CIVIL SOCIETY INDEX (CSI) PROJECT
TANZANIA COUNTRY REPORT 2011

FOREWORD

In April 2008 the Concern for Development Initiatives in Africa, ForDIA, entered into a Memorandum of Understanding with CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation (CIVICUS) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) for ForDIA to coordinate the Civil Society Index (CSI) project in Tanzania. The implementation of the CSI project in Tanzania took three years to accomplish.

ForDIA is a not-for-profit civil society development organisation, which facilitates people-centred development initiatives within local conditions. The organisation was established in 1996 to carry out research, training and advocacy to enlighten the public with research-based knowledge and materials on local, national and international aspects of contemporary and indigenous development issues.

In the last 15 years ForDIA has remained in the forefront of promoting good governance and civic competence of the Tanzania citizenry and populations in the Great Lakes Region of Africa. The organisation has also been active in furtherance of peace and security through coordination of the Great Lakes Peace and Security Network (PeSeNet) since 2002. Between 2005 and 2010, ForDIA became a coordination organisation of the Publish What You Pay (PWYP) coalition campaign, and Tanzania Transparency Forum (TRAFO), in addition to representing civil society in the national and international transparency initiatives of Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) and the Construction Sector Transparency Initiative (CoST). All of these made it well-placed to carry out the CSI.

The CSI project aimed at strengthening citizen participation and civil society in Tanzania. The Tanzania Constitution itself does not make direct reference to a space occupied by civil society, but there is a general reference in the Bill of Rights enshrined in the Constitution in 1984, 23 years after independence. Civil society is therefore a relatively contemporary phenomenon in Tanzania, the *de facto* exclusive discourse of scholars and elites.

It is noted with appreciation therefore that the Tanzania CSI report shall offer an invaluable source of information, knowledge and wisdom about the trends and circumventing factors affecting growth and development of civil society collectively as a sector in Tanzania. The report underscores and provides knowledge about the changing status about Tanzania's civil society structure, environment, values and impact.

It is our hope that civil society stakeholders in Tanzania, including the government, development partners, researchers, academics, civil society organisations and activists will find this report a useful source of information and a tool for analysing, conducting comparative studies, and understanding civil society in Tanzania.

The study was a collective and participatory one. Stakeholders from the government, development partners, civil society, media, corporate sector entities, academics and researchers were involved in informing the CSI's planning, programming and execution.

The Tanzania CSI report is a vital reference resource to civil society practitioners which uses the study findings to devise various strategies relating to service delivery, advocacy and lobbying.

Bubelwa Kaiza
Tanzania CSI Coordinator

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The production of the Tanzania CSI report traversed a long way and has involved many people and institutions before it was finalised. The first milestone was in the second half of 2007 when CIVICUS announced ForDIA had won the bid to coordinate and carry out CSI project activities in Tanzania. Close to 30 organisations had openly competed for coordination of the CSI project in Tanzania.

The carrying out of CSI project activities in Tanzania was not an easy task. Initially it required designated training and thereafter fundraising, done almost concurrently with mobilisation of civil society support to establish the project technical and political governance structures: the National Index Team (NIT) and the National Advisory Group (NAG). Thereafter, a systematic approach was needed to plan and carry out CSI study project activities: secondary data review, regional stakeholders' consultations (focus group discussions), community surveys and fact findings followed, although at times, experiencing an erratic and slow pace. Three solid years have been spent to finalise this study, in which many stakeholders were involved.

At this juncture, ForDIA and the NIT would like to acknowledge the support and in effect convey our gratitude to CIVICUS, particularly the CSI technical team, for both challenging the organisation and providing opportunity, which has exposed ForDIA to yet another globally renowned comparative study. We thank the CIVICUS Secretariat, particularly Andrew Firmin, Megan MacGarry and Mark Nowottny, for equipping the NIT with necessary skills required to coordinate and conduct CSI, and subsequent hands-on-technical support through the provision of a Country Support Person (CSP).

We would like to thank both the Regional and Tanzania Country Office of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) for funding, without which it would be difficult to accomplish the project.

Naturally being a wholly participatory study CSI required many consultative meetings and networking occasions with numerous stakeholders. To that end we would like to convey our heartfelt gratitude to the sixteen NAG members who for three consecutive years have immensely volunteered their time to ensure implementation of Tanzania CSI project is eventually a success.

Implementation of CSI project also required huge logistical and documentation support. To that effect we would like to extend our inner most thanks to the entire ForDIA staff for supporting CSI fieldwork and documentation. Similarly, we recognise the good services rendered and would like to convey our gratitude to Mr Deus Mogella of Tanzania National Blood Transfusion Services for tirelessly analysing the CSI data, which was sometimes done under tight deadlines. It is the quantitative data analysis, which enables us today (2011) to make statements with confidence about the status of Tanzania civil society structure, environment, values and impact.

Last, by no means the least, we appreciate the good services rendered by Mr Saifu Kiango, former linguistics lecturer at the University of Dar es Salaam, for copy editing of the first draft of this report.

While appreciating the tireless support of various people and institutions towards these noble endeavours, the National Index Team hopes the cooperation and networking established in the course of executing the project shall remain in force and be transcended to similar activities that bear direct benefit to civil society in Tanzania and beyond.

Whereas it is acknowledged that many people were involved in conducting the study and drafting the CSI report, the shortcomings in the report shall always remain the responsibility of NIT.

The National Index Team

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA	African Association
AfDB	Africa Development Bank
AFNET	Anti Female Genital Mutilation Network
ARIESA	African Research Institute for Eastern and Southern Africa
ASP	Afro Shiraz Party
BAWATA	Baraza la Wanawake Tanzania
CHRGG	Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CPS	Corruption Perception Surveys
CS	Community Surveys
CSE	Civil society expert
CSI	Civil Society Index
CSO	Civil society organisation
CUT	Cooperative Union of Tanganyika
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DED	District Executive Director
DIAC	Dodoma Inter-African Committee
DOLASED	Disabled Organisation for Legal Affairs and Social Development
EAC	East Africa Community
EITI	Extractive Industries Transparency Initiatives
FBO	Faith based organisation
FCS	The Foundation for Civil Society
FGM	Female genital mutilation
ForDIA	Concern for Development Initiatives in Africa
GLTF	Gender Land Task Force
HAIT	HelpAge International Tanzania
IDS	Institute of Development Studies
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LHRC	Legal and Human Rights Centre
MCT	Media Council of Tanzania
MEWATA	Medical Women Association of Tanzania
NAFGEM	Network Against Female Genital Mutilation
NCO	National Coordinating Organisation
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NIT	National Index Team
PCCA	Prevention and Combating of Corruption Act
PETS	Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys
PORIS	African International Group of Political Risk Analysis
PR	Participatory researcher
PSDA	Public Service Delivery Assessment
PWYP	Publish What You Pay
PWYP-T	Publish What You Pay-Tanzania
REPOA	Research for Poverty Alleviation
RSC	Regional Stakeholders Consultations
SA	Shiraz Association
SACCOS	Savings and credit cooperative societies
SHIVYAWATA	Tanzania Federation for Disabled Persons Organisations
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SOSPA	Sexual Offences and Special Provisions Act
SOSPA	Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act
TAA	Tanganyika African Association
TACCEO	Tanzania Civil Society Consortium on Election Observation
TAJA	Tanzania Journalists Association

TAMWA	Tanzania Media Women Association
TANGO	Tanzania Association for Non-Governmental Organisations
TANU	Tanganyika African National Union
TAPA	Tanganyika Parents Association
TAWLA	Tanzania Women Lawyers Association
TAWLAE	Tanzania Association of Women Leaders in Agriculture and Environment
TEMCO	Tanzania Election Monitoring Committee
TFL	Tanganyika Federation of Labour
TGNP	Tanzania Gender Networking Programme
TTU	Tanzania Teachers' Union
TUCTA	Trade Union Congress of Tanzania
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UN-Habitat	United Nations-Habitat
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UWT	National level women's political movement
UWT	United Women of Tanganyika
WB	World Bank
WDCs	Ward Development Committees
WOWAP	Women Wake Up
WRDP	Women's Research and Documentation Project
WVS	World Value Surveys
YWCA	Young Women's Christian Association

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Civil Society Index (CSI) is a participatory action-research project assessing the state of civil society in countries around the world, the findings of which provide an overall picture of the state of civil society in a partner country. The project aims at creating a knowledge base and momentum for strengthening civil society. The CSI is initiated and implemented by, and for, CSOs at national and international levels, in partnership with CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation.

