to 100,000 ozone molecules in the stratosphere. Other pollutant including nitrous oxide from fertilizers and the pesticides methyl bromide, also attack atmospheric ozone. Under this process the protective ozone layer in the stratosphere becomes thin and allows the radiation to reach the earth.

**II. Effects of ozone layer depletion.**

1. *Outbreak of diseases.* Diseases such a skin cancer, more cataracts (clouding of the lens of the eye).



2. *Reduction of yields of some food crops* due to change of rainfall pattern and frequent events like storms, drought and typhoons.
4. *Climatic change.* The decrease in ozone layer allows more ultra violet radiation to reach the earth's surface, which warms it and can thus cause changes in the surface temperature.
6. *Rising of sea level.* It is predicted that sea level rises will occur at about 6cm per decade over the next century because of thermal expansion and melting of some land ice.
8. *Disappearance of some plant and animal species* due to hostile climaticall changes that affect specific requirements e.g. Forest or mountainous requirement.

### III. Solutions to depletion of ozone layer.

Ozone layer is destroyed mainly by toxic gases like Carbon dioxide, Nitrous oxide, Methane and Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs).

Therefore all measures required to stop air pollution are directly connected to finding solutions to avoid ozone layer destruction. Such measures include:

- i. In factories, installing devices like scrubbers to remove sulphur oxide and some other pollutants before they reach the air, can prevent air pollution by power plants and incinerators..
- ii. Use of alternative sources of energy that reduce depletion of ozone layer. For example hydrochlofluoro-carbons which causes only 15% depletion of ozone layer. Whereas (CFCs causes 80%). Bromine or Halon compounds are mostly used in fire extinguishers.
- iii. Afforestation and reforestation which contribute to reduction of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere.
- iv. Education on environment. People should be given environmental education so as to be aware of proper maintenance of their environment and to avoid all activities that may lead to environmental degradation and pollution.
- v. Strict laws should be imposed and implemented by the government against those who are responsible for any activities that may lead to environmental degradation and pollution For example burning the forests/ bush fires.

## **E: Desertification.**

### **Introduction.**

A desert is a large land, which has very little water and scanty or no plants at all.

Desertification is the development of a desert or a process of making desert caused by either human activities or natural factors. Or is an irreversible decline in the land productivity. Desertification is a particular problem in dryland used for grazing. Human made deserts are very common in Africa and Asia.

In Tanzania, some parts of Mwanza, Shinyanga and Dodoma are experiencing a desertification process.

### **The main causes of desertification.**

- i. Deforestation. Constant cutting down of trees for agricultural and other economic activities has greatly led to desertification. Trees are sources of rainfall. It means if trees are cut down there would be no rain, hence drought and finally desertification.
- ii. Poor agricultural practices. Cultivating on the slope areas can lead to soil erosion ultimately desertification.
- iii. Rapid population growth. An increase in population results into the exploitation of natural vegetation, which leads to desertification.
- iv. Energy and mining. Open mining activities make the land exhausted and unproductive, hence desertification.
- v. Burning of bushes and forests which make the land bare, results into desertification
- vi. Volcanic eruptions.
- vii. Floods – erode the upper layer of soils
- viii. Natural fire – burning the vegetation cover
- ix. Climatic changes – prolonged drought.



*Desert*

**Effects of desertification.**

- i. Loss of biodiversities
- ii. Shortage of rainfall. Constant cutting of trees may lead to shortage of rainfall, and therefore low moisture in the soil.
- iii. Reduction of arable land due to the advancement of deserts. This may lead to food shortages.
- iv. Soil erosion and unproductive land.

**Solutions to desertification.**

- i. Reforestation and afforestation. Replanting trees in areas where the old ones had been cut down and in new areas.
- ii. Population control. Controlling the birth rates (family planning) may reduce exploitation of natural vegetation, which is being depleted due to the population pressure. For example, farm land, building materials, settlements and so forth.

- iii. Mass education. People should be educated on how to protect the environment and land management.
- iv. Government should enact laws to protect land. Such as laws to ensure proper farming practices.
- v. Proper farming methods such as contour and intensive farming will decrease the area for crop production.
- vi. Use alternative source of energy. Example solar, electricity, and biogas. This may reduce the rate of cutting down trees for fuel.
- v. Government may declare protected areas. This will prevent human activities that are related to environmental destruction, like logging, farming, and grazing

## **F. Depletion of Flora and Fauna.**

### **Introduction.**

Flora means plant kingdom e.g. forests. Forests mean thick growth of trees and bushes covering large areas.

Fauna means animal kingdom e.g. wildlife. Wildlife refers to all wild animals and birds living in their natural environment.

### **Wildlife.**

Wildlife refers to all wild animals, birds, and plants living in their natural environment. Such animals include antelopes, elephants, lions, giraffe, birds, insects and other minute organisms that live above or under the soil.

### **Importance of wildlife:**

- i. Hides, timber
- ii. Medicinal herbs
- iii. Food – meat, honey,
- iv. Tourism
- v. National identity
- vi. National revenue.



### *Wildlife*

There are so many activities, that contribute to reduction of fauna in many parts of Africa and Tanzania in particular. Such activities include:

- i. Encroachment of wildlife areas for human settlement or economic activities.
- ii. Indiscriminate hunting and killing of wild animals within and around designated areas.
- iii. Removal of vegetation for any purpose.
- iv. Pollution of aquatic ecosystem by agro-chemicals and industrial waste.
- v. Indiscriminate burning of forests and grassland areas within and around wildlife areas.
- vi. The increase of tourism activities within the designated areas, like construction and littering.
- vii. Breaking of the rules and regulations, e.g. giving the wildlife food stuff while sightseeing.
- viii. Laxity in law enforcement to protect the wildlife and natural vegetation.
- ix. Uncontrolled game cropping.

- x. The endangered species to be given protection by law, for example rhinoceros and elephants.
- xi. Control animal's diseases. This can be done by opening veterinary clinics and minimizing encroachment of human and domesticated animals.
- xii. Stop unlawful hunting (poaching).

**Forests:**

Forests are thick growth of trees and bushes covering a large area. Forests are very important for domestic use, e.g furniture, building materials, and fuel wood.

Vegetation acts as a protective cover for soil. Forest trees regulate the climate and attract rainfall. Various creatures live in forests. Some species need specific habitat to survive like rain forests.



*Forests*

Economic benefits. Some people depend on forests for their economic survival, such as logs, pulp papers, medicine, honey and nuts.

## **Deforestation**

Refers to turning the forested areas to non-forest land. The removal or destruction of significant areas of forest cover has resulted in a degraded environment with reduced biodiversity. In many African countries, particularly Tanzania, massive deforestation is taking place and reshaping the climate and geography. Deforestation is a result of removal of trees without corresponding reforestation.

### **Causes of deforestation**

- i. **Urbanization;** deforestation occurs where there is a rapid urbanization, which results in demand for construction of houses, industries, roads, railways and dams.
- ii. **Population increase** – rapid population increase lead to more demand for food, hence clearing new areas for food production to feed the increasing population. This encourages cutting down of trees for new settlement, including building materials like timber.
- iii. **Construction of infrastructure** – infrastructures like roads, railways, harbors, airports and so forth involve cutting down of many trees for construction purpose. This may accelerate deforestation.
- iv. **Source of energy** – need for fuel wood and charcoal has contributed to cutting down the forest trees. Poverty is the main reason because poor people cannot afford use of electricity and electrical or gas cookers. Thus opt for cheap energy source which is fire wood.
- v. **Poor farming methods** the process of shifting cultivation leads to cutting down many trees to create place for cultivation. Bush fire which is used to clear land for cultivation destroys a lot of trees and the natural soil cover.
- vi. **Extraction of minerals** – energy and mining projects involve cutting down trees to allow mining projects, this accelerate deforestation process.
- vii. Development of science and technology. Some development require use of forest products.
- viii. Wars and conflicts
- ix. Herbs extraction
- xi. Volcanic eruptions
- xii. Climatical changes

### **Consequences of deforestation.**

- i. Soil degradation – Cutting down trees may lead to the removal of the vegetation cover, resulting to degradation of the top soil.
- ii. Draught – Forest attract rainfall, cutting down trees makes a bare land and increases precipitation, hence drought.
- iii. Famine – Lack of rainfall may lead into famine, because the land will not be able to produce to its maximum capacity.
- iv. Floods – Trees or vegetation provide protective cover when there is plenty of water over flow.
- v. The presence of the vegetation cover check water flows and minimize soil erosion.
- vi. Depletion of forest resource – There are many resources available from the forests such as honey, medicine, timber, fruits etc. Local communities depend on these forest resources for their livelihood. Depletion of these resources may lead to shortages of such resources.
- v. Depletion of valuable forest species. Forest creates homes for many endengared species like bees, birds, trees, bacteria and so forth. Disappearance of forests means disappearance of such species.

### **Solutions to deforestation.**

- i. Reforestation and a forestation. More trees should be planted in the new and the old areas.
- ii. Government policy. Some forests may be declared as protected areas by law.
- iii. Population control. Population should be controlled to reduce pressure on land for human activities in the forested areas.
- iv. Mass education – Environmental education should be given to people on how to protect environment, including wanton destruction of trees and shrubs.
- v. Proper farming methods – Scientific farming methods should be developed like intensive agriculture, crop rotation fallowing and contouring.



## **Solutions to Environmental Problems**

### **A: Waste Management**

Waste means anything which is no longer of use. It can be solid or liquid in nature. Solid wastes are things like wood products, paper, food residues, plastics and crop remains.

Liquid wastes are things like sewage wastes and industrial effluent (acids, bases etc).

#### **Sources of wastes:**

- i) Industries – Chemical wastes, radioactive wastes, plastic materials etc.
- ii) Farms- Crop remains

#### **Impact of wastes:**

- i) Environmental pollution affecting water, air and land.
- ii) Production of harmful bacteria- This can lead to outbreaks and spread of diseases like cholera, dysentery, bilharzias, typhoid etc.
- iii) Toxic chemicals can kill both animals and plants.

Proper waste management will minimize the degree of environmental degradation and pollution.

The following ways can be applied.

- i. Recycling :  
It involves the use of wastes as a raw material to produce the same item or a different one. E.g. glass, metal and paper materials can be recycled.
- ii. Sewage can be treated and reused for irrigation purposes. This is possible when there is a proper developed sewage system.
- iii. Wastes collection: Wastes can be collected and dumped in specified areas.
- iv. Provision of sanitation services. E.g. garbage removing services. People can also be mobilized to pay for such services.
- v. Wastes can be used with an economic end. E.g. to provide biogas and organic fertilizer.

#### **Constraints to Waste Management: (Especially In Urban Areas)**

- i. Lack of appropriate technology e.g.: for recycling waste products.

- ii. Lack of adequate resources e.g.: trucks for collecting and disposing of the wastes.
- iii. Poor urban planning: It is very difficult to construct proper drainage system in an unplanned locations, e.g. Manzese.
- iv. Lack of general education on environmental awareness among the majority of people.
- v. Poor enforcement of by-laws regarding waste disposal e.g. dumping garbage in unauthorized areas.

**B: Proper Handling of Dangerous Materials and Chemicals:**

Dangerous materials are substances or matters, that when misused have a negative impact on the environment. E.g. Nuclear power systems – if nuclear leak occurs the destructive impacts of such nuclear diffusion is beyond measure. It can destroy living organism and human life.

Dangerous chemicals are substances that are used for various scientific and biological purposes. If such chemicals are improperly or excessively used have adverse impact on the environment. e.g.: Improper or excessive used of artificial fertilizers in agriculture can cause solid degradation. Excessive use of pesticides could lead to health hazards and environmental problems.

**C: Proper Utilization of Natural Resources:**

A resource is anything useful to man in his various days – to day activities.

Natural resources are anything that occur in a natural state and can be used by man. Such as air, soil, water, forests and minerals.

Natural resources can either be renewable (one that will not run out) or non – renewable (once used, it is no longer useful).

Minerals are non – renewable resources. Whereas air, water, soil are renewable resources.

As these resources are very useful man has been exploiting them to the extent that even the renewable ones are being depleted to an irreplaceable extent. This has led to an alarming environmental degradation at an alarming speed.

### **Reasons for Mismanagement of Resources.**

- i. Poverty – this has led people to excessive use of cheap resources, like trees for firewood and shelter.
- ii. Population increase – This has led people to clear land for new settlements and food production.
- iii. Poor technology–Use of primitive tools and methods in farming, fishing and mining.
- iv. Lack of international co-operation. Some natural resources cut – across national boundaries, e.g. lakes, minerals and wildlife.
- v. Lack of alternative sources of energy – Most poor people cannot afford other sources of energy such as electricity and gas.
- vi. Corruption - By corrupting, one can misuse or overharvest the natural resources.

### **Proper Management of Resources**

There are several ways of managing properly the natural resources:

- i. Introduction of appropriate technology - The selection of technologies for specific tasks is a prerequisite for an environment - balanced development
- ii. International co-operation is very important in dealing with environmental problems such as pollution and sharing of natural resources that cross over our boundaries.
- iii. There should be a systematic planning in order to enhance afforestation research and development
- iv. A responsible government should check the population increase.
- v. More equitable distribution of wealth between poor and rich.
- vi. Provide education and training on management of natural resources through campaigns and seminars to increase public awareness.

### **G. Natural Hazards, Catastrophies and Epidemics**

*Natural hazards* are events that occur in nature through natural forces and when they occur put life of living things in danger or at risk.

**Catastrophe** refers to disaster or calamity, which causes destruction of properties, as well as the environment. Catastrophes are caused by hazardous events.

**Epidemics** refer to the rapid spread of diseases among many people in the same area, for example cholera and typhoid.

**Hazardous events:** Include things such as earthquakes, floods, drought and famine, volcanic eruption and storms.

## **EARTHQUAKES**

An earthquake is a sudden tremor or movement of the earth's crust, which originates naturally at or below the earth's surface. At the earth's surface, earthquakes manifest themselves by a shaking and sometimes displacement of the ground. When a large earthquake epicenter is located offshore the seabed sometimes suffers sufficient displacement to cause a tsunami.

The shaking in earthquakes can also trigger landslides and occasionally volcanoes. In its most generic sense, the word earthquake is used to describe any seismic event, whether a natural phenomenon or an event caused by humans which generates seismic waves.



*An earthquake at its worst*

### **Causes of Earthquakes:**

Earthquakes are caused mostly by rupture of geological faults, but also by volcanic activity, landslides, nuclear experiments and mine blasts.

### **Rupture of geological faults**

- i. ***Volcanic activity*** – earthquakes are linked to explosive volcanic eruptions. They are very common in areas of volcanic activities where they either proceed or accompany eruptions. The violence eruptions of molten rock from the interior up to the earth surface may lead to sudden shake of the earth surface.
- ii. ***Geological faults*** – They occur when a rock underground suddenly breaks along a fault. This sudden release of energy causes the seismic waves that make the ground shake.
- iii. ***Human activities*** such as deep mining, construction of large dams and nuclear plants have been linked to occurrence of earthquakes.
- iv. Falling of heavy objects
- v. Tectonic movements.
- vi. Explosives e.g. bombs.

### **Effects of Earthquakes:**

The severity of the local effects depends on the magnitude and complex combination of the earthquake, the distance from epicenter, and the local geological and geomorphologic conditions, that may amplify or reduce wave propagation.

Therefore, earthquakes have great disastrous effects on the environment and man as follows:

- i. High death toll. They cause loss of people's life. For example in Iran 2003 it killed over 10,000 people.
- ii. Damage of cities and farmlands e.g. in 2004 many towns and crop fields were destroyed in Iran.
- iii. Damage of infrastructures - This occurs because of fire outbreaks in towns or cities. This can be caused by faults in the electrical power or gas lines.
- iv. Landslides and rock falls – This may cause damage in hilly and mountainous areas.
- v. Outbreak of diseases – This may be caused by faulty sewage systems. Sewage spillage can cause diseases like cholera and diarrhea.
- vi. Tsunami – undersea earthquakes and earthquake – triggered landslides into the sea can cause Tsunamis

- vii. They can raise or lower coastal rocks.
- viii. They can raise or lower parts of the sea floor.
- ix. They can cause outbreaks of fire.
- x. They can cause famine.



*Tsunami catastrophe*

**Precautionary measures against earthquakes**

- i. Refrain from building sky – scraper structures in areas of constant earthquakes risk.
- ii. Avoid constructing large dams.
- iii. Discourage use of explosives like nuclear and bombs testing, finishing by using bombs or dynamites.
- iv. Detect the occurrence of the earthquakes regularly
- v. Educate the citizens on this issue.
- vi. Alarm warning system should be installed in earthquake prone areas.

## FLOODS

Floods are natural events. They occur when there is heavy rainfall that fills the rivers and streams above their normal capacity, or if there is a very high coastal tide that causes levels to rise or surge. The excess water that gathers cannot be restrained by normal boundaries and follows along the path of least resistance.

This means areas that are low lying and close to sources of a flood are covered or submerged under water.



*Floods in a residential area*

### **Types of floods:**

- i. River floods – It is overflowing of water from the riverbanks and it is mainly caused by heavy rains, which results into the increase of the water level. It occurs when the strength of the river is so high it flows right out of the river bank.
- ii. Estuarine floods – commonly caused by a combination of sea tidal surges caused by storm force of winds.
- iii. Coastal floods – caused by severe sea storms, or because of other hazards – e.g. tsunami or hurricane.

- iv. Catastrophic floods – caused by either dam breakage or other hazards, like earthquake or volcanic eruption.
- v. Lake – shore floods – Overflowing lakes due to increased water inflow.

### **Causes of floods**

Floods may be contributed by two main causes, natural and man – made causes.

#### **Natural causes**

- i. Heavy rainfall accompanied by thunderstorm. Floods of this type are very common in the humid tropics.
- ii. Glacier melting – increase of temperature on the earth is one of the major reasons that contribute to glacier melting, hence floods.
- iii. The size of the river channel - Floods occur in many dry regions because there are narrow steep sided drainage channels.
- iv. Topography / relief - The lowland areas are most affected than the highland areas.
- v. Rock type – Impermeable rock can absorb water and reduce the degree of floods, but permeable rock will allow water to flow quickly, hence accelerate the degree of floods.

#### **Man – made causes**

- i. Deforestation – Trees and shrubs are effective in checking water flow.
- ii. Human activities such as nuclear tests, dam's construction and bombs or dynamite fishing are responsible for floods.
- iii. Poor drainage system – well established drainage system may help overflowed water to follow the drainage system and avoid floods.

#### **Effects of floods**

- i. Contamination of water, hence water born diseases, like cholera.
- ii. Destruction of infrastructure, such as roads, railways and bridges.
- iii. Destruction of land, include farms and crops hence famine.
- iv. Loss of people's lives and properties.

#### **Precautionary measures**

- i. Construction of reservoirs and dams along the floodly plains.
- ii. To discourage human settlements on lowlands like Jangwani in Dar es Salaam.



- iii. Construction of floodways which would direct the excess flood water to rivers or lakes.
- iv. Afforestation and reforestation programmes – forest cover along the river bank and valley may protect areas prone to floods.
- v. Forecasting and warning; Inform people on flood occurrences and precautionary measures to take.
- vi. Refrain from activities that pollute and catalyse global warming. This is the main source of glacier melting.

## **DROUGHT AND FAMINE**

### **Introduction.**

Drought is a prolonged condition of dryness (dry weather) due to inadequate rainfall or lack of rainfall.

A serious drought in a country can lead to collapse of economy, which depend on cash crop production, or to a country whose majority population depend on farming for their livelihood, like Tanzania.

Famine is a state of acute food shortage. Drought and famine compliment each other in a sense that when there is drought there would be no rain and where there is no rain, agricultural activities are crippled. Hence crop failure and famine.

### **Causes of drought and famine**

#### **Drought:**

##### **The natural causes**

- i. Shifting of global wind system
- ii. Global warming – is the increase in the average temperature of the earth's surface. One of the effects of global warming is the desertification phenomenon.

##### **Man – made causes.**

- i. Deforestation – Trees attract rainfall, cutting down trees (deforestation) leave the place bare and without precipitation, hence drought.
- ii. Poor farming methods, like overgrazing, bushfire, over cultivation, and soil erosion.

- iii. Desertification – is a process which turns previous fertile land to a state of aridity due to human activities that cause environmental pollution and degradation e.g. removal of the natural land cover.

### **Effects of drought**

- i. Desertification – it eliminates biological life in the affected area.
- ii. Depletion of vegetation covers hence soil erosion.
- iii. Environmental refugees – people may be forced to migrate to other places.
- iv. Occurrence of malnutrition, e.g. Kwashakor and Marasmus.
- v. Hunger which may lead to loss of people's lives.



*Drought*

### **Precautionary measures against drought.**

- i. Introduce systematic afforestation and reforestation programmes.
- ii. Destocking: pastoral communities to be educated on the importance of reducing the population of livestock.
- iii. Growing of more resistant food crops such as millets and sorghum.
- iv. Introduction of new sources of energy like biogas, solar, in order to minimize use of trees.
- v. Introduction of appropriate technologies that would not endanger the environment.

**Famine: causes:**

- i. Widespread failure of crops – This is because of constant droughts.
- ii. Wars and Civil disturbances – existence of civil wars in many African countries have contributed a lot to famine. Instead of people engaging in production activities they found themselves becoming refugees e.g. Congo (DRC), Sudan, Rwanda, Burundi and Somalia.
- iii. Natural hazards like floods and hurricanes.
- iv. Poor food management. Most of small-scale farmers do not apply modern storage technologies. Moreover the national food reserves last for one or two years, compared to many developed countries where the reserves last over 10 years.
- v. Poverty – this is a state of a person or country unable to meet the basic necessities of life e.g. food, shelter and clothing. Poor farmers cannot afford to buy farm implements, pesticides, fertilizers or apply irrigation.
- vi. Drought – is another cause of famine because without precipitation no agriculture activities can be carried out.
- vii. Crop pests and diseases.
- viii. High prices of farm inputs
- ix. Relying one cash crop.
- x. Deaths – scarcity of food may increase the number of people dying.
- xi. Outbreak of diseases due to malnutrition.
- xii. Production in many sectors may stop because hungry people cannot work.
- xiii. Increase of government expenditure, government spends more money to feed people.
- xiv. Rural – urban migration - Influx of people from villages to towns hoping to get jobs and good life. This leads to social evils like robbery, prostitution and drug abuse.

**Solutions to famine:**

- i. Promote irrigation – Instead of depending on seasonal rains.
- ii. Apply proper methods of pest control.
- iii. Maintain good governance and democracy in order to avoid civil wars.
- iv. Government to plan programmes that may enable farmers to get soft loans. These will enable them to buy farm implements and inputs.

- v. Government to construct modern storage facilities that will function for very many years.

## **VOLCANIC ERUPTIONS**

### **Introduction.**

A Volcano is an opening or a rupture in a planet’s surface or crust, which allows hot, molten rock, ash, and gases to escape from below the surface. Volcanic activity involving the extrusion of rock tends to form mountains or features like mountains over a period. Volcanoes are generally found where tectonic plates are pulled apart or come together.

Volcanic eruption is associated with volcanic. This process includes various ways by which molten rocks and gases are forced into the earth’s crust and on its surface. Magma reaches the surface either quietly or with great violence a case is referred to as volcanic eruptions. Africa has not experienced major volcanic eruptions. The greatest concentration of volcanoes is found in the eastern pacific, going from the very tip of Eastern Asia up to Japan, and also on the west coast of America. This distribution pattern forms a ring shape, and is called the “Pacific ring of fire



*Volcanic Eruptions*

## **How does a volcanic eruption occur?**

### **1. *Divergent plate boundaries***

It occurs when two tectonic plates diverge from one another. Most divergent plate boundaries are at the bottom of the oceans, therefore most volcanic activity is submarine, forming new seafloor. Where the mid – oceanic ridge is above sea level, volcanic islands are formed, for example Iceland

### **2. *Convergent plate boundaries***

It occurs when two plates, usually an oceanic plate and continental plate collide. As a result, the oceanic plate submerges under the continental plate forming a deep ocean trench just offshore. When magma reaches the surface, a volcano is formed. Example Mount Etna and the volcanoes in the Pacific Ring of Fire.

### **3. *Hot pots.***

They are not located on the ridges of tectonic plates, but above mantle plumes, where the convection of Earth's mantle creates a column of hot material that rises until it reaches the crust. New volcano is formed as the plate shifts over the hotspot.

## **Effects of volcanic eruption:**

- i. Human life – volcanoes release poisonous gas, which is dangerous to human health.
- ii. Settlements: People's homes are destroyed leaving them homeless.
- iii. It is also accompanied by earthquakes that again cause a lot of destruction.
- iv. Pollution – It causes air pollution due to released particles in the atmosphere. - Land + water.
- v. Lava plain provides excellent fertile land for agriculture.
- vi. Global warming – It releases gas, like carbon dioxide which contributes to global warming.
- v. Destruct vegetation cover and living organism.

## **Positive effects**

1. Precious metals
2. Building materials (stones)
3. Fertile soil
4. Tourist attractions
5. Climatic changes.

### **Precautionary measures against volcanic eruptions.**

- i. Mass education. People should be given education on signs of volcanic – eruptions, precaution measures, and rescue operations.
- ii. Migration – people should be advised to evacuate from places where volcanic mountains are still active. They should move to safe places.
- iii. Setting up monitoring and emergency alarm system using new technology. This will help to rescue people on time.

### **STORM.**

#### **Introduction.**

A storm is any disturbed state of an astronomical body's atmosphere, especially affecting its surface, and strongly implying severe weather. It may be marked by strong wind, thunder-storm and lighting, heavy precipitation, or wind transporting some substance through the atmosphere. In a nutshell, storm means any sudden, severe increase in air motion.



*Heavy Storm*

### **Types of storms:**

There are many varieties and names for storms.

1. Ice storms – They are among the most dangerous forms of winter weather.
2. Snowstorm - A heavy fall of snow accumulating at a rate of 2 inches per hour which can last for several hours.
3. Ocean Storm – storm conditions out at sea. Can sink vessels of all types and sizes.
4. Firestorm – Are conflagrations, which attain such intensity that they create and sustain their own wind systems. It is created during extremely large bushfires, forest fires, and wildfires.
5. Dust devil – A small, localized updraft of rising air.
6. Windstorm – A severe weather condition indicated by high winds and with little or no rain, like European windstorm.
7. Thunderstorm – Is a type of storm which generates lightning and the attendant thunder. It is caused by rapid expansion and contraction of the air, resulting from electrocution discharges that generate intensive heat.
8. Tornadoes – They are violent, destructive windstorm occurring on land. Rotating storms, contained by dust and various small particles.
9. Hurricanes – Are large, violent tropical storms with convergent winds rotating about a low pressure centre. They are usually accompanied by heavy precipitation that can result in disastrous floods.

### **Effects of storms:**

- i. Loss of lives of people and destruction of properties.
- ii. Heavy and destructive rainfalls cause floods.
- iii. Destruction of infrastructures + communication.
- iv. Destruct sewage system
- v. Economic standstill.

### **Precautionary measures against storms.**

- i. Warning systems – people should be alert about impending storm through weather forecasts and warning alarms, so that they can be ready to evacuate.

- ii. Control global warming to avoid excessive temperature in the atmosphere, which results into destructive rains accompanied by lightning.
- iii. Emergency services should be accessible at all time.
- iv. Education on how to deal with storms.

## **HIV / AIDS**

AIDS is an abbreviation for Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome. It is a transmissible disease of the immune system. It is caused by a virus known as HIV-Human Immunodeficiency Virus. This virus slowly attacks and destroys the immune system (the body defense against disease). It also weakens the human body, therefore leaving it prone to other infections. The final stage of HIV infection is **AIDS** where the human body develops fatal infections.

An infected individual may show no signs of illness and remains healthy for a long period up to ten (10) years before developing AIDS (the last stage of HIV infection).

### **Origin of HIV/AIDS**

It was first reported in 1981 by investigators in New York and California (USA) from homosexual men, who contracted the Virus primarily through sexual contact and by intravenous drug users who became infected by sharing contaminated needles. In 1983 French and American researchers isolated the causative agent of HIV, and by 1985 serological tests to detect the virus had been developed.

### **HIV/AIDS in Africa**

It spread to Africa in 1980s, which was mainly facilitated by factors like increasing urbanization and long distance travel in Africa, international travel, changing sexual mores and intravenous drug use.

### **HIV/AIDS in East Africa.**

It was first experienced in early 1980s in Uganda and Western regions of Tanzania particularly Kagera region which neighbours Uganda. It was nicknamed as **Juliana**, the shirts from Uganda or **Slim** as the infected person become very thin. It was also associated with witchcraft since it developed signs and symptoms that were never experienced before.

### **Statistics of HIV/AIDS**

According to the United States 2004 report on HIV/AIDS, some **38** million people are living with HIV/AIDS, approximately **5** million people become infected annually and about **3** million people die each year from AIDS.



Some **20** million people have died of this disease since 1981. People living in Sub-Sahara Africa account for some **70%** of all victims. Therefore this is higher rate compared to other parts of the world.

In US nearly one million people are living with HIV/AIDS and half of all new infections are among African-Americans.

In Asia, the increasing rates of HIV infections are found in China, Indonesia and Vietnam. In Europe, the rate of HIV infections is higher in Eastern Europe than in the Western Europe, this is due to the level of development.

Statistics show that regions that are less developed, especially in the Africa continent are more affected compared to the developed regions.

### **Researches on HIV/AIDS**

There are a number of researches conducted on HIV/AIDS. A research conducted in Guinea Bissau and Cape Verde in 1985 came out with two types of virus, namely HIV1 and HIV2, but after further investigation these two viruses were found to be identical since both of them infect the same human blood cells, but their genetic materials differ in incubation period. HIV2 takes longer time than HIV1. However in 1987, the World Health Assembly described HIV as a natural occurring retrovirus of undermined geographical origin.

In 2004, a group of researchers realized that the number of infected people aged between 20-29 years were 7% in Mainland Tanzania and 1% in Zanzibar. The victims are affected by living in a difficult life due to poverty, stigmatization and lack of proper care.

### **Mode of transmission.**

HIV is transmitted by direct transfer of bodily fluids such as blood, semen and other genital sections or breast milk from an infected person to an uninfected person. The primary means of transmission worldwide is heterosexual intercourse with an infected individual; the virus can enter the body through the lining of the vagina, penis, rectum or mouth.

HIV frequently spreads among intravenous drug users who share needles or syringes. Prior to the development of the screening procedures and heat-treating techniques which destroy HIV in blood products, transmission also occurred through contaminated hemophilia contracted HIV in this way. Transmission also occurs to health care workers by an accidental stick with a needle used to obtain blood from an infected person. HIV can also be transmitted across the placenta or through the breast milk from mother to infant, administration of antiretroviral medications to both the mother and infant around the time of birth reduces the chance for a child to be infected with HIV. Other sexually transmitted diseases like

syphilis, genital herpes, gonorrhoea and chlamydia, increase the risk of contracting HIV through sexual contact, probably through the genital lesions which they cause.

AIDS is a zoonosis, an infection which is shared by humans and lower vertebrate animals. A virus which is genetically similar to HIV has been found in chimpanzees in Western Equatorial Africa. Interestingly, this virus known as Simian Immunodeficiency Virus (SIV), does not readily cause disease in chimpanzees. The practice of hunting and butchering chimpanzees for meat may have allowed transmission of the virus to human beings, probably in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. A different form of SIV which infects African green monkeys may have given rise to the virus called HIV2 which cause AIDS, but it does so more slowly than HIV1. The worldwide common Human Immunodeficiency Virus is HIV1. HIV2 is found mostly in Western Africa.

### **How HIV/AIDS is not transmitted.**

It is not transmitted by coughing, sneezing, casual contact like shaking hands, sleeping together with an infected person, sharing toilets, hugging, kissing, mosquitoes biting etc

### **Signs and symptoms of HIV/AIDS.**

HIV/AIDS is associated with many physical and emotional problems, such as;

- Neurological problems like HIV encephalopathy also known as AIDS dementia caused by direct infection of brain cells by HIV, toxoplasmosis, caused by a protozoan infection.
- Many AIDS patients develop cancers like Kaposi Sarcoma (KS) and B-cell lymphoma's which is caused by the cancerous transformation of cells in the skin, or internal organs resulting in purple, lesions on the skin, lungs, gastrointestinal.
- Viral opportunistic infections, especially with members of herpes virus family are common in AIDS patients. They result in progressive oral, genital and perianal lesions.
- AIDS patients suffer from fever, loss of weight, anaemia and diarrhea.
- AIDS patients are mostly affected by fungal infections, like thrush-infection of the mouth caused by the fungus *Candida*, esophageal candidiasis-affecting the throat.

### **Prevention of HIV/AIDS.**

HIV/AIDS is a completely preventable disease, because the routes of transmission are well documented and known. It is clear that up to now a reliable protective vaccine is not available. In the absence of vaccine, the only means of preventing the spread of infection is to avoid risky behaviors that may cause transmission. This has been the main focus of AIDS education campaigns throughout the world.

### **Treatment of HIV/AIDS.**

Till now there is no a cure or effective vaccine for HIV infection, but there are many efforts to discover the vaccine or treatment.

### **Socio-economic impacts of HIV/AIDS.**

- Increase of poverty due to loss of productive/energetic people, especially those aged between 20-49 years.
- Increase of dependants especially the children aged 0-14 years, due to the death of their parents or other people who were supporting them.
- Disruption of families and increase of the street children. This happens after the death of one spouse and the remaining one not in a position to support the entire family as previous.
- Stigmatization, this occurs when HIV/AIDS victims are isolated by other members of the community for the fear of being infected.
- Low expectations, infected people are given low expectations in activities they perform. Anything they do is underrated, it is not regarded as good as the one done by an uninfected individual.
- Psychological problems like loss of hope for life, self-denial, depression, stresses etc
- Increase of pressure/chaos in health centers like dispensaries, hospitals etc due to increase of AIDS patients. More than **50%** of hospital beds in Tanzania are occupied by AIDS patients.
- Exert the burden to the government as it will allocate a lot of resources to take care of the infected people without any return. Also the infected population is unable to participate fully in production activities, especially physical work like cultivation, etc
- Decrease of the labour force as many skilled personnel from different sections like education, health etc will die of HIV/AIDS.

### **Living positively with HIV.**

If you find out that you are infected with HIV, it will not be easy, but you can learn to cope with it. You will need a lot of counseling.

It is also a good idea to tell someone close to you so that you do not feel very lonely.

For many people, the disease progresses very slowly, and they can live with the virus for 10 to 20 years. Be hopeful, because many scientists are working on HIV. There could be a breakthrough sometime soon.

If you find out you have HIV, it is very important to “live positively.” Living positively can greatly improve your chances of staying healthy for a longer time.

Living positively with HIV means:

- Cherishing your loved ones and practising your religion. Take time to stay closely with your family and practice a spiritual life
- Eating nutritious food such as greens, beans, and dried fish, because these help to strengthen the immune system
- Treating all illness as they arise.

- Taking plenty of rest, as well as moderate exercises.
- Practising safer sex so that you don't transfer the virus to others or get more viruses into your body.

Living positively means making the most of your life everyday. Living positively is something we all need to do, even if we are not infected.

It's also important to help others live positively with HIV/AIDS. Don't call people with HIV or AIDS "victims" because they are not victims. They are like other people with much to offer. They can work and contribute to the development. They need love and attention like anyone else. They often need special support from close friends and relatives. Have an enlightened attitude toward people with HIV/AIDS. Never make fun of them, stigmatise them or disturb them.

*Safer sex* means sexual practices that greatly reduce your chances of getting STIs (Sexually Transmitted Infections) including HIV or getting pregnant. If you want totally safe sex-then the best choices for you are masturbation and abstinence (no-sex). The only body fluids and private parts are yours. Kissing and hugging your partner are so safe. There are no known cases of HIV transmission through kissing or hugging. However if one person is infected with HIV and has sores in the mouth, he/she can infect others through hard kissing. There is also a possibility of infection with infection if you touch each other's private parts and get other's sexual body fluids on your hands. If you have cuts or cracks on your hands, you could get HIV if the other person is infected.

Sexual intercourse between two people who are both HIV/STI free is also safer sex. But; of course, you still have to worry about pregnancy. Many people think that if they have known someone a long time, they can trust them to be free from HIV and other STIs, but a test is very necessary. People you love and trust can give you STIs. They may not know that they are infected.

Condoms also make sex safer. In fact, condoms are a very important way to protect yourself and your partner. Even if you are not having sex, read the next section because one day you will need to know about condoms.

## **Strategies in place, in community, to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS**

Prevention and Social Mobilization by:

- Reinforcing multi-sectoral prevention programmes aimed at strengthening family units and upholding appropriate cultural values, positive behavioral change and promoting responsible sexual behavior;
- Intensifying the provision of comprehensive, affordable and user-friendly reproductive health services to youth, men and women, and ensuring that essential commodities such as male and female condoms are made available;
- Strengthening initiatives that would increase the capacities of women and adolescent girls to protect themselves from the risk of HIV infection, principally through the provision of health care and health services, including for sexual and reproductive health education, and through prevention education which promotes gender equality within a culturally and gender sensitive framework;
- Promoting and strengthening programmes for the youth aimed at creating opportunities for their education, employment and self-expression, and reinforcing programmes to reduce their vulnerability to alcohol and drug abuse;
- Rapidly scaling up the programmes for the Prevention of Mother-to-Child Transmission of HIV, and ensuring that levels of uptake are sufficient to achieve the desired public health impact;
- Scaling up the role of education and information in partnership with all key stakeholders including the youth, women, parents, the community, health care providers, traditional health practitioners, nutritionists and educators, as well as integrating HIV/AIDS education in both the ordinary and extra curricula at all levels of education.
- Putting in place national strategies to address the spread of HIV among national uniformed services, including the armed forces, and consider ways of using personnel from these services to strengthen awareness and prevention initiatives.

Improving Care, Access to Counseling and Testing Services, Treatment and Support by:

- Strengthening health care systems, especially public health;
- Strengthening family and community based care, as well as support to orphans and other vulnerable children;
- Facilitating the expansion of workplace programmes on HIV/AIDS prevention and management among all levels of the workforce, supported by appropriate policy and legal frameworks;
- Development of service and caring capacity among all people caring for the HIV/AIDS infected persons, including the home based care providers, as well as upgrading of diagnostic and related technologies;
- Expanding access to voluntary counseling and testing;

- Preventing and removing stigma, silence, discrimination, and denial which continue to hamper and undermine HIV control efforts, particularly, towards the people living with HIV and AIDS;
- Putting in place national legislation and regional legal regimes to ensure the availability of technologies and drugs at affordable prices for treatment, including bulk purchasing of drugs and manufacturing of generic medicines in the region;
- Increasing access to affordable essential medicines, including ARVs and related technologies, through regional initiatives for joint purchasing of drugs, with the view of ensuring the availability of drugs through sustainable mechanisms, using funds from national budgets;
- Investing in nutrition programmes and promoting the use of nutritional supplements, production and consumption of locally available foods;
- Developing a regulatory framework and institutional capacity for the testing and utilization of traditional medicines.

Accelerating development and mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS by:

- Creating and sustaining an enabling environment conducive to gender-balance, rapid and broad-based socio-economic development of the Region and addressing major underlying factors that lead to the spread of the HIV infection;
- Harmonizing policies and strategies and undertaking joint programmes in the priority intervention areas including prevention, treatment, care, support, nutrition and food security;
- Enhancing the regional initiatives to facilitate access to HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support for people living along our national borders, including sharing of best practices;
- Mainstreaming and factoring HIV/AIDS in our regional integration process and focal intervention areas, particularly in the areas of trade liberalization, infrastructure development, food security, social and human development;
- Evaluating the economic and social impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic and developing multi-sectoral strategies to address the impact at individual, family, community, national and regional levels;
- Establishing mechanisms for mitigating the impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, including the provision of support to families, orphans and other vulnerable children, and strategies to ensure a sustained labour supply.

Intensifying Resource Mobilization by:

- Establishing a Regional Fund for the implementation of the SADC HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework (2003-2007);
- Reaffirming our commitment to implementing the Abuja Declaration by allocating at least 15% of our annual budgets for the improvement of the health sector;
- Urging the International Cooperating Partners, on humanitarian grounds, to assist

our region by substantially increasing the provision of financial and technical support at country and regional levels through various initiatives and commitments such as the Global Fund to fight HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (GFATM), Official Development Assistance, the Enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative; and the Multi-country AIDS Programme (MAP);

- Developing and strengthening mechanisms to involve all stakeholders, such as civil society organizations, the private sector, organized labour and business to contribute towards financing HIV/AIDS programmes;
- Establishing simplified mechanisms for the timely disbursement of funds to the operational level, ensuring that all communities have adequate access to these funds.