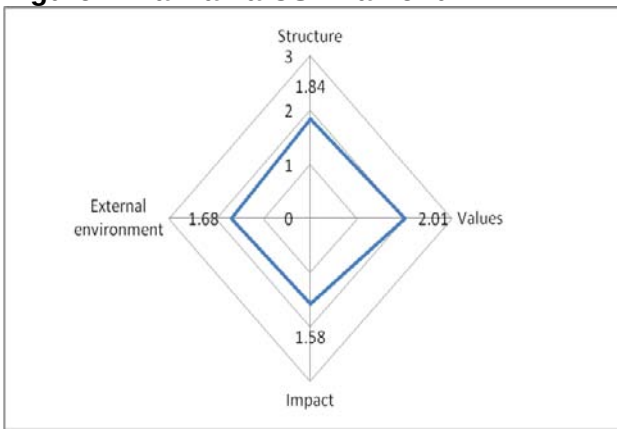
The Concern for Development Initiatives in Africa (ForDIA) was the National Coordinating Organisation of CSI in Tanzania, and therefore conducted the study and authored the report. The Tanzania CSI report presents a comprehensive picture of the status of civil society growth and development in the country, resulting from assessment of indicators constituting the four dimensions of the CSI visual tool, the Civil Society Diamond. The CSI diamond provides a graphical presentation of civil society performance resulting from close examination of the structure, environment, values and impact of civil society activities.

The working definition for Tanzania CSI project did not change from the one developed by CIVICUS: “the arena, outside of the family, the state and the market, where people associate to advance common interests”.

Seventy four indicators are analysed to provide a nuanced understanding of Tanzania civil society. The indicators make up the sub-dimensions, which are later collapsed to produce the CSI Diamond that summarises the strengths and weaknesses of civil society. The highest score value for each Diamond dimension in the version of the methodology applied in Tanzania is pegged at 3.

The Diamond below presents the overall picture of Tanzania CSI study findings.

Figure 1: Tanzania CSI Diamond



Given this picture, the implication is such that Tanzania civil society growth and development is performing fairly well, but not strongly. The CSI assessment of civil society structure in the country is **1.84**, well above the halfway mark. Tanzania performed dismally in the sub-dimension of breadth of participation, where the respective scores for non-partisan political action and CSO membership are only **0.76** and **0.52.** Many reasons for such weak performance are stated in the report. Similarly, two indicators in the sub-dimension of the level of organisation, namely self-regulation and participation in umbrella bodies, are respectively also ranked low, with **1** and **1.05** scores. The general implication is that Tanzanian civil society is not performing well in those indicators, thus affecting the sub-dimension and finally the civil society structure in the country.

Regarding other indicators across the sub-dimensions, Tanzania civil society is performing (in growth and development of the structure) relatively well. The indicator score for collective community action (in the breadth of participation sub-dimension) is high, with a **2.26** score. This trend is consistently similar with indicator scores for CSO membership under the sub-dimension of depth of participation, scoring **2**; CSO membership and leadership under the sub-dimension of diversity of participation, scoring **2.95** and **2.4** respectively; effectiveness of umbrella bodies and international linkages under the sub-dimension of level of organisation, scoring **2.28** and **2** respectively; and the cooperation indicator under the sub-dimension of interrelations, scoring **2.69**. These offer promising signs of civil society growth and development as one assesses the structure dimension of civil society.

Assessment of the external environment entailed examining a variety of factors influencing or having potential of influencing civil society activities. The environment sub-dimensions on which the assessment focused included political context, basic freedoms and rights, socio-economic context, socio-cultural context, legal environment, state-civil society relations, and private sector-civil society relations. Findings in this regard indicate that the overall average score for external environment stands at **1.68**.

The study findings have demonstrated that the external environment is a mixture of facilitative and constraining. Measured on the scale of 0 to 3 it is apparent from the overall score that there are areas that need immediate and high attention. The policy and regulatory environment needs further improvement. The political playing field is not yet level.

There are limitations in citizens' enjoyment of their basic rights and freedoms. These limitations need to be dealt with. The low economic power and substantial levels of poverty in Tanzania are part of the challenging environment in which CSOs operate. Both CSOs and the government have high donor dependence. This has potential of compromising the performance and autonomy of CSOs.

Finally, the socio-cultural environment in contemporary Tanzania is not altogether an asset to effectiveness of CSOs. There is lack of a coherent national culture. There are also some ethnically based practices such as female genital mutilation and belief in witchcraft in some locations, which constrain some CSOs, especially those addressing such issues as human rights.

Practice of values, meaning the positive manifestations by CSOs of normative principles, was yet another dimension that the CSI interrogated. CSOs are expected to practice, adhere to and emulate values and principles they advocate or stand for. Findings in this regard show that there are some strides which have been made by CSOs but more effort is needed in some areas. The overall average score in regard to practice of values is **2.01**.This is an indication that the practice of values is relatively very encouraging.

Many sub-dimensions, such as environmental sustainability, poverty eradication, non-violence, transparency and tolerance performed well. The findings suggest more efforts are required to promote gender equity and democratic practices, sub-dimensions which performed dismally. It is apparent that concerted efforts still need to be in place to ensure that the practice of values is not only something that takes place within CSOs but also becomes part and parcel of the day to day life of the general public.

The impact dimension analyses the extent to which civil society in Tanzania is active and successful in fulfilling essential functions, related to the five sub-dimensions, namely: (i) influencing public policy, (ii) holding the state and private corporations accountable, (iii) responding to social interests, (iv) empowering people and (v) meeting societal needs. These five sub-dimensions were assessed in terms of how civil society has made an impact

in three areas that were identified by the NAG as to be of concern in Tanzania: transparency, gender equity and human rights. The overall score for the impact dimension is **1.57**.

The overall score in the influencing public policy sub-dimension is **2.34**. According to secondary data, civil society is perceived as quite active on social policy-related issues, but this impact is limited because of organisational and capacity constraints in effectively engaging marginalised groups in society to mobilise for change. Their effectiveness is gauged by the degree to which public policy emanates from the civil society agenda or pressures. Civil society engagement in political aspects is widely acknowledged. Efforts of advocacy groups pushing for improving governance in resource and environmental management, civic awareness/education and voter education during elections, and conducting a bribery index are discernible examples.

Comparatively however, civil society is regarded as having more impact in influencing social policy, scoring **2.66**, than it is in influencing public policy, with a score of **2.02**. According to the regional stakeholders' scores, civil society's impact on key policy issues is considered as somewhat successful, being more successful in influencing gender rights and human rights, with less influence on issues related to transparency, one of Tanzania's major concerns.

Civil society in Tanzania is perceived as having different capacities in holding the state or private sector accountable, with a score of **1.03** for holding the state accountable, compared to a modest score of **0.5** for influencing private sector companies. The average score under this sub-dimension is **0.77**.

The average score for the responding to social interest sub-dimension is **1.69**. This was acquired from the assessment of civil society's responsiveness, assessed as quite high at **2.73**, although, participants in the NAG perceived that public trust on civil society is still below average and was scored with **0.64**. The high scores in responsiveness generally reflect civil society activeness towards social concerns such as gender inequities and transparency, and its increasing presence in the political landscape and in media campaigns. Public trust in civil society was assessed comparatively lower more possibly because of the numerous challenges that civil society has faced in bringing issues to a fruitful conclusion, such as labour movements and student strikes for better work or learning conditions.

The overall score for empowering citizens sub-dimension is **1.11**, indicating below average impact by civil society in the public empowerment process. Of the five indicators under this dimension, however, civil society's success in building capacity for collective action received the highest score, **1.99**, followed by success in informing and educating citizens, **1.35**, empowering marginalised people, **0.91**, and supporting livelihoods, **0.73**, with the lowest score assigned to civil society's success in empowering women, at **0.56**.

The average score for meeting societal needs was **1.97**, an average score among the sub-dimensions of the impact dimension. This is not surprising because although civil society is seen to have growing visibility in meeting societal needs directly and also meeting the needs of marginalised groups, the RSC participants indicated that sometimes CSOs are challenged by inadequate resources to make their impacts relevant, and the fragmentation of CSOs, several of them dealing with similar issues, tends to lead to duplication of efforts rather than efficiency.

The specific policy recommendations derived from the Tanzania CSI study are provided as separate chapter at the end of this report.

1. OVERVIEW OF THE CIVIL SOCIETY INDEX PROJECT AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION IN TANZANIA

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview on how the Civil Society Index (CSI) project was implemented in Tanzania. Specific issues covered include the rationale for implementation of the project, the approach and methodology used to solicit data and information, and the actors who were involved and limitations of the project.

1.2 The Civil Society Index project and approach

Civil society is playing an increasingly important role in governance and development around the world. In most countries, however, knowledge about the state and shape of civil society is limited. Moreover, opportunities for civil society stakeholders to come together to collectively discuss, reflect and act on the strengths, weaknesses, challenges and opportunities also remain limited.

The CSI, a participatory action-research project assessing the state of civil society in countries around the world, contributes to redressing these limitations. It aims at creating a knowledge base and momentum for strengthening civil society. The CSI is initiated and implemented by, and for, CSOs at national and international levels, in partnership with CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation. The CSI implementation actively involves and disseminates its findings to a broad range of stakeholders including civil society, government, the media, donors, academics, and the public at large.

The following key steps in CSI implementation take place at the country level:

1. **Assessment**: CSI uses an innovative mix of participatory research methods, data sources, and case studies to comprehensively assess the state of civil society.

2. **Collective reflection**: implementation involves structured dialogue among diverse civil society stakeholders that enables the identification of civil society's specific strengths and weaknesses.

3. **Joint action**: the actors involved use a participatory and consultative process to develop and implement a concrete action agenda to strengthen civil society in a country.

The following sections provide a background of the CSI, its key principles and approaches, as well as a snapshot of the methodology used in the generation of this report in Tanzania.

1.3 Project background

The CSI first emerged as a concept over a decade ago as a follow-up to the 1997 *New Civic Atlas* publication by CIVICUS, which contained profiles of civil society in 60 countries around the world (Heinrich and Naidoo, 2001). The first version of the CSI methodology, developed by CIVICUS with the help of Professor Helmut Anheier, was unveiled in 1999. An initial pilot of the tool was carried out in 2000 in 13 countries.[1] The pilot implementation process and results were evaluated. This evaluation informed a revision of the methodology. Subsequently, CIVICUS successfully implemented the first complete phase of the CSI

[1] The pilot countries were Belarus, Canada, Croatia, Estonia, Indonesia, Mexico, New Zealand, Pakistan, Romania, South Africa, Ukraine, Uruguay, and Wales.

between 2003 and 2006 in 53 countries worldwide. This implementation directly involved more than 7,000 civil society stakeholders (Heinrich, 2008).

Between 2008 and 2010 a special additional phase of the project was held in four African countries, with the support of UNDP Africa, in Guinea, Rwanda, Senegal and Tanzania, from which this report is one output. This was followed by a second full phase of a revised CSI, held in 41 countries globally.

1.4 Project approach

The CSI marries assessment and evidence with reflection and action. This approach provides an important reference point for all work carried out within the framework of the CSI. As such, CSI does not produce knowledge for its own sake but instead seeks to directly apply the knowledge generated to stimulate strategies that enhance the effectiveness and role of civil society. With this in mind, the CSI's fundamental methodological bedrocks which have greatly influenced the implementation that this report is based upon include the following:

Inclusiveness: The CSI framework strives to incorporate a variety of theoretical viewpoints, as well as being inclusive in terms of civil society indicators, actors and processes included in the project.

Universality: Since the CSI is a global project, its methodology seeks to accommodate national variations in context and concepts within its framework.

***Comparability*:** The CSI aims not to rank, but to comparatively measure different aspects of civil society worldwide. Possibility for comparisons exist both between different countries or regions within one phase of CSI implementation and between phases.

***Versatility*:** The CSI is specifically designed to achieve an appropriate balance between international comparability and national flexibility in the implementation of the project.

***Dialogue*:** One of the key elements of the CSI is its participatory approach, involving a wide range of stakeholders who collectively own and run the project in their respective countries.

***Capacity development*:** Country partners are firstly trained on the CSI methodology. After the training, partners are supported throughout the implementation cycle by the CSI team at CIVICUS. Partners participating in the project also gain substantial skills in research, training and facilitation in implementing the CSI in-country.

Networking: The participatory and inclusive nature of the different CSI tools should create new spaces where very diverse actors can discover synergies and forge new alliances, including cross-sectoral levels.

***Change*:** The principal aim of the CSI is to generate information that is of practical use to civil society practitioners and other primary stakeholders. Therefore, the CSI framework seeks to identify aspects of civil society that can be changed and to generate information and knowledge relevant to action-oriented goals.

The CSI uses a comprehensive project implementation approach and a broad range of research methods. At the core of the CSI, lies a broad and encompassing definition of civil society, which informs the overall project implementation process. To assess the state of civil society in a given country, the CSI examines the four key dimensions described above, with each of these four dimensions composed of a set of sub-dimensions, which are in turn made up of a set of individual indicators, 74 in all, which are scored on a scale of 0 to 3. These indicators form the basis for the CSI data collection, described further below. The

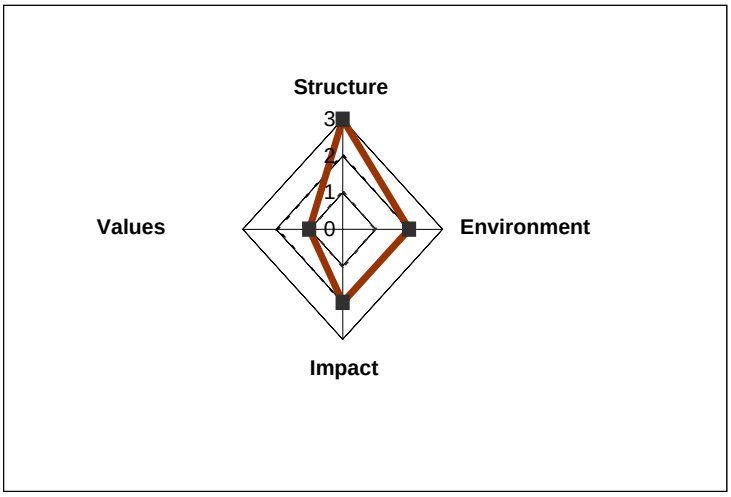
indicators also inform the assessment exercise undertaken by the National Action Group (NAG). The research and assessment findings are discussed at a gathering of key stakeholders, whose task is to identify specific strengths and weaknesses and make recommendations on key priority actions to strengthen civil society.

With the above mentioned foundations, the CSI methodology uses a combination of participatory and scientific research methods to generate an assessment of the state of civil society at the national level. The CSI measures the following core dimensions:

- The ***structure*** of civil society (e.g. number of members, extent of giving and volunteering, number and features of umbrella organisations and civil society infrastructure, human and financial resources);
- The external ***environment*** in which civil society exists and functions (e.g. legislative, political, cultural and economic context, relationship between civil society and the state as well as the private sector);
- The ***values*** practiced and promoted within the civil society arena (e.g. democracy, tolerance or protection of the environment); and
- The ***impact*** of activities pursued by civil society actors (e.g. public policy impact, empowerment of people, meeting societal needs).

To visually present the scores of the four main dimensions, the CSI uses the Civil Society Diamond (see figure 1.4/1 for an example).[2] The Civil Society Diamond, with its four axes, visually summarises the strengths and weaknesses of civil society. CIVICUS notes that since it captures the essence of the state of civil society across its key dimensions, the Civil Society Diamond can provide a useful starting point for interpretations and discussions about what civil society looks like in a given country.

Figure 1.4/1: Civil Society Diamond



1.5 Rationale for implementation of the CSI Project in Tanzania

There were a number of reasons that propelled implementation of the CSI in Tanzania, bearing in mind the key aims of CSI:

- Increase knowledge and raise awareness of the state of civil society;
- Empower stakeholders through the promotion of dialogue, collective learning, and network-building;
- Enhance the strength and sustainability of civil society; and

[2] The Civil Society Diamond was developed for CIVICUS by Helmut Anheier.

- Strengthen civil society's contribution to positive social change.