Strengthening Institutional, Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanisms by:

- Developing and strengthening institutional mechanisms for HIV surveillance, sharing of experiences and exchange of information on key areas of interventions such as prevention, provision of care to, and support of, HIV/AIDS infected and affected persons and treatment of HIV/AIDS-related conditions;
- Intensifying training and research initiatives or programmes to strengthen Member States' capacities to manage the epidemic;
- Developing and strengthening appropriate mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of this Declaration, and other continental and global commitments, and establishing targets and time-frames that will be included in the SADC HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework and Programme of Action.

## **STATISTICS**

Sub-Saharan Africa	<b>28.0 million</b>
Asia	<b>7.4 million</b>
Latin America & Caribbean	<b>2.0 million</b>
Eastern Europe & Central Asia	<b>1.3 million</b>

### **Success achieved in preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS pandemic:**

*In Tanzania mainland;*

Progress has been made in reducing HIV prevalence in adults from 9.4 per cent in 2000 to 5.7 per cent in 2007, getting closer to the MDG (Millennium Development Goal) target.

The prevalence rates among women declined from 7.7 per cent in 2003 to 6.3 per cent in 2007 while that among men dropped from 6.8 per cent to 4.7. HIV prevalence rates among youth has dropped quite substantially; from 4.0 per cent to 3.0 per cent among young women in the 15-24years age group, and from 3.6 per cent to 1.1 among young men in the same age group.

### *In Zanzibar*

HIV prevalence in Zanzibar is far lower compared to the mainland; 0.7 per cent for women and 0.5 per cent for men). The total number of HIV positive people is estimated to be slightly over 1 million among adults aged 15 – 49 years. These estimates are lower than previous estimates.

HIV and AIDS ailments present a heavy burden to society including treatment, provision of care and addressing the issue of orphans. HIV prevalence is higher in higher income groups. More than 50 per cent of the hospital beds in Tanzania are occupied by patients with HIV and AIDS-related illness.

### *Supportive Environment*

Tanzania has HIV and AIDS policy which places more emphasis on prevention. Emphasis is also being directed at care and mitigation such as through use of ARVs. The government has brought on board Non-State Actors (NSAs) including Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) in the fight against HIV and AIDS. The strategic plan for HIV and AIDS has been developed with support from Development Partners. Scaling up the availability of ARVs to the needy is another measure being taken by the government. The budget for availability of supplies and other commodities such as condoms has increased, and the logistics for distribution is in place. Additionally, a national programme to address the triad of diseases including AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (ATM) exists. Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) of HIV now includes treatment of the mother with ARVs (after counseling).

### *Major Challenges*

Although the overall HIV prevalence rate is declining gradually, the prevalence rate among the most vulnerable groups appears to be on the rise, threatening the sustainability of overall success in recent years. The increasing trend of HIV prevalence in regions with prevalence rates as high as 15 per cent (e.g. Iringa) and the overall slow progress in the reduction of prevalence among women are areas of concern.

Knowledge regarding HIV transmission or prevention is wide spread. However, men and women have not transformed this knowledge to behavioral change. Similarly, knowledge of the prevention of mother to child transmission is not wide-spread. For example, the percentage of HIV-positive pregnant women who receive nevirapine prophylaxis or start on ARV was estimated to be around 40% in 2008. Although this indicates an improvement, the progress is slow. Also, many people are not willing to undertake HIV Testing through the established VCT services centers, the main reason for this reluctance being the wider spread stigma and discrimination attached to HIV/AIDS.



## **HIV prevention**

### **The role of an individual in preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS:-**

- Total abstinence from sexual intercourse
- To develop a habit of testing in order to know the health status
- To practise safe sex
- To use condoms as the last alternative
- To have one partner in sexual relationship
- To involve pregnant women in the programme to mother to child transmission
- To avoid dangerous environments that may cause the spread of HIV/AIDS.
- To avoid excessive drinking and drug abuse which foster the spread of HIV/AIDS due to unwise decision making.
- To abide with religious teachings and parental counselling and guidance.
- To avoid the sharing of sharp objects like syringe and needles during circumcision, nail cutting and shaving.

### **At societal level**

Many seminars and workshops are conducted so as to educate people on this subject. They are conducted country wide. Also the government prepared a National Policy on HIV/AIDS which was inaugurated by former President Benjamin William Mkapa in 2001. Furthermore, President Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete (2005 2015) introduced a befitting slogan: ***“Tanzania free from HIV/AIDS is possible.”***

Another initiative was from the first lady, Mama Salma Kikwete whose NGO among other things, sensitizes people about HIV/AIDS prevention through behavior change. Her famous theme is: ***“Mtoto wa mwenzio ni mwanao, mkinge na ukimwi”***.

In addition abominable cultures, such as female genital mutilation, inheritance of widows and polygamy should be abolished in our society.

### **What are the impacts of HIV/AIDS**

The impacts of HIV/AIDS at family level, is the loss of productive people within families. Loss of manpower because the most productive people are those between 18 and 49 years of age. Another misery is the increased number of orphans, escalating the state of poverty among people.

**Questions for discussion**

1. Why is it difficult to discuss about HIV/AIDS with your parents?
2. Which age group is most vulnerable to HIV infection?
3. Is there any means/ ways of preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS in our societies?
4. How can you know if you have HIV?
5. If a family member is infected with HIV/AIDS, how can you take care of him/her without contacting the disease?

## **CORRUPTION**

### **What is corruption?**

Corruption can be defined as the abuse of public power for personal gain or for the benefit of a group to which one owes allegiance. The Oxford English Dictionary defines corruption as the “perversion or destruction of integrity or fidelity in the discharge of public duties by bribery or favor.

Other definitions of corruption stress the role of the participation of public agents, such as public officials, bureaucrats, legislators or politicians. The most widely cited definition of corruption in the public sector-and the one used in the current study denotes corruption as “the abuse of public office for private gain”. Public office is abused for private gain when an official accept, solicit or exhorts a bribe.

It is also abused when private agents actively offer bribes to circumvent public policies and processes for competitive advantage and profit. Public office can also be abused for personal benefit even if no bribery occurs through patronage and nepotism, the theft of state assets, or the diversion of state revenues (*World Bank* 1997, P8).

### **Forms of corruption**

Corruption can be categorized basing on the nature of people who are involved in that dishonest and unlawful behaviour. According to this view, corruption can be classified into two(2) forms namely petty and grand corruption.

#### **(i) Petty or survival corruption;**

This is the form of corruption practised by civil servants who are grossly underpaid and depend on little rents from the public to feed their families, pay school fees, accomodation, transport cost etc. This includes police officers, watchmen, teachers, doctors etc

#### **(ii) Grand corruption;**

This is the form of corruption practised by high public officials often involving large international bribes and hidden overseas bank accounts. This may be done by the politicians (the president, the ministers, the general secretaries), the policy makers, the bank governor etc

### **Impact of corruption to the society;**

- It increases the cost of goods and services provided due to the monopolization of the market by the corrupt businessmen who need to dominate the entire market themselves.
- It leads to the decrease of the government revenue since many will escape to pay tax, therefore the government will fail to provide social services to the public and run other activities.

- It leads to political instability because most of the people will be suffering to get their rights while the few are privileged.
- It increases the gap between the rich and the poor, due to shortage of opportunities for the majority who are poor to overtake in economy. In a corrupt society the few opportunities are in the hand of the corrupt people, so it's very difficult for the commoners to have an access to those opportunities.
- It erodes the ethics and values of the human being because most of the decisions will be made on monetary basis.
- It leads to the spread of illegal drugs and unhealthy less quality poor standard products to the market because the government will like a toothless dog.
- It leads to the dominancy of a certain regime or political party for a number of years. There are a lot of evidences which prove that most of the African leaders are staying in power for long because of corruption or they bribe the electorates during the general election.
- It facilitates the violation of human rights due to unfair judgement before the law, the "haves" will be favoured compared to the "have not". Therefore the judgement will depend on the economic status of the clients.

Not all types of corruption involves direct monetary payment, as government officials may receive more subtle benefits from corrupt activities, such as political support. Public officials may demand bribes to do what they are not supposed to do any way (i.e. the so called speed or grease money) or accept bribes to do what they are not supposed to do, such as overlook the underreporting of tax liabilities.

Corruption manifests itself in innumerable areas, in various and complex form and interactions. Corruption has dominated in the fiscal arena. Although often intentionally, fiscal policies some times facilitate corruption in the private and public sectors, as a result of the ways governments collect and spend resources.

The relationships between corruption and fiscal policy can be simple and direct but also subtle and complex. These relationships can vary significantly from country to country. In some cases, the public sector gives households and firms in the private sector an incentive to be corrupt.

In general, there are countless types of corruption and many distinctions can be made based on the dynamics of the act (i.e. unilateral multiparty), the agents involved (i.e. high level officials) low level official, private agents, the size of the corrupt act (grand corruption or petty corruption).

### **Impact of corruption**

According to Judge Warioba's report on corruption in Tanzania, the enormous economic problems which be fell the Nation in the early 1970 forced the Government to take various political, legal and economic measures to combat the situation, taxes were raised, the internal trade policy gave monopoly to Parastatal Trading Organizations in the distribution of scarce and essential commodities; a lot of restrictions were imposed in the daily lives of citizens like road blocks aimed at controlling crop movement, restriction on afternoon driving of private cars etc.

A system of permits was evolved without clear guidelines on how it was to be implemented and monitored. Simultaneously, the cost of living surged upwards without a corresponding increase in the incomes of public servants.

The Leadership code denied public servants the opportunity to engage in activities which could create extra income for them, such as trading and other productive activities. In general some public servants and leaders began to invent strategies for raising extra income in order to make ends meet. In most cases, some of the sources of these extra incomes were illegal.

### **Causes of corruption in Tanzania**

It is almost impossible to isolate a set of factors that can be said to be the causal factors of corruption. Sometimes interplay of factors may be responsible for the occurrence of corruption. However in Literature (Gould, 1980) economic, political, social and legal factors have been cited to be responsible for this globally condemned phenomenon Gould, D. *Bureaucratic Corruption and Underdevelopment in the Third World: The Case of Zaire*, Pergamon, New York, 1980.

### **Economic Factors**

There are writers who link the rise of corruption to the non – diminishing marginal utility of a unit of money. It is claimed in this linkage that, since an additional unit of money (however acquired) does not cause the marginal utility of money to diminish, individuals act rationally to accumulate wealth. The problem with this argument is with moralists who believe that corruption is essentially an immoral act. Therefore it is immoral to corruptly accumulate money.

The most common economic factors cited as being responsible for the rise of corruption involve aspects like low wages, inflation and poor performance of the economy. Low income put a lot of pressure in the rank and file workers who find it extremely difficult to make ends meet. Faced with those conditions, workers could understandably look for alternative (not excluding corruption) ways of earning extra income for their living.

In 1993 it was estimated for example that the necessary monthly wage needed to sustain a low income earner in Dar es Salaam was Tshs 35,000. In 1993 the official minimum wage (monthly) was not more than Tshs. 6,000. Thus, it does not come as a surprise that some workers engage in corrupt activities in an effort to bridge the income gap.

### **Social Factors**

Sociologists argue that corruption stems from an individual's criminal behavior. This criminal behavior could be influenced by factors like desire for power and influence. Social pressures could influence an individual to become corrupt, the desire for example of an employee to send money home to support his/her relatives back home could force one to be involved in corruption, albeit unwillingly.

### **Political Factors**

Where the political system of a country is not transparent enough and there is no "Watch dog" in the form of political opposition, such regimes are commonly prone to corruption. The regime in power does not fear any repercussions that could be caused by its involvement in corruption. In support of this argument Gould (1980), claims that in Zaire for example, corruption took place because the regime in power (Mobutu's) wanted to reward its supporters. The regime tended to forgive corrupt officials, provided they showed unwavering loyalty.

### **Presence of Bureaucracy**

Some elements of corruption arise because of the presence of excessive bureaucracy in almost all walks of life. For instance, bureaucracy could exist in business licensing import and export trade, foreign exchange acquisition, building permits and foreign travel. In these areas, bureaucracy could take the form of unnecessary delays in paper work, decision making and other forms of red tape. Where bureaucracy of this kind exists, the avenue could be an ample breeding ground for corruption.

### **Weak Law Enforcement Machinery**

In countries where the legal system is known to be soft on corruption, corruptive activities have tended to blossom. Softness on corruption could take form of either

- (i) A weak law enforcement machinery
- (ii) Collaboration with corrupt elements within the society
- (iii) Light punishment to caught corrupt elements.

If it is known for instance that the legal system of a given country is soft on crime and on corruption in particular, or if laws are not well enforced, it becomes safe for corrupt elements to involve themselves in corruption in a country in question.

As it has been indicated earlier, Tanzania has been facing an endemic problem of corruption in varying degrees since its independence up to now, although certain measures have been taken to curb this problem. But it has been a tendency of lowering and recurring of corruption in different forms, with adverse effects to the government performance. Therefore, the Warioba's Commission and its report were just among the measures that have been taken to contain to the problem.

**Preventive Measures and Strategies against Corruption.** This is a process that cross international borders, therefore there is always a demand for international bodies to cooperate in the efforts to eradicate it. For example, the International Crime Police Organization (Interpol), Joint Conferences on Corruption, and Independent International Commissions.

Corruption destroys the reputation of governments and poisons the social atmosphere. It is a worldwide and historical problem. Corruption seriously impairs the efficiency of government organs in performing duties and the public confidence in the administration; it affects social fairness and justice, or even endangers social stability.

Because of these injustices, governments and police forces of all countries have always paid great attention to this issue, and continuously taken strong and effectual measures for preventing and combating corruption. Over the years, Interpol has made a lot of effort in this aspect.

In order to prevent and tackle corruption, government and public security organs must ensure public security officers and government officials discharge their duties according to law and exercise their functions and powers properly. Under the unified plan of the state in fighting against corruption, there are must be a policy of handling the case by looking into both its root cause and symptoms with a comprehensive approach.

There is a need for making thorough investigation against corruption cases and imposing stiff punishment, this also demands a build up of a strict system, a close supervisory mechanism, a formal educational program and a strong management plan. Besides, this must take into account the principle of suppressing and preventing corruption when formulating various crucial policies and measures.

There is a need to strengthen the anti-graft laws and regulations in the fight against corruption; the formation of systems is a factor affecting the overall situation and social stability in the long run. The establishment of system is particularly important. Public security organs must pay special attention to areas where corruption may easily occur in the course of enforcing the law and handling cases in accordance with the policy of administering the country in conformity with legal provisions.

### **A Historical context of Corruption in Tanzania the 1961 – 1967 Period**

In an effort to contain corruption the colonial (British) administration enacted in 1958 the prevention of corruption ordinance for purposes of checking corruption from spreading to the levels of government officials. After the country's independence in 1961 there emerged in Tanzania, a small class of people who had stepped into positions of power formerly held by their colonial masters but with a relatively weak economic base, they expected to live the life style of their masters. Their economic base however could not allow them to do so. They therefore had to seek alternative ways of sustaining the way of life which marched their newly acquired positions.

It is thus safe to claim that during the 1961 – 1967 period, corruption existed in Tanzania, but this was mainly an urban phenomenon practiced by a small group of privileged Africans for the purposes of expanding their economic base. At the time of the Arusha Declaration in 1967 the government saw the opportunity to crack down on corruption by denouncing through the Declaration that corruption was anti peoples' justice ("Rushwa ni Adui wa Haki"). The leadership code that was designed to accompany the Declaration it considered unethical for a leader to offer or accept bribes (Freedom and Unity, 1968).

### **The 1967 – 1985: A period of Emergency of Wide Spread Corruption**

Several economic factors are cited as being responsible for the emergency of corruption in Tanzania during the 1967 – 1985 periods. Despite various attempts by the government to contain corruption, there were several economic developments which negatively affected the performance of the economy and might have given rise to corruption.

### **1985 up to date: The Liberalization Period**

In Tanzania there is an assumption that politicians must raise campaign funds at all costs, as well as a mass wealth. High incomes which is a result of economic liberalization provides for an incentive for corruption. Economic liberalizations that occurred in the 80s and 90s brought a new experience whereby the private sector now took an upper hand in the control of the economy which was previously under the control of the government, hence an increase in corruption.

However, as has been pointed out by other scholars (Rose-Ackerman, 2001, for instance), a democratic regime does not guarantee lower corruption, as the need to raise campaign funds for electoral competition may lead to abuses of power. There are, of course, other reasons why democracies do not necessarily have lower corruption.

In this case with the economic liberalization after Ali Hassan Mwinyi assumed power in 1985 and the subsequent introduction of multiparty politics in this country in 1992 were



catalysts for corruption. One possibility is that the liberalization of the economy went hand in hand with the liberalization of politics.

Moreover voters may have incomplete information about candidates and obtaining information is too costly. This also can be attributed to the high rate of illiteracy and poor access to information which make the population, particularly in the rural areas more likely to vote to keep corrupt politicians in power.

### **Combating corruption in Tanzania**

- Challenges and opportunities
- The anti-corruption watchdogs: the Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau (**PCCB**). In Tanzania however, these tasks to a large extent are under the control of the Prevention of Corruption and Combating Bureau, it has been given the mandate to investigate and prosecute all cases that are presented before it. As such, it functions as an interior service regulations agent in curbing corruption in the country. The **PCCB** liaise with the police force, and other public security organs.

It has the task of maintaining professional code of ethics in the public duties. Moreover, it handles criminal cases related to corruption. It is helpful in good governance due to the fact that it sets rules that are essential in responsible occupation. That is, it tames the exercise of power, it strictly controls the systems and the abuse of power that could be prevented.

Moreover under the leadership ethics code in Tanzania, public officials are not allowed to run businesses or operate enterprises. These codes provide guidance so that government leaders do not use their relatives and friends to run their businesses.

The **PCCB** monitors performance of civil servants so that they do not abuse power. In this way, it is not allowed to accept gifts, money and any kind of negotiable securities during official activities; it is not allowed to join any activity paid by public funds held in a place of entertainment opened for business; it is not allowed to attend any feast which may affect a fair discharge of official duties, and so on.

### **Core duties of the PCCB**

It enhances management; strengthen supervision, ensure fairness and efficiency in law enforcement bodies. For instance, if the police force or the judiciary was not under supervision, this could have given room for corruption. It was after years of practice, that our public security organs gradually formed a supervision mechanism; some are internal while others are global.

For example, the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), this is primarily funded by contributions from participating countries, and funds from “development partners” such as Canada, the United Kingdom and the UNDP. The APRM reported contributions of some US\$17.3 million in 2007, with US\$10.5 million coming from development partners.

Internal supervision system is comparatively well developed. In accordance with the laws and regulations of Tanzania, the administrative supervision laws are functioning under various bodies. For example the internal audit interim provisions, are under the Controller and Auditor General (CAG).

The main duties of the inspection department are: to monitor the on-site law enforcement and work performance of public organs. The main duties of the internal auditing department are: audit the economic commitments of the head of public security organs of various levels; and audit the financial income and expense, economic benefit, fundamental development, government purchase of public service organs, and also those of the enterprises and institutions directly under them.

#### **Channel for external supervision.**

There are external bodies that conduct independent researches on corruption, for example the Afro-barometer and the Transparent International (TI). These institutions use various mechanisms to assess the rate of corruption. In a way, they help to curb corruption in a country; the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI) is a table that shows a country's ranking and score, the number of surveys used to determine the score, and the confidence range of the scoring. The rank shows how one country compares to others included in the index.

The supervision system of law enforcement of public security teams by focusing on areas likely to have problems and corrupt practices, and constantly increased our effort on preventing and tackling corruption from its root causes in accordance with the overall anti-corruption plan of the state and the criteria of establishing a sound socialist market economy system.

Continuously develop various kinds of effective anti-corruption educational program and strengthen the power of all public security officers and people's policemen in resisting corruption and facing changes, launching anti-corruption educational program, assisting the leading cadres of public security organs, public security officers and people's policemen at all levels to have a correct outlook on world, life, values, power, status and interests and strengthening the line of thinking and moral defense are the basic strategies to combat corruption.

## **The Media's Role in Curbing Corruption**

Government leaders meet their subjects in the media, therefore the media can act as a force against corruption in ways that are both tangible and non tangible.

**The tangible;** readily identifiable, ways in which the news media perform this function include those in which some sort of visible outcome can be attributed to a particular news story or series of stories. For instance, the launching of investigation by authorities, the scrapping of law or policy that fosters a climate ripe with opportunities for corruption, the impeachment or forced resignations of a crooked politician, the firing of some officials, the launching of judicial proceedings, the issuing of public recommendations by a watchdog body, and so on.

**Intangible effects;** by contrast, can be characterized as those checks on corruption which arise from the broader social climate of enhanced political pluralism, enlivened public debate and a heightened sense of accountability among politicians, public bodies are inevitably the by-product of a hard-hitting, independent news media.

### **How can the media work effectively against corruption?**

- i. By setting an agenda which will influence public opinion and eventually lead to resignation of office holders who have committed misdeeds.
- ii. Persistent reporting may prompt public bodies to launch formal investigation into allegations of corruption as it was the case of the Richmond scandal which eventually lead to the resignation of Prime Minister Edward Lowassa.
- iii. Journalism exposes flaws and even corruption within the various bodies of the state (the courts, police and anti-corruption task forces) therefore corruption is put on check.
- iv. Media can influence public pressure which leads to reforms of public bodies and delivery of services. An effective media is always a counterweight against corruption.
- v. Media can influence election results whereby a corrupt government can fall paving way for an effective government or party that can curb social vices.

Rick Stapenhurst: 2000, World Bank Institute

## DRUG ABUSE

### Introduction

This topic has involved different concepts. Generally, it is a misuse of drug or substance abuse, which modifies mood, behavior in manner characterized by maladaptive pattern of use. We shall discuss the reason behind drug trafficking. According to sociologists and economists pointed out the economical factors because of its profitability, and poor market for some crops grown by farmers in many countries.

The effect of drug abuse to individual and the society will be discussed. They include mental illness, lost of man power and death. There are individual and community role in preventing drug abuse. Education became most preferable method of preventions, especially to teenagers who are the most affected. The rehabilitations program designed for addicts is another advicesable approach.

### Meaning of drug

**Drug** is any substance which when taken into living organization may modify one or more of its function

Drug abuse is defined as a self administration of a drug for non medical reason, in quantities and frequencies which may impair an individual's ability to function effectively, and which may result in social, physical or emotional harm.

**Drug Abuse.** The word drug abuse has been defined in different ways depending on perceptions. Some scholars have define drug abuse as habitual use to drugs for a non-therapeutic reason The most common drugs in use include: alkaloids, opioids, cocaine, alcohol, nicotine, amphetamines, opium marijuana and synthetic, However Wikipedia encyclopedia has define drug abuse in connection to taking a psychoactive drug to perform and enhance drug for non therapeutics or non medical effect.

**Medical definition** – From a website free encyclopedia, it defines drug abuse as substance abuse or harmful use, cover the physical or psychological harm the user from use. While substance dependence mean when an individual persists in use of alcohol or other drugs despite problems related to use of substance. Substance abuse as a blanket term to include drug abuse and other things. Other viewer defined drug abuse as misuse of maltreatment, or excessive use, and substance abuse is defined as continuous use which modifies the mood or behaviors or manner of the user.

Moreover website from Google continued to define drug abuse as the use of illegal drug or the use of drugs for purpose other than these for which they are meant to be used. If taken in large amounts, drug abuse may lead to social, physical and mental problems.

### **Sign and Symptoms**

According to Wikipedia free encyclopedia; the signs and symptoms of drug abuse. Depending on the actually comport, drug misuse including alcohol may lead to health and social problems, morbidity injuries, unprotected sex, violance, deaths, motor vehicle accidents, homicides, suicides, mortality, physical dependable or psychological addition. Drugs abusers are usually alcoholic and prone to suicide. The reason believed to cause the increased risk of suicide is the long term abuse of alcohol and drugs, causing physiological distortion of the brain chemistry, as well as the social solution. Moreover, the acute intoxicating effects of the drug may make suicide more likely to occur. Suicide is also very common in adolescent alcohol abuser. Suicide in adolescent is also related to alcohol. Abuse is as also associated with increasing risk of committing criminal offences, including child abuse, domestic violence, rapes, burglaries and assaults.

Moreover alcohol and drugs have a relationship with mental illness. This can occur both in the intoxicated state, and also during the withdraw state. In some cases, these psychiatric disorders can persist long after detoxicated such as prolonged psychosis or depression after cocaine abuse. Moreover, drug abuse affect the central nerves system (CNS) which determines the level of awareness or perception and sensing.

### **Drug Trafficking**

Is the black market consisting of the cultivation, manufacture, distribution and sales of illegal drugs. In some cases certain drugs are legally obtained and sold. Among the drugs that are prohibited include cuberi. Illegal drug trade operate similarly to other underground marketing. Various drug providers specialize in a separate process along the supply chain.

Direly localized to maximize production efficiency depending of the profitability of each layer;suplier usually vary in size, consistency, organisation and the chain range. Low level street dealer who may be individual, drug user themselves through street gang and contractors like middlemen –up to multinational empires that rival government in size. Moreover much llegal trade cultivate and manufacture this product in many developing nations although production also occur in some of the developed world.

It also refers to the sale and distribution of illegal drug. However penalties to federal drug trafficking convictions vary according to the quality of the controlled subsistence involved in transactions.

### **Origin of Drug Trafficking**

Origin in jurisdiction where legislation restricts or prohibits the procession or sale of drug, most commonly psychoactive drug, potential drug buyers and sellers are unable to transact in open, only illegal drug trade remain as an option, and when such trade occur, a black market is born. Moreover the illegality of the black market purveying the drug trade is relative to geography location and the production countries of the drug market (many in South American, Far East and the Middle East countries) are not as inclined to put effective policies as the consuming countries (mostly the United States and Europe) are the ready market. The massive profiteering inherent to the drug trade serves to extend its reach despite the best effort of law enforcement agencies

In the awareness of this reality the social consequences including crime, violence imprisonment social unrest of the drug are undeniably problematic. Therefore as a solution, it is very necessary to stop illegal drug trafficking and consumption of such items.

### **Reason Behind Drug Trafficking**

Drug abuse trafficking has spread in very many areas in the world. There are various reasons that stimulated this drug trafficking.

The extremely high economic value of drugs and profit margins, allure people to engage in organized crime and illegal business. Political movements needing money to finance their activities including guerilla and independent movements, such activities have mushroomed since the end of the cold war. Resulting in less revenue to fund the world powers.

The hashish production in Morocco, the world's largest cannabis producer, it is known that people in high places are involved in both the production and the trade. The smooth and organized way the trade is conducted makes it likely this situation is not only related but also may even be coordinated by the authorities.

However since it is no longer a secret that the authorities are highly involved in the trade, including the loyal family, one can wonder why European countries have relatively lenient altitude toward Morocco and King Hassan II

High taxation was also among as the reason for drug trafficking in Afghanistan.

The increase of prevalence of opium is related to the breakdown of the superpower patronage and control. Since parties trying to take control, must ensure there is economic stability, hence the taxation of opium.

The lack of a strong government in countries such as Tajikistan has increased opium trading. Thus increased profit from opium was a deciding factor in removing subsidies for wheat. Increased price pushed poor farmers to switch from wheat to poppy production which has much high market value.

On the other hand, Tanzania entertains other dangerous products like tobacco and alcoholic drinks. These are more popular and common in Tanzania, even if they are relatively more dangerous than many illegal drugs and are subjectively less pleasurable. Their production is attributed by profit motives.

High consumption of illegal drug can be also stimulating factors for drug trafficking to major consumer countries, including the United State and Europe. Whereas the major producer countries include Afghanistan (opium) Bolivia and Columbia (cocaine).

Apart from major consumers, the market for illegal drug is massive. It is estimated that the global drug trade is over \$321 billions. Exorbitant profits are created because of scarcity and risk involved. Illegal drugs found in the market come in many forms and names, such as: heroin, anabolic, steroid, marijuana opium and methamphetamine.

Big companies involved in drug abuse are the reason behind drug trafficking. Members of organized crime syndicate have advantages over other fragmented groups. They appear to have experience in violence, which is an unfortunate by product of the drug trade.

Farmers also with no alternative crops are forced to cultivate opium. And government officials may not actually produce the drugs, but are compliant to the distribution and transportation of these drugs by turning a blind eye due to bribery or intimidation.

Finally the drug abuse as a business is very profitable since the market is wide open and the price is extremely huge.

### **The Effects of the Drug Abuse to Individual and Society**

A loss of human resource (loss of productivity). Many people who engage themselves in drug abuse, fail to work productively whether in farms, offices or industries.

Drug abuse can also cause health problems, including sexually transmitted diseases (STD), as well as social problems including sex violence, motor vehicle accident, homicides, suicides, high mortality, drug addiction and alcoholism.

Drug abuse affects central nervous system, which produces changes in mode level of awareness or perception and sensation. The cost to human socially and economically is very high. For example in the United Kingdom, it is estimated that the social and economic cost in terms of crime, absenteeism and sickness is in excess of 20 billion pounds a year.

**Employment:** A growing number of connectors are self employed and work in private groups. They contract counselors who are well trained and effective professionals, in vocational education, rehabilitation, mental health, behavioral disorder and drug abuse. However, experts in counseling programmes are not enough, and are even fewer in rural areas.

Other drug abuse stimulate decay of the moral value in the societies. Most of the addicts tend to separate from their family and society, and indulge themselves in illegal activities like raping and sex. The war against drug abuse is extremely costly in terms of taxpayers' money, productivity, law enforcement and unrest among the society. Some people argue that because it is very expensive to contain illegal drugs, they should be legalized.

Governments in developing countries like Tanzania are more affected with drug abuse because they do not have the financial and technical capacity. Most of the victims are the youth who are the workforce. Many of them depend on their family economically, hence become a burden to their parents and the nation at large.

### **Eccentric behavior**

Eccentric or odd ball like deviants are recognized law breakers and are observed and defined by the society as outlaws, and as disruptive and a threat to the social order. These eccentrics may be legated for several reasons. Firstly, they are petty thieves, drunkards, and lazy. Secondly, they are always on the sick list and therefore a burden to the society.

**Mental illness;** According to Beth B.Hess...et al, it is defined as residual deviance which is less obvious and more difficult to define or classfy or diagonise.

Risks to many people who drink heavily may put themselves at risk with a range of potential health problems. Brain effects: Scientifics examination to determine how alcohol affects the developing of a brain, but it is difficult to detect the extent of damage caused by drug abuse in an individual or a community.



## **Roles of Individual and Community in Preventing Drug Abuse**

Prevention is an important way of solving problems of drug abuse. Citizens of all ages can be victims of drugs, alcohol, tobacco and mirrah, thus cause financial and social problems to the nation.

**Drug abuse** is hazardous especially to young people. It puts them at risk and are likely to be alcoholic permanently. Thus, a concerted effort to educate them is needed.

**Education.** In general, drug prevention is demonstrably most effective among the young. In addition to putting in place mitigation programs, education is likely to reduce the number of drug addicts, drug trafficking, and unbecoming incidences, like violence, rapes and sexually transmitted diseases.

Parents have a critical influence over children aged between 8 and 12 years. Their role is to change the attitude and behavior of their children in order to grow up as good citizens. The behavior change is later heightened by school teachers and the community. Well behaved children will normally shy away unlawful acts, such as drug abuse.

The strategy to curb drug abuse is to embark on health education by using the mass media. Such campaign should focus on preventing the young generation from drug use and encouraging current users to quit. However the compiling focuses on primary prevention targets the underlying causes, and therefore has the greatest potential to reduce the scope of this problem.

Secondly, primary prevention campaign will lessen the need for treatment. Media campaign has greater potential to affirm the ant - drug attitude of youth who are not yet involved in drug use than to persuade experienced drug users to change their behavior. The Media has proved to be an effective tool in the war to prevent or reduce consumption of illegal drugs and smoking, along with risk on behavior.

The method used is to campaign harnesses a diverse mixture of information tools: television, video, radio, internet, newspapers and other forms of news media to drive home information about drug abuse.

**Education:** Educational school counsellors provide individuals and groups with personal social and educational counseling regarding drug abuse at all levels of education and careers.

There are many ways to contain drug trafficking and use;

- i. Disrupting the market chain of drugs
- ii. Stepping up campaigns to educate the public on the potential danger of drugs abuse.
- iii. Law enforcement against current users through medical screening and testing the suspects.
- iv. Law- enforcement effort against elements of the supply chain through surveillances and undercover work.
- v. Providing effective and targeted treatment to dependant users.

### **Penalties**

Penalties for use and distribution of illegal drugs vary widely around the world. Various countries share decriminalized possession of small amount of these substances, Countries like Canada, The Netherlands and USA, the penalty for illegal drug possession and sale vary from a small fine to long prison sentence.

Finally the international social and cultural factors are to playing a big role in the expansion of prohibited drugs. People have shifted from localized consumption of opium poppies to internationalized and professionalized cocaine and heroine.

### **Impact of drug abuse**

- It increases the rate of crimes, example theft, murder, prostitution etc.
- Users tend to neglect their families, friends and responsibilities
- It leads to low productivity in working places
- It increases unnecessary burden to the government example drug users are crowded to the courtrooms, jails and creating burden on the criminal justice system hence costful to the government.
- It results to mental disorders and makes the users relaxed, restless, uncoordinated etc.
- It leads to death
- It increases the spread of HIV/AIDS due to the tendency of sharing sharp objects and needles.
- It leads to the increase of street children due to irresponsibility of the users to their families.

## CHAPTER THREE

### SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY IN DEVELOPMENT

#### TOPIC OUTLINE

- The concept of science and technology
- The concept of development
- The role of science and technology in development
- Transfer of technology
- Issues related to science and technology in Tanzania

#### **Definitions:**

##### **What is science?**

Science is a broad grouping of disciplines containing many different areas that are all linked together by a single concept, the scientific method.

The scientific method represents an investigative method based on observation, deduction, hypothesizing and experimentation that can be applied to all areas of life.

The term “**science**” can generally be defined as a branch of knowledge dealing with phenomena of the universe and their laws.

Science can also be defined as a systematic, objective search for understanding of the natural and human world. Science is a body of knowledge developed by cultures which provides methods or means to control the environment, extract resources, produce goods, as well as services and improve the quality of life.

Through scientific methods, science can broadly be categorized into three groups, each contains numerous of disciplines

- |                   |                   |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| - Formal science  | - Pure science    |
| - Natural science | - Applied science |
| - Social science  | - Life science    |

### **Formal Science**

Represents those disciplines that deal with symbols and theoretical ideas and their applications in the real world. Its inclusion as a science as often been contested. Aspects of formal science are used in all scientific disciplines, it includes computer science, mathematics and statistics.

### **Natural Science**

Is the science which uses the scientific method to understand nature and the physical world. Natural science and its disciplines are sometimes referred to as “HARD SCIENCE” by their proponents. Natural sciences include biology and zoology.

### **Social Sciences**

Is the science which studies societies and their interactions within themselves. It could be on individual basis or group basis. The social sciences include anthropology, psychology, and sociology. Social sciences are referred as “SOFT SCIENCE”.

### **Characteristics of Science**

- Science is logical (utilizing the appropriate form of logic) reasonable, and rational
- Science makes well defined claims based upon the best available evidence
- Science hypothesis must be falsifiable
- Science experiments should be repeatable under similar circumstances.
- Science enquires that claims be examined by qualified peers.
- Science requires caution, both in performing experiments and in examining and evaluating evidences.
- Science requires efforts at objectivity, both in control of variables and bases.
- Science does not accept incidences or unlinked or unproven correlations as proofs.
- Science does not accept nor accept undocumented anecdotal evidence as good proof by it self.
- Science elements are extraordinarily good evidence for extra ordinary unconventional claims.
- Science assumes that the laws of Nature are Universal, if relative
- Science demands the use of the scientific method and truthful reports

The purpose of science is to find order in the chaos of natural phenomena. Science attempts to represent nature as simply and accurately as possible, with natural law description of how nature behaves

**Note that:**

Science describes the “how” but does not attempt to explain, the ‘why’ of nature. It makes no attempt to establish the true and absolute “nature of things”. This later activity belongs to the province of Religion.

Science then, is a METHOD. It is a method for the organized investigation of nature.

**What is Technology?**

Technology is all around us. It is part of our daily lives. Technology is the way people use resources to meet their wants and needs. For instance, people have invented beds to meet their need, which is comfortable sleep.

They have invented refrigerators and stoves so as to meet their needs of storing and cooking food. They have invented cars, buses trains and aeroplanes to meet their need to move fast from one place to another.

**Definition**

(According to the Cambridge International Dictionary) ‘Technology is the study and knowledge of practical, (especially industrial) use of scientific discoveries.’

The functional meaning of technology however, means a body of tools, machines, materials, techniques and processes used to produce goods and services in order to satisfy human needs.

Technology can also be defined as application of scientific knowledge to solve practical problems and achieve human goals. In other words technology is “**know-how**”, while science is “**know-why**”.

Science produces knowledge, while technology produces wealth / development by using knowledge produced by science.

Science generates ideas, while technology is its material embodiments.

## **Understanding Technology**

The term “technology” comes from “techne” or ways and “logos” or knowledge. Thus technology literally, means the knowledge of how.

## **The Historical Background of Technology**

The historical background of technology can be traced back since human existence in this world. Therefore the technological background goes hand in hand with human history and development.

The history of technology is the history of invention of tools and the techniques of using them, and is similar in many ways with the “history of humanity”. Background of knowledge has enabled people to create new things, and conversely, many scientific endeavors have become possible through technologies that assist humans to travel to far distant places, and probe the nature of the universe in more detail than our natural senses allow.

Technological artifacts are products of an economy, a force for economic growth, and a part of every day life. Technological innovations affect and are affected by, a society’s cultural traditions. They also are a means to develop and measure our technological progress.

Many sociologists and anthropologists have created social theories dealing with Social and Cultural Revolution. Some like Lewis H. Morgan, Leslie White, declare technological progress to be the primary factor driving human civilization. Technology advancement takes different phases,

Early technology - Created things like: agriculture, writing, fire making and manipulation used since the paleolithic.

### **Stone Age**

A variety of stone tools

During the Stone Age, all humans had a life style which involved limited use of tools and few if any, permanent settlements

The first major technologies were meant for the survival of man, ie. hunting and fruits gathering from forests. Fire, stone tools and weapons and clothing, were technological developments of major importance during this period.

### **Iron Age**

Involved the adoption of iron smelting technology. It generally replaced bronze, and made it possible to produce tools which were stronger and cheaper to make than bronze equipment.

It was the growth of ancient civilization which produced the greatest advancement in technology and engineering advance which stimulated other societies to adopt new ways of living and governance.

### **Medieval technology in European around middle ages.**

Industrial revolution - This was the British Industrial Revolution which implies advancement of technology in areas of textile manufacturing, mining, and transport driven by the development of the steam engine.

### **19<sup>th</sup> Century Development**

#### **The preserved Rocket**

The 19<sup>th</sup> century saw astonishing advancement in transportation, constructions and communication technologies in Europe, especially in Britain. The steam engine of 18<sup>th</sup> century was applied in both steam boat and railway transportation. Then arised the Rocket locomotive of Robert Stephenson being the first localmotive used on the transportation line.

### **20<sup>th</sup> Century Developments**

- Electrification
- Automobile
- Air plane
- Water supply and distribution
- Electronics
- Radio and television
- Mechanized Agriculture
- Computers
- Telephone
- Air conditioner and refrigerators
- Highways
- Space craft
- Internet
- Imaging

### **21<sup>st</sup> Century Developments**

In this century, technology is being developed even more rapidly, especially electronics and biotechnology.

## **Components of Technology**

Zeleny (1986) points out that technology consists of three interdependent, co-determining, and equally important components. These are:

**Hardware:** The physical structure and logical layout of the equipment or machinery that is to be used to carry out the required tasks

**Software:** Knowledge of how to use the hardware in order to carry out the required tasks

**Know – how:** The learned or acquired of a technological skill regarding how to do things well. Know – how may be a result of experience, transfer of knowledge, or hand on proactive. People acquire technical know how by receiving formal or informal education or training, or by working closely with an expert in a certain field.

**Brain ware:** Reasons for using technology in a particular way. This may also be referred to as “know why”

## **Classification of Technology**

Technology can be classified in several ways. The following classifications are important in establishing a common vocabulary for the ensuing discussion in this book.

**New Technology:** A new technology is any newly introduced or implemented technology that has an explicit impact on the way a company produces products or provides services. One example is new computer software introduced to develop engineering drawings and thus replace manual drafting. Another example is an internet website designed to market the company’s products. The technology does not have to be new to the world, only to the company.

It could have been developed years ago and used by others, but it is classified as new whenever introduced for the first time in a new situation. New technology has a profound effect on improving productivity and maintaining a competitive business enterprise.

**Emerging Technology:** An emerging technology is any technology that is not yet fully commercialized but will become so within about five years. It may be currently in limited use but is expected to involve significantly. Examples of emerging technology include genetic engineering, non technology, superconductivity, and the internet as a replacement for the personal computer.

Emerging technology creates new industries and may make existing ones obsolete. They have the potential of triggering large changes in institutions and society.



**High Technology:** The term high technology refers to advanced or sophisticated technologies. High technologies are utilized by a wide variety of industries having certain characteristics. A company is classified as high - technology if it fits the following descriptions (Larsen and Rodgers, 1998; Mohrman and Von Gin Low, 1990).

- It employs highly educated people. A large number of the employees are scientists and engineers.
- Its technology is changing at a fast rate than that of their industries.
- It completes with technological innovation
- It has high levels of research - and - development expenditure.
- It has the potential to use technology for rapid growth and its survival is threatened by the emergence of competing technology.

Some high technology companies may be working with technologies that are “Pushing the envelope”. These technologies are referred to as “Super - high technologies”.

**Low Technology:** The term low technology refers to technologies that have permeated large segments of human society. Low technologies are utilized by a wide variety of industries having the following characteristics:

- They employ people with relative low levels of education or skills.
- They use manual or semi-automatic operations.
- They have low levels of research expenditure (below industry average).
- The technology base used is stable with little change.
- The products produced are mostly of the type that satisfy basic human needs such as food, shelter, clothing and basic human services.

**Medium Technology:** As used in this text, the term medium technology comprises a wide set of technologies that fall between high and low technologies. It usually refers to mature technologies that are more amenable than others to technology transfer. Examples of industries in these categories are consumer products and the automotive industry.

**Appropriate Technology:** The term appropriate technology is used to indicate a good match between the technology utilized and resources required for its optimal use. The technology could be of any level - low, medium or high. It goes not make sense, for example, to use high technology, when there is a lack of necessary infrastructure or skilled personnel.

This is a dilemma faced by many developing countries that want to transfer technology used in more industrialized countries. They may push for acquisition of high technology in cases where a medium - level technology would be more effective. Utilizing the appropriate level of technology results in better use of labour resources and better production efficiency.

## Relationship Between Science & Technology

Before explaining the relationship between science and technology, it is important to identify the differences.

### Science :

- It's purpose is to explain the natural world through intellectual investigation.
- It is a critical “*realist*” stance, things in the world as they are (Lopez and Potter, 2001)
- A Scientist, interrogates the real thing in order to explain it.
- Science is “*truths*”, specific truth.

### Technology:

- Its purposes is intervene in the world in order to produce something.
- Technology is a process “ontology” so it challenges the critical realist notion of “*things*” exist as “*such!*”

Therefore, from the technological point of view, we are both creators of material world of technology in clear and tangible ways, and also symbolic creators of “*natural*” world.

Technological knowledge doesn't attempt to make claims of truth in the same way as knowledge does, instead it has its refences to science.

- It is a process of function.

### What validates technological knowledge is therefore “success” and not “truth”

However like science, the success of technological knowledge is determined within technological practice by experts within the domain of the technology. Technological practices are situation specific, and therefore the diverse and variation depends on the context and people involved in the endeavour.

### How they relate?

Scientific knowledge and the methodology applied provide a major source of input into the development of technological practices and outcomes. They are also key tools in the establishment of explanations of “why technological intervention, were or were not successful.”

In short, it can provide powerful explanations for the “why” and “why not” behind a technological intervention. However, interventions rely on more than an understanding of the natural world, they can only provide partial justification of technological practices and outcomes.

Technological practices, knowledge and outcomes can provide mechanism for science to gain a better view of it in defined world, and in fact it can provide serious challenges to defining the world. For example, the development of technological art crafts that extends the observation capabilities of humans (such as telescope and explain microscope) made visible and available new areas for science to interrogate.

### **Local Technologies**

Local technologies existed before the advancement of technologies in the production process in the industries, in agriculture, fishing and communication. In former days when production was low and products were of poor quality, it was difficult to compete in the world market. This necessitated adoption of the technological transfer.

## **TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER**

**Transfer of technology** is the process of moving of technology physically (material thing) or mentally (technical know how) from one place to another. It can be across borders (international transfer), within a country (regional transfer), across firms (inter-firm transfer) and within a firm (intra-firm transfer).

It is a process of sharing skills, knowledge, technologies, methods of manufacturing or applying techniques or facilities among people or institutions to ensure that scientific and technological developments are accessible to a wider range of users who can then further develop and exploit the technology into new products, processes, applications or services.

It is a subset of knowledge transfer related to terms are like “technology valorization” and “technological commercialization” Effective technology transfer results in commercialization of a new product or service or in the improvement of an existing product or process.

It requires the user to acquire new information and skills and change old habits and ways of doing things. It may also require changes in the technology being transferred to improve the caches of “fit” and optional performance in the new situation. Technology transfer may vary from country to country from industry to industry or from research laboratory to another, and from the existing business to a new one.

**Advantages of technology transfer;**

- It promotes the indigenous technological base and technical capacity.
- It increases the production of goods and services.
- It improves the provision of social services like health services and education due to the introduction of better facilities.
- It accelerates the construction of modern and better infrastructures like modern buildings, roads, railways etc
- It improves the communication system for example the introduction of high quality mobile phones, reliable internet services etc

**Disadvantages of technology transfer;**

- It leads to technological dependency; most of the less developed countries depend much on the technology from industrialized nations.
- It increases the rate of unemployment since the machines will replace human labour; many activities which were done manually are now performed by machines.
- It increases environmental pollution like air, water and soil pollution due to emissions, chemicals and wastes from the industries respectively.
- It leads to the destruction of the indigenous culture through television programmes, pornography from the internet services.
- It perpetuates the underdevelopment of the receivers due to high cost of purchasing the technology and sometimes they are forced to employ the expatriates to run those machines examples Tanzania has incurred billion of shillings to the radar from the United Kingdom.

**Technology Transfer in Today's Economy**

The creation or absorption of new technology has become a vital component for companies to improve or maintain their competitive position in the market. Companies operating in sectors where competition takes place in basis of price alone, such as the extraction or commercialization of raw materials, may rely on new technologies to improve their efficiency in the extraction of raw materials by improving their productive processes or acquiring new machinery and equipments.

In other sectors, where the market involves new designs or products with new functions, companies are forced to innovate by acquiring or developing new technologies. Technological innovation is therefore a crucial element in the competitive strategy of any enterprise, whether big or small, high- tech or low- tech. The on going integration of domestic and international markets requires a high degree of competitiveness.

## **Channels of Technology Transfer**

Technology is intangible; it flows easily across boundaries of countries, industries, departments or individuals, provided that flow channels are established. There are three types of channels that allow technology flow.

### **i. General channels**

Technology transfer is done unintentionally and may proceed without continued involvement of the source. Information is made available in the public domain with limited or no restrictions on its use. This information is harnessed by users and applied to their purposes.

Channels of this type of transfer include education, training, publications, conferences, study missions, and exchange of visits.

### **ii. Reverse-engineering channels**

Other channels in which the transfer occurs with no active contribution from the source include reverse engineering and emulation. Here, a host or a traditional receiver of technology is capable of breaking the code of technology and developing the capability to duplicate it in any fashion.

This is feasible provided that the host has the knowledge to do it and there is no legal violation of intellectual or product which is put on the market by company. It can be purchased by company or reserved, engineered, and introduced to the market as a competitor. This is a powerful method for technology transfer. Its limitation is its inability to transfer the developers' tacit knowledge. Such knowledge is usually gained during the product development process.

### **iii. Planned channels**

Technology transfer is done intentionally, according to a planned process and with the consent of the technology owner. There are several types of agreements that are used to affect planned transfers. They permit access to, and use of technological know-how. These agreements include:

#### **(a) Licensing:**

The receiver purchases the right to utilize someone else's technology.

This may entail an outright purchase or a payment of an initial lump-sum amount, plus a percentage of sales.

(b) Franchise:

This is a form of licensing. However, sources usually provide some type of continued support to the receiver. For example, by supplying materials, marketing support and training. This channel is commonly used in food chains and service supplier organizations.

(c) Joint venture:

Two or more entities combine their interests in a business enterprise in which they can share knowledge and resources to develop a technology, produce a product or use their respective know-how to complement one another. They also share the rewards from the venture. Recipients acquire technology and sources of technology to gain access to local markets, including distribution skills, frequently use international joint ventures.

(d) Turnkey project:

A country buys a complete project from an outside source and the project is designed, implemented and delivered ready to operate. Special provisions for training or continued operational support may be included in an agreement between parties.

Engaging in a turnkey project is equivalent to buying or selling a machine, but on the scale of an entire plant. Most innovative firms would not sell a plant they intend to exploit themselves.

(e) Foreign Direct Investment (FDI)

A corporation, usually a multinational corporation, decides to produce its products or invest some of its resources overseas.

This permits technology transfer to another country, but the technology remains within boundaries of the firm (still controlled by the original firm).

This type of investment has advantages for both the investor and the host country. The investor gains access to labour force, natural resources, technology or markets. The host country receives technological know-how, employment opportunities for its people, training for the work force, and investment capital that adds to development of its infrastructure.

The host country will also get tax advantages, since most employees will be contributing to the local economy. The multinational corporation may also gain

a tax advantage by locating facilities off-shore in a country or territory that gives a tax break. Many USA pharmaceutical companies have located facilities in Puerto Rico because of tax advantage, they can get tax exemption by this arrangement. Some developing countries provide long-term tax relief to foreign companies located on their soils.

(f) **Technical consortium and joint Research and Development (R and D) Project**

Here, two or more entities collaborate in large venture because resources of one of them are inadequate to affect the technological change needed. Typically, this type of venture takes place between two countries or two large conglomerates. For example, a consortium was formed between France and England to develop a supersonic plane (the Concorde).

Both nations needed to combine their technical and financial resources to develop expensive technology, and also, to compete with their rivals in the United States of America. Several similar ventures as well as consortia exist under the auspices of the European Union (EU). European governments have established a number of projects to help national companies compete with USA and Japanese firms.

Programs that the EU supports include “Race,” a project to advance communication technology; “Espirt,” for information technology; and “Less,” to bolster semi-conductor research. The project “Eureka” is an independent research program involving 24 nations.

All these cooperative projects aim at advanced research, technology development, and knowledge transfer to participating member states.-

## **WHAT IS DEVELOPMENT?**

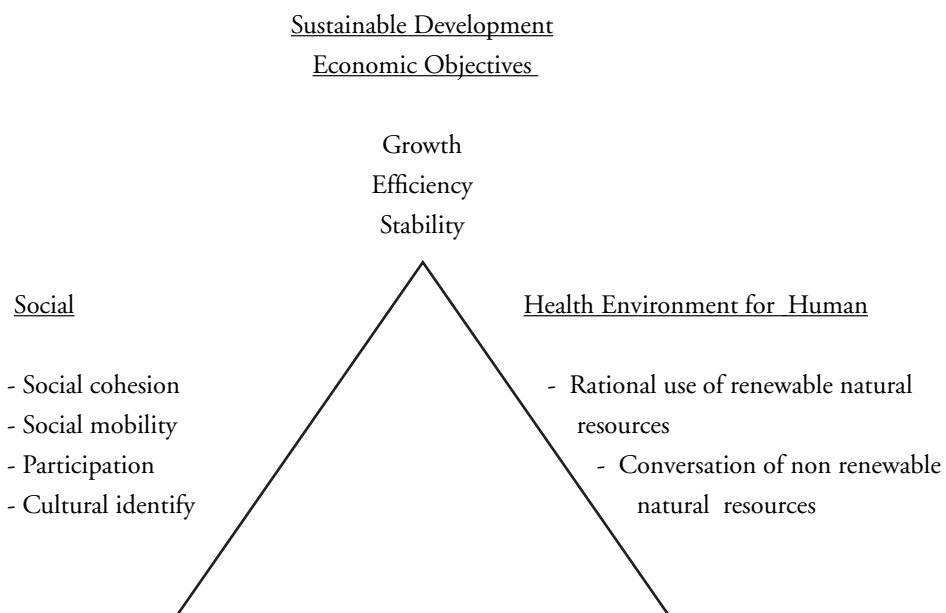
In deed, Development is a complex term that takes in many ideas. But most simply, development, means reaching an acceptable standard of living for all people. It means that people have the duty to work for their living. Walter Rodney defines development in human society as many sided process. At individual level, it implies increased skills as well as capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material wellbeing.

Development also means incremental change, movement or advancement of a society, from a low standard to that of a high standard. For example, change from Stone Age to Iron Age. It signifies increase of knowledge, skills and production.

**What is Sustainable Development?**

According to the classical definition given by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development (1987)

Development is sustainable if it meets the needs of the people at present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their needs. The terminology is used mostly by the politicians. It comprises many aspects, as the diagram below indicates.



The United Nations Conference in Rio de Janeiro, discovered that the world natural resources are depleted at such rate that soon the earth will not be able to sustain the population of this world. Therefore, the following principles were un avoidable step to prevent this catastrophe.

**Principles of Sustainable Development**

- i). Living within environmental limits.
  - Respecting the limits of the planet’s environment, resources and biodiversity to improve our environment and ensure that the natural resources needed for life are unimpaired and remain so for future generations.



- ii). Ensuring a strong healthy and just society
  - Meeting the diverse needs of all people existing and future communities, promoting personal wellbeing, social cohesion and inclusion, and creating equal opportunities.
  
- iii). Achieving sustainable economy
  - Building strong, stable and sustainable economy which provides prosperity and opportunities for all, and in which environmental and social costs fall on those who impose them (polluters pays), and efficient resource use is incentivized.
  
- iv). Using sound science responsibly
  - Ensuring relevant policy is developed and implemented on the basis of strong scientific evidence.  
  
Whilst taking into account scientific uncertainty (through the precautionary principle) as well as public attitudes and values.
  
- v). Promoting good governance
  - Actively promoting effective participative systems of governance at all levels of the society. Engaging people's creativity, energy and diversity.
  
  - Those are principles of sustainable development that originate from UK's framework for sustainable developments.

Sustainable development for the developing countries is a great challenge, due to many problems that prevail in these countries. These are poverty, over population, and strategies to address these challenges. The implementation can be easy if we understand clearly what should be addressed, and how.

Development is a multi-dimensional concept. Even if you concentrate on some aspect of it, for instance, on economic development, there are a number of other dimensions, that must be taken into account in order to get a comprehensive understanding of the concept of development. One has to deal with development in a wider sense, including economic, social, cultural and political aspects.

Science and technology are key factors in the development process. In the next section, we examine the linkage between science, technology and development.

## **Linkage between Science, Technology and Development**

Technology, science and development are closely interlinked. Science produces knowledge to produce technology. Technology is the end product of science. Each depends on the other. Development is a result of science and technology and, in turn, development leads to improvement/development of science and technology.

Improvement in science and technology means development. For instance, about 10,000 years ago, people learned how to raise animals and grow crops. The development of farming led them to settle down in small groups.

Then, particularly because agriculture produced surplus food, population growth was realized. Later on, towns and cities developed.

Throughout the ages, technology has benefited people in four main ways:

- i) It has increased their production of goods and services,
- ii) It has reduced the amount of labour needed to produce goods and services.
- iii) Technology has made labour easier.
- iv) It has given people higher living standards.

Science, on the other hand, has an enormous influence on technology and development. It provides the basis for much of modern technology - tools, materials, techniques, and sources of power that make our lives and work easier. Terms applied science, for example, are sometimes used to refer to scientific research that concentrates on development of technology.

## **Positive and Negative Impacts of the Technology**

Technology is an instrument which is free and of value to human.

The advantages and disadvantages caused by technology development:

### **a. Field of information and communication**

In the field of information and communication there has been very rapid progress. The positive effects include:

- i. Accessing information very quickly by phones, emails and website.
- ii. We can communicate with friends, and family far away by a computer.
- iii. We can get bank services and pay bills very easily.

Besides the benefits we derive from technological advances, there are also for things that are negative. For example:

- i. Utilization of communication services by the terrorist networks.
- ii. The use of information by way of internet or handphones to send deformative messages or threats.
- iii. Communication among criminals to effect crimes, like bank robbery and sabotage.

**b. Economy and Industry**

In the economic field the technology has advanced very rapidly. As a result, we are witnessing:

- i. Rapid economic growth
- ii. Rapid industrialization
- iii. Productivity increase
- iv. Investment and reinvestment which is taking place on a large scale will further enhance the productivity of the world economy. In the future, the impact of technological developments in the industrialized world will be increasingly important. Signs have shown that the technology will enable businessmen or individual consumers to have direct contacts with the manufactures. More importantly, consumers do not have to go to the stores or shops to purchase goods.

On the negative side, we are seeing:

- i. The existence of capitalism.
- ii. A widening gap between the poor and the rich
- iii. Competition for jobs forcing workers to always increase their skills and knowledge. Technological inclination and economic development, will have an impact on employment and labor qualifications required by the employers.

**c. In the field of health**

Beneficial effects include:

- i. Increasingly sophisticated medical tools and machinery.
- ii. More and more new hospitals are built.
- iii. More and more new drugs are invented.

- iv. Many malignant diseases can be cured

Adverse impacts include:

- i. Existence of misuse of power by malpractice.
- ii. The existence of the illegal drugs trade.
- iii. Hospital services costing too much.

**d. Social and Cultural Field**

- i. As a result of technological advances we are witnessing increasing number of both men and women who are holding high positions as leaders, both in public and private sectors. Even changes in behavior and attitudes are increasingly prominent. Data man's job is written in a book *Megathmd for Women: From Liberation to Leadership*, written by Patricia Aburdene & John Naisbitt (1993) shows that the leadership role of women is becoming conspicuous. More women are entering the political field, as members of parliament, senators, governors, ministers, and other high positions.
- ii. Increased confidence in the Asian countries gave birth to an interesting phenomenon. Development and economic progress has increased the confidence and resilience of the people. As a result the Western world now takes the Asian nations very seriously and respectfully.
- iii. Pressure, sharp competition in various aspects of life as a consequence of globalization, will create disciplined, diligent and hardworking generations.

However technological advances will impact negatively on the cultural aspects:

- i. Moral decay among community members, especially among teenagers and students. Heightened economic life has put too much emphasis on the effort to acquire material wealth, and has caused some citizens to be "rich in content, but poor in spirit".
- ii. Delinquency and deviant acts among teenagers are weakening the authority of traditions in any society, such as mutual assistance and the centripetal forces that play an important role in creating social unity.
- iii. Pattern of interaction between people and families has changed due to electronic communication advancement. Computers connected to the phones have opened up opportunities for anyone to be connected with the outside world.

The availability of internet cafes has given an opportunity to many people who do not possess computers to communicate with others via the internet.

**e. Education**

Technology has an important role in the education sector:

- i. The emergence of mass media, especially electronic media has contributed to education advancement. They are regarded as a facilitator in teaching and a transmitter of knowledge.
- ii. The emergence of new learning methods allow students and teachers to perform much better. With technological advances they create new methods that make students able to understand the material abstract.
- iii. Learning systems have eliminated the needs to confine ourselves to face - to - face method. Now the learning can be made through use of internet, tele-conferences, and postal service.

The negative impact:

- i. Secrecy is increasingly threatened. Intelligence test programs can be accessed via compact disk. The implications of this is that there is a lot of information leakages. Electronics development corresponds to information leaks through the internet.
- ii. Misuse of knowledge to do criminal acts. For example, by using a computer science people are able to break through highly secured areas, like banks.

**f. Politics**

Beneficial effects include:

- i. The emergence of new technological and economic growth, will encourage the emergence of middle class citizens. Their ability, skills, and lifestyle is not much different from the middle class people in the Western countries. Predictably, this new middle class will be the pioneer in demanding political freedom and freedom of expression.
- ii. Regeneration of new leadership. A transitional generation of leadership will affect the style and political substance applied, this will enhance freedom and equality.

- iii. In the field of international politics, there is also a tendency to grow regionalism. Advances in communication and transportation technology have produced regionalism consciousness and increased economic cooperation.

Adverse impacts include:

- i. Increased corruption and illegal actions that are detrimental to the welfare of the society.

**g. Military Field**

Beneficial effects:

- i. Creation of a high level security.
- ii. Less criminalization
- iii. Acquisition of sophisticated weaponry

Adverse impact

- i. Wars that kill people and destroy properties
- iii. Weaponry manufacturing for use by war mongers.

**h. Fields of Energy and Natural Resources**

- Technology benefits include:
  - i. Detection of natural wealth, such as oil, gas and minerals.
  - ii. Development of advanced power plants to generate electricity.
- Disadvantages of technology:
  - i. Damage to earth's natural position. Disrupting its normal rotation and balance.
  - ii. The existence of radiation generated by power plants. Nuclear plants create health problems emanating from radiation.

**Effect of radiation from nuclear**

Technology has important role in facilitating human activities. Technological advancement has enabled people to master their environment and improve their lifestyle. However, we must be very careful not to be overwhelmed by modern technologies to the detriment of our moral values and the natural resources.

Although factory machines are safer today than in the past, many are dangerous if not operated with extreme care. Operating a machine constantly performing the same task again and again, can be tiring, as well as dangerous.

- The harmful effects of some technological applications have led to question the value of scientific research. But science itself is neither good nor bad. It depends on how to use it and whether the result will help or harm the users.
- Some people fear that advanced biological research will produce new diseases, or bacteria and viruses that resist drugs.
- People are also concerned that computerized information systems may destroy personal privacy.
- Science and technology can destroy as well as build. For example, drug abuse, alcoholic and over smoking are costing the government in terms of caring for the victims.
- Water pollution is not only harmful to humans, but also destroy fish and other creatures in our rivers, lakes and on the land.

### **Science and Technology Development in Tanzania**

Like most former African colonies, Tanzanians inherited the export goods sector (both luxury and essential goods). During the pre - colonial period there existed “cottage” industries for weaving, blacksmithing, pottery, woodworks, and jaggery. During the colonial period there were little or no investment in technologies that would establish an industrial base and would involve the majority of the population. Most manufacturing establishments were concentrated in the urban areas, they were set up as turn-key projects.

The dictates of colonialism led to the development of technology in Africa, which was favorable to capitalism and not to the interests of African development. Tanzania like other African countries has since independence adopted a strategy of imported technology and expertise.

Adaptation of this strategy is one of the reasons for the slow move towards establishment of an indigenous technological capability. There is clear evidence that, in practice, import substitution has not: significantly alleviated the balance - of - payments constraint. It has led to a growing dependence on a largely imported, capital-intensive technology and has thus not created extensive employment opportunities or indigenous technological developments. The process has been heavily dependent on foreign capital and has emphasized on establishment of consumer goods industries at the expense of investment and capital goods industries.

Since independence up to 1967 there was a visible growth of the manufacturing sector. For instance, the share of manufacturing sector to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) more than doubled from 3.6% in 1961 to 8% in 1967, and reached a historical peak of 10.1% in 1973.

However, growth of the industrial sector was not accompanied by development of a domestic technological capability, as most of the technology used in the industries was imported from foreign sources.

The industrialization process could thus not count on an existing local technological base with which it could become integrated in a process of mutually supportive growth.

### **Science and technological policy structures in Tanzania**

Serious attempts to embark on science and technology in Tanzania go back to the 1960s, this was supported by various national and international agencies. A major conference organized in 1994 in Lagos, Nigeria by UNESCO, set in motion an agenda to formulate a national science and technology policy for individual African countries. At the national level, apart from gaining independence in 1961, there was the Arusha Declaration in 1967.

The Tanzania National Scientific Research Council (UTAFITI) was officially established in 1968 and came into force in 1972. The council was given the overall responsibility of formulating and implementation of the national science and technology policy, as well as the overall responsibility for the development of science and technology in the country.

UTAFITI was replaced by the Commission for Science and Technology (COSTECH) in 1986. The main purpose of the commission was to establish a public organ, in form of a parastatal organization, which would effectively and efficiently, co-ordinate as well as promote scientific research and technology development in the country. The commission was also to act as the chief advisor to the government on science and technology policy, and on all matters pertaining to development of science, and their application to socio-economic development in the country.

### **The National Science and Technology Policy for Tanzania:**

On 6th June 1985 the Government issued a comprehensive science and technology policy statement. The National Science Technology Policy for Tanzania represents an official diagnosis of science and technology problems in Tanzania, and it provides a view of development in science and technology over the next few years.



A close look at the National Science and Technology Policy indicates the following:

- Local expertise has been encouraged, but only a few areas of expertise have been categorically specified as needing attention. These include design building, construction and production of raw materials. The document goes on to assert that “In awarding architectural, design, building and construction tenders, both public and private local firms shall be given preference.” Although the idea of protecting local firms is plausible, it is not clear why it is only these activists have been singled out as deserving preferential treatment.
- Another important question that has been addressed by the policy document is “incentives.” It was in this context that in 1980 Tanzania established the Tanzania Award for Scientific and Technological Achievement (TASTA), which was governed by the Awards Committee operating under the Tanzania National Scientific Research Council (UTAFITI). The objective of the award is to encourage innovative activities by awarding individuals or institutions in appreciation of their outstanding scientific or technological activities. However, what is still lacking is a scheme encouraging activities by non-specialized or crafts persons who might also contribute
- In regard to institutional setup, the policy has remained only at general level. Nowhere in the National Science and Technology Policy for Tanzania is it acknowledged the existing science and technology institutions. This is a necessary component in the rapidly changing feature of the present age. A science and technology policy can prove purposeful if it is dynamic and flexible enough to respond to requirements of the ever changing conditions. A close look at the National Science and Technology policy indicates that the policy does not meet the criterion of being dynamic and flexible.
- The whole policy document remains at the general level. As a result, the immediacy of what is to be done at the practical level is not identified. For instance, there is a mention of the need to encourage innovative activities, but the approach to innovation is not clarified, such as initiating Research and Development (R & D) activities in industries and at a national level that would facilitate innovation at the manufacturing level.
- Unless the software aspects of technology are developed to support the hardware technology, total effective transfer of technology will not be affected. For most African countries, only the hardware part of technology, that is, machines, equipment and so forth are being transferred. The dynamic elements of technology such as Research and Development (R & D), consultancy, engineering and managerial skills are not being

absorbed. They remain in the hands of owners of the technology, the multinational corporations and agencies.

### **Factors hindering development for Science and Technology in Tanzania:**

- Inadequate emphasis on teaching of science and technology in schools.
- Inadequate motivations to Tanzanian scientists.
- Lack of a clear national policy on promoting science and technology.
- Excessive dependence on foreign technology in terms of imported goods and hired expatriates.
- Lack of encouragement of local technocrats who invent machines and tools that contribute to our national development.
- Inadequate funds/capital to finance scientific and technological research undertakings.

### **What to do to improve science and technology in Tanzania?**

- Tanzania has to allocate enough resources to Scientific and Technological education.
- Tanzania must devise an attractive incentive package to Tanzanian scientists.
- Tanzania has to formulate clear workable policies aimed at promoting science and technology in the country.
- Tanzania has to encourage local technicians and scientists to undertake research, invest and develop scientific and technological capacities.
- Tanzania has to try to reduce excessive dependence on foreign technology by encouraging local technologies.

### **Challenges and Prospects for Development of Science and Technology**

As we advance in into the twenty-first century, Tanzania and other African countries are faced with stiff challenges to ensure that science and technology contribute to the country's development. The on-going process of globalization offers both opportunities and challenges.

- A clear understanding of Tanzania's problems and needs in the midst of rapid socio-economic change is required as an essential first step in formulation and implementation of a dynamic science and technology policy. Both external and internal factors have to be understood how they affect/impact on Tanzania's development. In other words, we

need to be clear of Tanzania's development agenda for the twenty first century, and the role science and technology can play in implementation of this agenda.

At present, there appears to be confusion and uncertainty on Tanzania's development goal. On one hand, the country's official position is that of "Ujamaa na Kujitegemea" building a socialist self-reliant country, while the government has embraced the free market economy with vigor, in firm belief that it will hasten economic and social development.

In this context, the dual question of technology for what and for whom, remains unanswered.

- In the context of globalization, how can Tanzania acquire and develop appropriate technology for development? There is increasing concern that the process of globalization has meant the demise of efforts to establish a local/indigenous technological capability that would be able to adapt and assimilate imported technologies, as well as develop new and appropriate technologies for sustainable development.

With globalization, there is a situation emerging whereby science and technology are the sole domains of the developed Western countries, while developing countries - particularly those in Africa are becoming mere users of technology. We now speak of the world becoming a global village. This is, however, a divided village of unequal partners. One part of the village owning and controlling the technology, while the other part of the global village is composed of mere users of technology who are increasingly becoming incapable of selecting/influencing the choice of technology that they are using.

It is in this context, the development of an indigenous/local/domestic capability is becoming more and more urgent. There is need to develop capabilities to scan, identify, assess, select, use, assimilate, adapt and improve technology. This capability includes establishment of local research and development (R & D) institutions and training of local skilled manpower

**Revision Questions:**

1. What do you understand by the following concepts?
  - a) Science
  - a) Technology
  - b) Development
  - c) Technology transfer
2. Discuss the toxins and toxics of science and technology.
3. With examples from Tanzania, explain how science and technology can improve agricultural production.
4. Discuss some factors that hinder development of science and technology in Tanzania
5. "Technology transfer is inevitable". Discuss.
6. What are negative impacts of technology transfer?

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DEMOCRATIC PROCESS AND PRACTICES

#### **TOPIC OUTLINE:**

- The concept and its historical development of democracy
- The role of government in the democratic process
- The role and responsibilities of individual citizens and civil society organizations in a democratic society
- The practices of human rights in Tanzania
- The practices of democracy in Tanzania

#### **DEMOCRACY DEFINITION, THEORY AND PRACTICE**

##### **Definition of democracy**

There is no universal definition of democracy; this is because people perceive it in different ways, depending on their environment and perceptions. However; there are certain norms that are accepted universally as indicators of democracy in one country.

For the sake of this study, democracies will be defined as a political system whereby government carries out its functions either directly by the people (direct democracy) or by means of elected representatives of the people (representative democracy).

The term is derived from the Greek: (dmokratía) “rule of the people”, which was coined from (dêmos) “people” and (krátos) “power”, in the middle of the fifth-fourth century BC to denote the political systems then existing in some Greek city-states, notably Athens following a popular uprising in 508 BC.

Even though there is no specific, universally accepted definition of ‘democracy’, there are two principles that any definition of democracy includes: equality and freedom. These principles are reflected in all citizens being equal before the law and having equal access to power. The freedom of its citizens is secured by legitimized rights and liberties that are generally protected by a constitution.

There are several forms of democracy, some of which provide better representation and more freedoms for their citizens than others. However, if any democracy is not carefully legislated – through the use of balances – to avoid an uneven distribution of political power, such as the separation of powers, then one branch of the system can have excessive power and become harmful to the democracy itself.

Therefore “majority rule” is often described as a characteristic feature of democracy, but without responsible government or constitutional protections of individual’s liberties from democratic power, it is possible for dissenting individuals to be oppressed by the “tyranny of the majority”.

An essential process in representative democracies is competitive elections that are free and fair, both substantively and procedurally. Furthermore, freedom of political expression, freedom of speech and freedom of the press are essential so that citizens are informed and able to vote in their personal interests.

Popular sovereignty is common, but it is not a universal motivating subject for establishing a democracy. In some countries, democracy is based on the philosophical principle of equal rights. Many people use the term “democracy” as shorthand for liberal democracy.

This may include additional elements such as political pluralism; equality before the law; the right to petition elected officials for redress of grievances; due process; civil liberties; human rights; and elements of civil society outside the government.

The world has been undergoing various transformations in the question of power balance. For instance, there was a time when the Greek philosophies were dominant in the western academia. As time passed by the Roman Empire took the lead and later to be surpassed by Britain and the United States.

Therefore many concepts as they are used today reflect this shift of philosophical conceptualizations. Therefore, this study cannot escape this new trend which really reflects former “new thinking” after the collapse of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR).

#### **i. Separation of powers**

This is meant to show the distribution of power amongst the four pillars of the government namely; the Parliament, Judiciary, Executive and Media. The fourth being most applicable in the advanced states. However this is often cited as a supporting attribute in many countries of the world.

But in other countries, such as the United Kingdom, the dominant philosophy is parliamentary sovereignty (though in practice judicial independence is generally maintained). In other cases, “democracy” is used to mean direct democracy. Though the term “democracy” is typically used in the context of a political state, the principles are applicable to private organizations and other groups also.

Democracy has its origin in Ancient Greece, however other cultures have significantly contributed to the evolution of democracy such as Ancient Rome, Europe, North and South America. The concept of representative democracy arose largely from ideas and institutions that developed during the European Middle Ages and the Age of Enlightenment and in the American and French Revolutions.

Democracy is called the “last form of government” and has spread considerably across the globe. The Right to vote has been expanded in many Jurisdictions over time from relatively narrow groups (such as wealthy men of a particular ethnic group), with New Zealand the first nation to grant universal suffrage for all her citizens in 1893. Suffrage still remains a controversial issue with regard to disputed territories, areas with significant immigration, and countries that exclude certain demographic groups.

## **ii. The Constitution**

A Constitution is considered to be the best of form of contract between the rulers and the governed. In summary, this is the mode in which a state is organized or a body of fundamental principles according to which a state is governed.

The Constitution is supposed to guarantee the expectations of the governed from their rulers. That is a tool which guarantees the rule of law. It is supposed to check any arbitrary and abuse of power, it is supposed to maintain harmony and avoid any kind of abusive sentiments and nepotism that might fuel chaos in the society.

## **iii. The Concept of the Rule of Law**

This is the fusion of executive and judicial functions and the authorization of local government officials to use their judicial capacities to advance their executive duties under the Native Authority Ordinances, created as real incentive for these officials to enforce thorough the court systems, not only law but also the government policy.

A Constitution is expected to abide to the following;

- a) The principles of check and balances
- b) The principles of fusion of power
- c) The principles of separation of power

In order for one to join active politics they need a political party as the vehicle for political activities.

### **A political party**

A political party is an organization which seeks to attain and maintain political power within government, usually by participating in electoral campaigns, educational outreach or protest actions. Parties often espouse an expressed ideology or vision bolstered by a written platform with specific goals, sometimes forming a coalition among disparate interests. This is an organized group of people who strive to acquire and maintain political power through a systematic operational of identified goals and objectives.

### **Functions of a political party**

Technically, political parties are supposed to be vehicles to support motives of their members because these are funded through their contributions. They are supposed to follow views of individuals and organizations that share their political ideas or who stand to benefit from their activities or public funding.

Political parties and factions, especially those in government, are lobbied vigorously by organizations, businesses and special interest groups, such as trades unions. As such money and gifts given to a party, or its members, may be offered as incentives. A political party should set out clear policies and programmes of action. It strives to put policy issues into tangible actions. It should demarcate distinctive roles and functions that it is expected to perform against other political institutions within the political system.

### **The integrative function**

Party leaders must be able to assess sources and types of conflicts, and the interaction and escalation that have brought the conflict to its present state in order to find an amicable solution. Integrating people would entail to identify relevant needs, values, interests and positions regarding the major issues in question. This must focus on the perceptions, cognitions, needs, fears and goals of each party and allowing for the exchange of clarifications, acknowledgements, assurances and potential contributions between the parties.

There must be clear and honest communication in which parties remain sensitive to common errors in perception and cognition and develop emphatic understanding of each other. Also this would entail facilitation by a skilled and impartial third party consultant, who enhances motivation, improves communication, regulates the interaction and aids diagnosis by drawing on relevant social science concepts.



Parties are supposed to operate in harmony without conflict or confrontation; they need peaceful and rational interaction. The parties must engage in face-to-face interaction under norms of mutual respect, shared exploration and commitment to resolution without a fixed agenda, but a progression of topics.

Interaction must take place under the facilitative conditions of inter-group contact, including equal status, high acquaintance potential, positive institutional supports, a co-operative task and reward structure, and the involvement of competent and well adjusted individuals.

The interaction must incorporate the qualities of productive inter-group confrontation, including open and accurate representation, recognition of intra-group diversity, integration of both parties' knowledge and skills, sensitivity to cultural differences and power imbalances, and persistence and discipline to attain mutually acceptable outcomes.

Confrontation must follow the strategies of collaboration, including seeing the conflict as a mutual problem to be solved and working to maximize the gains of both parties. The interaction must follow the stages and meet the criteria of effective inter-group problem solving and integrative bargaining.

Parties are supposed to resolve both intra and inter conflicts. These must be transformed in an enduring manner rather than settling disputes or suppressing differences. A range of complementary conflict resolution methods appropriate to the issues and the intensity of the conflict can be used.

This also involves basic human needs that must be addressed and the quality of sustainable relationships among groups that must be built. Conflict resolution must be infused into decision-making processes and political structures to prevent the causation and escalation of unnecessary conflict in the future.

Structural mechanisms must be created involving equality among identity groups, multiculturalism, and federalism as appropriate to each institution. In short political parties are expected to be vehicles for inculcating national values instead of divisive ethnic, racial, or parochial ones.

### **The legitimating function**

For the system to work one of the parties must obtain a sufficient working majority after an election; and it must be in a position to govern without the support from the other parties. But under certain circumstances parties can form an alliance in order to share power.

This role is attained through the demonstrative support for the political systems through participation in competitive party politics, guided by agreed rules.

### **The policy function**

Parties amongst other factors participate in the offering alternative policies from which a society can choose what it prefers. Policies are statements of programmes which a party hopes to execute. Such programmes can be pertaining to employment opportunities, health, education, etc.

### **Mobilization and reconciliation function,**

#### **Religious toleration**

Political parties are supposed to inculcate the value and wisdom of religious toleration; this is a condition of accepting or accomodating others' religious beliefs and practices which disagree with one's own.

Tanzania being a secular state, political parties seek support without fueling sentiments that might fuel chaos in this country. Religious tolerance merely means the absence of religious persecution; it does mean that religions are equal before the law. In this case toleration is a privilege granted by the government.

For individuals, religious toleration generally means an attitude of acceptance towards other people's religions. It does not mean that one views other religions as equally true; but merely for the sake of maintaining harmony, that others have the right to hold and practice their own beliefs.

A political party is duty bound to mobilize the masses to participate in any task planned by the government for development. The reconciliation function is to harmonize any antagonism arising in the society.

#### **The patronage function**

Patronage is the support, encouragement, privilege, or financial aid that an organization or individual bestows to another. In the history of art, arts patronage refers to the support that kings or popes have provided to musicians, painters, and sculptors.

It can also refer to the right of bestowing offices or church benefices, the business given to a store by a regular customer, and the guardianship of saints. The term derives from Latin *patrons*, the formal relationship between a patron and his clients.

In the context of this course, the term is used to describe political patronage, which is the use of state resources to reward individuals for their electoral support. Some patronage systems are legal, as in the Tanzanian context whereby some business executives have been awarded with projects due to their support to the ruling oligarchy during election campaigns. As provided in the country's constitution the president has been bestowed with powers to appoint the heads of a number of commissions and agencies; in many cases, these appointments go to people who have supported the political party, particularly financially.

However, this is referred to a type of corruption or favoritism, whereby a party in power rewards groups, families, and ethnicities for their electoral support using illegal gifts or fraudulently-awarded appointments, or government contracts.

Political leaders often have at their disposal a great deal of patronage, in the sense that they influence decisions in the appointment of officials inside and outside government. Patronage is therefore a recognized power of the executive branch.

In most countries the executive has the right to make appointments, some of which are based on favouritism or appeasement. In some democracies, high-level appointments are reviewed or approved by the legislative branch of the government.

Other types of political patronage may violate the laws or ethics codes, such as when political leaders engage in nepotism (hiring family members) and cronyism such as fraudulently awarding non-competitive government contracts to friends or relatives, or pressuring the public service to hire an unqualified family member or a friend.

Whatever the case, politicians tend to identify themselves with a special clientele as a precedence of having an easily available pool of supporters during election campaigns. The political party seeks to develop a special relationship with a specific constituency or interest group in order to get votes in return for future rewards, sometimes with elite; for purely improving its image.

### **The communication function**

A political party is an entity of people with different views and perceptions, they come from different backgrounds, from social to natural science. Therefore the accuracy of message transmitted in a given time is very important. Credibility of the message stems from the fact that those who deliver such messages are reliable people.

The message must be in a language that is well understood by all party members, the channel must be proper, there must be a limitation on the information sent over during

the communication process in order to ensure that members have enough time to digest whatever is delivered to them.

Parties ought to repeat messages that they deliver to their voters, this has advantage over time because it can put one party at an advantage if two parties were to be compared. A voter evaluates the choices available and determines what is most likely to be implemented much to the disadvantage of whoever fails to communicate properly his policies and priorities.

This is a multi-channel traffic function whereby on the one hand the government or party policies flow to the people, while on the other hand, the peoples' reactions to those policies flow back to the government or their party.

### **Party politics in Tanzania**

Tanzania has remained in the list of very few countries that have retained the nationalist parties that steered them to independence in the early 1960s. There are many theories as to why the ruling party CCM has remained so powerful and dominant over the newly established political parties.

There are many theories as to why CCM has remained dominant throughout its existence. Max Mmuya (1998:178-9) says that the internal conditions are not ripe enough to accommodate and promote the traditions of the Liberal democratic system. He says that values and democratic cultures have to transform through experiences in a process. He says that Tanzania lacks an appropriate infrastructure upon which to build a Liberal democratic system.