For these reasons key stakeholders decided to implement the project in Tanzania, recognising the potential knowledge gains for Tanzania as country and CSOs in particular to be achieved by completion of the project.

1.6 CSI project implementation: approach and methodology in Tanzania

The implementation of the CSI at the country level was coordinated by a National Index Team (NIT), which was made up of the National Coordinating Organisation (NCO), a participatory researcher (PR) and a civil society expert (CSE). The NIT was assisted by a 12-person National Advisory Group (NAG), consisting of a diverse set of civil society stakeholders. The NIT, assisted by the NAG, began by reviewing the CSI conceptual framework and research methodology as proposed by CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation (adapting this as necessary to its country context) and preparing a map of civil society in the country.

The NIT then coordinated secondary and primary research on each of the four dimensions of civil society the CSI, in the version of the methodology applied in Tanzania, examines. This research involved: conducting a thorough review of existing **secondary data** on civil society, undertaking **fact-finding** exercises (seeking out existing, but unpublished data on civil society) and organising and conducting regional **focus groups** (of civil society stakeholders) and **community surveys** (of ordinary citizens in different parts of Tanzania).

Research findings were then presented to the NAG, which acts as a 'jury' and attributes a score of 0 to 3 to each indicator (this is intended to strike a balance between accommodating country-level nuances, while at the same time allowing for comparisons between different countries applying this methodology). These scores were then aggregated into a score for each sub-dimension and, finally, into an overall score for each of the four dimensions of CSI. Finally, the final country report research findings and scores were presented and validated at a **national workshop,** where strategies for prioritising and addressing identified weaknesses were discussed. This final country report, including research findings, scores and the outcome of the national workshop, was then published for national and international readership.

1.7 Limitations of the study

Implementation of the project was initially planned to take one year, meaning that the CSI project should have been accomplished by December 2008. There are a number of challenges and issues that occurred, causing the project to significantly overrun. One of the major issues that cropped up in Tanzania, directly affecting some planned activities of CSI implementation, was the 2010 General Election. ForDIA and members of the NIT were directly involved in this as civic/voter education providers and election observers, and given the sensitivity of this national event, this meant that some planned activities had to be suspended for a time.

There are other challenges which were encountered in the course of CSI implementation in Tanzania. These include, but not limited to:

- **Fundraising**: Finding funding for the project proved to be a difficult task. The NCO sought funding from UNDP-Tanzania, and this was forthcoming in 2009 and 2010. Oxfam Novib and Irish Aid/Embassy of Ireland (Dar es Salaam), which were contacted for funding during 2008, did not provide any financial support until completion of the project**.**

- **Non-adherence to the agreement in the General Stakeholders Agreement**: The General Stakeholders Agreement between CIVICUS, NCO and UNDP-Tanzania assigns specific roles tor each party. However, the agreed roles were rarely adhered to, including with regard to assisting the NCO to raise additional funds.

- **Literature resources**: Availability of literature resources for secondary data review was another challenge. Whereas the format of secondary data review required quantitative evidence, most documented data are in qualitative format. Fortunately some internet resources provided useful links to quantitative data sources.

- **Human resources**: The NIT formed the CSI Tanzania's core staff. In the course of implementing the project, it was discovered that additional support staff was needed. However, financial resources inhibited recruitment of additional project support staff, so volunteers were mobilised as a temporary measure. Moreover, the contracted civil society expert (CSE) left in January 2009, necessitating a new recruitment.

- **Competition with other projects**: NIT members are independent professionals who also work on competing professional assignments and projects. As the pace of CSI project implementation was erratic, due to unreliable funding, there were times when more attention was paid to competing assignments.

- **NAG meetings**: NAG meetings could not be convened according to a regular schedule. This had a negative bearing on the project because NAG meetings were very important to validate data and information, which enables the project to move from one phase to the next. NAG meetings needed to be seen as part and parcel of project implementation process, and not an isolated activity.

2. CIVIL SOCIETY IN TANZANIA

2.1 Introduction

This chapter offers an overview of civil society in Tanzania. It specifically deals with issues of how civil society is conceptualised and its history, with an attempt made to map its size, scope and areas of its activities. It is generally seen that Tanzania has an emerging civil society in the context of the liberal conception. This is because, whereas there were pre-colonial CSOs, colonialism suffocated and destroyed these. Traditional pre-colonial civil society manifestations were regarded as 'uncivil' by colonialists. However, these so called uncivilised CSOs played a significant role during struggle for independence.

Arrangements of the immediate post-independence era curtailed the prospect of autonomous growth of CSOs. It was not until the mid 1980s that a new window opened to allow a greater autonomy of operations of CSOs, following the introduction of free market economy and liberal political pluralism. Since then, there have emerged several CSOs working in sectors such as the economy, social affairs, religion and culture. Possibilities of autonomous operations as anticipated have not been realised on the part of many CSOs. This chapter discusses a number of specific issues as far as civil society in Tanzania is concerned.

2.2 The concept of civil society in Tanzania

The prevailing conceptualisation of civil society is primarily a liberal one. CSOs are understood as entities formed by groups of individuals outside the state framework in order to pursue a particular cause they believe in. The meaning of civil society in Tanzania does not include groups engaged in unethical behaviour, such as gangsters. CSOs are understood as community organisations serving causes that help society to prosper and develop. The conceptualisation of civil society in Tanzania conforms to the characteristics and attributes suggested by Naidoo and Tandon (1999) which include the following:

- CSOs are organisations which meet one key normative value, namely demonstration of civic values and democratic practices such as tolerance, inclusion, non-violence, commitment to promoting the public good. This means that civil society is not 'evil' and therefore excludes such organisations as Ku Klux Clan, the Mafia and terrorist organisations.
- While associational life includes all CSOs, civil society does not include all organisations that comprise a society's associational life.
- Distinction must be made between associational life that includes all types of voluntary forms and autonomous organisations and civil society, which narrows down this universe to those demonstrating civic norms.

This means that civil society may be distinguished by:

- Voluntary association and associational autonomy.
- Institutional pluralism, contributing to the density and diversity of associational life.
- Structural and functional dimensions: specialisation and differentiation.
- The normative dimension: they follow a set of norms and democratic practices.
- The art of association: the ability of CSOs to generate social capital and promote civic norms.
- The free school of democracy where individuals are transformed into citizens as they exercise their rights within and accept their responsibilities to the group.

Moreover, during the first CSI National Advisory Group (NAG) meeting held in 2008, NAG members thought through various meanings of civil society but eventually accepted the CIVICUS proposed one as that for Tanzania, which describes civil society as "the arena, outside of the family, the state and the market where people associate to advance common interests"

The above broader definition suggests that the structure, environment, values and impact dimensions of civil society on which this study focuses will be examining how it applies and practically plays out to reflect the trend and characteristics of civil society in Tanzania.

2.3 History of civil Society in Tanzania

Tanzania has an emerging civil society movement with the potential to play a key role in national policy development processes, as well as in the development of the people and country. As noted above, civil society in Tanzania dates back to the pre-colonial era. Traditional societies in Tanzania during the pre-colonial era existed in communities of shared values. There were traditional burial groups, conflict management groups, traditional cultural groups and the like. The advent of colonialism discouraged such civil society manifestations, in most cases declaring them as barbaric and uncivilised. They were retained only when they could be used to play a facilitative role toward the attainment of colonial motives. This was particularly during British colonial rule which was accompanied by indirect rule that employed traditional chiefs as colonial facilitators.

The suffocation of traditional civil society was not fully successful. Some adamant groups resisted colonial intrusion. The Maji Maji War (1905-1907) against German colonialism (waged by organised civil society groups in the southern part of Tanzania) was a reflection of persistence by this movement. Even during British colonial rule in Tanganyika, civil society movements in forms such as trade unions and others could not be prevented altogether.

Apart from the pre-colonial movement, the history of civil society in Tanzania can be grouped into four broad phases.

The **first phase** was the colonial period of between the late 19th Century and 1961. During colonial times, faith-based and ethnic-based associations emerged, the former being more broad-based in terms of countrywide outreach, while ethnic groups were more localised on a district or regional basis. These were organised around recreation activities or mutual aid to members, and also local political contestations, as was the case with the Wazaramo Union that successfully lobbied the colonial government to replace unpopular leaders with others commanding more support (Lange et al 2000). At the national level, profession-based associations such as the African Association (teachers, clerks and civil servants), the cooperative movement, the Tanganyika Federation of Labour and others created the foundations of a political movement, Tanganyika African National Union (TANU), which led the call for independence. However, immediately after independence in 1961 the designs of a centralised state curtailed all independent movements into semi-detached mass movements under the ruling party TANU, eroding much of the voluntary civil activity that prevailed before.