He attributes the problem to political elites who are egoistic. Mmuya says the political form that exist do not allow transparency, the form produces elite leaders that have certain primary and basic needs to satisfy. They look to democracy as personal or group of friends for power, prestige and access to private resources and prestige. "This is the most serious part of the eclipse which we suppose will take time to ease up" he concludes.

Probably this is just one view over why the CCM has remained so dominant over other parties in Tanzania. Others have been attributing this dominancy to the legacy of the founding father of the nation, Mwalimu Julius Nyerere. They say that CCM has been using his legacy knowing that he built the party which had mass support from the grass root. They say this is reflected on the fact that only a few Tanzanians see that the party is distancing itself from the common man.

This view holds that CCM has remained predominant in the rural areas where the level of awareness is still very low, while it is losing its appeal in the urban setting where the level of awareness is very high. This view also holds that the urban dwellers have an advantage of access to the information outlets, and they have the communication infrastructure easily available.

### **Cultures of single dominant party**

This has affected adversely the political game in Tanzania. The CCM is legally allowed to hold effective power, but the contribution of other minor parties should have been considered for the sake of national interest. Instead what exist in this country is “the winner takes all”, the rest political groups are required to accept the leadership of the dominant party.

However, it is evidently clear that this system may not necessarily be working for its clientele; the voters. There are incidents that are identical to the government, but they have turned out to favour of some egoistic individuals. This trend has created a fierce competition for positions within the party which may in fact be more important than positions within the government. This strong solidarity within the CCM is seen by some analysts as a remnant culture of the single-party system, thus it is equated with dictatorship and tyranny.

In dominant-party systems, opposition parties are allowed, and there may be even a deeply established democratic tradition, but other parties are widely considered to have no real chance of gaining power. Sometimes, political, social and economic circumstances, and public opinion are the reason for others parties' failure. Sometimes, typically in countries with less established democratic tradition, it is possible the dominant party will remain in power by using patronage, and sometimes by voting fraud.

### **Party ideologies**

A political ideology is a certain ethical set of ideals, principles, doctrines, myths or symbols of a social movement, institution, class, and or a large group which explains how a society should work, and offers some political and cultural blueprint for a certain social order.

Many political parties base their political action and election program on an ideology. An ideology largely concerns itself with how to allocate power and to what ends it should be used. Some parties follow a certain ideology very closely, while others may take broad inspiration from a group of related ideologies without specifically embracing any one of them. The popularity of an ideology is in part due to the influence of moral entrepreneurs, who sometimes act for their own interests.

Political ideologies have two dimensions:

- i. Goals: How society should function or be organized.
- ii. Methods: The most appropriate way to achieve this goal.

An ideology is a collection of ideas. Typically, each ideology contains certain ideas on what it considers to be the best form of government (e.g. democracy, theocracy, etc), and the best economic system (e.g. capitalism, socialism, etc). Sometimes the same word is used to identify both an ideology and one of its main ideas. For instance, “socialism” may refer to an economic system, or it may refer to an ideology which supports that economic system.

Ideologies also identify themselves by their position on the political spectrum (such as the left, the centre or the right), though this is very often controversial. However this is not commonly used in Tanzania.

In Tanzania it is very difficult to explain whether the proliferation of political parties is caused by ideological differences. On the contrary, it appears that the biggest motivation of differences between various political parties is their failure to resolve personal views and formulate a coherence ideology to work with.

### **The principles of law**

- i. All laws in the country should be conversant to the people; they must be prospective, open, clear and adequate. Laws should not therefore be confusing or contradictory.
- ii. Laws should be relatively stable, meaning that they should not be changed too often.
- iii. Laws should guarantee the independence of the judiciary whose duty is to apply them without interference.
- iv. There must be equality before the law; the rights of the citizens should be safely guided by the constitution, and thus protected against tyranny of government officials.

**1. The principles of checks and balances.** The principles are set to prevent the legislative and the judiciary from combining the absolutism by giving each structure a well defined role. (e.g. executive for enforcing the law, legislature for making the law and judiciary for setting disputes).

**2. The principles of fusion of power.** This is the distribution of power by joining the legislature and executive in one body. For example: in England, the prime minister and

the cabinet are top executives, but they are also members of Parliament and function under its direct control.

- 3. The principles of separation of power.** This is the distribution of power by dividing governing powers in order to prevent any branch of government from becoming too powerful. For example, in the USA, powers are divided among the President i.e. Executive, the Congress, the Legislature, and the Supreme Court (the Judiciary).

#### **A. Processes of constitutional change**

There are two main ways to amend a constitutional, the first way is partial amendments, the second is overhauling.

- i. In partial amendments, the right to make proposals is usually granted to an ordinary organ of government; normally the legislative authority or assembly. In some democracies it is through the initiative petition signed by a designed number of qualified voters.
- ii. The general revision of an existing constitution or the drafting of a new one is frequently entrusted to a special body, like a constitutional convention/conference. Its members may be elected or appointed, charged with the duty of conducting investigations, acquiring information and making recommendations, this is known as general overhauling.

#### **B. Interpretation**

There are five sources that guide interpretation of the Constitution. The text and structure of the Constitution, intentions of those who drafted, voted to propose, or voted to ratify the provision in question, prior precedents (usually judicial), the social, political, and economic consequences of alternative interpretations, and natural law.

From time to time the constitution is interpreted in order to avoid any institution to practice supremacy over other bodies and harm the balance of power. In mature democracy like in the USA and in most of the European countries there are considerable disagreements as to the relative weight that should be given to certain issues, particularly when they indicate divergence of interests. In such cases, interpreters of the Constitution are always consulted.

In principle these interpretive guides, aim at maintaining the gist and substance of the framers of the Constitution if they still hold in terms of appropriateness. In practice, often the concern is whether what is to be applied can meet the judicial scrutiny which is granted with the power to protect the text of the Constitution.

Change of the constitution can take place by the interpretation method, i.e. words phrases, and clauses are differently constructed from time to time as occasion demands. Constitutional interpretation is not confined to public officer. Whenever disputes arise concerning the meaning of some provisions, the following are considered.

- The attitude of the general public (public wants)
- The options of political parties (opposition parties)
- The opinions of the pressure groups

### **C. Custom and usage**

This necessitates change in the constitution according to the new customs and usage involved. It must be remembered that the universal suffrage, was a reflection of an emerging class that wanted to reduce the powers of the monarchies. In many ways the constitution that emanated from such competitive politics had aimed to reduce the power of the incumbent and vitalize the progressive elements that wanted to change matters through major political reforms.

So the main interest was to ensure that the vast republicans participate in the decision making process. Thus there is a need to establish political subdivisions. Generally the constitution is a fundamental law that facilitates in the running of the government. It contains Articles drafted and adopted by the Parliament reflecting the interest of the majority.

It is established to avoid disputes and arbitrary rule, it stipulates the nature of representation and, therefore, it is considered as the wise and honest way of setting standards for governing a country. As long as it is drafted by the people's representatives, it is taken to be an entirely best instrument for reaching decisions for the benefit of the entire community. With the help of lawyers and others who may wish to go through the text, it is quoted from time to time in order to maintain law and order.

### **D. Organic legislation**

These organic laws may, fix the size of legislature, establishing the terms for which certain offices may be held. Determine the methods of selecting various public officials. Create courts and prescribe judicial procedures, etc.

### **E) Importance of the constitution**

The constitution is important in the sense that it puts limits on government. It is like a contract between the government and the people. The people who 'serve' in the government take an oath that they will support and defend the constitution. This means that they will



obey the constitution and the spirit and intent of the constitution, and will not do anything which is contrary to the constitution.

The Judiciary rules on laws and behavior of office holders and determines if their actions are constitutional or not. It is supposed to check the behavior of those in office not to do harm to people by abusing the power of their office. And if it works and if those in offices are honest and, fair, then people's freedom and rights will be guaranteed.

This is the essence of the systems of check and balance, that the constitution is important because it forms a framework for all the three pillars of the government; i.e. the Executive, Judiciary, and Legislature. It protects human rights. It provides basic rules for human guidance.

#### **F) The pillars of the Tanzanian Constitution**

- i. Tanzania abides to the system of representative democracy in which people through their representatives, Members of Parliament, and civic leaders have a binding say in most of the decisions.
- ii. It is a government that allows the system of check and balance to operate. There are three branches of the government, namely; law making, law enforcing, and law interpreting. Each of these branches has its defined role and responsibility. In that way these branches are balanced.
- iii. The government is governed by laws and not persons. The Constitution is the highest law in the land; every person is required to respect it, regardless of their positions. The constitution protects the rights of individuals, this is aimed at avoiding any form of tyranny.

#### **Importance of local governments in Tanzania**

These are aimed at reducing the heavy burden of governing from the central government. They have a substantial control of local affairs, villages, municipalities and cities. This gives more power to the people. They promote democracy, for instance villagers are given room to participate fully in democratic elections, and in improving administrative efficiency of the central government.

Local government gives people more say in their affairs, particularly in deciding on the use of funds or local resources. They link the local community with the central government through local authorities. The government channels funds through local governments down to the grass root level.

### **The Civil Society in Tanzania**

There has been a tremendous growth in non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Tanzania over the last few decades, and with the many reforms presently taking place, the civil society has played a vital role in both service delivery and the development of democracy. The non-governmental organizations have been advocating for human rights and democratic participation in various institutions.

Their active role is much noted in social service delivery, district development trusts and religious organizations. Although they are characterized by donor dependency, however their contribution is significant. They have been able to mobilize local resources. Both NGO and CBO activities are concentrated in the areas that were privileged already in the colonial times. As the local government reform may increase regional and religious differences, donors are advised to pay increased attention to these issues when supporting local organizations.

The main challenge in further support to civil society in Tanzania is to enhance popular participation and to support a process which mobilizes local resources. The civil society can make significant impact if it conducts its affairs by networking with mass media and other pressure groups to disseminate policies and reforms, as well as awareness programmes that may engender increased popular participation in the development process.

### **The main contribution of NGOs in Tanzania**

They have been supporting poverty alleviation activities, they have participated in advising the government in many of its decisions. They have relieved the government through various campaigns, for instance Domestic Violence by Legal and Human Rights Centre (LHRC), Female Genital by Mutilation-Tanzania Media Women Association (TAMWA).

The Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP) has been working in close alliance with other stakeholders in deepening the civil society, women's empowerment, equality and gender transformation. It has encouraged the marginalized to participate in the governing of the country in order to get themselves rid of the downtrodden status. The NGO's have provided a forum for discussing pertinent issues surrounding palatial participation in the country, for instance the policy forum.

Activism in Tanzania has brought significant impact in removing social ills that have adverse effect on people's lives. For example three NGOs namely the Legal and Human Rights Centre (LHRC), National Organisation for Legal Assistance (NOLA), and the Lawyers Environmental Action Team ( LEAT ), took the government to task after it allowed the controversial and infamous "takrima law" to pass in the Parliament. This was rejected on the argument that it legalized corruption under the pretext of "traditional 'hospitality'".

The High Court of Tanzania in Dar es Salaam, sitting as a full bench ordered that 'takrima' provisions be struck off the National Elections Act of 1985 forthwith, because they are unconstitutional.

The ruling was made on April 24, 2006 by Judges Nathalia Kimaro, Salum Massati and Thomas Mihayo in a long judgment that saw the crumbling of the State's intention of maintaining the status. In their judgment the judges said the 'takrima' provisions were evidently both discriminative and violated Articles 13(1) and 21(1) of the Constitution. They were therefore quite unnecessary.

They said the law as it was before the introduction of the 'takrima' provisions was sufficient to enable the Court to distinguish expenses inevitable in the election process which did not amount to corrupt practice and those which amounted to corrupt practices per se.

The judges said that the Parliament contravened Article 13(2) of the Constitution by enacting such provisions into the National Elections Act.

'It amounts to building a culture, which if sustained, will lead this nation to a dangerous destination. People should get the opportunity to think freely and decide freely and should not be subjected to influence of 'takrima.' They should also be left to learn it is their responsibility and duty to elect competent candidates and not those who are able to influence voting by offering 'takrima'. They said in their judgment.

They said offering of gifts by political candidates to voters before election, sufficed to draw an inference that the giver thereof had in mind that the recipients of the gifts would vote for him. This is just one indication of how different institutions in the given government can work in checking the power of a dominant institution, in this case the Parliament, whose main composition is from the ruling party, Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM).

### **Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and Faith Based Organization (FBOs) supporting role**

Essentially many of the CBOs and the FBOs are established in order to support the government in its role of providing services. However they have also turned out to be good agents in the democratization process for number of reasons:

- i. They provide basic education to the participants, giving various guidelines, and collaborative effort of various actors and stakeholders in education.

- ii. They enlighten participants through the initiative of many actors (public and private). Due to the great variety and elaborated strategies, their implementation has been shared between the main groups of actors.
- iii. They improve knowledge of participants on the policy level, and they sensitize members/ participants on gender issues, labour relations, human rights and environmental protection.
- iv. CBOs and FBOs are the best agents in the distribution of available knowledge in vocational education programmes, apprenticeship training, skill up-grading, informal education training, technical and communication.
- v. Moreover, they can be used as supporting agents to the existing institutions that deliver home economics and health education programmes. They can offer education which is lacking in the formal education sector, including post-primary technical centres, they can design new curriculum and provide special adult education training in the existing centres, like Folk Development Colleges.
- vi. In order to participate fully in the pursuit of sustainable development, there is a need to incorporate their activities with networks that can work together in the effective dissemination of information.
- vii. For instance, establishing community radio, newsletter for sensitizing communities on their role of improving their quality of life; collaborate with media institutions both public and private.
- viii. The liberalization of publicity and mass media channels, radios, newspapers, television channels, and other providers of education and training.
- ix. CBOs and FBOs can widen financial resource base, and broaden access and equity and improvement of education which is facilitative in discussing pertinent issues and effective ways of self employment.
- x. Although a good number of them lack permanent infrastructure, but their contribution has been mainly in terms of ensuring that the interests of all stakeholders are represented.
- xi. Generally, they are good agents in disseminating essential and sustainable knowledge and life skills related to early childhood care, nutrition, hygiene, health, and environmental education and human rights.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### INTERNATIOAL CO-OPERATION

#### TOPIC OUTLINE:

**i: Introduction.**

- a) Definition of International Co-operation
- b) Background information

**ii: Foreign Policy.**

- a) Definition
- b) Tanzania's foreign policy

**iii: Bilateral and Multilateral Co-Operation**

- a) Bilateral co-operation: Countries with bilateral relations with Tanzania.
- b) Multilateral co-operation: Regional Organizations
  - i. Objectives and implementation of Regional Organizations.
    - East African Co-operation (EAC)
    - SADC
    - COMESA
    - ECOWAS.
  - ii. Structure, objectives ad implementation strategies of AU.

**iv: International Peace and Understanding.**

- a) Background information
- b) International organizations concerned with promotion of peace and understanding. E.g. NAM, Commonwealth, European Union, NATO etc.
- c) Historical background of UN, its structure, objectives and implementation strategies.
- d) Objectives of different UN agencies: UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF, FAO, IMF, WB, UNHCR, WHO, UNEP, ILO etc

**v: Tanzania's Foreign Debt.**

- a) Meaning of foreign debt
- b) Origin of Tanzania's foreign debt
- c) Implications of the debt to Tanzania's development.
- d) Solutions to the debt crisis.

## **International Co-operation**

### **The concept**

There is no nation in the world which is endowed with all resources to meet the life and developmental needs of its citizens. For this reason states/ nations have to cooperate in order to meet the national interests and goals, whether political, economic, social or cultural.

Relation among states in meeting the national goals can be traced as far as 1648 during the Westphalia treaty. From that time several changes had taken place in modifying the relations among states. These changes were due to improvement in science and technology where it is easier now for the citizens of different states to communicate, since the means of communication and transportation have been improved.

The actors of international co-operation have changed from only sovereign state to other actors, like individual persons, multilateral companies' e.g. JVC, Coca Cola, Olympics, FIFA and UN agencies such as UNESCO, WHO, etc. All these have enhanced international co-operation.

But all in all, necessity for cooperation in the world is increasing day after day, as the world now need to put together efforts to bring world peace, to protect the environment and to fight against poverty.

Therefore, in a nutshell, International Cooperation can be defined as the relation among nations in all spheres of life. This relation can be economic where the states share economic activities and gains, e.g. between China and Tanzania. Diplomatic relations whereby embassies are used in strengthening political and cultural relations among the nations. e.g. Tanzania and Mozambique have cultural relations that involve sports, games and economic ties.

## **Foreign Policy**

There are rules and principles that oversee relations among nations in order to ensure fair play in the international politics. These rules and regulations are known as foreign policy.

Foreign policy can be defined as *a system established by a country in order to maintain relations with other states*. The system acts as a guide of a country in dealing with other actors in international cooperation. Any foreign policy is there to defend national interests. National interests are mainly based on economic, social, security, freedom and national values.

National interests can be grouped into two primary interests, e.g. national security and sovereignty. These are paramount to the state, and they are defended by all means, even war. Secondary interests are the ones which the state ought to get from another states e.g. investment, technology, education, etc.

In other words, foreign policy is the extension of domestic policy. It is the mirror of what the nation is doing and what want to achieve and to be achieved by others. E.g. Tanzania is a peaceful country and is always advocacy of peaceful co-existence of other actors in the international community. Foreign policy is dynamic; it changes according to the global demands.

### **Tanzania's Foreign policy**

Like any other country in the world, Tanzania formulated its own foreign policy to maintain regular political, social and economic affairs with other nations.

### **Principles of Tanzania Foreign Policy**

- (i) To promote independence of all Africa states.
- (ii) To Maintain the right of every country to self – determination
- (iii) To maintain world peace and security by arbitration of conflict through diplomatic means.
- (iv) To promote international co-operation and understanding through organizations such as UNO, AU, NAM etc.
- (v) To fight for human rights and democracy in the world.

These are the principles that guide Tanzania's foreign policy in the world arena. Foreign policy is managed by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Relations through the Embassies or High Commissions. Our Ambassadors or High Commissioners who have been posted in foreign countries, play the following roles.

- (i) To represent Tanzanians in the countries they have been posted.
- (ii) To popularize Tanzania's natural, social and cultural resources.
- (iii) To promote and maintain Tanzania's relations with other international organizations.
- (iv) To register and assist Tanzanians who live in foreign countries when there is a need.
- (v) To make preparation for and facilitating trips of Tanzania leaders in the foreign countries.

The historical development of Tanzania foreign policy can be traced into three major levels, these are:

- (i) Time soon after independence and before Arusha declaration. This was the time for nationalist struggle in most of the African countries. Tanzania foreign policy by that time supported the liberation struggles and aligned with non-alignment movements that helped Tanzania to pursue her foreign policy in all aspects; social, political, cultural and economic. Tanzania was the leader of the frontline liberation states and its headquarters was in Dar- es- Salaam.
- (ii) Time after Arusha declaration to late 1980s. This was the time when Tanzania decided to adopt socialist ideology. Also decided to emphasize on issues of security, defense and liberation as whole. In 1970s several changes occurred in global politics, and affected Tanzania's pursuence of her foreign policy.

### **Bilateral and Multilateral Co-Operation**

#### **(i) Bilateral cooperation.**

This is a type of co-operation which involves the agreement between two states. E.g. Tanzania and Kenya, Zambia, Malawi etc. Countries evolved in this agreement can agree to cooperate in various aspects like economic, cultural, scientific and technological researches, political, security and defense.

#### **(ii) Multilateral co –operation.**

This is a type of cooperation which involves a group of nations, E.g. Regional Economic Groupings such as EAC, SADC, ECOWAS, COMESA etc. This can either be for economic or security reasons, like **NATO**.



## **Regional Economic Intergration: Multilateral Co-Operation**

Regional economic integration is the cooperation of several countries for the sake of enjoying economic benefits. There are different forms of *Economic Integration*. It is classified according to the levels of development, as follows.

**i) A free trade area.**

An this stage, member countries eliminate trade barriers/tariff which obstructs free movement of goods and services. But each member county is free to establish independent tariffs against non member countries.

**ii) A custom union.**

In addition to having abolished trade restrictions among member countries, members have the common tariff against non - members.

**iii) Common Market.**

On top of what is in custom union, there is free movement of factors of production among the member countries. People are allowed to work freely within member countries, also are allowed investing within these countries.

**iv) An economic community.**

This stage comprises all elements in common market, plus instituting joint ownership of certain enterprise, harmonize economic policies, and they may also use the same currency, e.g. in the European Union.

**v) Total political integration.**

It can either be a Union, like Tanganyika and Zanzibar or a Federation like the USA.

This level has a supra-national authority, which makes decisions binding to all member countries. It is not necessary for countries to graduate from one level to another. Countries / group of countries may decide to start at any level. For instance, Tanganyika and Zanzibar started at the top level.

## **EAST AFRICAN CO-OPERATION (EAC)**

### **Historical background**

East African Community is a cooperation of five independent states, namely, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi. The states are found in the Eastern part of the African continent, with an area of about 1.8 million kilometers squares. The area has a population of about 130 million people with the growth rate of 2.8% annually that is the highest within the region.

These five countries have enjoyed cultural, political and social relations for a long period.

The cooperation of East African states can be traced back to 19<sup>th</sup> Century. For instance, from 1901 there were several services administered on a joint basis by Kenya and Uganda, like Kenya – Uganda railway.

In 1919, after Germans' defeat in the First World War, the British government took over Tanganyika as a mandated territory under the League of Nations. The first three countries (Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika) were under one colonial master.

In 1921, the common external tariff for all dependences stated. In 1926, the Governors conference instituted and coordinated common services in East Africa. Furthermore, in 1927, the East Africa common market was established. From 1947 to 1961, the East African High Commission was established. In 1967, the treaty for East African Cooperation was established to control and administer some matters. Arusha municipality was chosen to be the headquarters of this Community.

### **Objectives of the Community**

Objectives of the East African Community were the following:

- To promote free trade of goods among member countries:
- To provide common services:
- To have a common currency to facilitate movement and exchange of goods.
- To facilitate free movement of people among member countries.

Unfortunately, despite these good objectives and strategies that were promulgated by member states, the Community collapsed after ten years.

## **Reasons for the demise of East African Community**

There were several reasons that led to the collapse of East African Community in 1977. They included the following:-

First, differences in ideology and economic status among member states, whereby Tanzania adopted socialism, Kenya continued with capitalism, while Uganda was between socialism and capitalism.

Second, overthrow of the Obote regime by the army. Obote was a close friend of Mwalimu Nyerere, and therefore, Mwalimu Nyerere decided not to meet the then president (Idd Amin). Later, Mwalimu Nyerere provided support to overthrow the Idd Amin regime. The situation created misunderstandings between Tanzanian and Uganda governments. Therefore, it was very difficult for East African leaders to meet.

Third, difference in currency, in terms of values. Kenyan currency was higher than the other two currencies of the two member states.

Fourth, dissatisfaction among the member states that Kenya was benefiting more than other member states. Kenya was economically more powerful than other members. This made the other two to be a market of her industrial goods.

Fifth, involvement of citizens was minimal. All decisions were made by the top leadership, the ruled were not consulted. This resulted to a lot of misgivings because of unilateral decisions.

Sixth, many functions were bestowed upon leaders, such that heads of state were heavily involved in many functions to the extent that it become very difficult for them to carry out all functions properly.

Seventh, East African Development Bank failed to meet its founders' expectations. There were many demands but the bank's income was unable to meet the demand.

Eighth, territorial war which erupted between Uganda and Tanzania.

Ninth, neo- colonialism and its adverse effects.

### **Formation of the new East African Community**

The collapse of the then East African Community in 1977 was followed by an agreement in 1984 to divide assets and liabilities of the former East African Community. The agreement paved the way for new areas of cooperation and strategies to form a new community.

By the year 2000, the new East African Community was established by the three heads of the state, namely, Benjamin W. Mkapa of Tanzania, Yoweri K. Museveni of Uganda and Daniel T.A. Moi of Kenya. The new Community identified areas of co-operation.

#### **Areas of co-operation.**

- (i) Customs co-operation
- (ii) Community tariff co-operation
- (iii) Monetary co-operation in infrastructure and services
- (iv) Co-operation in development of human resources, science and technology.
- (v) Free movement of people, labour services and the right to establish residence.
- (vi) Agriculture and food security
- (vii) Co-operation in tourism and wildlife management
- (viii) Co-operation in health and social-cultural activities
- (ix) Co-operation in political affairs
- (x) Enhancing the role of women in socio-economic development.

#### **Objectives of the Community**

The following are objectives of the new East African Community:

- To attain sustainable growth and development of partner states by promotion of a more balanced and harmonious development of the states:
- To strengthen and consolidate the cooperation in agreed fields that would lead to equitable economic development within the partner states, which would in turn, raise people's standard of living and improve their quality of life.
- To promote good governance and accountability:
- To promote sustainable utilization of natural resources and protect the environments.
- To enhance and strengthen participation of private sectors in the region.

In order to achieve the stated objectives, the Community works under the following principles:

- i. Mutual trust between people of East African countries;
- ii. Peaceful co-existence and good neighborhood
- iii. Peaceful settlement of disputes;
- iv. Equitable distribution of resources;
- v. Co-operation for mutual benefits.

### **Achievements of the East African Community**

Over ten years since its re-establishment, the new East African Community made several achievements in the following areas:

1. The Community has promoted political relationship within member states. There have been improvements in political relationships. For example, member countries formed the East African Community Parliament which, among other things, discusses political issues. Each member state has a Ministers responsible for East African Community matters. The Community holds regular meetings of Heads of States to discuss issues and make final decisions.
2. Culturally, the Community has succeeded to enhance sports and games. There are several regional competitions that have been introduced, and they are held on rotational basis.
3. There are several projects that have been initiated to improve communication and transportation. For example, road network.

In addition, there are several transport companies that are providing services among member countries. For example, Kampala Express, Hood Limited and Akamba Bus Services, to mention just a few. Also there are some radio and television stations that are operating within East Africa.

4. There is an increase in free movement of people and labour between member's states. For example, many Tanzanian youths and pupils are now schooling in Uganda and Kenya. There are many Kenyans and Ugandans who are working here in Tanzania in various sectors, including banking, education, hotel management, industries and tourism.

Currently, it is easy for Tanzanians to buy commodities and get services from Kenya, Uganda, Burundi and Rwanda.

5. On top of that there is flow of capital. Many companies from Kenya are now operating in Tanzania. Also there are Tanzanian companies that are also providing services and trade in Kenya and Uganda. Such have created employment opportunities and are improving standards of living of all citizens within the Community. Such companies include Uniliver, Cursor Security, and Kenya Commercial Bank.
6. Admission of new members – Burundi and Rwanda
7. Contribute to peace in the Great Lake Region.

### **The concept of East African Federation**

The East African Community is now looking forward to form East African Federation. In another development, the Community has increased its members from three to five states. The inclusion of these two new members will increase the population to about 120 million people and hence, will widen the market for commodities produced by member countries.

Despite colorful achievements attained by the Community, and the intention to form a federation, it is obvious this intention, is facing many challenges. The challenges are as follows:

1. Despite efforts made by member states in improving the infrastructure, still the link between these states is highly influenced by the colonial market which was based on exploitation of raw materials. In due regard, roads are unevenly distributed, for example, Kenya and Uganda are more linked than between Tanzania and Kenya. Also not all parts of the Community are easily reachable from one side to the other. This has to be solved if the Community wants to succeed in forming the desired federation.
2. The headquarters of the Community are in Arusha, Tanzania, but Community Ministers and dignitaries working in the Community operate from their capital cities. It is very difficult for them to handle all issues / matters with poor communication systems. It could be better if their offices were placed at one center to facilitate smooth administration.
3. Economic imbalances between member countries are not yet solved. There is no effective and sustainable mechanism set to readdress the imbalances. For that case, Kenyan industries and companies claim that Uganda economy is growing at a higher

rate than the Kenyan economy, yet the infrastructures and investment opportunities are favoring Kenya compared to other member states.

4. Security has been a problem to the Community. For instance, in Northern Uganda there are skirmishes between the government and rebel groups. Such civil wars have disturbed the infrastructure, and continue to devastate people's lives.

In Kenya, land conflicts are very common, especially near general elections. Ethnic groups fight for their land. In addition, border conflicts between cattle keepers of Kenya and Uganda are not completely solved.

In Tanzania, there were some political clashes those in Zanzibar, as well as land use conflicts between pastoralists and farmers in several districts, including Kilosa and Kiteto.

In Somalia, the country has been without government for almost two decades, and peace has been a nightmare to Somalis. Such clan conflicts in Somalia are continuously causing an influx of refugees and widespread ownership of sophisticated weapons to Somalis who use them to harm innocent civilians within the East African region.

In Burundi, the situation has just started to calm down after the formation of the national government. But there are still few localized wars, and other groups have not yet signed Dar es Salaam and Arusha peace accords.

In Democratic Republic of the Congo, there are guerilla wars that are causing loss of people's lives and the country's natural resources.

All these have caused insecurity in the interlacustrine region that includes East African. Yet, the organization structure of East African Community seems to neglect/not to put much emphasis on security issues because the structure lacks a Security Council to address these issues. Although "security" is well highlighted in the treaty itself.

5. In the former East African Community, many decisions and functions of the Community were left in the hands of the Supreme Authority. In this case, Heads of State were overworked because they were given too much power to decide over the masses. In this regard, misunderstandings between the Heads of State could lead to the collapse of the Community. Such a case happened in 1977.

The same worry seems to hold water, whereas many responsibilities for the Community's organizations are at ministerial level. This poses a problem especially in the current setup where Ministers perform their duties by a "remote control system". This causes delays in deciding on issues and taking necessary actions.

For the desired formation of the Federation to be successful, challenges have to be checked and the mandate for formation of the federation should come from the masses through a referendum.

### **Towards East Africa Referendum: The logic of fast-tracking.**

In 1977, the legendary East African Community, which had emerged from the East African Community Services Organization (a successor to the colonial East African High Commission) collapsed. The process of liquidating the organization, however, recommended that options for possible future cooperation should be left open. Thus, revival of the East African Community began in earnest in 1999 when a Treaty on East African Cooperation was adopted by the three partner states and subsequently ratified by them in 2000.

Ten years before that a process, which sought to re-establish closer links between the three East African countries, began with a Nairobi Communiqué on re-establishment of the East African Secretariat. Later on, an agreement was reached between the partner states to re-establish the E.A Secretariat in 1996. From 1997 to 2000, East African Co-operation was pursued, and at the end of that period, an evaluation exercise came to the conclusion that "... The implementation of the work programme had been quite successful, commendable and encouraging ...." This laid the foundation for the signing and subsequent ratification of the treaty. The cost of non-integration was deemed to be high.

### **The Wako Committee**

By 2005, the only visible progress had been made by putting in place a Customs Union Protocol after four years of protracted negotiations. In 2004, there was general dissatisfaction with the rate of progress among the member countries. As a result, they appointed a committee to look into the possibility of fast-tracking the East African federation. The terms of reference were to make appropriate recommendations "... to expedite and compress the process of integration so that the ultimate goal of political federation is achieved through a fast-track mechanism ...". The committee embarked upon its work on 21<sup>st</sup> September, 2004 and reported back on 26<sup>th</sup> November 2004, a relatively short period.



In the course of its work, the Committee examined the following three fast-tracking options:

- 1) Compression current sequential stages of integration; namely; customs union; common market; monetary union and political federation;
- 2) Overlapping and parallel processes; and
- 3) Immediate establishment of East African Federation.

It is important to note that in the course of its deliberations, the Committee emphasized on the importance of a firm foundation for establishment of a political federation, in particular, a solid economy base backed up by popular support across the region. Thus in its recommendations, the report stressed the idea of a concerted effort to educate people and popularize the idea of a political federation including the possibility of holding public referenda to obtain popular consent. This would make political legitimacy for the federation.

In its recommendations, the Committee chose the second option, overlapping and parallel processes of integration. It eschewed the compression and immediate federation options, although it embraced the 2010 target for political federation. Regarding the third option, in particular, the Committee noted the fact that integration of political authority would help to eliminate or at least, minimize the problem of divided loyalties between national and regional interests. That would inevitably lead to inordinate delays in execution of decisions or, even worse, the virtual paralysis of institutions. However, the Committee avoided the third option for the following reasons:

- 1) The historical legacy of the earlier collapse including fears it may evoke;
- 2) Past failures of declaratory federations and the problem of sovereignty it was the case of the Ghana-Guinea-Mali federation. Pre-occupation with internal political concerns in the interest of maintaining political power at home; and.
- 3) Pre-occupation with internal political concerns in the interest of maintaining political power at home; and
- 4) Economic imbalances between member countries resulting in obstacles to free movement of goods and factors of production.

The report takes into account the visionary purpose of establishment of the East African Federation, which is...” the accelerated economic development for all to enable the East African to move away from the Least Developed Region to a Development Region in the shortest possible time...” Specific recommendations relating to the chosen strategy include

leaving the time frame for the Customs Union to last for five years, beginning in January 2005, and the minimum requirements for a common market as well as monetary union are to run parallel in the same period as the customs union. These arrangements include:

- The Protocol on free Movement of Labour (Jan 2005-Jun 2005-Jan.2006);
- The Protocol on the Common Market (Jan. 2005-Dec. 2007); and
- The Monetary Policy Co-coordinating Committee (Dec.2005-Dec. 2007)

The overall implementation process was envisioned to take form of strategic interventions sequenced in three phases. The first (preparatory) phase focusing on institutional framework and financial inputs would last from 2005 to 2006. The second (implementation) phase involving implementation of the customs union, common market and monetary union would last from 2006 to 2009. The third (consolidation) phase would begin with launching of the political federation in 2010 and end in 2013 with establishment of an electoral system for the federation. The Committee did not fully subscribe to the idea that all integrative measures are necessarily pre-requisites for political federation. Only essentials were necessary.

### **Responses to Wako Committee.**

The Wako Committee report was received with a mixture of anxiety, skepticism and, in some cases, complete cynicism. In some cases, it was considered over-ambitious and threatening. The Committee was also accused of pandering to politicians' whims and fancies. However, to be fair, it should be stressed that the Committee was set up to explore ways of accelerating the process and making appropriate recommendations. The issue of whether or not to fast track was outside its mandate.

Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that the Wako report reveals at least two fundamental weaknesses. One weakness is that it does not discuss in depth the rationale for political federation, leave alone, for fast tracking. The second weakness is that the report is largely pre occupied with economic concerns and even those in a rather narrow framework of gains to parties to the federation. The report hardly touches on the international dimension in terms of addressing challenges posed by globalization. This point is raised though not developed by Present Mwai Kibaki of Kenya who states that "..... I am a firm believer that regional integration in the contemporary world is not a choice but a necessary strategy for rapid and sustainable development..." Present Museveni of Uganda is even more precise when he says that ".... There is a limit to how much you can with economic integration even if it succeeds.... You need to go beyond the economic integration to cover some of the targets of security our future, the future of the black people" .... For example, defense and security, especially research ....."

One of the studied and systematic responses to the Wako report was made by T.N Kibua and A. Thostensen in a report prepared by the Norwegian government. In this report, authors came to the following conclusion regarding the whole question of fast-tracking:

- That the substance and direction of integration was not in question.
- That most stakeholders favored a gradual building block approach”... in a coherent, complementary and sequential fashion, guided by the development strategy of the EAC...”
- That the timeframe was unrealistic bearing in mind the complex but necessary negotiations on critical issues, such as free movement of labour.
- That there was lack of popular support for the initiative.
- That each member state had specific political problems impinging upon their freedom to decide and act promptly that needed to be addressed.

### **The Imperatives of Regional Integration**

There is a sense in which the Wako report and responses to it, missed, the essence of regional integration and, even more so, political federation. I have argued elsewhere that there are at least four types of rationales or imperatives that lie behind formation and sustenance of regional integration schemes. They are affection, gain, threat and power. Imperatives mean kinds of factors or impulses that create the impetus and give rise to the drive as well as yearning for integration among members. They provide the premium mobile that propels regional integration or political union by ensuring sustainability and transformation.

Imperatives may arise from two perceptual domains. They may arise from the domain of choice or they may belong to the domain of necessity. Necessity and choice are dialectically opposed such that the more necessity exerts itself, the less the choice one can make. Thus, it is the extent to which a particular imperative exerts itself upon one's very existence which determines whether it is a choice of imperative or a necessity imperative. The more the imperative impinges upon one's vision, the more it is likely to belong to necessity, rather than choice. This is according to perceptions of those involved in envisioning their future. These visions are usually expressed in preambles of the Treaties establishing integration of schemes.

The affection imperative is essentially emotive. It refers to a situation where countries come into an integration arrangement because they have a lot in common and feel some bonds of affection. It is frequently argued, for example, that because the East African countries are connected by a common language, a common colonial heritage, and cross-border affinities

between different ethnic groups, regional integration should automatically follow. The first Article of the preamble to the treaty reads: "... Whereas the United Republic of Tanzania, the Republic of Kenya and the Republic of Uganda have enjoyed close historical, commercial, industrial, cultural and other ties for many years...." Yet it is obvious that if these were the case, collapse of the East African Community in 1977, would not have happened. Therefore, affection does not seem to be a strong imperative. If this so, are we on yet another false start?

Gain is by far the most celebrated imperative held responsible not only for the initiation, but also sustenance of the intergrated regional schemes. Gain and loss are central tenets of rational choice theory, which contends that individuals and states tend to behave in a manner which maximizes their gains, while minimizing their losses. Beginning with Jacob Viner's concerns with trade creation and trade diversion effects, regional integration theories have largely been preoccupied with economic welfare gains from trade within the block or from without. Unequal distribution of gains between members of a block is also held to be a vital source of potential discontent, except, perhaps, if the cost of non- integration is perceived to be extremely high.

Preoccupation with material gain is itself the source of major weaknesses of this approach. One weakness is that it reduces the dynamic of integration to economic motives. The other weakness is that it fails to distinguish between gains cause and gain as consequence of integration. To suggest, for example, that the European Co-operation is the result of gain alone, is to lose sight of the peace and security imperative that gave rise to formation of the European Coal and Steel Community in the first place. In this case, it may be said that economic gain is a consequence and not vice verse. As Arnold Baker argues: "... Even when FTA (Free Trade Areas) are factors to consider: the existence to community consciousness, the political will, and security interests..."

The shared perception of threat and the quest for collective security and protection is, perhaps, the strongest incentive toward integration. This may arise from two distinct situations. One situation is where two or more countries find themselves locked in a mutually threatening relationship and have to reach some compromise leading to peaceful coexistence. This is what lay behind formation of the European Coal and Steel Community by France and Germany in 1951. The other situation is when there exists a perception of a common external threat in which case countries come closer to enhance their capacity to defend themselves. This is what lay behind formation of NATO against the perceived threat from the Soviet Union and her allies. It is this imperative which should inform regional integration in the third, once it is realized that globalization threatens their very continued existence.

Power as an imperative refers to the situation where a regional hegemony forces the neighborhood into an integration arrangement. The most extreme case would be military intervention or regime change to install a compliant leadership. Hegemonic integration involves not only existence of a relatively more powerful country in the region, but also the capacity and inclination on part of that country to meet costs of hegemony by offering incentives for members to stay and imposing sanctions on those who may want to break. To a very large extent, the Comecon countries were brought and held together by Soviet hegemony. Like wise, the NATO block is essentially maintained by the United States of America.

The hegemonic model is unlikely to work in the East African setting for apparently contradictory reasons. On one hand, there is hardly any country which can be considered a viable hegemony and is able to obtain legitimacy and master requisite resources to pay for costs of maintaining a stable hegemonic arrangement. On the other hand, suspicions of hidden hegemonic motives on part of Kenya, still persist. It is part of such suspicions that brought about collapse of the old East African Community. Fears of unequal distribution of gains and burden sharing also exist. In 2001, Tanzania pulled out of COMESA precisely for fear of losing customs and excise revenue from tariffs. In a hegemonic arrangement, such fears would normally be allayed by the hegemonic partner through compensation. This is also handicapped by imperatives of sovereignty, which for small and weak countries, is so passionately guarded that it becomes an additional obstacle to deeper integration.

**Diagram 1: Necessity and choice imperatives**

<b>Necessity</b>	<b>Threat</b>	<b>Gain</b>
	<b>Hegemony</b>	<b>Affection</b>
	<b>Choice</b>	

**The East African Community Imperatives**

The Treaty founding the East African Community in its present form was signed by the parties in November 1999 and came into force in July 2000. However, the origination itself has a much longer and checkered history dating back to the British Colonial history in East African, going as far back as the early 1920s when Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika united first as, a free trade area, and later (1927), a Customs Union. In the post-WWII period, the Union was transformed into the East African High Commission providing several joint services, including railways, harbours and common currency.