The **second phase** is the period between 1965 and 1985. This is remembered for its systematic inhibiting of independent social, political, and economic activities following the introduction of single party rule in Tanzania in 1965 and introduction of a socialist and self-reliance ideology in 1967.These two institutional developments meant, among other things, that all organisations were either co-opted under the ruling political party or made to adhere to party/government guidelines in their operations. These processes prevented any activism of potential pressure groups such as those organised by or for young people, women, students and workers. The abolition of Local Government Authorities and Urban Authorities

in the early 1970s, and Cooperative Unions in 1976, further eroded people's capacities to organise (Ndumbaro and Yahya-Othman 2007).

The **third phase** came between the mid 1980s and early 1990s. The inception of this phase was linked to economic hardships and the consequent International Monetary Fund (IMF) initiated restructuring process which compelled government to reduce control of the state over public affairs, including service provision. From this period, the proliferation of private service providers indicated a reorganisation of activities in response to market demands and the principles of a liberalised economy. Market liberalisation and cost sharing in social services meant that the ability of people to earn a decent livelihood became increasingly challenged. Simultaneously, the donor community opted for more support to private provision of social services and processes; these buttressed the sector considerably.

Finally, the **fourth phase** is associated with the era of political pluralism, beginning in the early 1990s to the present. It is a phase that opened political space in the context of introducing multi-party politics and other forms of political pluralism. As a result of this opening, many locally initiated lobby organisations emerged and, in many ways, could be said to have given confidence to civic-led contestations and struggles for more democratic movements. Despite several years of scepticism and avoidance of the reality of a growing civil society movement, the Tanzanian government has for some time given more space for civil society work and acknowledges the government's lack of capacity to provide for the diverse needs and demands of its population in the development process. The National Social Security Policy, for example, declares that "the government shall declare an enabling environment for other institutions such as NGOs, charity organisations, families and mutual assistance groups to supplement government efforts in the provision of services" (URT 2003). Similar recognition is illustrated in the Tanzania Fisheries Policy of 2003 that provides for beach management units in fishing communities as grassroots structures for environmental management of the fisheries ecosystem.

2.4 Mapping of civil society

Mapping of civil society in Tanzania considers the size, expected roles, scope, players and areas of activities that constitute the anatomy of civil society, as well as the legal and regulatory framework and the capacity to deliver and live up to core values. Generally, the civil society process in Tanzania could be said to have evolved organically in response to continuously changing demands of society and according to the prevailing political contexts in general. Its definition seems to encompass voluntary organisations under the non-profit sector, charity organisations and NGOs. Its size has been found to be significantly large compared to other developing countries, occupying an estimated 2.1% of the economically active population by 2000 (Kiondo et al, 2004). Optimism on its role in ushering in or stimulating social and economic development in future abounds, but so do questions regarding capacity, transparency, and conducive policy environment. Mushi (2001:22-3) mentions 10 objectives that drive the formation of civic groups in Tanzania:

1. Influencing government policy on various issues.
2. Taking advantage of the free market.
3. Improving recreational facilities.
4. Preserving traditional cultures.
5. Finding alternative ways of funding basic social services.
6. Empowering artisans through joint action.
7. Preventing further environmental degradation.
8. Attracting donor and government grants through group formation.
9. Finding alternative ways of getting credit and safer places to store money.
10. Mobilising funds (internally and externally) to help people with disabilities and marginalised people in the community.

The dominant functions can be drawn from these objectives as to include advocacy and lobbying, mobilising resources, social service delivery, representation in other bodies and local mobilisation or organisation. Many organisations balance social service delivery and empowerment functions. CSOs are expected to perform, among other key roles and activities, the following:

- *Political roles*: This could include, but is not limited to, augmenting and influencing change (policy, development, lobbying and advocacy for a particular cause); playing a part in elections (civic/voter education and election observation); election funding; pressure and interest groups.
- *Democratic roles*: watchdogs of the state against abuse of power; human rights education; litigation on behalf of the vulnerable; nurturing of democratic norms and processes; breeding grounds of democratic leaders.
- *Economic and developmental roles:* avenues for free economic associations (such as production, consumers, savings and credits).
- *Educational and informational roles*: avenues of knowledge generation and dissemination.
- *Socio-cultural roles:* social and cultural groupings.
- *Sports and recreational roles.*

With regard to main players that constitute the anatomy of civil society in Tanzania, the list is lengthy, but those constituting the backbone include the following:

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)
The emergence of NGOs in Tanzania is characterised by two fundamental factors: the weakening of the state to deliver entitlements – the legitimate role of the state, and consequently, the retreat of the state from direct economic and political dictates. The 1990s therefore witnessed an unprecedented mushrooming of NGOs. Originally avoiding conflict with government, most NGOs initially traded in the service delivery option, and worked in economic, social, political and cultural fields. Issues that have persistently confronted the operation of NGOs include legitimacy, relationships with the state, accountability and what they actually stand for; in other words, their functions. Recently, social auditing for government public accountability has become one of the popular functions of NGOs in Tanzania. NGOs have engaged in such activities as budget execution monitoring, Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys (PETS), Public Service Delivery Assessment (PSDA) and Corruption Perception Surveys (CPS). These activities have provided essential input to NGOs advocacy activities.

Trade unions
As noted elsewhere in this report, trade unionism has become a principle area of civil society movement in Tanzania. It was present during the colonial era and has persisted even in the post-independence era. The trade union movement in Tanzania could best be described as having a troubled history, ranging from outright discouragement to consistent efforts by the state aimed at controlling the sector or restricting its autonomy. This problem persists even today. In 2010, the government and, indeed the President, exchanged bitter words (through the media) with the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA) leadership. The President accused trade unions of politicking, an allegation that was bitterly refuted by TUCTA leadership. In general, the autonomy pronounced at the inception of TUCTA exists more in words than practice. There are a number of restrictions on the labour movement in mainland Tanzania, but more so in the island groups of Zanzibar and Pemba. Both on the mainland and the islands, workers are legally prohibited from striking, leaving them without a voice or a mechanism to express their anger and frustration.

The media
Tanzania has a large media body (both in print and electronic) following liberalisation policies introduced in Tanzania since the mid 1980s. Some media are state-owned, while others are civil society or community owned. Some civil society activity is undertaken via the media. For example, one of the most prominent CSOs, Tanzania Media Women Association (TAMWA), works on issues related to women's rights in the media. Constitutionally, there is guaranteed free and independent media. However, it appears that while the government of Tanzania respects the freedom of press, it does not encourage it. Tanzania has two other Acts for the regulation of press activities, namely the Newspapers Act No.3 of 1976, which empowers the President with the ability to prohibit any publication being imported or printed if he/she feels that it jeopardises the national interest. The other is the institution of the Tanzania Communications Regulatory Authority (2003) which regulates licensing and supervises broadcasting activities. This demonstrates how a government agency can still dictate what is otherwise believed to be a democratic process. The commission also standardises, plans and manages the country's frequency spectrum. At the time of writing, two bills were up for amending, one on media and broadcasting services, and the other for expanding the right to information.

Cooperatives
Cooperatives are another form of traditional civil society formation in Tanzania, historically linked to dissatisfaction in the terms of trade in the area of rural peasantry production. They also arise out of unhappiness with government attempts to control the production and circulation of agricultural produce, by both the petit bourgeoisie and the peasantry. The cooperative movement in Tanzania has been much the same experience as trade unions. There was time when independent cooperatives were banned. Currently, Tanzanian laws allow both government-owned cooperatives and private ones to exist, but experience shows tendencies toward more control and restriction of the independent operation of private cooperatives.

Faith-based organisations (FBOs)
Activities of FBOs in Tanzania, particularly in facilitating service provision, date back to the times of missionary activity and other religious contacts and interventions before and during the colonial period. FBOs in Tanzania are identified according to two broad categories:

- Religious organisations that establish offices and programmes primarily concerned with social development issues (such as NGOs)
- Religious bodies that are technically registered as NGOs but the primary interest of which is the promotion of a particular faith and religious teaching (including churches and mosques).