This arrangement was to further evolve into the East African Common Services Organization in the post-independence period after efforts to establish an East African Federation had failed in the face of parochial nationalism. The Common Services Organization itself experienced a number of difficulties before being transformed into the first East African Community through the treaty for East African Co-operation in 1967. Owing to persistent problems arising primarily from competing narrow 'national' self-interests, divergent ideologies and parochial sovereignty, the Community finally, collapsed in 1977, triggering a long and quite acrimonious process of distributing assets and assigning liabilities to member states.

The present EAC arose quite literally out to ashes of the collapse one. It was a result of protracted negotiations between the partner states (Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda) beginning in 1993 when the Heads of State signed an agreement to revive co-operation among the three states. Negotiations were in accordance with Article 14. 02 of the East African Community Mediation Agreement of 1984 which provided for exploration and identification of areas of future co-operation. As if no lessons have been learned from the collapse of the community twenty five years ago, the treaty adopts a gradualist and functionalist approach. Thus, it does not differ fundamentally from earlier efforts. This is particularly true since the treaty fails to abandon parochial sovereignty in favor of pooled sovereignty, to transcend relative economic gains as the driving force and embrace long-term strategic goal, as well as to meaningfully mobilize and organization the East Africans from below.

The imperatives underlying the renewed East African Community are not very explicit. Basically, the Treaty adopts the affection' imperative when, in the first paragraph of Preamble, it invokes the fact that the three countries".... Have enjoyed close historical, commercial, industrial, cultural and other relations".... And proceeds to recount the organizational forms this relationship has assumed since colonial days. It is also inspired by the 'gain' imperative in so far as it repeatedly stresses equitable sharing of benefit's between the partner states. Although the Secretary General's foreword highlights the recognition "... those small and weak states have no future in this highly competitive world..." (that in the recognition of threat), but is not reflected in the Treaty itself.

Addressing the issue of collapse of the Treaty for East African Cooperation in 1977 and, therefore, anticipating pitfalls that must be avoided by the current arrangement, the current Treaty identifies the main reasons to include lack of a strong political will; absence of the private sector and civil society participation; disproportionate share of benefits; and lack of policies to redress the situation as it deteriorated. It fails to mention the narrow undiversified production base, dominance of national interests and their collusion with foreign capital, or lack of a clear vision based on a shared perception of threat. It should also be stressed that the

proverbial 'political will' is, in reality, a function of the members' interests. It is only to the extent that there is a clearly defined common interest or a convergence of national interests that 'political will' will be forthcoming.

**The Principal objectives of the East African Community include:**

- Developing policies and programmes aimed at widening and deepening co-operation among the partner states in political, economic, social, and cultural fields, research and technology, defense, security and justice affairs for their mutual benefit;
- Establishment, presumably, of a customs union, a common market, subsequently, (sic), a monetary union and ultimately, a political federation. To also reach some compromise leading to peaceful coexistence. This is what lay behind formation of the European Coal and Steel Community by France and Germany in 1951. The other situation is when there exists a perception of a common external threat, in which case countries come closer to enhance their capacity to defend themselves. This is what lay behind formation of NATO against the perceived threat from the Soviet Union and allies. It is this imperative which should induce the formation of a regional integration once it is realized that globalization threatens their very continued existence.

Power as an imperative refers to the situation where a regional hegemony forces the neighborhood into an integration arrangement. The most extreme case would be military intervention or regime change to install a compliant leadership. Hegemonic integration involves not only existence of a relatively more powerful country in the region, but also the capacity and inclination on part of that country to meet costs of hegemony by offering incentives to members to stay, and imposing sanctions on those who may want to leave. To a very large extent, the Comecon countries were brought and held together by Soviet hegemony. Like wise, the NATO block is essentially maintained by the United States of America.

The hegemonic model is unlikely to work in the East African setting for apparently contradictory reasons. On one had, there is hardly any country which can be considered a viable hegemony and is able to obtain legitimacy and master requisite resources to pay for costs of maintaining a stable hegemonic arrangement. On the other hand, however, suspicions of hidden hegemonic motives on part of Kenya, still persist. It is part such suspicions that brought about the collapse of the old East African Community. Fears of unequal distribution of gains and burden sharing losses. In 2001, Tanzania pulled out of COMESA precisely for fear of losing customs and excise revenue from tariffs. In a hegemonic arrangement, such fears would normally be allayed by the hegemonic partner through compensation. Such fears

are also handicapped by imperatives of sovereignty, which for small and weak countries, is so passionately guarded that it becomes an additional obstacle to deeper integration.

It is instructive to note that objectives articulated in the Treaty are fairly conventional, in the sense that they are not innovative in any fundamental way, except, perhaps, the provision for formation of a political federation. Moreover, there is no attempt to link these objectives directly with the EAC objectives. Unlike the Abuja Treaty, the EAC does not establish a clear time – table for implementation. Indeed, this has already raised many problems, particularly with regard to signing of the East African Customs Union Protocol. It was to be signed in November 2003. Finally, it was signed in March 2004 and set for implementation in July, 2004. Reasons for the delay are unlikely to go away any time soon, because, quoting the Chairman of the East African Business Council, James Mulwana, “... It is going to create a very big shock to the business community ...” He wanted implementation delayed for three to five years.

Organs or institutions established under the Treaty echo those established under the EAC and later the AU, albeit with some significant differences. They include the Summit; the Council; the Co-ordination Committee; the Sectoral Committee; the East African Court of Justice; the East African Legislative Assembly; the Secretariat, and such other organs as may be established by the Summit. These institutions are fairly standard, but it is interesting to note that the EAC does not have other important organs: the peace and security council; and the economic and social council, although these issue areas are highlighted in the Treaty itself. Regional peace and security, for example, is provided for under Articles 124 and 125, but no framework for defense co-operation has been worked out so far.

It is over ten years since the Heads of State of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda met in Arusha and signed an agreement to revive East African Co-operation, and over five years since the signing of the Treaty. From that time, considerable progress has been made in building institutions and establishing procedures to implement the Treaty. Notable among these institutions is the nomination of 27 and 3 ex-officio members of the East African Legislative Assembly which was inaugurated in November, 2001. It is significant to note that members of the house are drawn from national parliaments, and not popularly elected by East Africans. This runs against the goal of enhancing civil society participation in activities of the Community. It also denies the Assembly the kind of legitimacy which would lend authority to its decisions.

Writing in 2002, Mohabe Nyirabu was not at all optimistic about future prospects of the Community. Of the three possible paths he postulates, namely, closer economic integration, an East African federation and building of common institutions, he only sees some



prospects in the first one. He is skeptical about a political federation and equally doubtful about the possibility of effective and sustainable common institutions. Even with economic integration, Nyirabu feels that trade integration cannot be sustained without transformation of production in the region. This is because”... past economic practice is not encouraging and therefore, current optimism that creating a trade regime to remove tariffs will increase trade integration, is not convincing...”

### **The Logic of Political Federation**

From our discussion of imperatives of integration, it is clear that what drives integration initiatives, include the following:

1. Perceptions of the political leadership on a scale of necessity and choice and a shared vision of the future;
2. A clear understanding of the preponderance of common interests over individual interest;
3. Definition of goals to be accomplished including prioritization and sequencing; and
4. An acknowledgement of relative ineffectiveness of ‘national’ sovereignties and a commitment to ‘pooled’ sovereignty to enhance capacity to defend collective interests.

The quadrant above depicts the relationship between choice (freedom) and necessity. Briefly, what it suggests is that the more an integration arrangement is driven by imperatives of necessity, the greater the need for centralized political authority. East Africa and, indeed, Africa as a whole, faces challenges of marginalization of the region, disintegration of societies and fragmentation of communities under globalization. At the same time, Africa’s resources are being accessed at a faster pace and their exploitation is being intensified in an inverse relationship with exclusion and impoverishment of its people. Endemic poverty and violent conflicts are products. These challenges are threatening the very continued existence of African countries as we know them to-day. These challenges cannot be adequately addressed through gradual functionalist economic integration, but by bold political decisions and trade integration in the region.

## **SOUTHERN AFRICA DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY (SADC)**

### **What is SADC?**

This is an economic grouping that brings together countries of Southern and Central Africa. This association consists of fourteen countries. The member states are: Angola, Botswana, Congo (DRC), Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Kingdoms of Swaziland and Lesotho.

A treaty to establish the SADC was signed in Windhoek, Namibia in August, 1992. The treaty came into force in September, 30<sup>th</sup> 1993. The headquarters are in Gaborone, Botswana.

### **The origin of SADC**

**SADC** originated from the former Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference (SADCC) which was established in April 1980 by governments of the nine southern African countries: Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Later on, the SADC leaders had come to realize that although the co-ordination conference had served them well, time had come to give the organization a legal and more formal status. Hence establishment of SADC.

### **Objectives of SADC:**

- i) To promote sustainable and equitable economic growth and socio-economic development that will ensure poverty alleviation with the ultimate objective of its eradication, enhance the standard and quality of life of the people in the region, and support the socially disadvantaged through regional integration.
- ii) To promote common political values, systems and other shared values that are transmitted through institutions that are democratic, legitimate and effective.
- iii) To promote self-sustaining development on the basis of collective self-reliance and the interdependence of member states.
- iv) To achieve complementarity between national and regional strategies and programmes.
- v) To promote and maximize productive employment and utilization of resources in the region.
- vi) To achieve sustainable utilization of natural resources and effective protection of the environment. The region is very rich of natural resources.

- vii) To strengthen and consolidate the long standing historical, social and cultural affinities and links among the people of the region.
- viii) To combat HIV/AIDS and other deadly or communicable diseases.
- ix) To mainstream gender in the process of community building.

**Principles:**

SADC and its member states act in accordance with the following principles:-

- Sovereign equality of all member states.
- Solidarity, peace and security.
- Human rights, democracy and the rule of law.
- Equity, balance and mutual benefit; and
- Peaceful settlements of disputes.

**Organs and institutions: their powers and functions**

a) The following are institutions of SADC:

- The summit of Heads of State or Government
- The organ on Politics, Defense and Security Co-operation
- The Council of Ministers
- The Integrated Committee of Ministers
- The Standing Committee of Ministers
- The Secretariat
- The Tribunal; and
- SADC National Committees.

b) **Troika:**

The term “TROIKA” applies with respect to the following institutions:

- i. The summit
- i) The organ
- ii) The council
- iii) The integrated committee of ministers and
- iv) The standing committee of officials.

## **Institutions and organs**

### **The TROIKA of the Summit:**

It consists of:

- i) The Chairperson of SADC.
- ii) The Incoming Chairperson of SADC who is the Deputy Chairperson of SADC;
- iii) The Outgoing Chairperson of SADC.

The respective offices of the TROIKA Summit are being held for a period of one year.

### **The TROIKA of the Organ**

- i) The Chairperson of the Organ
- ii) The Incoming Chairperson of the Organ who shall be the Deputy Chairperson of the Organ; and
- iii) The outgoing Chairperson of the Organ.

The TROIKA of the Council, the Integration Committee of Ministers and the Standing Committee of officials correspond to the membership and term of office of the Troika of the Summit.

### **The Heads of State of SADC countries**

Functions and powers of Troika:

1. The Troika of each institution functions as a steering committee of the institution and is, in between the meetings of the institution, responsible for:
  - a) Decision-making
  - b) Facilitating the implementation of decision;
  - c) Providing policy directions.
2. The Troika of each institution has the power to create relevant committees.
3. The Troika of each institution determines its own rules of procedure.
4. The Troika of each institution may co-opt other members as and where required.

### **A: The summit**

Consists of the Heads of State and Government of all member states, and is the supreme policy –making institution of SADC.

**Responsibilities:**

- Is responsible for the overall policy direction and control of the functions of SADC
- Adopts legal instruments for the implementation of the provisions of this treaty. Provided that the summit may delegate this authority to the Council or any other institution of SADC, as the summit may deem appropriate.
- Elects a Chairperson and a Deputy - Chairperson of SADC from among its members for one year on the basis of rotation.
- The Summit meets at least twice a year.
- The summit creates committees, other institutions and organs as deemed necessary.
- The summit appoints the Executive Secretary and the Deputy Executive Secretary, on the recommendation of the Council.
- Subject to Article 8 of the Treaty, the Summit decides on the admission of new members.
- The decisions of the summit are taken by consensus and are binding.

**B: The organ on politics, defense and security co-operation**

Consists of a Chairperson and a Deputy Chairperson, both elected by the Summit on the basis of rotation from among the members of the summit.

- The term in office of both Chairpersons is one year.
- The Chairperson of the Organ consults with the Troika of the summit and reports to the summit.
- There is a Ministerial committee of the Organ consisting of Ministers responsible:
  - a) Foreign Affairs
  - b) Defense
  - c) Public Security; or
  - d) State Security.
- The Secretariat provides secretarial services to the organ
- Decisions of the Organ are taken by consensus.

**C: The Council**

- The Council consists of one Minister from each Member state, preferably a Minister responsible for foreign or external affairs:

- Council responsibilities:
  - i) Oversee the functioning and development of SADC.
  - ii) Oversee the implementation of the policies of SADC and the proper execution of its programmes.
  - iii) Advise the summit on matters of overall policy, efficient and harmonious functioning and development of SADC.
  - iv) Approve policies, strategies and work programmes of SADC
  - v) Direct, co-ordinate and supervise the operations of the institutions of SADC subordinate to it.
  - vi) Create its own committees as deemed necessary.
  - vii) Recommend for approval to the summit the establishment of directorates, committees, other institutions and organs.
  - viii) Determine the term and conditions of services of the SADC staff.
  - ix) Develop and implement the SADC common agenda and strategic priorities.
  - x) Convene conferences and meetings as appropriate for purposes of promoting the objectives and programmes of SADC.
  - xi) Perform such other duties as may be assigned to it by the summit or the treaty.
- Recommend and consider application for membership to the summit.
- It is responsible to the summit to meet at least four times, decisions are taken by consensus.

The Chairperson and Deputy Chairperson of the council are appointed by the member states.

#### **D: Integrated Committee of Ministers**

Consists of at least two Ministers from each Member state.

#### **Responsibilities:**

Oversee the activities of the core areas of integration, which include:

- i) Trade, industry, finance and investment.
- ii) Infrastructure and services

- iii) Food, agriculture and natural resources
- iv) Social and human development and special programmes
- v) Monitor and control the implementation of the Religion Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) in its area of competence.
- vi) Provide policy guidance to the Secretariat
- vii) Make decisions on matters pertaining to the directorates
- viii) Monitor and evaluate the work of the directorates
- ix) Create such permanent or ad-hoc subcommittees as may be necessary to cater for cross-cutting sectors.

Chairperson and Deputy Chairperson of the Committee are appointed from the member states holding the chairpersonship respectively of the council.

Meet at least once a year and reports to the Council. Decision is taken by consensus. The committee has powers to make decisions to ensure rapid implementation of programmes that would otherwise wait for a formal meeting of the council.

#### **E: The Standing Committee**

- i) Is a technical advisory committee to the council
- ii) Process documentation from the integrated Committee of Ministers to the council.
- iii) Report and is responsible to the council.

The chairperson and Vice-Chairperson are appointed from the Member States holding the chairpersonship and the u-Chairpersonship, respectively, of the council Meet at least four times a year and decisions are taken by consensus.

#### **F: The Secretariat.**

Is the principal executive institution of SADC?

#### **Responsibility**

- i) Responsible for strategic planning and management of the SADC.
- ii) Implement decisions of the summit. Troika of the summit, organ on Politics, Defense and Security Co-operation, Troika of organ on Politics, Defense and Security, Council, Troika of the council, and Troika of the Integrated Committee of Ministers.
- iii) Organization and management of SADC meetings.

- iv) Financial and general administration
- v) Representation and promotion of SADC
- vi) Co-ordination and harmonization of the policies and strategies of member states.
- vii) General mainstreaming in all SADC programmes and activities
- viii) Submission of harmonized policies and programmes to the council for consideration and approval.
- ix) Monitoring and evaluating the implementation of harmonized policies and programmes
- x) Collection and dissemination of information to the community and maintenance of a reliable database.
- xi) Development of capacity, infrastructure and maintenance of intra-regional information and community technology.
- xii) Mobilization of resources, co-ordination and harmonization of programmes and projects with co-ordination and harmonization of programmes and projects with co-operating partners.
- xiii) Devising appropriate strategies for self-financing and income generating activities and investment.
- xiv) Management of special programmes and projects
- xv) Undertaking research on community building and the integration process; and/ preparation and submission to the Council for approval administrative regulations, standing orders and rules for management of the affairs of SADC

The Secretariat is headed by the Executive Secretary.

### **The Executive Secretary**

Is responsible to the Council. His/her responsibilities:

- i) Consultation and co-ordination with the Governments and other institutions of member states
- ii) Pursuant to the directions of the council or summit or on his/her own initiative, aimed at promoting the objectives of SADC.
- iii) Promoting of co-operation with other organizations for the furtherance of the objectives of SADC.



- iv) Organizing and servicing meetings of the summit, the council, the standing committee and any other meetings convened on the direction of the summit or the council.
- v) Custodianship of the property of SADC
- vi) Appointment of the staff of the secretariat in accordance with procedures, and under terms and conditions of service determined by the council.
- vii) Administration and finances of the Secretariat.
- viii) Preparation of Annual Report on the activities of SADC and its institutions.
- ix) Preparation of the Budget and Audited Accounts of SADC for submission to the council.
- x) Diplomatic and other representation of SADC.
- xi) Public relations and promotion of SADC; and
- xii) Such other functions as may, from time to time, be determined by the summit and the council.

The Executive Secretary and Deputy Executive Secretary are appointed for four years, and are eligible for re-appointment for another period not exceeding four years.

#### **G: The Tribunal**

1. Constituted to ensure adherence to and the proper interpretation of the provisions of the treaty establishing the SADC; and subsidiary instruments and to adjudicate upon such disputes as may be referred to it.
2. The composition, powers, functions, procedures and other related matters governing the Tribunal is prescribed in a Protocol which shall, notwithstanding the provisions of Article 22 of the treaty from an integral part of the treaty.
3. Members of the Tribunal are appointed for a specified period.
4. The Tribunal shall give advisory opinions on such matters as the summit or the council may refer to it.
5. The decisions of the Tribunal shall be final and binding.

#### **H: SADC National Committees**

1. Each Member State creates a SADC National Committee
2. Each SADC National Committee consists of key stakeholders e.g. Government, private sector, civil society, NGOs, etc.

3. Each SADC National Committee in its composition, reflect the core areas of integration and co-ordination referred to Article 112 of the treaty.

#### **Responsibilities of SADC National Committee**

- i) Provides input at the National Level in the formulation of SADC policies, strategies and programmes of action.
- ii) Co-ordinations and oversees, at the national level, implementation of SADC programmes of action.
- iii) Initiates projects and issues papers as an input to the preparation of the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan, in accordance with the priority areas set out in SADC Common Agenda.
- iv) Creates a national steering committee, sub-committees and technical committees.

#### **Responsibilities of Member State:**

- Creates a national secretariat to facilitate the operation of the SADC National Committee
- Provides funds for the operation of its national secretariat.

Each SADC National Committee meets at least four times a year. Each National Committee consists of the chairperson of three SADC National Committee and the Chairpersons of Sub-committees and technical committees. SADC National Committees operate at ministerial and official levels.

#### **Achievements:**

- i) Establishment of Regional Fund for HIV/AIDS; Approximately 15 million people in SADC region are HIV positive. (According to the 23<sup>rd</sup> SADC summit Anniversary report).
- ii) Improvement in food security, the number of people who need food assistance decreasing e.g. March 2002 the number was 15.2 million, in January, 2004 is expected to drop up to 7 million.
- iii) Peace stability – since the Angola Peace Accord in April 2002 and installation of transitional government in Democratic Republic of Congo, the region has enjoyed a certain degree of political stability.

- iv) Economic growth – the GDP has increased from 2.7 per cent (2002) to 3.2 per cent. (2004).
- v) Women representation in political and decision-making positions is progressing very fast in the SADC member states. The target was to get 30 per cent of women representation in politics by 2005. Some member states have already reached the target e.g. South Africa (31.3), Mozambique (31.3), Tanzania (20) etc.
- vi) Adoption of Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) to oversee, the strategies; programme, and activities to be developed by the SADC over next 15 years.

### **Challenges**

- i) Sovereignty and nationalistic interests undermine regional interests.
- ii) Lack of enthusiasm and slow pace in executing regional projects.
- iii) Different level of economic development, e.g. South Africa is more developed economically than other member states.
- iv) Lack of enough qualified and skilled manpower to run it.
- v) Weak financial base – the member states rely on foreign aid, the same problem affect the Association from becoming self-reliant.
- vi) HIV/AIDS, Malaria and tuberculosis
- vii) Lack of economic diversity – member states produce similar goods, mostly agricultural goods.
- viii) Social conflicts still prevailing in some areas e.g. DRC and Zimbabwe.

### **Activity**

1. To what extent Southern African Development Community (SADC) differ from the former Southern African Co-ordination Conference (SADCC)
2. Explain the objectives of SADC. To what extent have these objectives been realized
3. Analyze the achievements and problems of SADC.

## THE COMMON MARKET FOR EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA (COMESA)

### **What is COMESA?**

COMESA means Common Market for Eastern and Southern African States. It was established in December 1994 to replace the former PTA. COMESA is an organization which promotes cooperation on human resources, promotes peace and improve economic status of the member states.

The history of COMESA began in December 1994 when it was formed to replace the former Preferential Trade Area (PTA) which had existed from 1981. COMESA (as defined by its Treaty) was established 'as an organization of free independent sovereign states that have agreed to co-operate in developing their natural and human resources for the good of all their people. As such, it has a wide-ranging series of objectives that necessarily include in its priorities, the promotion of peace and security in the region.

However, due to COMESA's economic history and background, its main focus is on the formation of a large economic and trading unit which is capable of overcoming some of the barriers faced by individual states.

COMESA's current strategy can thus be summed up in the phrase 'economic prosperity through regional integration'. With its 21 member states, and the population of over 385 million and annual import bill of around US\$32 billion COMESA, forms a major market place for both internal and external trading. Its area is impressive on the map of the African Continent, and its achievements to date have been significant.

Apart from economic progression other objectives are:

- Introduction of a computerized system of trade and promoting trade liberalization.
- Enhance the communication system among the countries.
- Encouraging the private sector and creating a legalized system of work.

Establishing a harmony between the macroeconomic and monetary policies in the region

### **A Free Trade Area**

The COMESA states, in implementing a free trade area, are well on their way to achieving their target of removing all internal trade tariffs and barriers, an exercise which was planned to be completed by the year 2000. Within 4 years after that COMESA will have introduced a common external tariff structure to deal with all third party trade and will have considerably simplified all procedures.

## **Trade Promotion**

Other objectives that were to be met to assist in the achievement of trade promotion include:

- i. Trade liberalization and Customs co-operation, including the introduction of a unified computerized Customs network across the region.
- ii. Improving the administration of transport and communications to ease the movement of goods, services and people between the countries.
- iii. Creating an enabling environment and legal framework which will encourage the growth of the private sector, the establishment of a secure investment environment, and the adoption of common sets of standards.
- iv. The harmonisation of macro-economic and monetary policies throughout the region.

## **COMESA's Institutions**

Several institutions have been created to promote sub-regional cooperation and development. These include:

- i. The COMESA Trade and Development Bank in Nairobi, Kenya
- ii. The COMESA Clearing House in Harare, Zimbabwe
- iii. The COMESA Association of Commercial Banks in Harare, Zimbabwe
- iv. The COMESA Leather Institute in Ethiopia
- v. The COMESA Re-Insurance Company (ZEP-RE) in Nairobi, Kenya

In addition, a Court of Justice was also established under the COMESA Treaty and became formally operational in 1998. Further initiatives exist to promote cross border initiatives, to form a common industrial policy, and introduce a monetary harmonization programme.

## **What COMESA offers**

COMESA offers its members and partners a wide range of benefits, which include:

- i. A wider, harmonized and more competitive market
- ii. Greater industrial productivity and competitiveness
- iii. Increased agricultural production and food security
- iv. A more rational exploitation of natural resources
- v. More harmonised monetary, banking and financial policies
- vi. More reliable transport and communications infrastructure
- vii. Use web pages or write to us to find out more about all of these.

### **The Decision making process**

COMESA has evolved a comprehensive decision making structure at the top of which is the Heads of State of the 21 member countries. There is then a Council of Ministers responsible for policy making, 12 technical committees and a series of other advisory bodies (including specific relations with partner countries and the business community). In addition, each member state appoints liaison persons in their appropriate ministries who form part of the day-to-day communication process. Overall co-ordination is achieved through the Secretariat, based in Lusaka, Zambia.

### **Challenges of COMESA**

- Internal conflicts among the member states e.g. political crisis in Zimbabwe, Ethnic conflicts in Sudan, endless clan war in stateless of Somalia.
- Environmental hazards like floods e.g. the floods of 2000 in Mozambique and droughts in various parts of COMESA member countries.
- Disparity in economic levels among the member states. Some countries are poorer than others, or have very high lamentable inflation rates e.g. Zimbabwe.
- Three – quarters of the people in the member states live below the World Bank poverty threshold level of one US Dollar a day.
- Member countries modules the sawed type of products (raw materias like minerals or crops). There are many competitions for the available market.
- Multi - membership among the member states is another challenge. Member countries are members of other regional integrations like, EAC and SADC, were in some cases mult-membership create problems.

### **TANZANIA AND COMESA**

In 2000 Tanzania pulled out from COMESA, but is still enjoying two of its services:

- i) Banking services
- ii) Insurance services.

### **Reasons for Tanzania to pull out of COMESA.**

- Claims from manufactures who said that there were a lot of cheap products getting to the country and this could lead to the decline of the local industries, that produce products at very high costs.

- COMESA members decided to lower their tariffs so as to facilitate movement of their goods, but at the same time Tanzania had very low rates, by accepting lowering tariffs means to reduce the revenue and incur loss.
- Tanzania was the member of other regional organizations such as EAC and SADC that their objectives are similar to those of COMESA. This could have created conflicts of interest.
- Failure to realize its goals that are to strengthen, develop and positively maintain socio-economic relations with other countries. The situation was evidenced by low level of Tanzania trade. Tanzania became a loser for five years. It experienced deficit by exporting less and importing a lot. This forced the country to explore more strategies of expanding trade in this sub-continent.
- Lack of seriousness among the members in implementing settled objectives. Much was planned with little or no implementation. The reasons behind this were poor infrastructure, e.g. communication and transport networks, plus poor economic base among the members.
- The other reason for Tanzania to withdraw from COMESA was the influence of South Africa government where it was discouraging countries to join COMESA, but at the time convincing them to join SADC, in order to create free trade in area.
- By the fact that Tanzania withdrew from COMESA in 2000, the following had happen in the country.
- Smuggling of goods has increased, especial in the border between Tanzania and member countries. The commodities involved include food stuffs. This created loss of government revenue and jeopardized the country's economy.
- Tanzania lost the qualification to get credits from COMESA.
- Possibility of Tanzania suffering from high tariffs imposed on our goods. This is more serious to the private sector.

## THE ECONOMIC COMMUNITY OF WEST AFRICAN STATES (ECOWAS)

### Historical background

The idea to create West African Community goes back to President William Tubman of Liberia, who made the call in 1964. An agreement was signed between Cote d'Ivoire, Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone in February 1965, but it did not succeed. In April 1972, General Gowon of Nigeria and General Eyadema of Togo re-launched the idea, drew up proposals and toured 12 countries, soliciting for acceptance of their plan from July to August 1973. A meeting was then called at Lome in December 1973 which studied a draft treaty. This was further examined at a meeting of experts and jurists in Accra in January 1974, and by a ministerial meeting in Monrovia, January 1975. Finally, 15 States (Treaty of Lagos) on 28 May 1975. The protocols launching ECOWAS were sign in Lome, Togo on 5 November 1976.

In July 1993, a revised ECOWAS Treaty designed to accelerate economic integration and to increase political co-operation, was signed.

### Member states:

ECOWAS consists of the following members

Benin	Guinea	Niger
Burkina Faso	Guinea-Bissau	Nigeria
Cape Verde	Liberia	Senegal
Cote d'Ivoire	Mali	Sierra Leone
Ghana	Mauritania	Togo

In December 1999, Mauritania announced that it would withdraw from ECOWAS as a result of its disagreement with some of the decisions taken at the Summit.

### Objectives

**ECOWAS** aims to promote co-operation and integration in economic, social and cultural activities, ultimately leading to the establishment of an economic and monetary union through the total integration of the national economies of member states. It also aims to raise the living standards of its peoples, maintain and enhance economic stability, foster relations among member states and contribute to the progress and development of the African Continent. ECOWAS integration policies and programmes are influenced by the prevailing economic conditions in its member countries, the need to take the principal provisions of the AEC Treaty into account, and relevant developments on the international scene.



The revised treaty of 1993, which was to extend economic and political co-operation among member states, designates the achievement of a common market and a single currency as economic objectives, while in the political sphere it provides for a West African parliament, an economic and social council and an ECOWAS Court of Justice to replace the existing Tribunal and enforce community decisions. The treaty also formally assigned the Community with the responsibility of preventing and settling regional conflicts.

### **Structure**

The Community consists of the Authority of Heads of State and Government, the Council of Ministers, the Community Tribunal, the ECOWAS Parliament, the Executive Secretariat and six Specialized Commissions.

### ***Conference of Heads of State and Government***

The Authority of Heads of State and Government of Member States are composed of Heads of State and /or Government of Member States. The Authority is responsible for the general direction and control of the Community and takes all measure to ensure its progressive development and the realization of its objectives.

### ***The Authority:***

- Determines the general policy and major guidelines of the Community, gives directives,
- Harmonizes and co-ordinates the economic, scientific, technical, cultural and social policies of Member States;
- Oversees the functioning of Community institutions and follow – up implementation of Community objectives;
- Prepares and adopts its Rules of Procedure;
- Appoints the Executive Secretary in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty;
- Appoints on the recommendation of Council, the External Auditors;
- Delegates to the Council, where necessary, the authority to take such decisions as stipulated in the Treaty.
- Refers where it deems necessary any matter to the community Court of Justice when it confirms, that a member State or institution of the community has failed to honour any of its obligations, or an institution of the Community has acted beyond the limits of its authority, or has abused the powers conferred on it by the provisions of the Treaty, by a decision of the Authority, or a regulation of the Council;

- Requests the Court of Justice as, and when necessary, to give advisory opinion on any legal issues.
- Exercises any other powers conferred on it under the Treaty.  
The Authority meets at least once a year in ordinary session. An extraordinary session may be convened by the Chairman of the Authority or at the request of a Member State, provided that such a request is supported by a simple majority of the Member States. The office of the Chairman is held every year by a Member State elected by the Authority.

### ***Council of Ministers***

The Council comprises the Minister in charge of ECOWAS Affairs and other Minister of each Member State. Council is responsible for proper functioning and development of the Community. To this end, unless otherwise provided in the Treaty or a Protocol, Council shall:

- Make recommendations to the Authority on any action aimed at attaining the objectives of the Community.
- Appoint all statutory appointees, other than the Executive Secretary;
- By powers delegated to it by the Authority, issue directives on matters concerning coordination and harmonization of economic integration policies;
- Make recommendation to the Authority on the appointment of the External Auditors;
- Prepare and adopt its rules of procedure;
- Adopt the Staff Regulations and approve the organizational structure of the institutions of the Community;
- Approve the work programmes and budgets of the Community and its institutions;
- Request the Court of Justice, where necessary, to give advisory opinion on any legal questions;
- Carry out all other functions assigned to it, under this Treaty, and exercise all powers delegated to it by the Authority.

The Council meets at least twice a year in ordinary sessions. One of such sessions shall immediately proceed the ordinary session of the Authority. An extraordinary session may be convened by the Chairman of Council or at the request of a Member State, provided that such request is supported by a simple majority of the Member States. The

office of Chairman of the Council is held by the Minister responsible for ECOWAS Affairs of the Member State, elected as Chairman of the Authority.

### ***Tribunal***

The treaty provides for a Community Tribunal, whose composition and competence are determined by the Conference of Heads of State and Government. The Tribunal interprets the provisions of the treaty and settles disputes between member states that are referred to it.

### ***Executive Secretariat***

The Executive Secretary is elected for a four-year term, which may be renewed once only. ECOWAS is undergoing a process of reform, which has seen the post of financial controller being scrapped off, while two positions of deputy executive secretaries have been created for economic co-operation and policy harmonization, respectively. The restructuring of the Executive Secretariat was approved at the Summit in December 1999.

Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution, Peace and Security

The ECOWAS Summit of December 1999 agreed on a Protocol for the Establishment of a Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution, Peace and Security.

The Mechanism has a Council of Elders, as well as a Security and Mediation Council.

The ten members of the latter are the Foreign Ministers of the following states:

Benin	Cote d'Ivoire	The Gambia	Ghana	Guinea
Liberia	Mali (Chair)	Nigeria	Senegal	
Togo				

### ***Specialized Commissions***

The following Technical Commissions are established within the ECOWAS:

- i. Food and Agriculture;
- ii. Industry, Science and Technology and Energy;
- iii. Environment and Natural Resources;
- iv. Transport, Communications and Tourism;
- v. Trade, Customs, Taxation, Statistics, Money and Payments
- vi. Political, Judicial and Legal Affairs, Regional Security and Immigration;
- vii. Human Resources, Information, Social and Cultural Affairs;
- viii. Administration and Finance Commission.

The Authority may, wherever it deems appropriate, restructure the existing Commissions or establish new ones. Each Commission shall comprise representatives of each Member State. Each Commission may, as it deems necessary, set up subsidiary commissions to assist it in carrying out its functions. It shall determine the composition of any such subsidiary commission.

### ***Community Court of Justice***

In October 1999, ECOWAS decided to establish a Court of Justice following a two-day meeting of Justice Ministers in Abuja. The Court will address complaints from member states and institutions of ECOWAS, as well as issues relating to defaulting nationals. The court has a president, chief registrar and seven judges and is a permanent institution. Draft rules of procedure for the Court are in place.

### ***ECOWAS Parliament***

The ECOWAS Parliament convened in May 2002, with 115 MPs representing all the member states, except Cote d'Ivoire. Togo, Liberia, Cape Verde, Guinea Conakry, Guinea Bissau, Republic of Benin, the Gambia and Sierra Leone have 5 Parliamentarians each; Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger and Senegal have 6 Parliamentarians each; Cote d'Ivoire is entitled to 7 representatives; Ghana has 8 and Nigeria has 35. Membership is constituted from the membership of the national parliaments of each member state.

Should the member lose his or her seat in the national parliament, they automatically lose their seats in the regional parliament. The ECOWAS Parliament is situated in Abuja, Nigeria and at present only acts in a consultative and advisory capacity. Speaker of the ECOWAS Parliament, Professor Ali Nouhoum Diallo, has expressed the intention of the Parliament to acquire legislative powers in the future, as well as to institute directly elected representatives.

Because of distressing events in several of its Member States, ECOWAS soon realized that the case of economic development and progress can only be pursued in an environment of peace and stability. It found that it had to involve itself in conflicts in Member States to ensure that an environment conducive to the implementation of its economic programmes was maintained.

Meeting in Lagos on 22 April 1978, ECOWAS Member States had earlier adopted a Protocol Relating to Non-Aggression (PNA) which enjoined Member States to “..... Refrain from the threat and use of force or aggression” against one another. Article 5 (2) of the PNA stated that “Any dispute which cannot be settled peacefully among Member States shall be referred

to a Committee of the Authority. In the event of failure of settlement by the ..... Committee the dispute shall finally go to the Authority [i.e. Heads of State].”

A subsequent Protocol Relating to Mutual Assistance on Defense (PMAD) was signed in Freetown, Sierra Leone on 1981 and became effective five years later. PMAD committed the ECOWAS member states to a collective defence treaty by accepting that armed threat or aggression against one, constituted a threat or aggression against the community, and resolved to give mutual aid and assistance for defense. The Protocol provides for a collective response where a member state is a victim of internal armed conflict that is engineered and supported actively from outside, and which is likely to endanger the peace and security of other member states. Both these Protocols have been subsumed as part of the new ECOWAS Mechanism.

During the 1990s ECOWAS activities were increasingly dominated by its efforts to secure peace in Liberia, in particular through the involvement of ECOMOG (ECOWAS Cease-Fire Monitoring Group) which was dispatched to Liberia in August 1991. The ECOWAS regional mechanism for conflict resolution provides a framework for regional intervention force.

Subsequent security-related agreements include the ECOWAS Conventions on Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters and on Extradition, signed in Dakar on 29 July 1992 and in Abuja on 6 August 1994, the Declaration on the Moratorium on the Importation, Exportation and Manufacture of Light Weapons, adopted by the ECOWAS Heads of State in Abuja on 30-31 October 1998 and the Programme for Co-ordination of Assistance for Security and Development (PCASED), HELD IN Bamako on 24 March 1999. Meeting in Abuja on 9 July 2001, ECOWAS heads of state and government extended the moratorium for another 3 years.

The ECOWAS Declaration of Political Principles in 1991 set out member states commitment to uphold human rights, democracy and the rule of law. This was taken further in December 2001, with declarations on Child Rights and Human Trafficking, and most importantly, the Protocol on Democracy and Good Governance, which addresses root causes of conflicts, such as corruption and instability. This is a supplementary protocol to the Protocol on the Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution, Peace and Security, and deals with issues such as free and fair elections, civilian control of the military and unconstitutional changes of government.

Plans for the establishment of a regional criminal investigation and intelligence bureau were considered at meetings of the ECOWAS Police Chiefs on 23 September 2002 and the

Interior Ministers on 26 September 2002 as part of efforts to combat cross-border criminal activities.

## **ECOMOG**

ECOWAS Monitoring Group (ECOMOG) operations started in Liberia to prevent the overthrow of the unpopular government of President Samuel Doe by the National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL) led by Charles Taylor. Doe called on the Community for help. His request would eventually split the Community when the Anglophone countries, led by Nigeria, decided to assist, while the Francophone countries largely opposed the military intervention.

The intervention force that landed in Liberia on 24 August 1990 consisted of troops contributed by Nigeria, Ghana, Guinea, Sierra Leone and the Gambia. Successive fighting, looting and killing were temporarily halted by a number of short-lived peace accords until the fourteenth peace accord was signed in Abuja in August 1996. ECOMOG oversaw the subsequent elections on 19 July 1997 that swept Taylor to power in a landslide victory. The Group departed in February 1998, having earned grudging respect for its role in the latter years.

The barbarity and cruelty seen in the NPFL operations in Liberia were mirrored in those of the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) under Foday Sankoh in neighboring Sierra Leone from Liberia. RUF operations started in March 1991. In 1994 the Sierra Leonean and Nigerian governments signed a defense pact, and ECOWAS soon extended the mandate of ECOMOG in Liberia to include Sierra Leone, and moved its headquarters from Monrovia to Freetown. A cease-fire between the government and the RUF eventually came into effect on 24 May 1998, followed with a peace deal on 7 July 1999. ECOMOG would eventually reinforce its troops to almost 15,000 before the United Nations Assistance Mission in Sierra Leone (UNAMSIL), took over in accordance with the Lome Accords.

ECOMOG has played a lesser role in Guinea-Bissau where President Vieira called on ECONOMIC to intervene and help put down the rebellion in his country in 1998 led by the former Chief of Staff of the Armed Forces, Brigadier Ansumane Mane. The first cease fire of 26 July 1998 would eventually lead to a peace agreement signed on 1 November in Abuja that called for a 600 man ECOMOG force to police the withdrawal of Guinea and Senegalese soldiers and hold elections.

The ECOWAS Foreign Ministers recommended, on 3 March 1998 in Yamoussoukro, Cote d'Ivoire, that ECOMOG formally become responsible for peacekeeping operations in West

Africa and sought to provide a clearer command chain in the light of the often complex relationship between ECOMOG and ECOWAS. The Yamoussoukro decision reflected not only the reality of ECOMOG, but served to recognize the dominant role of Nigeria, although the decision provided for the broadening of the troop contributions and a rotating Force Commander, as opposed to predominantly Nigerian commanders. Although Nigeria has carried the lion's share of ECOMOG, with a civilian government in power since the end of May 1999, Nigerian President Obasanjo made it clear that Nigeria could not continue to do so in future.

The ECOWAS Defense and Security Commission meeting in Abidjan from 14-18 August 2002 approved a harmonized training programme for ECOMOG stand-by units in three training schools in the regional. The three schools are: the Peacekeeping School in Zambakro, Cote d'Ivoire, the Kofi Annan International Training Centre in Accra, Ghana, and the National War College in Abuja, Nigeria. They would respectively handle tactical, operational and strategic training programmes. It would become compulsory for each Member state to have standby units, to be inspected regularly by the Commission. Plans are also underway to the set up two military bases for the storage of common user equipment and other items recovered from past operations. These bases would be established in one coastal country and one landlocked country in the region. Proposal for the financing of ECOMOG peacekeeping developments include a 0.5% levy on import duties collected in the ECOWAS region.