All in all, FBOs exemplify a relatively stable organisational structure, usually operating from a national apex down to congregations or communities at village level. Their autonomy is guaranteed to some extent by the freedom of worship that Tanzania enjoys, albeit within certain government designed parameters, such as being non-confrontational on national political issues.

Community-based organisations (CBOs)
Most of the CBOs in Tanzania are grassroots structures, predominantly initiated by people themselves for self-help purposes, either for problem solving or for general combining of efforts to stimulate individual or local development. These include groups organised for income generation. Others have been initiated by the government or donor processes, and a significant number by faith-based organisations. Some CBOs are occupation-based associations (e.g. carpentry) and others are service-oriented or outreach. The Tanzanian legal and policy regime allows for formation and operation of CBOs. The Water Policy (2002), for example, requires users to mobilise and organise themselves into associations,

especially water user associations, to apply for water rights and to pay for application and user fees. Membership is usually determined by objective and is therefore predominantly limited to a particular community (Mushi, 2001).

Informal grassroots-based groups
It is virtually impossible to make a valid assessment of the nature, size and scope of informal groupings at grassroots level. What can be done here is to assert their vivid presence and contribution to local level life and governance. The informality in this case is attributed to groups' lack of formal registration rather than to their mode of operation, since many groups have an agreed objective, structure and administration procedures. Some examples of informal grassroots-based groups in Tanzania include: clan-based groups, traditional local militia/vigilante (popularly known as *Sungusungu* in Kiswahili), women's informal credit systems, recreation-cum-self help groups, and faith-based neighbourhood prayer groups (small Christian communities also known as 'Jumuiya ndogo ndogo' in Swahili on the part of the Roman Catholic Church).

Civil society movements addressing special groups in society
There are civil movements inclined towards the plight of special groups in Tanzania. These are fundamentally concerned with the welfare and rights of special groups, most of whom are vulnerable, such as people with disabilities. Among the most challenging aspects of living with disabilities in Tanzania is the prevalence of poverty, poor institutional and infrastructural support, at both national and local level, and a certain degree of social and cultural values of neglect. Some of the more recent challenges are the HIV/AIDS pandemic and physical abuse towards people with disabilities; while education and health facilities that cannot accommodate even the most simple of facilities have become the norm. These circumstances have ignited the birth of many CSOs addressing issues related to disability in Tanzania. There are also umbrella organisations addressing welfare and rights of people with disabilities. These include the Disabled Organisation for Legal Affairs and Social Development (DOLASED) and SHIVYAWATA, the Tanzania Federation for Disabled Persons Organisations.

Another group in the list of special groups is older people. The number of activities addressing issues of older people have multiplied, particularly stimulated by emerging challenges posed by widowhood and HIV/AIDS orphans, and the persistent problems of lack of income, abuse and discrimination, including accusations of witchcraft. There are several regional or locally-based organisations addressing issues related to ageing and older people. At the national level, HelpAge International Tanzania (HAIT), a branch of the international network not-for-profit organisations for older people, spearheads several lobbying and advocacy processes. Key issues addressed by these organisations include the rights of access to basic services such as health care, institution of protective legal mechanisms against abuse or dispossession, and other means of social security.

Gender-based organisations
Civil activity and movements addressing women's practical needs as females, wives and mothers, are now developing into a more strategic, politically charged process, fighting and making demands on a human rights platform. Many of these cut across issues addressed above. Women's activism and efforts to organise around issues concerning women's rights and development at the international level have, in many ways, influenced the gender movement in Tanzania. Membership in women's international movements, such as Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) was evident early since the colonial period in which women of Tanganyika engaged in activities such as primary health care, education and other community and public activities. Such organisations predated the first national level women's political movement, Union of Women in Tanganyika (UWT) that was a wing of the ruling party TANU at independence in 1961.

During, and since, the United Nations International Women's Year (1975) and the subsequent Decade for Women (1976–85), international women's networks emerged to fill a need that women's groups had for better contact with others and for access to information and resources. At the national level, activism by individuals against abuse or discrimination has also been in place. Occupation-based groups sprung up more vigorously since the 1980s following increased awareness of the status of women caused by gender relationships at the international and regional level. Prominent among these were those based in higher education institutions such as the IDS (Institute of Development Studies of the University of Dar Es Salaam), the women's group and Women's Research and Documentation Project (WRDP) formed in the late 1970s by University of Dar Es Salaam professionals. Other groups that are quite significant to this date include the Tanzania Media Women Association (TAMWA), Tanzania Association of Women Leaders in Agriculture and Environment (TAWLAE), Tanzania Women Lawyers Association (TAWLA), and the more recent Medical Women Association of Tanzania (MEWATA), amongst others.

In the mid 1990s, there was an attempt to initiate a common women's platform during the era of dawning of political pluralism, which led to the short-lived establishment of Baraza la Wanawake Tanzania (BAWATA). BAWATA subsequently came under government reproach and was officially banned in 1998. The Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP), founded in 1993, is now among the frontrunners in offering a common approach to advocacy, capacity building and networking for organisations and individuals dealing with gender and related issues. Its landmark activity was its initiation of a gender budgeting approach in 2000 that resulted in national planning processes ensuring gender is integrated in its systems.

Government support to the gender process is evident in the ratification of almost all international conventions and declarations addressing women's rights, that have also given space for activism by civil society. These processes enable civil society to exert pressure on the government to make practical concessions towards gender sensitivity. Another landmark achievement was the formation of the Gender Land Task Force (GLTF) in 1997 by women's organisations and groups mobilised by TAWLA that forced the government to include women's rights during the process of forming the Land Act of 1999.

Overarching issues

Finally, in the mapping of civil society it is necessary to highlight the relationship between state and CSOs, and the capacity of CSOs to deliver. There is currently no law that captures the diversity of CSOs in Tanzania, given the diverse circumstances leading to their formation, roles and modes of operation, and membership composition. The NGO Act of 2002, which is currently the national level instrument governing organisations registered as NGOs, provides an exception where NGOs are concerned, but as the Act explicitly states, its provision "does not however, include trade unions, social clubs, sports clubs, political parties, religious organisations or CBOs themselves."

Furthermore, although there is considerable foreign donor support in terms of funding and other resources, particularly to civil society networks, there remain problems. A study by Kiondo et al (2004) established that the pattern of CSO revenue is similar to that found in other countries, and that 53% of cash revenue came from service fees, property income and membership dues, while 20% came from all sources classed as philanthropy, including individuals, foundations and corporations, and 27% from the public sector. As it is noted elsewhere in this report, subsequent studies, particularly FCS (2008, 2009) indicates that dependence of CSOs on donor funding has substantially increased.

Internal organisation in terms of managerial capacity is still questionable for many CSOs, as is the direct linkage between national-based structures and people on the ground in terms of

ground-based institutional development. The government's role in facilitating the growth and activities of civil society can safely be classified as one of a tacit 'observer', not wholly committed but looking at it as a reliable partner in social and economic development, environmental protection and the HIV/AIDS challenge. The FCS (2008) study probably best summarises the relationship between civil society and government when it mentions three broad types of relationships: cooperative, when CSO activities support government policies and programmes; adversarial, when their activities are perceived as critical to government policies and decisions; and indifferent, particularly when they are partners in service delivery.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has demonstrated that civil society movements are an integral part of the history of Tanzania. Civil society was there in the pre-colonial era, was suffocated during the colonial area and has rejuvenated with new pace and vigour after the introduction of liberalisation policies and political pluralism. The movement is still emerging and there are a number of blockages that need to be addressed in order to realise a strong and healthy civil society movement. These limitations are both within and outside the movement itself. Internally there is need, for example, to elevate internal/organisational capacity building. Externally, there is need to eliminate stumbling blocks related to, or emanating from, policy and legal frameworks, as well as the broader relationship between state and civil society.