Since September 2002, a military rebellion in Cote d'Ivoire has drawn ECOWAS into peacekeeping duties in that country. A meeting of the Mediation and Security Council of the ECOWAS Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management, Resource and Security met on 26 October and agreed to the deployment of some 2,396 West African troops to monitor a ceasefire signed on 17 October. So far, Benin, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Niger, Ghana, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo and the Gambia have pledged troops to the force.

### **The ECOWAS Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management, Resolution and Security.**

In July 1991, while endorsing the ECOWAS Revised Treaty, the Authority of Heads of State and Government adopted a declaration of political principle to promote mutual collaboration in defense and security issues. A subsequent extraordinary ECOWAS summit in December 1997 in Togo established a Mechanism for Conflict Prevention,

Management, Resolution and Security. This was followed by the Yamoussoukro meeting of Ministers of Defense, Interior and Foreign Affairs in March 1998, and the ministerial

and experts meeting in Banjul during July 1998. The document was finally accepted and endorsed by the ECOWAS Authority of Heads of State and Government at the Abuja summit in August 1999 and sought to institutionalize structures and Government that would ensure consultation and collective management of regional security issues. In the process the Protocol effectively replaced the ECOWAS Protocols Relating to Non-Aggression (PNA) and Mutual Assistance on Defense (PMAD)

The Heads of State and Government of Member States, the Authority' is the highest decision-marking body of the Mechanism but, without prejudice, has delegated its powers in terms of Article 7 of the Treaty to the Mediation and Security Council—an innovative approach yet to be copied by other sub-regions. The Mediation and Security Council serves as the equivalent to the UN Security Council at sub-regional level and meets at ambassadorial, ministerial and Heads of State level. Acting on behalf of the Authority of Heads of State, it takes decisions on all issues relating to peace and security of the sub-region.

- a) The Committee of Ambassadors of the nine elected Member States of the Council meets each month to review issues of peace and security.
- b) The Committee of Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Defense, Internal Affairs and Security meets at least every 3 months” .... To review the general political and security situations in the sub-region.”
- c) The Heads of State of the ECOWAS Mediation and Security Council meets at least twice a year, and has the authority to make final decisions on the appropriate measures, policies and mandates to be taken with regard to situations under consideration with a two-thirds majority vote of the Members present.

The Council can authorize all forms of intervention, including the decision to deploy political and military mission, inform the UN and the AU of its decisions, provide and review mandates and terms of reference, appoint force commanders, etc. The Council can therefore, amongst others, appoint a Special Representative as Chief of a Mission, appoint a force commander and deploy ECOMOG. Other components of the Mechanism include the Defense and Security Commission, Executive Secretary, Council of Elders and ECOMOG.

The Executive Secretary has the power to initiate fact finding, mediation, facilitation, negotiations and reconciliation actions in the effective and management of conflicts in the sub-region. The office of the Deputy Executive Secretary for Political Affairs, Defense and Security supervises the Departments of Political Affairs, Humanitarian Affairs, Defense and Security and the Observation and Monitoring Centre. The Centre is the hub of the



Early Warning System which has four Observation and Monitoring Zones within the sub-region.

During May 2001 ECOWAS signed an agreement with Benin to establish an observation zone in Cotonou whose role would be to signal potential of conflicts in Benin, Nigeria and Togo. This would be the fourth zone. The others are in Banjul (Gambia), Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso) and Cotonou (Benin) established to collect data on potential disputes for transmission to the central ECOWAS observatory in Abuja. The first agreement was signed with Burkina Faso.

The Mediation and Security Council of the Mechanism was officially launched in Monrovia during May 2000. The meeting, which marked the first ordinary session of the council, followed two special sessions held in Bamako, Mali, and discussed the transfer of power of the different ECOWAS mediation committees to the Council. At the time the members of the Council comprises Benin, Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Gambia, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, and Togo.

## **THE AFRICAN UNION (AU)**

The advent of the African Union (AU) can be described as an event of great magnitude in the institutional evolution of the continent. On 9.9.1999, the Heads of State and Government of the Organisation of African Unity issued a Declaration (the Site Declaration) calling for the establishment of an African Union, with a view, inter alia, to accelerating the process of integration in the continent to enable it play its rightful role in the global economy, while addressing multifaceted social, economic and political problems compounded as they are by certain, negative aspects of globalisation.

The main objectives of the OAU were, inter alia, to rid the continent of the remaining vestiges of colonization and apartheid; to promote unity and solidarity among African States; to coordinate and intensify cooperation for development; to safeguard the sovereignty and territorial integrity of Member States and to promote international cooperation within the frame work of the United Nations.

Indeed, as a continental organization, the OAU provided an effective forum that enabled all Member States to adopt coordinated positions on matters of common concern to the continent in international forums and defend the interests of Africa effectively.

Through the OAU Coordinating Committee for the Liberation of Africa, the Continent worked and spoke as one with undivided determination in forging an international consensus in support of the liberation struggle and the fight against apartheid.

### **Quest for Unity**

African countries, in their quest for unity, economic and social development under the banner of the OAU, have taken various initiatives and made substantial progress in many areas that paved the way for the establishment of the AU. Noteworthy among these are: Lagos Plan of Action (LPA) and the Final Act of Lagos (1980); incorporating programmes and strategies for self-reliant development and cooperation among African countries.

The African Charter on Human and People's Rights (Nairobi 1981) and the Grand Bay Declaration and Plan of Action on Human Rights: the two instruments adopted by the OAU to promote Human and People's Rights in the Continent. The Human Rights Charter led to the establishment of the African Human Rights Commission located in Banjul, Gambia.

Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER) – 1985: an emergency programme designed to address the development of crisis in the 1980s, in the wake of protracted drought and famine that had engulfed the continent and the crippling effect of Africa's external indebtedness.

OAU Declaration on the Political and Socio-Economic Situation in Africa and the Fundamental Changes taking place in the World (1990): which underscored Africa's resolve to seize the initiative, to determine its destiny and to address the challenges to peace, democracy and security.

The Charter on Popular Participation adopted in 1990: a testimony to the renewed determination of the OAU to endeavour to place the African citizen at the center of development and decision-making.

The Treaty establishing the African Economic Community (AEC) - 1991: commonly known as the Abuja Treaty, it seeks to create the AEC through six stages culminating in an African Common Market using the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) as building blocks. The Treaty has been in operation since 1994.

The Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution (1993): a practical expression of the determination of the African leadership to find solutions to conflicts, promote peace, security and stability in Africa.

Cairo Agenda for Action (1995): a programme for relaunching Africa's political, economic and social development.

African Common Position on Africa's External Debt Crisis (1997): a strategy for addressing the continent's external debt crisis.

The Algier's Decision on Unconstitutional Changes of Government (1999) and the Lome Declaration on the Framework for an OAU Response to Unconstitutional Changes (2000).

The 2000 Solemn Declaration of the Conference on Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation: establishes the fundamental principles for the promotion of Democracy and Good Governance in the Continent.

Responses to other challenges: Africa has initiated collective action through the OAU in the protection of environment, in fighting international terrorism, in combating the scourge of the HIV/AIDS pandemic, malaria and tuberculosis or dealing with humanitarian issues such as refugees and displaced persons, landmines, small and light weapons among others.

The Constitutive Act of the African Union: adopted in 2000 at the Lome Summit (Togo) entered into force in 2001.

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD): adopted as a Programme of the AU at the Lusaka Summit (2001).

### **Advent of the AU**

The OAU initiatives paved the way for the birth of AU. In July 1999, the Assembly decided to convene an extraordinary session to expedite the process of economic and political integration in the continent. Since then, four Summits have been held leading to the official launching of the African Union:

- The Sirte Extraordinary Session (1999) decided to establish an African Union
- The Lome Summit (2000) adopted the Constitutive Act of the Union.
- The Lusaka Summit (2001) drew the road map for the implementation of the AU
- The Durban Summit (2002) launched the AU and convened the 1st Assembly of the Heads of States of the African Union.

### **The Vision of the AU**

The AU is Africa's premier institution and principal organization for the promotion of accelerated socio-economic integration of the continent, which will lead to greater unity and solidarity between African countries and peoples.

The AU is based on the common vision of a united and strong Africa and on the need to build a partnership between governments and all segments of civil society, in particular women, youth and the private sector, in order to strengthen solidarity and cohesion amongst the peoples of Africa.

As a continental organization it focuses on the promotion of peace, security and stability in the continent as a prerequisite for the implementation of the development and integration agenda of the Union.

### **The Objectives of the AU**

- i. To achieve greater unity and solidarity between the African countries and the peoples of Africa;
- ii. To defend the sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence of its Member States;
- iii. To accelerate the political and socio-economic integration of the continent;
- iv. To promote and defend African common positions on issues of interest to the continent and its peoples;
- v. To encourage international cooperation, taking due account of the Charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights;
- vi. To promote peace, security, and stability on the continent;
- vii. To promote democratic principles and institutions, popular participation and good governance;
- viii. To promote and protect human and peoples' rights in accordance with the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and other relevant human rights instruments;
- ix. To establish the necessary conditions which would enable the continent to play its rightful role in the global economy and in international negotiations;

- x. To promote sustainable development at the economic, social and cultural levels as well as the integration of African economies;
- xi. To promote co-operation in all fields of human activity to raise the living standards of African peoples;
- xii. To coordinate and harmonize the policies between the existing and future Regional Economic Communities for the gradual attainment of the objectives of the Union;
- xiii. To advance the development of the continent by promoting research in all fields, in particular in science and technology;
- xiv. To work with relevant international partners in the eradication of preventable diseases and the promotion of good health of the citizen.

## **The Organs of the AU**

### ***The Assembly***

Composed of Heads of State and Government or their duly accredited representatives. The Assembly of Heads of State and Government is the supreme organ of the Union.

### ***The Executive Council***

Composed of Ministers or Authorities designated by the Governments of Member States. The Executive Council is responsible to the Assembly.

### ***The Commission***

Composed of the Chairperson, the Deputy Chairperson, eight Commissioners and Staff members; Each Commissioner shall be responsible for a portfolio.

### ***The Permanent Representatives' Committee***

Composed of Permanent Representatives of Member States accredited to the Union. The Permanent Representatives Committee is charged with the responsibility of preparing the work of the Executive Council.

### ***Peace and Security Council (PSC)***

By decision AHG/Dec 160 (xxxvii) of the Summit of Lusaka, July 2001, a decision was made for the creation within the African Union, the Peace and Security Council. The Protocol establishing the PSC is in the process of ratification.

### ***Pan-African Parliament***

A Pan-African Parliament and organ to ensure the full participation of African peoples in governance, development and economic integration of the Continent. The protocol relating to the composition, powers, functions and organization of the Pan-African Parliament has been signed by Member States and is in the process of ratification

### ***CECOSOC***

The Economic, Social and Cultural Council, an advisory organ composed of different social and professional groups of the Member States of the Union. The statutes determining the functions, powers, composition and organization of the Economic, Social and Cultural Council have been prepared and will be submitted to Maputo Summit.

### ***The Court of Justice***

A Court of Justice of the Union shall be established. The statutes defining the composition and functions of the Court of Justice have been prepared and will be submitted to the Assembly in Maputo.

### ***The Specialized Technical Committees***

The following Specialized Technical Committees are meant to address sectoral issues and are at Ministerial Level:

- The Committee on Rural Economy and Agricultural Matters;
- The Committee on Monetary and Financial Affairs;
- The Committee on Trade, Customs and Immigration Matters;
- The Committee on Industry, Science and Technology, Energy, Natural Resources and Environment;
- The Committee on Transport, Communications and Tourism;
- The Committee on Health, Labour and Social Affairs; and
- The Committee on Education, Culture and Human Resources.

### **The Financial Institutions**

- The African Central Bank
- The African Monetary Fund
- The African Investment Bank

### **Progress in the implementation of the Constitutive Act**

Since the Lusaka Summit decisions on the transition from OAU to AU, progress has been made as follows:

- The preparation and adoption of the Legal Instruments for the operationalization and the launching of the 4 principal organs: The Assembly, The Executive Council, The Commission and the Permanent Representatives Committee.
- The elaboration of the Structure of the Commission and the conditions of service of staff.
- Completion of the Studies and Legal Instrument for the operationalization of ECOSOCC
- Completion of the studies on the financing of the AU
- Preparation of the statutes of the Court of Justice
- Transfer of assets and liabilities from the OAU to the AU
- Preparation of a Protocol on Relations between the AU and RECS
- Finalization of the Protocol on the Pan-African Parliament (under ratification)
- Finalization of the Protocol on the Peace and Security Council (under ratification)
- Preparation of the Policy Framework for the establishment of the African Standby Force and the Military Staff Committee
- Finalization of the process of electing Members of the Commission by the Assembly of the Union.

### **The AU Commission**

The Commission is the key organ playing a central role in the day-to-day management of the African Union. Among others, it represents the Union and defends its interests; elaborates draft common positions of the Union; prepares strategic plans and studies for the consideration of the Executive Council; elaborates, promotes, coordinates and harmonizes the programmes and policies of the Union with those of the RECs; ensures the mainstreaming of gender in all programmes and activities of the Union.

### **Members of the Commission**

- Chairperson;
- Deputy Chairperson;
- Eight (8) Commissioners.
- Staff members

## **Portfolios of the Commission**

PEACE AND SECURITY (Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution, and Combating Terrorism...)

### POLITICAL AFFAIRS

(Human Rights, Democracy, Good Governance, Electoral Institutions, Civil Society Organizations, Humanitarian Affairs, Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons)

### INFRASTRUCTURE AND ENERGY

(Energy, Transport, Communications, Infrastructure and Tourism...)

### SOCIAL AFFAIRS

(Health, Children, Drug Control, Population, Migration, Labour and Employment, Sports and Culture...)

### HUMAN RESOURCES, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

(Education, Information Technology Communication, Youth, Human Resources, Science and Technology...)

### TRADE AND INDUSTRY

(Trade, Industry, Customs and Immigration Matters...)

### RURAL ECONOMY AND AGRICULTURE

(Rural Economy, Agriculture and Food Security, Livestock, Environment, Water, Natural Resources and Desertification...)

### ECONOMIC AFFAIRS

(Economic Integration, Monetary Affairs, Private Sector Development, Investment and Resource Mobilization...).



## INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS CONCERNED WITH PROMOTION OF PEACE AND UNDERSTANDING.

### THE COMMONWEALTH:

#### Origin

The Commonwealth of Nations, usually known as the Commonwealth, is a voluntary association of 53 independent sovereign states, most of which are former British colonies, or dependencies of these colonies (the exceptions being the United Kingdom itself, Mozambique and Rwanda).

No single government in the Commonwealth, British or otherwise, exercises power over the others, as in a political union. Rather, the relationship is one of an international organization through which countries with diverse social, political, and economic backgrounds are regarded as equal in status, and co-operate within a framework of common values and goals, as outlined in the Singapore Declaration.[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth\\_of\\_Nations](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth_of_Nations) - cite\_note-0.

These include the promotion of democracy, human rights, good governance, the rule of law, individual liberty, egalitarianism, free trade, multilateralism, and world peace,[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth\\_of\\_Nations](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth_of_Nations) - cite\_note-Singapore\_Declaration\_text-1 and are carried out through multilateral projects and meetings, as well as the quadrennial Commonwealth Games.

The symbol of this free association is Queen Elizabeth II, known for this purpose as Head of the Commonwealth. This position, however, does not imbue her with any political or executive power over any Commonwealth member states; the position is purely symbolic. The Commonwealth Secretary-General is the chief executive of the organization.

Queen Elizabeth II is also the monarch, separately, of sixteen members of the Commonwealth, collectively called the Commonwealth realms. As each realm is an independent kingdom, Elizabeth II, as monarch, holds a distinct title for each, though, by a Prime Ministers' Conference in 1952, all include the style *Head of the Commonwealth* at the end; for example: *Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God, Queen of Australia and of Her other Realms and Territories, Head of the Commonwealth*. Beyond the realms, the majority of the members of the Commonwealth have their own, separate heads of state: thirty-two members are republics, and five members have distinct monarchs: the Sultan of Brunei; the King of Lesotho; the Yang di-Pertuan Agong of Malaysia; the King of Swaziland; and the King of Tonga.

Although performing a vastly different function, the Commonwealth is the successor of the British Empire. In 1884, while visiting Adelaide, South Australia, Lord Roseberry described the changing British Empire, as some of its colonies became more independent, as a “Commonwealth of Nations”. Conferences of British and colonial Prime Ministers had occurred periodically since 1887, leading to the creation of the Imperial Conferences in the late 1920s.

The formal organisation of the Commonwealth developed from the Imperial Conferences, where the independence of the self-governing colonies and especially of dominions was recognised. The Irish Oath of Allegiance, agreed in 1921, included the Irish Free State’s adherence to and membership of the group of nations forming the British Commonwealth of Nations. In the Balfour Declaration at the Imperial Conference in 1926, Britain and its dominions agreed they were equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. This relationship was eventually formalised by the Statute of Westminster in 1931.

### **Remaining members gain independence**

After World War II, the Empire was gradually dismantled, partly owing to the rise of independence movements in the then-subject territories and partly owing to the British Government’s strained circumstances resulting from the cost of the war. In 1949, the word “British” was dropped from the title of the Commonwealth to reflect its changing nature.<sup>[4]</sup> Burma (a.k.a. Myanmar, 1948), and Aden (1967) are the only former colonies not to have joined the Commonwealth upon post-war independence.

Among the former British protectorates and mandates, those that never became members of the Commonwealth are Egypt (independent in 1922), Iraq (1932), Transjordan (1946), Palestine (which became, in part, the state of Israel in 1948), Sudan (1956), British Somaliland (which became part of Somalia, 1960), Kuwait (1961), Bahrain (1971), Oman (1971), Qatar (1971), and the United Arab Emirates (1971). The Republic of Ireland left the Commonwealth upon becoming a republic in 1949. However, the Ireland Act 1949 passed by the Parliament of Westminster gave citizens of the Republic of Ireland a status similar to that of citizens of the Commonwealth in UK law.

### **Members with heads of state other than the British Sovereign**

The issue of countries with constitutional structures not based on a shared Crown, but who wished to remain members of the Commonwealth, was resolved in April 1949 at a Commonwealth Prime Ministers’ meeting in London. Under this London Declaration, India agreed that, when it becomes a republic, in January 1950, it would accept the British

Sovereign as a “symbol of the free association of its independent member nations and, as such, Head of the Commonwealth”.

The other Commonwealth countries in turn recognised India’s continuing membership of the association. (At Pakistan’s insistence, India was not regarded as an exceptional case and it was assumed that other states would be accorded the same treatment as India).

The London Declaration is often seen as marking the beginning of the modern Commonwealth. Following India’s precedent, other nations became republics or constitutional monarchies with monarchs different from the British.

### **Old, New and White Commonwealth**

As the Commonwealth grew, Britain and pre-1945 Dominions (*a term formally dropped in the 1940s*) became informally known as the “Old Commonwealth”, particularly since the 1960s when some of them disagreed with poorer, African and Asian (or New Commonwealth) members about various issues at Commonwealth Heads of Government meetings. Accusations that the old, “White” Commonwealth had different interests from African Commonwealth nations in particular, and charges of racism and colonialism arose during heated debates about Rhodesia in the 1960s and 1970s, the imposition of sanctions against apartheid-era South Africa in the 1980s and, more recently, about whether to press for democratic reforms in Nigeria and then Zimbabwe. The term *New Commonwealth* is also used in the United Kingdom (especially in the 1960s and 1970s) to refer to recently decolonised countries, that are predominantly non-white and underdeveloped. It was often used in debates about immigration from these countries.

In recent years, the term “White Commonwealth” has been used in a derogatory sense to imply that the wealthier, white nations of the Commonwealth had different interests and goals from the non-white, and particularly the African members. Zimbabwean President Robert Mugabe has used the term frequently to allege that the Commonwealth’s attempts to force political changes in his country are motivated by racism and colonialist attitudes and that the White Commonwealth dominates the Commonwealth of Nations as a whole.

### **Membership**

#### **Membership criteria**

These criteria were unenforceable for two decades, until, in 1991, the Harare Declaration was issued, dedicating the leaders to applying the Singapore principles to the completion of decolonization, the end of the Cold War, and the fall of Apartheid in South Africa. The mechanisms by which these principles would be applied were created, and the manner

clarified, by the 1995 Millbrook Commonwealth Action Programme, which created the Commonwealth Ministerial Action Group (CMAG), which has the power to rule on whether members meet the requirements for membership under the Harare Declaration.<sup>[8]</sup> Also in 1995, an Inter-Governmental Group was created to finalise and codify the full requirements for membership. Upon reporting in 1997, as adopted under the Edinburgh Declaration, the Inter-Governmental Group ruled that any future members would have to have a direct constitutional link with an existing member.

In addition to this new rule, the former rules were consolidated into a single document. These requirements, that remain the same today, are that members must:

- Accept and comply with the Harare principles.
- Be fully sovereign states.
- Recognise the monarch of the Commonwealth realms as the Head of the Commonwealth.
- Accept the English language as the means of Commonwealth communication.
- Respect the wishes of the general population *vis-à-vis* Commonwealth membership.

These requirements are undergoing review, and a report on potential amendment was to be presented to the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting 2007. New members will not be admitted at the 2007 CHOGM, with 2009 set as the earliest date of entry.[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth\\_of\\_Nations](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth_of_Nations) - cite\_note-10

Members[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Image:CommonwealthFlagsTheMall20060617\\_CopyrightKaihsuTai.jpg](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Image:CommonwealthFlagsTheMall20060617_CopyrightKaihsuTai.jpg)

The Commonwealth comprises 53 countries.

The members have a combined population of approximately 2 billion people, almost a third of the world population, and over twice as many as the whole of the Americas (North and South) put together. Of this figure, 1.4 billion people live in the Indian subcontinent, and 93% live in Asia and Africa combined. The five largest Commonwealth nations by population are India (1.1 billion), Pakistan (165 million), Bangladesh (148 m), Nigeria (137 m), and the United Kingdom (60 m). Tuvalu is the smallest member, with only 11,000 people.

The land area of the Commonwealth nations is about 31.5m km<sup>2</sup> (12.1m square miles), or about 21% of the total world land area. The three largest Commonwealth nations by area are Canada at 10.0m km<sup>2</sup> (3.9m sq. miles), Australia at 7.7m km<sup>2</sup> (3.0m sq. miles) and India at 3.3m km<sup>2</sup> (1.3m sq. miles).

The three largest Commonwealth economies, as measured in purchasing power parity, are Britain (\$2.1 trillion), Canada (\$1.3 trillion) and India.

The status of 'Member in Arrears' is used to denote those that are in arrears in paying subscription dues to the Commonwealth. The status was originally known as 'Special Membership', but was renamed on the Committee on Commonwealth Membership's recommendation. Currently, there is one Member in Arrears: Nauru. Nauru joined as a Special Member, but was a full member from May 1999 to January 2006, when it reverted back.

As stated above, new members must 'as a general rule' have a direct constitutional link to an existing member. In most cases, the existing member is the United Kingdom, but some have links to other countries, either exclusively or more directly (e.g. Samoa to New Zealand, Papua New Guinea to Australia, and Namibia to South Africa). Mozambique is a member of the Commonwealth which has never had any constitutional link to the British Empire or a Commonwealth member. It is a former Portuguese colony, was admitted in 1995 on the back of the triumphal re-admission of South Africa and Mozambique's first democratic elections, held in 1994. Mozambique's entry was controversial, leading to the Edinburgh Declaration and the current membership guidelines. The newest member is Rwanda which joined in 2008, a former Belgian colony.

### **Applicants**

Rwanda (since 2003), Sudan, Algeria, Madagascar and Yemen have applied to join the Commonwealth, and there was some interest expressed by Israel (being formerly administered by the United Kingdom) and the Palestinian National Authority.

Other eligible applicants could come from any of the remaining inhabited British overseas territories, Crown dependencies, Australian external territories and Associated States of New Zealand if any become fully independent. Many such jurisdictions are already directly represented within the Commonwealth, particularly through the Commonwealth Family.

A delegation led by the then President of Somaliland, Dahir Riyale Kahin, was invited to the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting in Uganda in 2007. Presently, Somaliland's independence is not internationally recognised, but its history as a British protectorate would mean that it would be able to apply for re-entry into the Commonwealth, should it ever achieve international recognition.

## **Suspensions**

In recent years the Commonwealth has suspended several members “from the Councils of the Commonwealth” for failure to uphold democratic government. Suspended members are not represented at meetings of Commonwealth leaders and ministers, although they remain members of the organisation.

Fiji, which was not a member of the Commonwealth between 1987 and 1997 as a result of a republican *coup d'état*, was suspended in 2000–2001 after a military coup. Fiji was suspended once again following the military coup of December 2006.

Nigeria was suspended between 1995 and 1999.

Zimbabwe was suspended in 2002 over concerns with the electoral and land reform policies of Robert Mugabe's ZANU-PF government, before withdrawing from the organization in 2003. The Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland came close to being admitted as a full commonwealth member, but prospects for this were suspended, indefinitely, following Southern Rhodesia's unilateral declaration of independence in 1965.

Pakistan was first suspended between 1999 and 2004. On 12 November 2007, in response to the 2007 Pakistani state of emergency, the Commonwealth gave Pakistan a 10-day deadline to restore its constitution and lift other emergency measures or face another suspension from the 53-nation grouping. On 22 November 2007, after the 10-day deadline had expired, Pakistan was suspended from the Commonwealth for violating its key principles, on the grounds of President Musharraf's refusal to give up his role as head of the army, restore an independent judiciary and lift the state of emergency in the country.

After general elections were held in Pakistan on 18 February 2008, Pakistan was invited to rejoin the Commonwealth. The Commonwealth Ministerial Action Group (CMAG), which addresses serious or persistent violations of the Commonwealth's values and principles, said on 12 May 2008 that it had lifted Pakistan's suspension from the councils of the Commonwealth with immediate effect.[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth\\_of\\_Nations](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth_of_Nations) - cite\_note-18

## **Termination of membership**

As membership is purely voluntary, member governments can choose at any time to leave the Commonwealth. Pakistan left in 1972 in protest at the Commonwealth's recognition of breakaway Bangladesh, but rejoined in 1989. Zimbabwe left in 2003 when Commonwealth Heads of Government refused to lift the country's suspension on the grounds of human rights violations and deliberate misgovernment.

Although Heads of Government have the power to suspend member states from active participation, the Commonwealth has no provision for the expulsion of members. Until 2007, Commonwealth realms that became republics automatically ceased to be members, until (like India in 1950) they obtained the permission of other members to remain in the organisation. This policy has been changed, so if any current Commonwealth Realms were to become republics, they would not have to go through this process. The Irish Free State left the Commonwealth when it declared itself republic, on 18 April 1949, after passing the Republic of Ireland Act 1948; because it preceded India's London Declaration, remaining in the Commonwealth was not an option.

South Africa was prevented from continuing as a member after it became a republic in 1961, due to hostility from many members, particularly those in Africa and Asia as well as Canada, to its policy of apartheid. The South African government withdrew its application to remain in the organization as a republic when it became clear at the 1961 Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference that any such application would be rejected. South Africa was re-admitted to the Commonwealth in 1994, following the end of apartheid earlier that same year.

The Maldives left the Commonwealth in 1965 after declaring their independence from the United Kingdom; they were re-admitted to the Commonwealth on 9 July 1982.

The declaration of a republic in the Fiji Islands in 1987, after military coups designed to deny Indo-Fijians political power in Fiji, was not accompanied by application to remain. Commonwealth membership was held to have lapsed until 1997, after racist provisions in the republican constitution were repealed and reapplication for membership made.

Hong Kong was not a member but participated in certain elements as a British colony; these ceased after the 1997 handover of British rule to China.

### **France**

France secretly considered membership in the 1950s, under the leadership of Prime Minister Guy Mollet. In the context of nationalization of the Suez Canal, colonial unrest, and increasing tensions between British-backed Jordan and French-backed Israel, Mollet saw a union between Britain and France as a possible solution. A British Government document of the time reported "That the French would welcome a common citizenship arrangement on the Irish basis". The request was turned down by the British prime minister Anthony Eden, along with a request for Commonwealth membership, and a year later France signed the Treaty of Rome with West Germany and the other founding nations of the Common Market, later to become the EU.

## **Objectives and activities**

The Commonwealth's objectives were first outlined in the 1971 Singapore Declaration, which committed the Commonwealth to the institution of world peace; promotion of representative democracy and individual liberty; the pursuit of equality and opposition to racism; the fight against poverty, ignorance, and disease; and promotion of free trade. To these were added opposition to discrimination on the basis of gender by the Lusaka Declaration of 1979 (which mostly concerned racism),[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth\\_of\\_Nations](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth_of_Nations) - cite\_note-22 and environmental sustainability by the Langkawi Declaration of 1989.[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth\\_of\\_Nations](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth_of_Nations) - cite\_note-23 These objectives were reinforced by the Harare Declaration in 1991.

The Commonwealth's current highest-priority aims are on the promotion of democracy and development, as outlined in the 2003 Aso Rock Declaration, which built on those in Singapore and Harare, and clarified their terms of reference, stating: "We are committed to democracy, good governance, human rights, gender equality, and a more equitable sharing of the benefits of globalization." The Commonwealth website lists its areas of work as: Democracy, Economics, Education, Gender, Governance, Human Rights, Law, Small States, Sport, Sustainability, and Youth.

The Commonwealth has long been distinctive as an international forum where highly developed economies (such as the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, Singapore, and New Zealand) and many of the world's poorer countries seek to reach agreement by consensus. This aim has sometimes been difficult to achieve, as when disagreements over Rhodesia in the late 1960s and 1970s and over apartheid in South Africa in the 1980s led to a cooling of relations between the United Kingdom and African members.

Through a separate voluntary fund, Commonwealth governments support the Commonwealth Youth Programme, a division of the Secretariat with offices in Gulu (Uganda), Lusaka (Zambia), Chandigarh (India), Georgetown (Guyana) and Honiara (Solomon Islands).

The organisation is celebrated each year on Commonwealth Day, the second Monday in March.

## **Structure**

### **Head of the Commonwealth**

Under the formula of the London Declaration, Queen Elizabeth II is the Head of the Commonwealth, a title that is currently annexed to that of British monarchy. However, when



the monarch dies, the successor to the crown does not automatically become Head of the Commonwealth. The position is symbolic: representing the free association of independent members. Some members of the Commonwealth, known as Commonwealth realms, also recognise the Queen as their head of state. However, the majority of members are republics, and a handful of others are indigenous monarchies.

### **Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting**

The main decision-making forum of the organisation is the biennial Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM), where Commonwealth Heads of Government, including (amongst others) Prime Ministers and Presidents, assemble for several days to discuss matters of mutual interest. CHOGM is the successor to the Prime Ministers' Conferences and earlier Imperial Conferences and Colonial Conferences dating back to 1887. There are also regular meetings of finance ministers, law ministers, health ministers, etc. Members in Arrears, as Special Members before them, are not invited to send representatives to either ministerial meetings or CHOGMs.[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth\\_of\\_Nations](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Commonwealth_of_Nations) - cite note Report of the CCM-27

### **Commonwealth Secretariat**

The Commonwealth Secretariat, established in 1965, is the main intergovernmental agency of the Commonwealth, facilitating consultation and cooperation among member governments and countries. It is responsible to member governments collectively.

Based in London, the Secretariat organises Commonwealth summits, meetings of ministers, consultative meetings and technical discussions; it assists policy development and provides policy advice, and facilitates multilateral communication among the member governments. It also provides technical assistance to help governments in the social and economic development of their countries and in support of the Commonwealth's fundamental political values.

The Secretariat is headed by the Commonwealth Secretary-General who is elected by Commonwealth Heads of Government for no more than two four-year terms. The Secretary-General and two Deputy Secretaries-General direct the divisions of the Secretariat. The present Secretary-General is Kamalesh Sharma, from India, who took office on 1 April 2008, succeeding Don McKinnon of New Zealand (2000–2008). The first Secretary-General was Arnold Smith of Canada (1965–75), followed by Sir Shridath Ramphal of Guyana (1975–90).

### **Commonwealth Family**

Commonwealth countries share many links outside government, with over a hundred Commonwealth-wide non-governmental organisations, notably on sport, culture, education

and charity. The Association of Commonwealth Universities is an important vehicle for academic links, particularly through scholarships, principally the Commonwealth Scholarship, for students to study in universities in other Commonwealth countries. There are also many non-official associations that bring together individuals who work within the spheres of law and government, such as the Commonwealth Lawyers Association and the Commonwealth Parliamentary Association.

### **Commonwealth Foundation**

The Commonwealth Foundation is an intergovernmental organisation, resourced by and reporting to Commonwealth governments, and guided by Commonwealth values and priorities. Its mandate is to strengthen civil society in the achievement of Commonwealth priorities: democracy and good governance, respect for human rights and gender equality, poverty eradication and sustainable, people-centred development, and to promote arts and culture.

The Commonwealth Foundation was established by the Heads of Government in 1965. Membership to the Foundation is open to all members of the Commonwealth and (as of June 2007) stood at 46 governments out of the 53 member countries. Associate Membership, which is open to associated states or overseas territories of member governments, has been granted to Gibraltar. 2005 saw celebrations for the Foundation's 40th Anniversary. The Foundation is headquartered in Marlborough House, Pall Mall, London, and has no other offices. Regular liaison and cooperation between the Secretariat and the Foundation is in place.

The Foundation continues to serve the broad purposes for which it was established as written in the Memorandum of Understanding:

The purposes and areas of interest of the Foundation will be the administration of funds for increasing interchanges between Commonwealth organisations of the skilled or learned professions or skilled auxiliary occupations in order to maintain and improve standards of knowledge, attainment and conduct; and between non-governmental organisations of a voluntary rather than a strictly professional character throughout the Commonwealth. The Foundation's areas of interest will also extend to include culture, information and the media, rural development, social welfare and the handicapped, and the role of women.

### **Commonwealth Games**

A multi-sports championship called the Commonwealth Games is held every four years, in the same year as the Winter Olympic Games. As well as the usual athletic disciplines, the games include sports popular in the Commonwealth.

### **Commonwealth of Learning**

The Commonwealth of Learning (COL) is an intergovernmental organisation created by the Heads of Government to encourage the development and sharing of open learning/ distance education knowledge, resources and technologies. COL is helping developing nations improve access to quality education and training.

### **Commonwealth Business Council**

The Commonwealth Business Council (CBC) was formed at the Edinburgh CHOGM in 1997. The aim was to utilise the global network of the Commonwealth more effectively for the promotion of global trade and investment for shared prosperity.

The CBC acts as a bridge for co-operation between business and government, concentrating efforts on these specific areas:

- Enhancing trade
- Facilitating ICT for Development
- Mobilising investment
- Promoting corporate citizenship
- Public Private Partnerships

The CBC has a dedicated team, CBC Technologies, based in London and focused on the international technology and global services industry throughout the Commonwealth.

### **Commonwealth War Graves Commission**

The Commonwealth is also useful as an international organization that represents significant cultural and historical links between wealthy first-world countries and poorer nations with diverse social and religious backgrounds. The common inheritance of the English language and literature, the common law, and British systems of administration all underpin the club-like atmosphere of the Commonwealth.

Mostly due to their history of British rule, many Commonwealth nations share certain identifiable traditions and customs that are elements of a shared Commonwealth culture. Examples include common sports such as cricket and rugby, driving on the left, parliamentary and legal traditions, and the use of British rather than American spelling conventions (see English in the Commonwealth of Nations). None of these are universal within the Commonwealth countries, nor exclusive to them, but all of them are more common in the Commonwealth than elsewhere.

In recent years the Commonwealth model has inspired similar initiatives on the part of France, Spain and Portugal and their respective ex-colonies, and in the former case, other

sympathetic governments: the *Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie* (International Organisation of Francophone Countries), the *Comunidad Iberoamericana de Naciones* (Organization of Ibero-American States) and the *Comunidade dos Países de Língua Portuguesa* (Community of Portuguese Language Countries). The Arab League, an association similar to the Commonwealth, was founded in 1945 and whose members and observers (except observer state India) use Arabic as an official language.

### **Literature**

The shared history of British rule has also produced a substantial body of writing in many languages: Commonwealth literature. There is an Association for Commonwealth Literature and Language Studies (ACLALS) with nine chapters worldwide. ACLALS holds an international conference every three years.

In 1987, the Commonwealth Foundation established the Commonwealth Writers Prize “to encourage and reward the upsurge of new Commonwealth fiction and ensure that works of merit reach a wider audience outside their country of origin.” Caryl Phillips won the Commonwealth Writers Prize 2004 for *A Distant Shore*. Mark Haddon won the Commonwealth Writers’ Prize 2004 Best First Book prize worth £3,000 for *The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-time*.

Although not affiliated with the Commonwealth in an official manner, the prestigious Man Booker Prize is awarded annually to an author from a Commonwealth country or the Republic of Ireland. This honour is one of the highest in literature.

### **NON-ALIGNED MOVEMENT (NAM)**

The Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) is an international organization of states considering themselves not formally aligned with or against any major power bloc. The movement is largely the brainchild of the first Indian Prime Minister, Jawaharlal Nehru. It was founded in April 1955. As of 2007, it had 118 members. The purpose of the organization as stated in the *Havana Declaration of 1979*, is to ensure “the national independence, sovereignty, territorial integrity and security of non-aligned countries” in their “struggle against imperialism, colonialism, neo-colonialism, racism, zionism, and all forms of foreign aggression, occupation, domination, interference or hegemony, as well as against great power and bloc politics.” They represent nearly two-thirds of the United Nation’s members and comprise 55 percent of the world population, particularly countries considered to be developing or part of the third world’.

Members have, at various times, included: Yugoslavia, India, Ghana, Pakistan, Algeria, Libya, Sri Lanka, Egypt, Indonesia, Cuba, Colombia, Venezuela, post-1994 South Africa, Iran, Malaysia, and, for a time, the People's Republic of China. Brazil has never been a formal member of the movement, but shares many of the aims of NAM and frequently sends observers to the Non-Aligned Movement's summits.

While the organization was intended to be as close an alliance as NATO or the Warsaw Pact, it has little cohesion and many of its members were actually quite closely aligned with one or another of the great powers. For example, Cuba was closely aligned with the former Soviet Union during the Cold War era. Additionally, some members were involved in serious conflicts with other members (e.g. India and Pakistan, Iran and Iraq). The movement fractured from its own internal contradictions when the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan in 1979. While the Soviet allies supported the invasion, other members (particularly Islamic nations) of the movement did not. Another country which might be associated with the Non-Aligned Movement is New Zealand. While New Zealand is part of NATO, it has not participated in the war in Iraq or Afghanistan, and does not conscribe to NATO policies as much as the United Kingdom or the United States.

The Non-Aligned Movement was formed as an attempt to thwart the Cold War and has struggled to find relevance after the Cold War ended. After the breakup of Yugoslavia, a founding member, its successor states of Yugoslavia have expressed little interest in membership, though some have observer status. In 2004, Malta and Cyprus ceased to be members and joined the European Union.

Member states of the Non-Aligned Movement (2007). Light blue states have observer status.

### **The origin of the Non-Aligned Movement**

Independent countries, who chose not to join any of the Cold War blocs, were also known as nonaligned nations. Some nations, such as India and Indonesia, were able to maintain their neutrality. But others took sides with the superpowers or played competing sides against each other.

The term "Non-Alignment" itself was coined by Indian Prime Minister Nehru during his speech in 1954 in Colombo, Sri Lanka. In this speech, Nehru described the five pillars to be used as a guide for Sino-Indian relations, which were first put forth by Chinese Premier Zhou Enlai. Called Panchsheel (five restraints), these principles would later serve as the basis of the Non-Aligned Movement. The five principles were:

- Mutual respect for each other's territorial integrity and sovereignty
- Mutual non-aggression

- Mutual non-interference in domestic affairs
- Equality and mutual benefit
- Peaceful co-existence

A significant milestone in the development of the Non-Aligned Movement was the 1955 Bandung Conference, a conference of Asian and African states hosted by Indonesian President Sukarno. The attending nations declared their desire not to become involved in the Cold War and adopted a “declaration on promotion of world peace and cooperation”, which included Nehru’s five principles. Six years after Bandung, an initiative of Yugoslav President Tito led to the first official Non-Aligned Movement Summit, which was held in September 1961 in Belgrade.



*The founding leaders of the Non-Aligned states met in New York in October 1960. From left: Jawaharlal Nehru of India, Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, Gamal Abdel Nasser of Egypt, Sukarno of Indonesia and Josip Broz Tito of Yugoslavia.*

At the Lusaka Conference in September 1970, the member nations added peaceful resolution of disputes and abstention from the big power military alliances and pacts as the aim of the movement. Opposition to stationing of military bases in foreign countries was also added as the movement’s aim.<sup>[3]</sup>

The founding fathers of the Non-Aligned Movement, were from Nehru of India, Sukarno of Indonesia, Tito of Yugoslavia, Gamal Abdul Nasser of Egypt and Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana. Their actions were known as ‘The Initiative of Five’.

## **Organizational Structure & Membership**

While the NAM is an organization of united countries, much like the United Nations or NATO, it is unique to some of these organizations in its organization and structure. First, it considers itself to be non-hierarchical in nature, in that there are no countries that have veto power or have special privileges in certain areas. The chair is rotated at each summit. The administration of the organization falls to the responsibility of a rotating chair, and the rotation is consistent and fair. Secondly, the organization does not have any sort of constitution as many similar organizations do. This was done out of recognition that with so many countries having so many varying viewpoints and priorities, any formal sort of administrative structure would increase divisiveness and eventually lead to the collapse of the organization.

Membership in the organization has changed from the original requirements as well. As the organization has matured and international political circumstances have changed, so too have the requirements. There is an obvious attempt to integrate the requirements of the NAM with the key beliefs of the United Nations. The latest requirements are now that the candidate country has displayed practices in accordance with:

- Respect for fundamental human rights and for the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations.
- Respect for the sovereignty and territorial integrity of all nations.
- Recognition of the equality of all races and of the equality of all nations, large and small.
- Abstention from intervention or interference in the internal affairs of another country.
- Respect for the right of each nation to defend itself singly or collectively, in conformity with the Charter of the United Nations.
- Refraining from acts or threats of aggression or the use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any country.
- Settlement of all international disputes by peaceful means, in conformity with the Charter of the United Nations.
- Promotion of mutual interests and co-operation.
- Respect for justice and international obligations.

## **The South Africa Conference on NAM**

The NAM is a commitment to world peace and security. At the seventh summit held in New Delhi in March 1983, the movement described itself as the “history’s biggest peace movement”. The movement places equal emphasis on disarmament. NAM’s commitment to peace pre-dates its formal institutionalization in 1961. The Brioni meeting between heads of governments of India, Egypt and Yugoslavia in 1956 recognized that there exists a vital link between struggle for peace and endeavors for disarmament.

From the 1960s onwards, critics came to see the movement as unduly dominated by states allied to the Soviet Union. Many questioned how countries in close alliance with the Soviet Union, such as Cuba, could claim to be non-aligned. The movement divided against itself over the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979. This division was an indication that the NAM was indeed aligned, and it is possible that an organization of this nature can never be fully non-aligned.

In contrast, The Non-Aligned Movement believes in policies and practices of cooperation, especially those that are multilateral and provide mutual benefit to all those involved. Many of the members of the NAM are also members of the United Nations and both organizations have a stated policy of peaceful cooperation, yet successes that the NAM has had in multilateral agreements tends to be ignored by the larger, western and developed nation dominated UN. African concerns about apartheid were linked with Arab-Asian concerns about Palestine and success of multilateral cooperation in these areas has been a stamp of moderate success for the NAM.

The NAM has played a major role in various ideological conflicts throughout its existence, including extreme opposition to apartheid regimes and support of liberation movements in various locations including Zimbabwe and South Africa. The support of these sorts of movements stems from a belief that every state has the right to base policies and practices with national interests in mind and not as a result of relations to a particular power bloc. The Non-aligned movement has become a voice of support for issues facing developing nations and is still contains ideals that are legitimate within this context.

## **Current Activities and Positions**

### **Anti-American Sentiments**

In recent years the US has become a target of the organization. The singular superpower the US invasion of Iraq, its attempts to stifle Iran and North Korea’s nuclear plans, and its other actions have been denounced as human rights violations and attempts to run roughshod over the sovereignty of smaller nations. The movement’s leaders have also criticized the US



overt control over the United Nations and other international structures, and the war on terrorism. While the organization has rejected terrorism, it condemns the association of terrorism with a particular religion, nationality, or ethnicity, and recognizes the rights of those struggling against colonialism and foreign occupation.

### **Anti-Israel Sentiments**

NAM's Havana Declaration of 1979 adopted anti-Zionism as part of the movement's agenda. The movement has denounced Israel's occupation of the West Bank and Gaza Strip. It has called upon Israel to halt its settlement activities, open up border crossings, and cease the use of force and violence against civilians. The UN has also been asked to pressure Israel and to do more to prevent human rights abuses.

### **Southern Development**

The movement is publicly committed to the tenets of sustainable development and the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals, but it believes that the international community has not created conditions conducive to development and has infringed upon the right to sovereign development by each member state. Issues such as globalization, the debt burden, unfair trade practices, the decline in foreign aid, donor conditionality, and the lack of democracy in international financial decision-making, are cited as factors inhibiting development.

### **Reforms of the UN**

The Non-Aligned Movement has been quite outspoken in its criticism of current UN structures and power dynamics, mostly in how the organization has been utilized by powerful states in ways that violate the movement's principles. It has made a number of recommendations that would strengthen the representation and power of 'non-aligned' states. The proposed reforms are also aimed at improving the transparency and democracy of UN decision-making. The UN Security Council is the element considered the most distorted, undemocratic, and in need of reshaping.

### **South-South Cooperation**

Lately the Non-Aligned Movement has collaborated with other organizations of the developing world, primarily the Group of 77, forming a number of joint committees and releasing statements and documents representing the shared interests of both groups. This dialogue and cooperation can be taken as an effort to increase the global awareness about the organization and bolster its political clout.

## **Cultural Diversity and Human Rights**

The movement accepts the universality of human rights and social justice, but fiercely resists cultural homogenization. In line with its views on sovereignty, the organization appeals for the protection of cultural diversity, and the tolerance of the religious, socio-cultural, and historical particularities that define human rights in a specific region.

Working Groups, Taskforces, Committees

- High-Level Working Group for the Restructuring of the United Nations
- Working Group on Human Rights
- Working Group on Peace-Keeping Operations
- Working Group on Disarmament
- Committee on Palestine
- Task Force on Somalia
- Non-Aligned Security Caucus
- Standing Ministerial Committee for Economic Cooperation
- Joint Coordinating Committee (chaired by Chairman of G-77 and Chairman of NAM)

## **Contemporary Relevance**

Since the end of the Cold War and the formal end of colonialism, the Non-Aligned Movement has been forced to redefine itself and reinvent its purpose in the current world atmosphere. A major question has been whether many of its foundational ideologies, principally national independence, territorial integrity, and the struggle against colonialism and imperialism, can be applied to contemporary issues. The movement has emphasized its principles of multilateralism, equality, and mutual non-aggression in attempting to become a stronger voice for the global South, and an instrument which can be utilized to promote the needs of member nations at the international level and strengthen their political leverage when negotiating with developed nations.

In its efforts to advance Southern interests, the movement has stressed the importance of cooperation and unity amongst member states, but as in the past, cohesion remains a problem since the size of the organization and the divergence of agendas and allegiances present the ongoing potential for fragmentation. While agreement on basic principles has been smooth, taking definitive action vis-à-vis particular international issues has been rare, with the movement preferring to assert its criticism or support rather than pass hard-line resolutions.

The movement continues to see a role for itself, as in its view, the world's poorest nations remain exploited and marginalized, no longer by opposing superpowers, but rather in a

unipolar world, and it is Western hegemony and neo-colonialism that the movement has really re-aligned itself against. It opposes foreign occupation, interference in internal affairs, and aggressive unilateral measures, but it has also shifted to focus on the socio-economic challenges facing member states, especially the inequalities manifested by globalization and the implications of neo-liberal policies. The non-aligned movement has identified economic underdevelopment, poverty, and social injustices as growing threats to peace and security.

### **Summits**

- First Conference - Belgrade, September 1-6, 1961
- Second Conference - Cairo, October 5-10, 1964
- Third Conference - Lusaka, September 8-10, 1970
- Fourth Conference - Algiers, September 5-9, 1973
- Fifth Conference - Colombo, August 16-19, 1976
- Sixth Conference - Havana, September 3-9, 1979
- Seventh Conference - New Delhi, March 7-12, 1983
- Eighth Conference - Harare, September 1-6, 1986
- Ninth Conference - Belgrade, September 4-7, 1989
- Tenth Conference - Jakarta, September 1-7, 1992
- Eleventh Conference - Cartagena de Indias (Colombia), October 18-20, 1995
- Twelfth Conference - Durban, September 2-3, 1998
- Thirteenth Conference - Kuala Lumpur, February 20-25, 2003
- Fourteenth Conference - Havana, September 15-16, 2006

### **Secretaries General**

Between summits, the Non-Aligned Movement is run by the *Secretary general* elected at last summit meeting. As a considerable part of the movement's work is undertaken at the United Nations in New York, the chair country's ambassador to the UN is expected to devote time and effort to matters concerning the Non-Aligned Movement. A Co-coordinating Bureau, also based at the UN, is the main instrument for directing the work of the movement's task forces, committees and working groups.

<b>Chairmen of the Non-Aligned Movement</b>			
<b>Name</b>	<b>Country</b>	<b>From</b>	<b>To</b>
Josip Broz Tito	Yugoslavia	1961	1964
Gamal Abdel Nasser	Egypt (United Arab Republic)	1964	1970
Kenneth Kaunda	Zambia	1970	1973
Houari Boumédiène	Algeria	1973	1976
William Gopallawa	Sri Lanka	1976	1978
Junius Richard Jayawardene		1978	1979
Fidel Castro	Cuba	1979	1983
N. Sanjiva Reddy	India	1983	
Zail Singh		1983	1986
Robert Mugabe	Zimbabwe	1986	1989
Janez Drnovšek	Yugoslavia	1989	1990
Borisav Jovi		1990	1991
Stjepan (Stipe) Mesi		1991	
Branko Kostić		1991	1992
Dobrica Ćosić		1992	
Suharto	Indonesia	1992	1995
Ernesto Samper Pizano	Colombia	1995	1998
Andrés Pastrana Arango		1998	
Nelson Mandela	South Africa	1998	1999
Thabo Mbeki		1999	2003
Mahathir bin Mohammad	Malaysia	2003	
Abdullah Ahmad Badawi		2003	2006
Fidel Castro	Cuba	2006	2008
Raúl Castro		2008	

### **Member States and Representatives**

- Afghanistan, Democratic Republic of the Congo
- Algeria Djibouti
- Angola Dominica
- Antigua and Barbuda Dominican Republic
- Bahamas Ecuador
- Bahrain Egypt
- Bangladesh Equatorial Guinea

- Barbados
- Belarus
- Belize
- Benin
- Bhutan
- Bolivia
- Botswana
- Brunei
- Burkina Faso
- Burundi
- Cambodia
- Cameroon
- Cape Verde
- Central African Republic
- Chad
- Chile
- Colombia
- Comoros
- Congo
- Côte d'Ivoire
- Cuba
- South Africa
- Jamaica
- Jordan
- Kenya
- Kuwait
- Laos
- Lebanon
- Lesotho
- Liberia
- Libya
- Madagascar
- Malawi
- Malaysia
- Maldives
- Mali
- Mauritania
- Mauritius
- Mongolia
- Eritrea
- Ethiopia
- Fiji
- Gabon
- Gambia
- Ghana
- Grenada
- Guatemala
- Guinea
- Guinea-Bissau
- Guyana
- Haiti
- Honduras
- India
- Indonesia
- Iran
- Iraq
- Seychelles
- Sierra Leone
- Singapore
- Somalia
- Sri Lanka
- Sudan
- Suriname
- Swaziland
- Syria
- Tanzania
- Thailand
- Timor-Leste
- Togo
- Trinidad and Tobago
- Tunisia
- Turkmenistan
- Uganda
- United Arab Emirates
- Uzbekistan
- Vanuatu
- Venezuela
- Vietnam

- Morocco
- Mozambique
- Myanmar
- Namibia
- Nicaragua
- Nigeria
- Oman
- Palestine
- Papua New Guinea
- Philippines
- Rwanda
- Saint Kitts and Nevis
- São Tomé and Príncipe
- Senegal
- Yemen
- Zambia
- Zimbabwe
- Nepal
- Niger
- North Korea
- Pakistan
- Panama
- Peru
- Qatar
- Saint Lucia
- Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
- Saudi Arabia

## THE NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION (NATO)

The **North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)** in French *Organisation du Traité de l'Atlantique Nord (OTAN)*, also called the *North Atlantic Alliance*, is a military alliance established by the signing of the North Atlantic Treaty on 4<sup>th</sup> April 1949. The NATO Headquarters are in Brussels - Belgium, and the organization constitutes a system of collective defense, whereby its member states agree to mutual defense in response to an attack by any external party.

For its first few years, NATO was not much more than a political association. However, the Korean War galvanized the member states, and an integrated military structure was built up under the direction of two U.S. supreme commanders. The first NATO Secretary General, Lord Ismay, infamously stated the organization's goal was "to keep the Russians out, the Americans in, and the Germans down".

Doubts over the strength of the relationship between the European States and the United States ebbed and flowed, along with doubts over the credibility of the NATO defense against a prospective Soviet invasion. Doubts that led to the development of the independent French nuclear deterrent and the withdrawal of the French from NATO's military structure from 1966.

After the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989, the organization became drawn into the Balkans, while building better links with former potential enemies to the East, which culminated with several former Warsaw Pact states joining the alliance between 1999 and 2004. Since the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks, NATO has attempted to refocus itself to new challenges, and has deployed troops to Pakistan and Afghanistan and military trainers to Iraq.

The Berlin Plus agreement is a comprehensive package of agreements made between NATO and the EU on 16 December 2002. With this agreement, the EU was given the possibility to use NATO assets in case it wanted to act independently in an international crisis, on the condition that NATO itself did not want to act – The so-called “right of first refusal”. Only if NATO refused to act would the EU have the option to act. The combined military spending of all NATO members constitutes over 70% of the world’s defense spending, with the United States alone accounting for about half the total military spending of the world and the United Kingdom and France accounting for a further 10%.

### **Historical Background**

The Treaty of Brussels, signed on 17 March 1948 by Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, France and the United Kingdom is considered the precursor to the NATO agreement. The treaty and the Soviet Berlin Blockade led to the creation of the Western European Union’s Defense Organization in September 1948. However, participation of the United States was thought necessary in order to counter the military power of the USSR, and therefore talks for a new military alliance began almost immediately.

These talks resulted in the North Atlantic Treaty, which was signed in Washington, D.C. on 4 April 1949. It included the five Treaty of Brussels states, as well as the United States, Canada, Portugal, Italy, Norway, Denmark and Iceland. Popular support for the Treaty was not unanimous; some Icelanders commenced a pro-neutrality, anti-membership riot in March 1949. Three years later, on 18 February 1952, Greece and Turkey also joined.

“The Parties of NATO agreed that an armed attack against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all. Consequently they agreed that, if such an armed attack occurs, each of them, in exercise of the right of individual or collective self-defense, will assist the Party or Parties being attacked, individually and in concert with the other Parties, such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force, to restore and maintain the security of the North Atlantic area.”

Such action as it deems necessary, including the use of armed force does not necessarily mean that other member states will respond with military action against the aggressor(s).

Rather they are obliged to respond, but maintain the freedom to choose how they will respond. This differs from Article IV of the Treaty of Brussels (which founded the Western European Union) which clearly states that the response however often assumed that NATO members will aid the attacked member militarily. Further, the article limits the organization's scope to Europe and North America, which explains why the invasion of the British Falkland Islands did not result in NATO involvement. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:BundeswehrM47Patton.jpg>

The outbreak of the Korean War in 1950 was crucial for NATO as it raised the apparent threat level greatly (all Communist countries were suspected of working together) and forced the alliance to develop concrete military plans. The 1952 Lisbon Conference, seeking to provide the forces necessary for NATO's Long-Term Defense Plan, called for an expansion to 96 divisions. However this requirement was dropped the following year to roughly 35 divisions with use of heavier weapons. At this time, NATO could call on about fifteen ready divisions in Central Europe, and another ten in Italy and Scandinavia. Also at Lisbon, the post of the NATO Secretary General as the organization's chief civilian was also created, and Baron Hastings Ismay was eventually appointed to the post. Later, in September 1952, the first major NATO maritime exercises began; Operation Mainbrace brought together 200 ships and over 50,000 personnel to practice the defense of Denmark and Norway.

Greece and Turkey joined the alliance the same year, forcing a series of controversial negotiations, in which the United States and Britain were the primary disputants, over how to bring the two countries into the military command structure. Meanwhile, while this overt military preparation was going on, covert stay-behind arrangements to continue resistance after a successful Soviet invasion ('Operation Gladio'), initially made by the Western European Union, were being transferred to NATO control. Ultimately unofficial bonds began to grow between NATO's armed forces, such as the NATO Tiger Association and competitions such as the Canadian Army Trophy for tank gunnery.

In 1954, the Soviet Union suggested that it should join NATO to preserve peace in Europe.

The NATO countries, fearing that the Soviet Union's motive was to weaken the alliance, ultimately rejected this proposal.

The incorporation of West Germany into the organization on 9 May 1955 was described as "a decisive turning point in the history of our continent" by Halvard Lange, Foreign Minister of Norway at the time. A major reason for Germany's entry into the alliance was that without German manpower, it would have been impossible to field enough conventional



forces to resist a Soviet invasion. Indeed, one of its immediate results was the creation of the Warsaw Pact, signed on 14 May 1955 by the Soviet Union, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Bulgaria, Romania, Albania, and East Germany, as a formal response to this event, thereby delineating the two opposing sides of the Cold War.

The unity of NATO was breached early on in its history, with a crisis occurring during Charles de Gaulle's presidency of France from 1958 onward. De Gaulle protested the United States' strong role in the organization and what he perceived as a special relationship between the United States and the United Kingdom. In a memorandum sent to President Dwight D. Eisenhower and Prime Minister Harold Macmillan on 17 September 1958, he argued for the creation of a tripartite directorate that would put France on an equal footing with the United States and the United Kingdom, and also for the expansion of NATO's coverage to include geographical areas of interest to France, most notably Algeria, where France was waging a counter-insurgency and sought NATO assistance.[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:NATO\\_AB\\_in\\_France\\_map-en.svg](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:NATO_AB_in_France_map-en.svg)

Considering the response given to be unsatisfactory, and in order to give France, in the event of a East German incursion into West Germany, the option of coming to a separate peace with the Eastern bloc instead of being drawn into a NATO-Warsaw Pact global war, de Gaulle began to build an independent defense for his country. On 11 March 1959, France withdrew its Mediterranean fleet from NATO command; three months later, in June 1959, de Gaulle banned the stationing of foreign nuclear weapons on French soil. This caused the United States to transfer two hundred military aircraft out of France and return control of the ten major air force bases that had operated in France since 1950 to the French by 1967.

Though France showed solidarity with the rest of NATO during the Cuban missile crisis in 1962, de Gaulle continued his pursuit of an independent defense by removing France's Atlantic and Channel fleets from NATO command. In 1966, all French armed forces were removed from NATO's integrated military command, and all non-French NATO troops were asked to leave France. This withdrawal forced the relocation of the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) from Rocquencourt near Paris to Casteau, north of Mons, Belgium, by 16 October 1967. France remained a member of the alliance, and committed to the defense of Europe from possible Communist attack with its own forces stationed in the Federal Republic of Germany throughout the Cold War.

The creation of NATO brought about some standardization of allied military terminology, procedures, and technology, which in many cases meant European countries adopting U.S. practices. The roughly 1300 Standardization Agreements (STANAGs) codifies the

standardization that NATO has achieved. Hence, the 7.62×51 NATO rifle cartridge was introduced in the 1950s as a standard firearm cartridge among many NATO countries. Fabrique Nationale's FAL became the most popular 7.62 NATO rifle in Europe and served into the early 1990s. Also, aircraft marshalling signals were standardized, so that any NATO aircraft could land at any NATO base. Other standards such as the NATO phonetic alphabet have made their way beyond NATO into civilian use.

### **Détente**

During most of the duration of the Cold War, NATO maintained a holding pattern with no actual military engagement as an organization. On 1 July 1968, the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty opened for signature: NATO argued that its nuclear weapons sharing arrangements did not breach the treaty as U.S. forces controlled the weapons until a decision was made to go to war, at which point the treaty would no longer be controlling. Few states knew of the NATO nuclear sharing arrangements at that time, and they were not challenged.

On 30 May 1978, NATO countries officially defined two complementary aims of the Alliance, to maintain security and pursue détente. This was supposed to mean matching defenses at the level rendered necessary by the Warsaw Pact's offensive capabilities without spurring a further arms race.

On 12 December 1979, in light of a build-up of Warsaw Pact nuclear capabilities in Europe, Ministers approved the deployment of U.S. GLCM cruise missiles and Pershing II theatre nuclear weapons in Europe. The new warheads were also meant to strengthen the Western negotiating position in regard to nuclear disarmament. This policy was called the Dual Track Policy. Similarly, in 1983–84, responding to the stationing of Warsaw Pact SS-20 medium-range missiles in Europe, NATO deployed modern Pershing II missiles tasked to hit military targets such as tank formations in the event of war. This action led to peace movement protests throughout Western Europe.

### **Escalation**

With the background of the build-up of tension between the Soviet Union and the United States, NATO decided, under the impetus of the Reagan presidency, to deploy Pershing II and cruise missiles in Western Europe, primarily West Germany. These missiles were theatre nuclear weapons intended to strike targets on the battlefield if the Soviets invaded West Germany. Yet support for the deployment was wavering and many doubted whether the push for deployment could be sustained.

On 1 September 1983, the Soviet Union shot down a Korean airliner, loaded with passengers, when it crossed into Soviet airspace - an act which Reagan characterized as a “massacre”. The barbarity of this act, as the U.S. and indeed the world understood it, galvanized support for the deployment - which stood in place until the later accords between Reagan and Mikhail Gorbachev.

The membership of the organization in that period likewise remained largely static. In 1974, as a consequence of the Turkish invasion of Cyprus, Greece withdrew its forces from NATO’s military command structure, but, with Turkish cooperation, was readmitted in 1980. On 30 May 1982, NATO gained a new member when, following a referendum, the newly democratic Spain joined the alliance.

In November 1984, NATO maneuvers simulating a nuclear launch caused panic in the Kremlin. The Soviet leadership, led by ailing General Secretary Yuri Andropov, became concerned that the maneuvers, codenamed Able Archer 83, were the beginnings of a genuine first strike. In response, Soviet nuclear forces were readied and air units in East Germany and Poland were placed on alert. Though at the time written off by U.S. intelligence as a propaganda effort, many historians now believe that the Soviet fear of a NATO first strike was genuine.

### **Post Cold War**

The end of the Cold War and the dissolution of the Warsaw Pact in 1991 removed the *de facto* main adversary of NATO. This caused a strategic re-evaluation of NATO’s purpose, nature and tasks. In practice this ended up entailing a gradual (and still ongoing) expansion of NATO to Eastern Europe, as well as the extension of its activities to areas that had not formerly been NATO concerns. The first post-Cold War expansion of NATO came with the reunification of Germany on 3 October 1990, when the former East Germany became part of the Federal Republic of Germany and the alliance. This had been agreed in the Two Plus Four Treaty earlier in the year. To secure Soviet approval of a united Germany remaining in NATO, it was agreed that foreign troops and nuclear weapons would not be stationed in the east.

The scholar Stephen F. Cohen argued in 2005 that a commitment was given that NATO would never expand further east, but according to Robert B. Zoellick, then a State Department official involved in the Two Plus Four negotiating process, this appears to be a misperception; no formal commitment of the sort was made. On 7 May 2008, The Daily Telegraph held an interview with Gorbachev in which he repeated his view that such a commitment had been made. Gorbachev said “the Americans promised that NATO wouldn’t move beyond the boundaries of Germany after the Cold War but now half of central and eastern Europe are members, so what happened to their promises? It shows they cannot be trusted.”

As part of post-Cold War restructuring, NATO's military structure was cut back and reorganized, with new forces such as the Headquarters Allied Command Europe Rapid Reaction Corps established. The Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe agreed between NATO and the Warsaw Pact and signed in Paris in 1990, mandated specific reductions. The changes brought about by the collapse of the Soviet Union on the military balance in Europe were recognized in the Adapted Conventional Armed Forces in Europe Treaty, signed some years later.

France rejoined NATO's Military Committee in 1995, and since that time has intensified working relations with the military structure. France did not, however, rejoin the integrated military command and no non-French NATO troops are allowed to be based on its soil. The policies of current French President Nicolas Sarkozy have resulted in a major reform of France's military position, culminating in a pledge in June 2008 to rejoin the military command of NATO while maintaining an independent nuclear deterrent.

The first NATO military operation caused by the conflict in the former Yugoslavia was Operation Sharp Guard, which ran from June 1993–October 1996. It provided maritime enforcement of the arms embargo and economic sanctions against the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. On 28 February 1994, NATO took its first military action, shooting down four Bosnian Serb aircraft violating a U.N.-mandated no-fly zone over central Bosnia and Herzegovina. Operation Deny Flight, the no-fly-zone enforcement mission, had begun a year before, on 12 April 1993, and was to continue until 20 December 1995.

NATO air strikes that year helped bring the war in Bosnia to an end, resulting in the Dayton Agreement, which in turn meant that NATO deployed a peacekeeping force, under Operation Joint Endeavor, first named IFOR and then SFOR, which ran from December 1996 to December 2004. Following the lead of its member nations, NATO began to award a service medal, the NATO Medal, for these operations.

Between 1994 and 1997, wider forums for regional cooperation between NATO and its neighbours were set up, like the Partnership for Peace, the Mediterranean Dialogue initiative and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council. On 8 July 1997, three former communist countries, Hungary, the Czech Republic, and Poland, were invited to join NATO, which finally happened in 1999. In 1998, the NATO-Russia Permanent Joint Council was established.

Recognizing the post-Cold War military environment, NATO adopted the Alliance Strategic Concept during its Washington Summit in April 1999 which emphasized conflict prevention and crisis management.

A NATO bombing campaign, Operation Deliberate Force, began in August, 1995, against the Army of Republika Srpska, after the Srebrenica massacre. On 24 March 1999, NATO saw its first broad-scale military engagement in the Kosovo War, where it waged an 11-week bombing campaign, which NATO called Operation Allied Force, against what was then the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, in an effort to stop Serbian-led crackdown on Albanian civilians in Kosovo. A formal declaration of war never took place (in common with all wars since World War II). The conflict ended on 11 June 1999, when Yugoslavian leader Slobodan Milošević agreed to NATO's demands by accepting UN resolution 1244.

During the crisis, NATO also deployed one of its international reaction forces, the ACE Mobile Force (Land), to Albania as the Albania Force (AFOR), to deliver humanitarian aid to refugees from Kosovo. NATO then helped establish the KFOR, a NATO-led force under a United Nations mandate which operated the military mission in Kosovo. Between August–September 2001, the alliance also mounted Operation Essential Harvest, a mission disarming ethnic Albanian militias in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM).

The United States, the United Kingdom, and most other NATO countries opposed efforts to require the U.N. Security Council to approve NATO military strikes, such as the action against Serbia in 1999, while France and some others claimed that the alliance needed U.N. approval. The U.S./U.K. side claimed that this would undermine the authority of the alliance, and they noted that Russia and China would have exercised their Security Council vetoes to block the strike on Yugoslavia, and could do the same in future conflicts where NATO intervention was required, thus nullifying the entire potency and purpose of the organization.

### **After the September 11 attacks**

The September 11 attacks caused NATO to invoke Article 5 of the NATO Charter for the first time in its history. The Article says that an attack on any member shall be considered to be an attack on all. The invocation was confirmed on 4 October 2001 when NATO determined that the attacks were indeed eligible under the terms of the North Atlantic Treaty. The eight official actions taken by NATO in response to the attacks included: Operation Eagle Assist and Operation Active Endeavour. Operation Active Endeavour is a naval operation in the Mediterranean Sea and is designed to prevent the movement of terrorists or weapons of mass destruction, as well as to enhance the security of shipping in general. It began on 4 October 2001.

Despite this early show of solidarity, NATO faced a crisis little more than a year later, when on 10 February 2003, France and Belgium vetoed the procedure of silent approval concerning the timing of protective measures for Turkey in case of a possible war with Iraq. Germany did not use its right to break the procedure but said it supported the veto.

On the issue of Afghanistan on the other hand, the alliance showed greater unity: On 16 April 2003 NATO agreed to take command of the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan. The decision came at the request of Germany and the Netherlands, the two nations leading ISAF at the time of the agreement, and all nineteen NATO ambassadors approved it unanimously. The handover of control to NATO took place on 11 August, and marked the first time in NATO's history that it took charge of a mission outside the north Atlantic area.

In January 2004, NATO appointed Minister Hikmet Çetin, of Turkey, as the Senior Civilian Representative (SCR) in Afghanistan. Minister Cetin was primarily responsible for advancing the political-military aspects of the Alliance in Afghanistan. In August 2004, following U.S. pressure, NATO formed the NATO Training Mission - Iraq, a training mission to assist the Iraqi security forces in conjunction with the U.S. led MNF-I.

On 31 July 2006, a NATO-led force, made up mostly of troops from Canada, the United Kingdom, Turkey and the Netherlands, took over military operations in the south of Afghanistan from a U.S.-led anti-terrorism coalition.

### **Current membership of NATO in Europe**

New NATO structures were also formed while old ones were abolished: The NATO Response Force (NRF) was launched at the Prague Summit on 21 November 2002. On 19 June 2003, a major restructuring of the NATO military commands began as the Headquarters of the Supreme Allied Commander, Atlantic were abolished, and a new command, Allied Command Transformation (ACT), was established in Norfolk, Virginia, United States, and the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe (SHAPE) became the Headquarters of Allied Command Operations (ACO). ACT is responsible for driving transformation (future capabilities) in NATO, whilst ACO is responsible for current operations.

Membership went on expanding with the accession of seven more Northern European and Eastern European countries to NATO: Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania and also Slovenia, Slovakia, Bulgaria, and Romania. They were first invited to start talks of membership during the 2002 Prague Summit, and joined NATO on 29 March 2004, shortly before the 2004 Istanbul Summit. The same month, NATO's Baltic Air Policing began, which supported the sovereignty of Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia by providing fighters to react to any unwanted aerial intrusions. Four fighters are based in Lithuania, provided in rotation by virtually all the NATO states. *Operation Peaceful Summit* temporarily enhanced this patrolling during the 2006 Riga Summit.

The 2006 NATO summit was held in Riga, Latvia, which had joined the Atlantic Alliance two years earlier. It was the first NATO summit to be held in a country that was part of the Soviet Union, and the second one in a former COMECON country (after the 2002 Prague Summit). Energy Security was one of the main themes of the Riga Summit.

At the April 2008 summit in Bucharest, Romania, NATO agreed to the accession of Croatia and Albania and invited them to join. Ukraine and Georgia were also told that they will eventually become members (see Enlargement of NATO).

In April 2009, to mark the 60th anniversary of NATO's founding, the member nations' heads of state and government met in Strasbourg, France, and Kehl, Germany. This meeting was to be part of Barack Obama's first visit to Europe as the USA President.

### **NATO missile defense**

For some years, the United States negotiated with Poland and the Czech Republic for the deployment of interceptor missiles and a radar tracking system in the two countries against wishes of local population. Both countries' governments indicated that they would allow the deployment. In August 2008, Poland and the United States signed a preliminary deal to place part of the missile defense shield in Poland which would be linked to air-defense radar in the Czech Republic.

In answer on this agreement more than 130,000 Czechs signed petition for referendum about the base , which is by far the largest citizen initiative since the Velvet Revolution, but it was refused. The proposed American missile defense site in Central Europe is expected to be fully operational by 2015 and would be capable of covering most of Europe, except parts of Romania plus Bulgaria, Greece and Turkey.

In April 2007, NATO's European allies called for a NATO missile defense system which would complement the American National Missile Defense system to protect Europe from missile attacks. NATO's decision-making North Atlantic Council held consultations on missile defense. This was the first meeting on the topic at a senior level.

In response, the then Russian president Vladimir Putin claimed that such a deployment could lead to a new arms race and could enhance the likelihood of mutual destruction. He also suggested that his country would freeze its compliance with the 1990 Treaty on Conventional Armed Forces in Europe (CFE)—which limits military deployments across the continent—until all NATO countries had ratified the adapted CFE treaty.

Secretary General Jaap de Hoop Scheffer claimed the system would not affect strategic balance or threaten Russia, as the plan is to base only 10 interceptor missiles in Poland with associated radar in the Czech Republic.

On 14 July 2007, Russia gave notice of its intention to suspend the CFE treaty, effective 150 days later. On 14 August 2008, the United States and Poland came to an agreement to place a base with 10 interceptor missiles with associated MIM-104 Patriot air defense systems in Poland. This came at a time when tension was high between Russia and most of NATO and resulted in a nuclear threat on Poland by Russia if the building of the missile defenses went ahead. On 20 August 2008 the United States and Poland signed the agreement, with a statement from Russia saying their response “Will Go Beyond Diplomacy” and is a “extremely dangerous bundle” of military projects.” Also, on 20 August 2008, Russia sent a word to Norway that it was suspending ties with NATO.

### **Membership**

NATO has added new members seven times since its creation in 1949. NATO comprises twenty-six members: Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States.

At the NATO summit in Bucharest, (April 2008), Albania and Croatia were officially invited to start accession talks with the alliance, and signed the accession protocols on 9 July 2008. These countries joined the alliance in April, 2009.

An invitation to the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia was blocked by Greece at the same summit in Bucharest, pending resolution of the Macedonia naming dispute. Cyprus was also blocked by Turkey. Jane’s Defence Weekly commented after the summit that a resolution of the naming issue that is holding up entry is “likely by the end of this year [2008] and no later than the 2009 summit”. At the same 2008 summit in Bucharest, the communiqué explicitly said that Georgia and Ukraine will become members of NATO.

Russia, as referred to above, continues to oppose further expansion, seeing it as inconsistent with understandings between Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev and U.S. President George H. W. Bush that allowed for a peaceful unification of Germany. NATO’s expansion policy is seen by Moscow as a continuation of a Cold War attempt to surround and isolate Russia.



## **Structures**

The NATO website divides the internal NATO organization into political and military structures, plus agencies and organizations immediately subordinate to NATO Headquarters. The main headquarters of NATO is located in Brussels, Belgium. A new headquarters building is currently under construction, due for completion in 2012.

### **Political structure**

Like any alliance, NATO is ultimately governed by its 26 member states. However, the North Atlantic Treaty, and other agreements, outline how decisions are to be made within NATO. Each of the 26 members sends a delegation or mission to NATO's headquarters in Brussels. The senior permanent member of each delegation is known as the Permanent Representative and is generally a senior civil servant or an experienced ambassador (and holding that diplomatic rank).

Together the Permanent Members form the North Atlantic Council (NAC), a body which meets together at least once a week and has effective political authority and powers of decision in NATO. From time to time the Council also meets at higher levels involving Foreign Ministers, Defense Ministers or Heads of State or Government (HOSG) and it is at these meetings that major decisions regarding NATO's policies are generally taken. However, it is worth noting that the Council has the same authority and powers of decision-making, and its decisions have the same status and validity, at whatever level it meets. NATO summits also form a further venue for decisions on complex issues, such as enlargement.

The meetings of the North Atlantic Council are chaired by the Secretary General of NATO and, when decisions have to be made, action is agreed upon on the basis of unanimity and common accord. There is no voting or decision by majority. Each nation represented at the Council table or on any of its subordinate committees retains complete sovereignty and responsibility for its own decisions.

### **NATO Military Committee**

The second pivotal member of each country's delegation is the Military Representative, this is a senior officer from each country's armed forces. Together the Military Representatives form the Military Committee (MC), a body responsible for recommending to NATO's political authorities the measures considered necessary for the common defense of the NATO area. Its principal role is to provide direction and advice on military policy and strategy. It provides guidance on military matters to the NATO Strategic Commanders, whose representatives attend its meetings, and is responsible for the overall conduct of the military affairs of the Alliance under the authority of the Council.

Like the council, from time to time the Military Committee also meets at a higher level, namely the level of Chiefs of Defense, the most senior military officer in each nation's armed forces. The Defense Planning Committee excludes France, due to that country's 1966 decision to remove itself from NATO's integrated military structure. On a practical level, this means that issues that are acceptable to most NATO members but unacceptable to France may be directed to the Defense Planning Committee for more expedient resolution. Such was the case with Operation Iraqi Freedom.

### **NATO Parliamentary Assembly**

The NATO Parliamentary Assembly, is made up of legislators from the member countries of the North Atlantic Alliance, as well as thirteen associate members. It is however officially a different structure from NATO, and has as aim to join together deputies of NATO countries in order to discuss security policies.

Subordinate to the political structure are the International Staff and International Military Staff, which administer NATO programmes and carry out high-level political, military, and also civil emergency planning. [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/NATO - cite\\_note-49](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/NATO_-_cite_note-49)

Over the years, non-governmental citizens' groups have grown up in support of NATO, broadly under the banner of the Atlantic Council/Atlantic Treaty Association movement.

*Military structure* [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Nato\\_awacs.jpg](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Nato_awacs.jpg)

NATO's military operations are directed by the Chairman of the NATO Military Committee, and split into two Strategic Commands, both commanded by a senior US officer assisted by a staff drawn from across NATO. The Strategic Commanders are responsible to the Military Committee for the overall direction and conduct of all Alliance military matters within their areas of command.

Before 2003 the Strategic Commanders were the Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR) and the Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic (SACLANT). There was also a British Commander-in-Chief, Channel Active from the 1950s to 1994, whereafter it was merged into SACEUR's forces. The current arrangement is to separate command responsibility between Allied Command Transformation (ACT), responsible for transformation and training of NATO forces, and Allied Command Operations, responsible for NATO operations world wide.

The commander of Allied Command Operations retained the title "Supreme Allied Commander Europe (SACEUR)", and is based in the Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers

Europe (SHAPE), located at Casteau, north of the Belgian city of Mons. This is about 80 km from NATO's political headquarters in Brussels. ACO is headed by SACEUR, a US four star general with the dual-hatted role of heading US European Command, which is headquartered in Stuttgart, Germany.

ACO includes Joint Force Command Brunssum in the Netherlands, Joint Force Command Naples in Italy, and Joint Command Lisbon, all multinational headquarters with many nations represented. JFC Brunssum has its land component, Allied Land Component Command Headquarters Heidelberg at Heidelberg, Germany, its air component at Ramstein in Germany, and its naval component at the Northwood Headquarters in the northwest suburbs of London. JFC Naples has its land component in Madrid, air component at Izmir, Turkey, and naval component in Naples, Italy. It also directs KFOR in Kosovo. JC Lisbon is a smaller HQ with no subordinate commands. Lajes Field, in the Portuguese Azores, is an important transatlantic staging post.

Directly responsible to SACEUR is the NATO Airborne Early Warning Force at NATO Air Base Geilenkirchen in Germany where a jointly funded fleet of E-3 Sentry AWACS airborne radar aircraft is located. The C-17s of the NATO Strategic Airlift Capability will be based at Pápa airfield in Hungary, and probably come under SACEUR's control.

Allied Command Transformation (ACT) is based in the former Allied Command Atlantic headquarters in Norfolk, Virginia, United States. Allied Command Atlantic, usually known as SACLANT (Supreme Allied Commander Atlantic), became ACT in 2003. It is headed by the Supreme Allied Commander Transformation (SACT), a US four-star general or admiral with the dual-hatted role as commander US Joint Forces Command (COMUSJFCOM). There is also an ACT command element located at SHAPE in Mons, Belgium.

## THE UNO

The UN is the world's peacekeeping organization, which was formed in 1945 with membership open to all world states that follow the UN Charter.

### **Historical Background of the United Nations**

#### **The signing of the UN Charter in San Francisco, 1945.**

The UN was founded as a successor to the League of Nations, which was widely considered to have been ineffective in its role as an international governing body, as it had been unable to prevent World War II. The term "United Nations" was first used by Winston Churchill and Franklin D. Roosevelt, in the 1942 Declaration by United Nations, which united the Allied countries of WWII under the Atlantic Charter, and soon became a term widely used to refer to them. Declarations signed at wartime Allied Conferences in 1943 espoused the idea of the UN. In 1944, representatives of the major Allied powers met to elaborate on the plans at the Dumbarton Oaks Conference. Those and later talks outlined the organization's proposed purposes, membership, organs, and ideals in regards to peace, security, and cooperation.

On 25 April 1945, the UN Conference on International Organization began in San Francisco, it was attended by 50 governments and a number of non-governmental organizations involved in drafting the Charter of the United Nations. The UN officially came into existence on 24 October 1945 upon ratification of the Charter by the five permanent members of the Security Council — France, the Republic of China, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States — and by a majority of the other 46 signatories. The first meetings of the General Assembly, with 51 nations represented, and the Security Council, took place in London in January 1946.

The United Nations (UN) is an international organization whose stated aims are to facilitate cooperation in international law, international security, economic development, social progress, human rights and achieving world peace. The UN was founded in 1945 after World War II to replace the League of Nations, to stop wars between countries and to provide a platform for dialogue

#### **Purposes**

- To maintain international peace and security by pursuing collective measures to prevent / remove threats to peace and suppress aggression by all means, including war;
- To develop friendly relations among nations based on principle of equal rights and self – determination of peoples;

- To achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, culture or humanitarian character;
- To promote and encourage respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction of sex, language or religion; and
- To be a centre for harmonizing actions of nations in attainment of these common ends.