3. ANALYSIS OF CIVIL SOCIETY IN TANZANIA

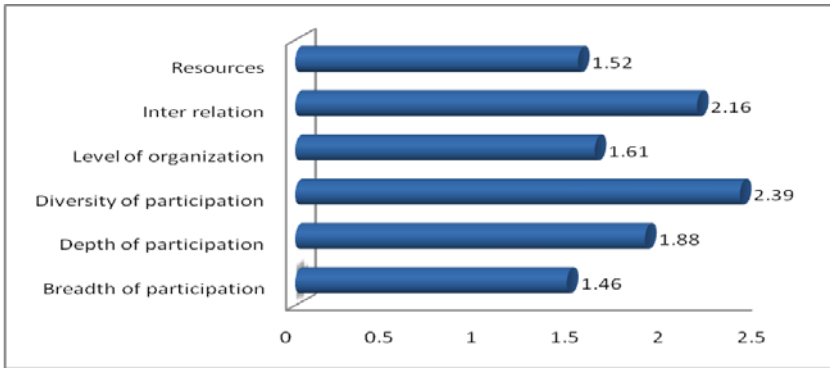
This section attempts to build a comprehensive picture of the state of civil society in contemporary Tanzania by analysing the four dimensions included in the CSI in this methodology which make up its diamond. These are namely: Structure, Environment for civil society, Values and Impact. The analyses and issues presented in this report have been drawn from the two CSI primary data sources, the Community Survey of the general population and the Regional Stakeholders Consultations (RSC) to elicit the views of civil society. The data from these sources are then analysed and scored from 0 to 3 by the National Advisory Group (NAG). CSI methodology also includes a thorough analysis of secondary data. Some of the main secondary data sources employed in this analysis include the World Value Survey (WVS), Johns Hopkins Comparative Non-profit Sector Project, and the report of the Foundation for Civil Society.

3.1 STRUCTURE

Introduction

The Structure dimension of CSI Tanzania provides us with information about the way in which civil society is internally organised. We have assessed the indicators constituting each of the six sub-dimensions (breadth of participation, depth of participation, diversity of participation, level of organisation, inter-relations and resources) of the structure dimension. Sub-dimension indicators reflect the day-to-day functions of CSOs. The overall score of the structure dimension is **1.84** out of 3, indicating a rather moderate, but growing structure of civil society in Tanzania that has potential for continued reorganisation and development. The graph below presents a summary of sub-dimensions that constitute the CSI structure.

Figure 3.1.1/1: Overall structure dimension scores



3.2.1 Breadth of participation

Table 3.1.2/1: Indicator scores for breath of participation

Non-partisan political action	0.76
Charitable giving	1.77
CSO membership	0.52
Volunteering	2
Collective community action	2.26
Total average	**1.46**

Non-partisan political action

Civil society in Tanzania is visible and socially-based, but can be relatively viewed as strategically keeping moderate visibility, and as therefore having limited social engagement. Broadly, civil society is apparently trying to fit into prevailing policy and structures. The CSI data indicates a numerical dominance of informal over formally registered civil society groups, with this picture more pronounced in the countryside than in the urban and semi-urban areas. Young people, women, ethnic alliances, clans, religious affiliations, minority alliances, indigenous people alliances, artisan activities, self-help, income generation, gambling, pyramid schemes, burial societies, housing and traditional sports constitute the informal civil society groups.

The World Values Survey (WVS) paints a picture of high political apathy, reporting that 93% of people would never engage in political action that involves occupying public buildings or factories, while 90% of Tanzanians are not ready to join unofficial strikes, and 55.7% would only attend lawful demonstrations (WVS, 2001).

Charitable giving

Charitable giving is seen to be a more informal, than formal, countrywide practice in Tanzania. In rural and semi-urban areas, many informal civil society groups donate materials or money to support social needs such as burial, harvest and marriage ceremonies, while a few formal CSOs have tended to donate money or materials to support vulnerable and disadvantaged groups, especially during natural calamities such as floods, epidemic and man-made disasters. The Tanzania Red Cross Society, Lions Club and Tanzania Scouts Association were mentioned by participants as regular charitable organisations. There are few or no charitable giving practices to support educational needs.

Table 3.1.2/2: Breadth of charitable giving in Tanzania

(Donation of money, or other goods such as clothing or food, to charitable causes during the last 12 months)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent
Yes	1,249	58.2	59.0
No	861	40.1	40.7
Don't know	8	0.4	0.4

Source: Community Survey

CSO membership

The universal consensus about CSOs and their existence is that they belong to members who establish, drive and direct them in a manner that is consistent with conventional leadership and managerial practices. CSOs in Tanzania are similarly established and led by members. 52% of people report belonging to at least one CSO.

For most CSOs, members form both the leadership and management cadre of organisations. Members constitute governance structures of, and give legitimacy to CSOs. Conflicts in some CSOs are noted as disrupting organisations due to lack of properly established governance structures compounded by overriding interests. There is great variety and combination of membership types, such as individual membership, institutional membership and combined institutional and individual membership. To a lesser extent, there is honorary membership, and associate membership in CSOs (FCS, 2008).

Membership across trade unions and cooperatives is strongly formal and defined by law. Although membership in NGOs is also formal, it is not legally binding, therefore creating

flexibility and voluntary entry and exit. Membership in informal groups is more a matter of identity than formality, and is sometimes temporary. Membership in wedding, cultural events fundraising, and burial societies is occasioned by events, and, therefore, temporary in nature.

Volunteering

Volunteering is a key characteristic feature of civil society. The overall score for volunteering is 1.86, constituted by volunteering within or outside CSOs.

Table 3.1.2/3: Indicator scores for volunteering

#2.1 Volunteering inside and outside CSOs	1.86

Volunteering takes the form of time and other personal resources, as organisations strive to transform from being 'briefcase' CSOs (in the sense not having an office) to formally existing CSOs (Marie Shaba and Hanna Laitinen, 2001:13-14). Urban-based NGOs are supported by able volunteering workforces which, according to the Johns Hopkins University Civil Society Study (2004) findings, accounts for over 331,000 full-time-equivalent (FTE) workers (2004).

Put into context, Tanzania's civil society workforce, hugely reliant on voluntary labour, is half as large as the entire workforce in the manufacturing industry, equivalent to 2.9% (U$260 million) of Tanzania's Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

Collective community action

Civil society's participation in collective community actions can be seen in the variety of their activities across Tanzania. The majority of Tanzanians in both rural and urban areas (90.17%, according to the CSI Community Survey) have established and taken membership of credit and savings/thrift cooperative societies, popularly known as SACCOS. Other civil society collective community actions include construction of wells, environmental protection, small scale businesses, worship, artisan fishing, community health and sanitary programmes, sports and recreation and many other similar community actions. The table below indicates the significant collective community actions in Tanzania with varying levels (percentages) of community participation depending on whether the areas involved are urban, peri-urban or rural communities, but which is further influenced by whether the communities are located in planned or unplanned areas (physical profile) or the degree of infrastructure availability (roads, piped water, telephone lines, schools and medical services).

Table 3.1.2/4: Collective community actions

	Geographical area			Physical profile			Level of infrastructure			**Total**
	Urban	Peri-urban	Rural	Urban	Peri-urban	Rural	Urban	Peri-urban	Rural	
Co-operative, credit or savings group	4.48	8.39	16.18	5.61	11.61	12.63	3.74	10.73	16.8	**90.17**
Farmer/fisherman group or cooperative	15.09	7.88	0	0.98	3.93	10.34	18.24	5.66	0	**62.12**
Health group/social service association (e.g. association for people with disabilities)	8.02	0	0.86	5.12	0	0.62	4.84	0.4	0	**19.86**
Sports	1.65	4.07	1.62	1.71	4.26	1.68	1.54	4.06	0.93	**21.52**

association										
Environmental or conservational organisation	5.42	0	2.28	7.8	0	2.12	9.67	0.87	0	**28.16**

Source: CSI Community Surveys

3.1.3 Depth of participation

Table 3.1.3/1: Indicator scores for depth of participation

Charitable giving	1.77
CSO membership	2
Volunteering	1.86
Total average	**1.88**

Charitable giving

Many CSOs in Tanzania do not have reliable sources of income; informal civil society groups wishing to conduct charitable giving mobilise resources from communities and 'temporary members', while formal CSOs conducting charitable giving missions mobilise resources from corporate sector entities, government departments/agencies and well-to-do individuals. The average frequency of CSOs entirely relying on donations from indigenous corporations is 12.2%, while the corresponding average of CSOs relying entirely on foreign funding entities is 9.8%. The Johns Hopkins Civil Society study (2004) indicates that 20% of CSOs' incomes come from philanthropy. However, charitable giving practices in Tanzania are greatly influenced by local politics and the regulatory framework, where the income tax law is a key restraining factor.