### **UN Principles**

The UN pursues the above stated purposes according to the following principles:

- The sovereign equality of all member states;
- All members to fulfill in good faith their obligations to the organization;
- The sovereign equality of all member states;
- Settlement of international disputes by peaceful means;
- Respect for territorial integrity or political independence of any state;
- To assist the UN in any action it takes;
- Ensuring that all non-UN members act according to the principle for maintenance of international peace and security; and
- Non-intervention of the UN in matters, that are essentially domestic in nature. However, this principle shall not prevent the UN's enforcement of measures where necessary.

### **Membership**

There are currently 192 member states, including nearly every recognized independent state in the world. From its headquarters on international territory in New York City, the UN and its specialized agencies decide on substantive and administrative issues in regular meetings held throughout the year. The organization is divided into administrative bodies.

### **The structure / Organs of UN**

The United Nations system is based on five principal organs (formerly six - the Trusteeship Council suspended its operations in 1994); the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the Secretariat, and the International Court of Justice.

Four of the five principal organs are located at the main United Nations headquarters situated on international territory, in New York City. The International Court of Justice is located in The Hague, while other major agencies are based in the UN offices at Geneva, Vienna and Nairobi. Other UN institutions are located throughout the world.

The six official languages of the United Nations, used in intergovernmental meetings and documents, are Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish, while the Secretariat uses two working languages, English and French. Five of the official languages were chosen when the UN was founded; Arabic was added later in 1973. The United Nations Editorial Manual states that the standard for English language documents is British usage and Oxford spelling (en-gb-oed), and the Chinese writing standard is Simplified Chinese. This replaced Traditional Chinese in 1971 when the UN representation of China was changed from the Republic of China to People's Republic of China. The Republic of China is now commonly known as "Taiwan".

## **Structure of the UN**

### **1. General Assembly**

The General Assembly is the main deliberative assembly of the United Nations. Composed of all United Nations member states, the assembly meets in regular yearly sessions under a president elected from among the member states. Over a two-week period at the start of each session, all members have the opportunity to address the assembly. Traditionally, the Secretary-General makes the first statement, followed by the president of the assembly. The first session was convened on 10 January 1946 in the Westminster Central Hall in London and included representatives of 51 nations.

When the General Assembly votes on important questions, a two-thirds majority of those present and voting is required. Examples of important questions include: recommendations on peace and security; election of members to organs; admission, suspension, and expulsion of members; and, budgetary matters. All other questions are decided by majority vote. Each member country has one vote. Apart from approval of budgetary matters, resolutions are not binding on the members. The Assembly may make recommendations on any matters within the scope of the UN, except matters of peace and security that are under Security Council consideration.

Conceivably, the one state, one vote power structure could enable states comprising just eight percent of the world population to pass a resolution by a two-thirds vote. However, as no more than recommendations, it is difficult to imagine a situation in which a recommendation by member states constituting just eight percent of the world's population would be adhered to by the remaining ninety-two percent of the population, should they object.

### **2. Security Council**

The Security Council is charged with maintaining peace and security among countries. While other organs of the United Nations can only make 'recommendations' to member

governments, the Security Council has the power to make binding decisions that member governments have agreed to carry out, under the terms of Charter Article 25. The decisions of the Council are known as United Nations Security Council resolutions.

The Security Council is made up of 15 member states, consisting of 5 permanent members - China, France, Russia, the United Kingdom and the United States - and 10 non-permanent members, elected on rotational basis. The five permanent members hold veto power over substantive, but not procedural resolutions, allowing a permanent member to block adoption, but not to block the debate of a resolution unacceptable to it. The ten temporary seats are held for two-year terms with member states voted in by the General Assembly on a regional basis. The presidency of the Security Council is rotated alphabetically each month.

### **3. The Secretariat**

The United Nations Secretariat is headed by the Secretary-General, assisted by a staff of international civil servants worldwide. It provides studies, information, and facilities needed by United Nations bodies for their meetings. It also carries out tasks as directed by the UN Security Council, the UN General Assembly, the UN Economic and Social Council, and other UN bodies. The United Nations Charter provides that the staff be chosen by application of the “highest standards of efficiency, competence, and integrity,” with due regard for the importance of recruiting on a wide geographical basis.

The Charter provides that the staff shall not seek or receive instructions from any authority other than the UN. Each UN member country is enjoined to respect the international character of the Secretariat and not seek to influence its staff. The Secretary-General alone is responsible for staff selection.

The Secretary-General’s duties include helping resolve international disputes, administering peacekeeping operations, organizing international conferences, gathering information on the implementation of Security Council decisions, and consulting with member governments regarding various initiatives. Key Secretariat offices in this area, include the Office of the Coordinator of Humanitarian Affairs and the Department of Peacekeeping Operations. The Secretary-General may bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter that, in his or her opinion, may threaten international peace and security.

#### **Secretary-General**

The Secretariat is headed by the Secretary-General, who acts as the *de facto* spokesman and leader of the UN. The current Secretary-General is Ban Ki-moon, who took over from Kofi Annan in 2007 and will be eligible for reappointment when his first term expires in 2011.

Envisioned by Franklin D. Roosevelt as a “world moderator”, the position is defined in the UN Charter as the organization’s “chief administrative officer”, but the Charter also states that the Secretary-General can bring to the Security Council’s attention “any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security”, giving the position greater scope for action on the world stage. The position has evolved into a dual role of an administrator of the UN organization, and a diplomat and mediator, addressing disputes between member states and finding consensus to global issues.

The Secretary-General is appointed by the General Assembly, after being recommended by the Security Council. The selection can be vetoed by any member of the Security Council, and the General Assembly can theoretically override the Security Council’s recommendation if a majority vote is not achieved, although this has not happened so far.<sup>[12]</sup> There are no specific criteria for the post, but over years, it has become accepted that the post shall be held for one or two terms of five years, that the post shall be appointed based on geographical rotation, and that the Secretary-General shall not originate from one of the five permanent Security Council member states.

Secretaries-General of the United Nations					
No.	Name	Country of origin	Took office	Left office	Note
1	<b>Trygve Lie</b>	Norway	2 February 1946	10 November 1952	Resigned
2	<b>Dag Hammarskjöld</b>	Sweden	10 April 1953	18 September 1961	Died while in office
3	<b>U Thant</b>	Burma	30 November 1961	1 January 1972	First Secretary-General from Asia
4	<b>Kurt Waldheim</b>	Austria	1 January 1972	1 January 1982	
5	<b>Javier Pérez de Cuéllar</b>	Peru	1 January 1982	1 January 1992	First Secretary-General from South America
6	<b>Boutros Boutros-Ghali</b>	Egypt	1 January 1992	1 January 1997	First Secretary-General from Africa
7	<b>Kofi Annan</b>	Ghana	1 January 1997	1 January 2007	
8	<b>Ban Ki-moon</b>	South Korea	1 January 2007	Incumbent	



#### **4. International Court of Justice**

The International Court of Justice (ICJ), located in The Hague, Netherlands, is the primary judicial organ of the United Nations. Established in 1945 by the United Nations Charter, the Court began work in 1946 as the successor to the Permanent Court of International Justice. The Statute of the International Court of Justice, similar to that of its predecessor, is the main constitutional document constituting and regulating the Court.

It is based in the Peace Palace in The Hague, Netherlands, sharing the building with the Hague Academy of International Law, a private centre for the study of international law. Several of the Court's current judges are either alumni or former faculty members of the Academy. Its purpose is to adjudicate disputes among states. The court has heard cases related to war crimes, illegal state interference and ethnic cleansing, among others, and continues to hear cases.

A related court, the International Criminal Court (ICC), began operating in 2002 through international discussions initiated by the General Assembly. It is the first permanent international court charged with trying those who commit the most serious crimes under international law, including war crimes and genocide. The ICC is functionally independent of the UN in terms of personnel and financing, but some meetings of the ICC governing body, the Assembly of States Parties to the Rome Statute, are held at the UN. There is a "relationship agreement" between the ICC and the UN that governs how the two institutions regard each other legally.

#### **5. The Trusteeship Council**

It is a council of UN. It was formed mainly to supervise the administration of the Trusteeship territories. The major task of the trusteeship system was to supervise these territories to independence. All Trusteeship countries in Africa were formerly the German colony. After Germany had been defeated in the First World Wars, German colonies were robbed as the punishment to Germany because she was regarded as the source of wars.

This idea was reached or launched at the Versailles Peace Treaty of Paris-France in 1919. These colonies were put under the League of Nation and became known as Mandate territories. After UN has been formed, after the Second World War of 1945, it took over the territories, and became to be known as Trusteeship Territories of UN.

The Trusteeship countries attained their independence under the great influence of this Council which declared decolonization process, one of them was Tanzania. The Trusteeship council is made up of five permanent members of the Security Council. These permanent

members also have a VETO power on the Council. If one of them cast the vote of NO about any idea or proposal, the idea or proposal is canceled out.

### **Functions**

- i. To prepare the Trusteeship Territories for independence as fast as possible. To achieve this, it:
- ii. Supervises the leadership of the government of the Trusteeship countries with objectives.
- iii. To examine political, economic and educational development of people and the annual reports about people in the Trusteeship countries: and
- iv. To consider government matters of the trusteeships in co-operation with the ruling governments.

### **6. Economic and Social Council**

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) assists the General Assembly in promoting international economic and social cooperation and development. ECOSOC has 54 members, all of whom are elected by the General Assembly for a three-year term. The president is elected for a one-year term and chosen amongst the small or middle powers represented on ECOSOC. ECOSOC meets once a year in July for a four-week session. Since 1998, it has held another meeting each April with finance ministers heading key committees of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

Viewed separate from the specialized bodies it coordinates, ECOSOC's functions include information gathering, advising member nations, and making recommendations. In addition, ECOSOC is well-positioned to provide policy coherence and coordinate the overlapping functions of the UN's subsidiary bodies and it is in these roles that it is most active.

### **THE UN SPECIALIZED AGENCIES.**

There are many UN organizations and agencies that, work on specific issues. Some of the most well-known agencies are:- UNICEF, UNESCO, ILO, FAO, UNDP, WHO and IMF.

#### **The agencies:**

#### **The International Children's Education Fund (UNICEF).**

Formed in December 1946 to help governments carry out programmes for the benefit of children and youth.

**UNICEF:**

Gives permanent health services for mothers and children: controls diseases for children such as malaria, T.B, yaws, leprosy and so on. It oversees food programmes by feeding children, etc.

**Activities:**

- To promote child and family welfare;
- To provide education and vocational training for the youth;
- To promote technical aid in form of tools, food and money, short and long courses and the like.

**UN's Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)**

Formed on 4<sup>th</sup> November 1946, Headquartered in Paris.

**Aim:**

To contribute to peace and security in the world by promoting international collaboration in education, science, culture and communication.

**Activities**

- It expands and guides education in order to enable each country handle its own development more effectively.
- It trains teachers, educational planners, as well as administrators and encourages building and equipping schools.
- It promotes scientific management of the environment and better use of natural resources.
- It promotes national cultural values and preserves the cultural heritage. For example, by preserving cultural identities, oral traditions, writing of books and so forth.
- To survey the needs of the poor countries to be assisted. For example, to build their own communication systems, promote teaching and learning of social services so as to realize human rights, peace and justice for all.

**International Labour Organization (ILO)**

It was established in 1919 by the Versailles Peace Treaty. Hence, it is associated with the UN as a Specialized Agency.

**Aims:**

- To raise the working and living standards of workers throughout the world;

- To eliminate social injustices, that lead to unrest and war; and
- To achieve full employment for all able people.

#### **Activities:**

- It encourages employment of workers in jobs they are most fitted.
- It facilitates training and transfer of workers
- It promotes working conditions and fair distribution of products of labour.
- It advocates workers, rights to form trade unions and workers to cooperate with employers.
- It provides workers health and safety at work places.
- It champions provision of adequate nutrition, housing and recreational facilities to workers and their families.

#### **Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)**

Formed on 16 /10/ 1945 and headquartered in Rome, Italy.

#### **Aims:**

- To eliminate hunger;
- To raise levels of nutrition and standards of living;
- To improve production, processing, marketing and distribution of food, including products from water and forests;
- To promote living conditions of rural populations.

#### Strategies of Achieving the Aims:

- Investment in agriculture, better utilisation of soil and water;
- Investment to increase crop and livestock yields, marine and inland fisheries;
- Investment in mechanization of farm operations and in development of agricultural research in developing countries;
- Fighting against animal diseases that kill livestock , e.g. East Coast Fever, Rinderpest, and Foot and Mouth Disease.
- Conservation of natural resources such as forests;
- Helps countries to prepare for emergency food relief where necessary; and
- Improves seed production as well as its distribution in developing countries.

#### **World Health Organization (WHO)**

Founded on 7<sup>th</sup> April 1947, headquartered in Paris, France.

**Activities:**

- To supply technical aid in fighting epidemics such as cholera, malaria, T.B. and so on;
- To support public health services in developing countries, for example, training personnel;
- To promote research related to health aspects, for example on nutrition, mother /child care, control of diseases.
- To campaign for immunization of 90% of all children by 2000. (Diseases involved are: (E.g. diphtheria, measles, tetanus, T.B. and whooping cough)
- To direct and co-ordinate the global campaign against AIDS and to effect prevention and control of HIV infection.

**The International Monetary Fund (IMF)**

The IMF and the World Bank are two most important monetary institutions set up by UN's Monetary and Financial Conference, popularly known as the Breton Woods Conference, held in New York in July 1944.

The two institutions came into effect in 1945.

**Objectives**

- To promote international co-operation on international monetary affairs by being a machinery for consultation and collaboration;
- To facilitate international trade by adjusting differences between values of currencies of the different countries;
- To facilitate exchange stability and orderly exchange arrangements, including transfer of funds/payments among countries;
- To eliminate forex restrictions that prevent growth of world trade; and
- To shorten the duration and magnitude of payment for imbalances.

**Functions:**

- To administer exchange rate policies and restrictions on payments for current account transactions;
- To provide members with funds to enable them correct or avoid payment of imbalances (debts);
- To provide a forum for members to consult each other and work together on international monetary matters.

**Principles:**

The IMF extends loans to all needy members on conditions that they pay back soon after solving their imbalances, so that other needy members can be lent.

A recipient member should first show how she intends to solve her imbalance of payments and how it will pay back the debt – normally within 3-5 years.

***The IMF's Conditionality tie in for loans to Africa.***

Due to the worsening economic conditions in African, in the mid 1980s, African countries approached the IMF for loans. The IMF suggested Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) to Africa.

**The aims of the SAPs were:**

- To solve their external debt crisis; and
- To promote rural development projects in a bid to improve living standards of rural people.

N.B: Besides lending money to the most debt ridden nations, the IMF would make strict supervision on project implementation to which the loans are given.

**The IMF Conditionalities**

- To effect liberalization trade, forex controls by opening bureau de change, decontrol of price (to abolish the price commission so that prices would adjust themselves in the market)
- To devalue the currencies so as to attract more investors in countries and more buyers of goods (cheaper) from the countries concerned;
- To introduce anti – inflationary programmes to Africa, for example, to reduce government expenditure on provision of social services like education, health and water; to increase taxes (charge public goods and services highly); and to control budget deficits by reducing government expenditures;
- To effect privatization of the economy (to denationalize)
- To introduce the multi-party democracy.
- Welcoming foreign investors to invest in the countries economies;
- To effect retrenchment (redundancy) by restricting government organizational structure and laying off workers.

## **TANZANIA'S FOREIGN DEBT**

### **Meaning of foreign debt**

It is an external borrowed funds, services, goods etc that the country has to pay back.

### **What is debt crisis?**

Is a situation whereby countries, especially the poor or underdeveloped ones have very large debt and the amount they owe is quickly increasing. Trying to pay off the debt has become a serious problem for these countries, and it causes great hardship for their people.

At the end of 70's, many oil-exporting countries had large amount of extra money. They put this money in the Western Banks.

The banks loaned a lot of this money to third world countries for big development projects. However, several factors (a rise of interest rates, a global recession and low commodity prices) caused the size of these debts to grow very fast; many countries began to fall behind in their payments.

The amount of money owed by developing countries has increased dramatically since the early 1980's. These countries now owe money to commercial banks and financial institutions, like the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and very rich countries.

Take the region of Sub-Sahara Africa as an example. This region pays over 10 billion US Dollars every year in debt service. This is about 4 times as much money as the countries in the region spend on health care and education.

### **Origin of Tanzania's foreign debt**

There are combination of factors that have contributed to the accumulation of Tanzania's foreign debt, among the factors include increase in oil price, the Idd Amin War (Uganda -Tanzania War), drought and famine, withdrawal of some donors to support development projects and unfavorable international economic system.

### **Why does the debt keep growing?**

Developing countries find it difficult to get out of debt because:

- i) Loans must almost always be paid in hard currency.

### **Then what is hard currency?**

Are stable currencies, which means their value does not change very much. The examples of hard currencies are the American Dollar, the Japanese Yen, and the Euro.

So most of the developing countries have the soft currencies – they go down in value. Therefore, when the value of a developing country's money goes down (as it often does), the cost of debt rises. Poor countries are obliged to pay back the debts in hard currency.

A brief example:

In 1995 in Tanzania the value of USD was 500 Tshs, but in 2010 it jumped to 1500 Tsh. So if Tanzania had taken a loan in 1995 for example of 5 million USD, equivalent 2,500,000,000, repaying in 2010, the value of a Dollar would have risen threefold i.e. 7,500,000,000. And this excludes interest. This kind of a situation, it is not possible for borrowing countries to rise out of poverty.

ii) Interest rates.

The debt crisis was triggered by an abrupt increase in interest rates in international loans. For example, Brazil had to pay 6.25% on its external debts in 1979, but it soared to 24% in 1981. This abrupt rise of interest rates was a direct result of the change in monetary policy of wealthier countries when they decided on “monetarism” as their official policy.

### **Implication of the debt to Tanzania's development**

The foreign debt has made Tanzanians to:

- i) Loss of credibility to donors
- ii) Deterioration of social services e.g. health and education
- iii) Economy to be in shamble.
- iv) Loss of sovereignty in decision making

### **Solution to the debt crisis**

Debt crisis, led to a shift which made international leaders, the World Bank and IMF very powerful. Countries that had borrowed money were forced to accept austerity conditions demanded by the IMF before their debts could be rescheduled. Besides, borrower countries needed to get the “seal of approval” from IMF if they were to be eligible to borrow from any other source.

By 1985, it became clear that in spite of the austerity measures, the debt crisis could not be contained. Thus, Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) were introduced to mostly Sub-Sahara African countries. SAPs introduced a strict anti-inflationary monetary policy, privatization of public enterprises, dismantling of foreign exchange controls and more flexible labour markets. It also forced the public sector to eliminate subsidies, and government withdrew its involvement in price setting and put in place enabling environment for foreign investment.

In 1997, World Bank and IMF launched the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC), an initiative which promised debt relief for 41 low income countries, as long as they continued



to apply SAPs. HIPC initiative only proposed to write off debt that was for the most part uncollectable.

When HIPC I and HIPC II failed to achieve the expected results, Poverty Reduction was grafted on the SAPs. Each debtor country is now being asked to follow guidelines prescribed by the World Bank and IMF to produce Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs). The focus has now shifted to poverty reduction from funds freed from debt relief. PRSPs have become another conditionality that is additional transfers' responsibility to civil society to monitor their governments, while distracting attention from total debt cancellation and maintaining structural adjustment measures in its policy matrix.

It needs to be noted that in 1996 when PRSPs were mooted, debt service reduction G1 HIPC had amounted to not more than US\$ 1.1 billion. Over the same period the 41 countries had paid a total of US\$ 35 billion in debt servicing. The World Bank itself concedes in its report of 20<sup>th</sup> April, 2001 to the Board, that many countries after relief, were likely to end up as severely indebt and unsustainable as they were before the relief.

### ***Regional and national examples***

In response to the Jubilee South Campaign, IMF claims that its programs for low income countries have progressively strengthened the integration of social spending into program design. IMF claims that during SAP period of 1994-98 there was an 80% increase in public spending on education and health care. The actual situation is that African countries' expenditure rose only by 20% per year after being constant for 15 years. At this rate it will take until the year 2010 to restore the spending on education and health to the level of 1985!

Zambia spends four dollars on debt service for every one dollar on health, while infant mortality rate is on the rise. In Uganda, the government spends US\$3 per person annually on health and education and US\$ 17 per person annually on debt repayment, while 5 out of 100 Ugandan children die of preventable diseases before they reach the age of 5 years!

Between 1990 and 1993, Africa Region did pay US\$ 13.4billion annually to its external creditors; this is more than its combined spending on health and education. Yet the African debt burden continued to rise. In 1994 alone, it increased to US\$ 312 billion, this is a 3.2% rise.

The resultant fall in hospital attendance because of user fees, has led to increased poor health services, especially provided to HIV/AIDS patients. Similarly the rising cost of child birth has increased to maternal mortality rate. This was evident even as far back as 1993. For example in Ghana where the UNICEF report cites figures as high as 1,000 deaths to

100,000 births! That is further illustrated by the high doctor patient ratios. In Uganda for example, the ratios is 1 doctor to 24,000 patients.

In Zambia 72,000 people lost their jobs in SAP induced retrenchment, and by 1996, there was a report that 3 million part-time child laborers out of a total population of 9 million! Female participation in informal sector increased from 40% in 1980 to 57% in 1986, and has since grown. During that same period, there was a nine-fold increase in the 12-to-14 year age group working in the informal sector.

In Zimbabwe, in spite of the austerity SAP measures, the foreign debt stood at Zimbabwe dollars 36.5 billion by 1996 of which Z\$ 2 billion was scheduled for debt repayment. In the same year, real wages had declined by 40% and inflation was rising at 23%

In education, total spending in Sub-Sahara Africa fell in real terms between 1980-1988 dwindled from US\$ 11 billion to US\$ 7 billion. A review of 26 countries shows that a decline in spending per pupil from US\$ 133 to US\$ 89. Even more serious, is the drop in enrollment rates from 71.1% in 1980 to 66.7% in 1990. On average, only 37% of girls enrolled in primary in 1990 and this figure drops after 7-8 years of schooling.

***After HIPC I and HIPC II the picture in Mozambique:***

Mozambique indebtedness has been compounded by annual disasters, the floods of the 1999, destroyed 141 schools, spread malaria, caused dysentery and cholera and destroyed roads. By 1999, Mozambique was cited by the World Bank as the fastest growing economy, but it is also said to have huge financial obstacles and in adequate resources that block its path towards long term healthy development.

During the 1990's, Mozambique debt reached 594% of its GNP. Yearly payments of US\$ 57 million surpassed the dollar spent on primary health of US\$ 20 million, and on education of US\$ 32 million.

Then there is the odious debt or money borrowed to finance Apetheid related activities in South Africa and this spreads as far as to Tanzania. All those examples call for total debt cancellation.

Tanzania has been taking some efforts to rectify the situation, such as privatization policy, more flexibility in labor market and foreign exchange, increased dialogue with donors to attract more foreign and local investors, good governance, control finance and debt servicing.

## CHAPTER SIX LIFE SKILLS:

### TOPIC OUTLINE

- Moral values
- Personal and interpersonal skills
- Self–reliance and entrepreneurship

### **MORAL VALUES**

Moral means conforming to standard of what is right and wrong. In other words, moral implies conformity to established sanctioned codes or accepted notions of right and wrong.

Morals have greater social elements to values and tend to have broad acceptance. Generally morals are far more about good and bad, than other values. Therefore we judge others more strongly on morals than values. Eg. A person can be described as immoral, by not adhering to acceptable behaviours. Webster's' dictionary defines moral as relating to, or dealing with, or capable of making the distinction between right and wrong conduct, principles, standards or habits, with respect to right and wrong.

Values are the rules by which we make decisions about right and wrong, should and shouldn't, good and bad. Values tell us which are more or less important. Values are beliefs of a person or social group in which they have an emotional investment (either for or against something)

Webster's' dictionary defines values as; the social principles, goals or standards held or accepted by an individual, class, a society etc. Therefore, moral values are beliefs and personal opinions about what is the right conduct, and what is wrong conduct.

### **Types of Moral Values.**

Moral values can be classified into three types.

1. **Personal moral values** are rules that guide ones' life. A child growing up in a family is introduced to the various values held by the family members he/she is growing in. Eg. Children learn that hitting their siblings, peers or older people is not appropriate behavior. Therefore, what a person learns from the family or society is what shapes ones' moral values.

2. **Family values** on the other hand are those values that are considered important by the members of the family. Most families will emphasize the basic values held by individuals, the society or the community. But most families will also have a set of values which will be specific to the members of that family. Eg. Families may have a family home which the members' value. They will ensure that the home is well maintained and share the expense for its upkeep. Younger generations and new members (through marriage) will be thought about homekeeping. Memories held by the older members will be shared and often will be the place where the family heirlooms are kept.
3. **Values held by a group of people** are formulated based on religious doctrines or political ideologies of the country. Obviously such values are held by a large group of people, for example Muslims or Christians. There are laws, taboos and monitoring devices to ensure these values are fostered.

Thus values are an integral part of human society and families. While the basic ones help members to be part of a society or community and have societal values, the specific or personal ones help foster a feeling of belonging and a sense of pride.

### **Moral Character**

Moral character is an evaluation of a particular individual's moral qualities. Moral character can imply a variety of attributes, including the existence or lack of virtues, such as integrity, courage, fortitude, honesty and loyalty. Also moral character refers to the assemblage of qualities that distinguish one individual from another.

### **List of Moral Values.**

1. Self respect but with humility, self discipline, and acceptance of personal responsibility.
  - To respect and care for oneself
  - Not to exalt oneself or overindulge.
  - To show humility and avoid gluttony, greed, or other forms of selfishness or self-centeredness
  - To act in accordance with one's conscience and to accept responsibility for one's behavior
2. Commitment to something greater than oneself.
  - To recognize the existence of and be committed to the Supreme Being. Higher principle, transcendent purpose, and meaning one's existence
  - To seek the truth
  - To seek justice

3. Respect and caring for others
  - To recognize the connectedness between all people
  - To serve mankind and to be helpful to individuals
  - To be caring, respectful, compassionate, tolerant and forgiving
  - To not hurt others (eg. murder, abuse, steal from, cheat or lie)
4. Caring for other living things and the environment.

### **Importance of Moral Values**

Values are the guiding principles, decisive in day to day behaviors, they are also critical in life situations. Values are a set of principles or standards of behavior. Values are regarded desirable, important and held in high esteem by a particular society in which a person lives.

Moral values are important for one to nourish one's life and prosper. Therefore it is important for one to learn moral values and to develop a good career and a good character. Moral values may bring up ones life to the peak of glory.

Moral values shape us as people and dictate our actions. Morals help societies to live up to a certain standard. Values also determine what is important to us and whether we should pursue certain things or not. They are very important in determining who we are. Moral values keep you out of trouble.

### **Erosion of Moral Values.**

The erosion of moral values is a growing problem through out the world. The world we live on is changing. Towns and cities are growing and the life style of the people is changing too.

The decay of moral values certainly erodes the strength of our society, because morals for better or worse are a strengthener. This means, to erode at one's moral code is to erode at one's strength. Therefore the erosion of moral values erodes society.

### **What causes moral decay?**

Largely it is due to the influence of modern culture, urbanization, globalization and multinationals. Also moral erosion can be stimulated by immoral leaders.

Formal education as is being imparted today does not give proper importance to building the moral and ethical aspects of human personality. The major emphasis is on creating

job worthy individuals. It is important to have job worthy individuals, but it is equally important to build a strong value system in the individuals. Students who come out of the system are trained to work, but are not trained to think. Most of the violent/criminal/ant-social incidences that have happened in our society could have been prevented if their perpetrators had:

- a) A good value system
- b) A thinking mind and
- c) Thought about the implications of their actions.

Also most of the continuing social issues like poverty, hunger and unemployment, can be tackled if more thinking individuals enter into the system to address these issues.

### **Personal & Interpersonnal Skills**

Personal skills refer to abilities and skills which one needs in order to deal confidently with his/herself. They are skills of knowing oneself, livelihood or vocational skills, physical skills which gives a person the ability to carry out an action. An ability to manage ourselves, to know our strengths and weaknesses.

Interpersonal skills on the other hand, refer to social skills which give a person an ability to relate and interact with other people and with their environment in everyday life. Human beings are social beings, and therefore they live in a society composed of different types of people, and the environment in general. Man cannot live in isolation and succeed in attaining development. These are skills that make one to be of value and accepted in the society.

### **Personal Skills**

These skills include self awareness, self esteem, and assertiveness, coping with emotions and stress. We will examine one after another.

Self awareness is the ability of individuals to know and understand their potentialities, their feelings and emotions, their strengths and weaknesses and their position in life and in the society. It is the ability of individuals to have clear sense of their own identity, where they come from and where they are going, the culture in which they were born and which has shaped them.

Today some young people live without self awareness. They don't know their potentialities i.e. what career can they fit most, they despise their culture and embrace new and foreign cultures. There is a danger of creating an artificial society with no self awareness, i.e. people who live because they just live.

If we develop the skills of self – awareness we will be able to build self esteem and self confidence as we become more aware of our own capabilities and place in our community. Moreover, the more we are aware of our own capabilities, the more capable we are aware of using the skills effectively, and make choices that are consistent with the opportunities available to us, the society on which we live and our own abilities.

Self – esteem is the ability of a person to feel good in oneself, confident about such personal aspects as appearance, abilities and behavior and competent and successful in what one does. It is acceptance of the way we are. One becomes proud on oneself.

Today most of young men and women are not proud of themselves. Many like to change their physical structure, the color of their skin, the style of their hair, and even the size of their bodies. Many people attempt plastic surgery, some women use foreign medicines to increase or decrease some body parts such as breasts and buttocks. This is an indicator of lack of self – esteem. Most of these are copied from outside cultures caused by globalization. Young men want to become women and others are married to fellow men!

By building self – esteem, we build assertiveness and ability to respond confidently to any situation. Self – esteem is strongly influenced by an individual’s relationship with others. Significant adults such as parents, family members, teachers and peers can help to develop or destroy a person’s self – esteem by the way they interact with them.

Assertiveness is another personal skill. It is the ability of a person to know what he / she wants and why, to be able to take the necessary steps to achieve what one wants within specific contexts or situations. It refers to the ability to respond confidently to any situation. Listening and valuing what others feel and want are essential parts of assertiveness.

A school girl may be approached for sex by a fellow student, a teacher or any adult. The way she reacts will show whether she has this skill of assertiveness. She might yield easily may be because of her own desires, threats, economic or other gains without weighing the consequences of her decision. This shows that she lacks this skill. She can reject this approach with rightful reasoning and without aggression. This shows a high degree of assertiveness.

Assertiveness is related to culture: e.g. the way children and adolescents are assertive with their peers may differ from assertiveness with parents and school teachers. The way an African girl is assertive in rejecting or accepting sexual advances may differ from assertiveness of an American or European girl.

Coping with emotion is another essential element of personal skills. Emotions are strong feelings such as fear, love, anger, shyness, disgust and the desire to be accepted or loved. Each individual has emotions. They are unpredictable and often lead to actions that are not based on logical reasoning. They can therefore easily lead people into behaviors they might later regret. Coping with emotions therefore is the ability of a person to recognize his / her emotions and the reasons for them and make decisions that take account of them.

It is common to witness actions like suicide, fighting, murder, divorce, etc. Most of these are caused by uncontrolled emotions. Recently there was a case of a school student who committed suicide because she failed her examinations. Others hang themselves because their lovers have found new lovers, others cry the whole day, others don't take food, others take more alcohol, etc.

All these are signs of failure to cope with emotions. If we develop this skill, it will help us to have self control and therefore to do responsible, moderate and constructive actions. We need to accept reality, e.g. if a parent has passed away, there is no way one can do to make him / her come back to life. Explore various alternatives of solving a problem. Think over the situation positively by taking the right action, step by step. When necessary, seek for advice from others.

Another essential personal skill is coping with stress. Stress is a mental, emotional, physical tension or pressure. These can be caused by family problems, broken relationship, examination fever, the death of a friend or family member, unwanted pregnancies, etc. Stress can be a positive factor if it is not excessive and when it leads or forces a person to focus on what one is doing and to respond or take action accordingly.

But if the stress is too big to handle, it can be a destructive force in an individual's life. Because of stress, some people may develop heart attack, pressure, strokes or mental disorders. If we want to cope with stress, we should recognize it, its causes and effects and how to deal with it. The best way of dealing with stress is just like dealing with emotions explained above.

### **Interpersonal Skills**

These skills include building positive relationships with other people, friendship formation, empathy, peer resistance, negotiation, non – violent conflict resolution and effective communication.

Building positive relationship with other people is the ability of people to meet and relate with others in various settings, such as schools, playing grounds and social gatherings. As



children grow up, they develop relationship with family members, adults, peers and people they meet in life. Because not everybody can be a good friend, children need to know how to react appropriately in each relationship they develop.

We have seen cases where children are cheated by adults who pretend to be their friends, but with ill intentions. Children end up be mishandled, raped and even murdered. Parents have the responsibility of guiding children build this skill of positive relationship with others.

Friendship formation is another interpersonal skill. An individual needs friends to share some aspects of their life such as hopes, fears and ambitions. Friendship formation starts from the earliest stages of life. Children and adolescents need to understand how friendships are formed and how to form and develop those that will be mutually beneficial. They should be able to recognize good and bad friendships. They should be able to resist unhealthy friendships or a friendship which can lead them into dangerous or unnecessary risks. There can be such behaviors like stealing, taking alcohol, drug abuse and dangerous sexual behaviors, like prostitution and homosexuality.

Empathy is the ability of putting oneself in other people's shoes, particularly when they are faced with serious problems caused by circumstances of their own actions in order to understanding and internalizing other people's circumstances, and finding ways to lessen the burden by sharing with them, rather than condemning or looking down on them for whatever reasons.

If we don't have this skill, we will be in danger of blaming others, laughing at them when they fail, segregating them, humiliating them, which lead to cutting off relationships.

Peer resistance is the ability to stand up for one's values and beliefs in the face of conflicting ideas and practices from peers or friends. Friends or colleagues can come up with unacceptable or dangerous suggestions and may put pressure on one to accept them. One needs to resist doing things that one believes to be wrong. You need to be able to defend your decision, even if it means being threatened with exclusion from group membership.

Normally, in adolescents the pressure to be like others is great. Refusal to peer pressure is difficult. Thus, if the group is turning to negative influences and habits, peer resistance is very important. Failure to follow it leads to bad behaviors like smocking, drug abuse, prostitution, absconding school, etc.

Negotiation is the ability to compromise on issues without destroying one's principles. It involves assertiveness, empathy and relationships. It embraces being able to cope with

potentiality, threatening or risky situations in interpersonal relations and being able to state one's own position and building mutual understanding with people. Without this skill, end up fighting, injuring one another, poisoning one another, etc. This skill goes together with non – violent conflict resolution.

Effective communication is the essence of human relationships. Effective communication is the ability of listening and understanding how others are communicating, as well as realizing how one can communicate in different ways. It is the ability to write, listen, express and use language properly. For example, while one's mouth is saying one thing, hi/her body may be saying something completely different.

## **SELF RELIANCE AND ENTREPREURSHIP**

### **The concept of Self Reliance and Entrepreneurship:**

The term “entrepreneur” is derived from the French verb “entreprence” which means to attempt to try in hand, to contract for or to adventure.

According to webster's New World Dictionary, an entrepreneur is defined as one who organizes and manages a business, and undertakes the risk for the sake of profit.

To us, the essence of entrepreneurship is the freedom to do what you want or like in order to make profit. The entrepreneurs are persons who feel a sence of pride and a feeling of accomplishment, in the end this sence of fulfillment is more rewarding than money.

Today, many young people express their motivation for becoming entrepreneurs in terms of satisfaction that entrepreneurship gives them, as well as the sense of being in control of their own destinies. It gives them security and happiness that they will be doing something they created. An entrepreneur has no limits, unless he / she limits him / herself.

In short, entrepreneurship is the act of being an entrepreneur, a French word which means “one who undertake innovations in finance and business into economic goods.” This may result in new organisations or may be part of revitalizing mature organisations in response to a perceived opportunity. The most obvious form of entrepreneurship is that of starting a new business. But in recent years, the term has been extended to include social and political forms of entrepreneurial activity.

Self – Reliance on the other hand, refers to an ability of an individual or community or a nation to depend on one's own ability and efforts, and not depending on another for one's survival.

A self-reliant person must neither rely on others' assistance, nor on government assistance, because nobody cares more about helping you or your family in time of difficulties than yourself.

Example: You were recently laid-off from your job and now you need to look for another job, if you do not secure it, you cannot feed yourself and your family, or pay instalments for your home. In such cases you do not sit down and wait for the job to come to you. You go out and look for it. You do anything you can in order to survive.

A self-reliant person and an entrepreneur take some initiatives for personal and community development. These two persons are two sides of the same coin. So we must evaluate our level of self-reliance and how prepared we are in this fast-changing world.

### **Qualities of self-reliant person and entrepreneur.**

- i. Self-reliant person and entrepreneurs are organised and creative in all endeavors. Their main goal is to be successful first, then make money.
- ii. They provide employment for others and can help their community. Through their endeavours employment opportunities can be created.
- iii. They are responsible for their own success and can determine how far that success will go.
- iv. They have complete freedom of choice, which means that sky is the limit.
- v. They have love of their business and profits they start and undertake.
- vi. They may make lots of profit and may not have to answer to anyone, depending on who financed the business.
- vii. They have the ability to plan something, to watch it grow, and be proud to know they made it happen.
- viii. They have power, freedom, recognition and satisfaction.
- ix. They are able to take risk without fear of losing. They focus on success only.
- x. They are competent in their undertakings, even if their level of education might be low.

**Reasons for failure of Tanzania youths to be self – reliant and entrepreneurs:**

- (i) Lack of education on self –reliance and entrepreneurship. Tanzania education system has tended to create employment seekers, than job creators.
- (ii) Lack of initiative to take risk in business, or fearing the collapse of business.
- (iii) Strict conditions by loan giving institutions. Institutions like banks, SACCOS and insurance companies have strict conditions for taking loans, including high interest rates.
- (iv) Bureaucracy in registration. Some of the business projects or enterprises need to be registered, but it can take many months to receive certificate of registration, resulting to despair.
- (v) The nature of innovative task. Some are new tasks (business) so it becomes more difficult to plan and understand, compared to well established and customary activities.
- (vi) Reluctance of people to accept changes from accustomed, routine and habitual ways of acting, even if a better alternative is available.
- (vii) The fear of social sanctioning the condemnation and disapproval heaped upon iconoclasts and deviants.

**Strategies for promoting self – reliance and entrepreneurship in our society.**

- (i) To inculcate through education, training and other programmes, values and attitudes that are conducive to self – reliance and entrepreneurship.
- (ii) Review school curricula to accommodate self – reliance and entrepreneurship education.
- (iii) Introduce entrepreneurial and self – reliance programmes in vocational and technical training.
- (iv) Facilitate entrepreneurship and self – reliance programmes for selected target groups e.g. school leavers.
- (v) Facilitate capacity building in self – reliance and entrepreneurship development.
- (vi) Reduce unnecessary bureaucracy in registration of enterprises, projects etc.
- (vii) Direct the financial and loan giving institutions to avail financial capital to entrepreneurs with less restrict conditions.

- (viii) Simplify tax system and introduce tax incentives to entrepreneurs and self – reliant people.

**Self – Reliance and entrepreneurship skills are demonstrated by the following:**

- (i) Creativity, risk taking, exploration and opportunity taking.
- (ii) They show open – ended opportunities and challenges.
- (iii) They make sure that they make profit. Put a lot in and get a lot out.
- (iv) They have the skills to make the right decisions.
- (v) They are boses of their own destiny.
- (vi) They have supervision skills for their undertakings.

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— END —

This is a comprehensive supplementary book primarily for students who are in A-level and colleges studying General Studies and preparing for various examinations Councils of Tanzania. The book gives an in-depth coverage of six major topics on General Studies, namely, Philosophy & Religion, Contemporary Cross-cutting Issues, Science & Technology in the Development, Democratic Process & Practices, International Co-operation and Life Skills. The simple language and explanations as well as use of vivid examples in contemporary issues makes it an ideal text.



**Civic Education Teachers' Association (CETA)- Tanzania**

Usangi House  
Tip Top Manzese  
P.O Box 54095  
Dar Es Salaam,  
Tanzania  
E-mail: [cetatz2003@yahoo.co.uk](mailto:cetatz2003@yahoo.co.uk)



**Konrad Adenauer Stiftung**

P.O. Box 6992  
Isimani Road, Upanga  
Dar es Salaam, Tanzania  
Tel: 255 22 2153174