The laws regulating charitable giving are hostile, and therefore do not facilitate the practice. The Game Act (URT, 2008), the Income Tax Act (URT, 2006) and the Public Order Act, that all regulate charitable giving activities in Tanzania, only recognise religious organisations for tax exemption eligibility. Any donation made by corporate sector entity to a charitable CSO, for the latter to undertake charitable giving, is subject to taxation unless it is donated to a local government (statutory contribution) or religious organisation. The laws in Tanzania therefore make charitable giving more complicated, while the lack of specific legislation makes civil society charitable giving functions exposed to politicians and similar manoeuvres.

CSO membership

Civil society members participate freely in their respective groups. Participation is a key indicator to test validity and response of CSOs governance structures. The indicator index for participation of CSO members in their groups is 2, indicating increasingly unrestricted multiple memberships. Cross membership in CSOs, and networks or coalitions of CSOs, is common. In practice, however, the correlation coefficient between participation of members in their CSOs, networks or coalitions and payment of membership fees is weak (Mutakyahwa and Robinson, 2004).

Volunteering

This measures the extent to which people volunteer for more than one CSO. Though no quantitative data could be established yet, qualitative assessment indicates a gap emerging between the well established CSOs based in urban centres, which are managed by well trained staff, and the CSOs managed by voluntary staff, most of them temporary and lacking the required competences. The implication is that only very few people are ready to volunteer in more than one CSO.

As indicated during regional stakeholder consultations and in the secondary data, youth and women organisations are noted as having more members who tend to volunteer. The rate of volunteering is high amongst CSOs members and job seekers, typically when CSOs are at formative stages. No manifestation of efficiency and effectiveness due to the volunteering typical of informal civil society groups is discernible yet. Volunteering within organisations is not permanent and it is unreliable.

3.1.4 Diversity of participation

Table 3.1.4/1: Indicator scores for diversity of participation

CSO membership	2.95
CSO leadership	2.4
Geographical distribution	1.82
Total average	**2.39**

CSO membership

Diversity of CSO membership assesses the participation of distinct and generally marginalised social groups, such as women, the rural population, ethnic and religious minorities, poor people and people with disabilities in the CSOs' wider membership. The data from regional stakeholder consultations provide such evidence that less than 25% of CSO members are women, less than 16% are rural dwellers, more than 17% are from minorities, and less than 17% are poor people. On the other hand, representation of elites (educated people with relatively stable income and living in urban areas) in CSOs membership was assessed at over 57%. Only less than 18% of persons with disabilities share membership in CSOs. However, NAG members were of the view that cross-membership amongst marginalised people in their informal groups in Tanzania is so prominent that the score should be raised to reflect the reality, and therefore raised the score to 2.95.

Among the evidence noted by NAG members here is the multitude of cross memberships involving informal and formal self-help groups, including the 'death and burial' groups, prayer groups, credit (thrift) and savings groups, clannish (ancestral) identity groups and traditional practices groups, to mention only a few. Such groups are prominent and useful for cementing both rural and urban poor sections of society together. The NAG observed that most adult Tanzanians belong to at least one informal civil society grouping.

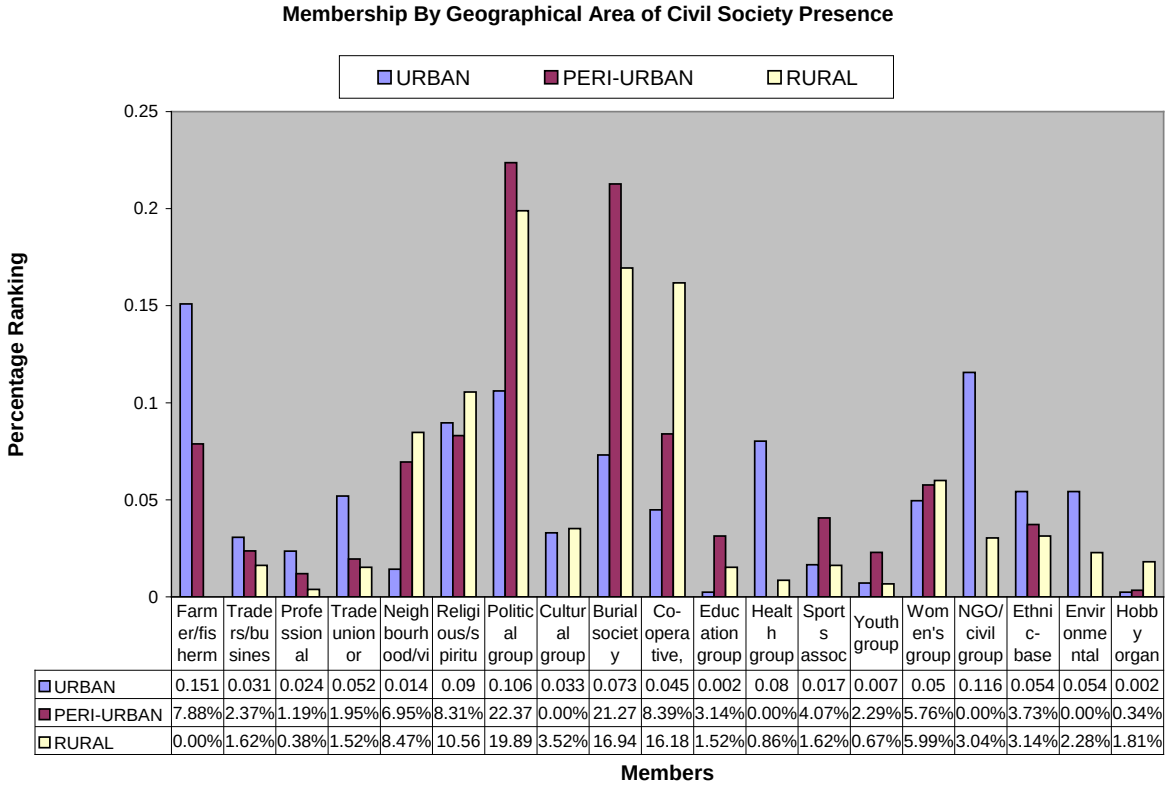
CSO leadership

It is also necessary to assess the participation of marginalised social groups and minorities in CSOs' leadership. The data from regional stakeholder consultations indicate only 37% of women are represented in CSO leadership. As for the other social groups, 48% of CSOs' leadership comes from either middle class or ordinary people in rural or sub-rural populations, while 77% of CSOs leadership is commanded by middle or upper class people in urban or sub-urbanite populations. When the NAG members considered leadership in many informal CSOs, it reached the conclusion that the leadership indicator score could be set high at 2.4.

Distribution of CSOs

The graph below presents a picture of civil society's diverse distribution reflecting rural, semi-urban and urban areas by organisation type.

Figure 3.1.4/1: Tanzania civil society membership distribution



	Farmer/fisherm	Traders/business	Professional	Trade unionor	Neighbourhood/vi	Religious/spiritu	Political group	Cultural group	Burial society	Co-operative,	Education group	Health group	Sports assoc	Youth group	Women's group	NGO/civil group	Ethnic-base	Environmental	Hobby organ
URBAN	0.151	0.031	0.024	0.052	0.014	0.09	0.106	0.033	0.073	0.045	0.002	0.08	0.017	0.007	0.05	0.116	0.054	0.054	0.002
PERI-URBAN	7.88%	2.37%	1.19%	1.95%	6.95%	8.31%	22.37	0.00%	21.27	8.39%	3.14%	0.00%	4.07%	2.29%	5.76%	0.00%	3.73%	0.00%	0.34%
RURAL	0.00%	1.62%	0.38%	1.52%	8.47%	10.56	19.89	3.52%	16.94	16.18	1.52%	0.86%	1.62%	0.67%	5.99%	3.04%	3.14%	2.28%	1.81%

3.1.5 Level of organisation

Table 3.1.5/1: Indicator scores for level of organisation

Existence of umbrella body	1.05
Effectiveness of umbrella body	2.28
Self-regulation efforts	1
Support infrastructure	1.74
International linkages	2
Total average	**1.61**

It was established during regional stakeholder consultations that Tanzania civil society is greatly haunted by weak civic competence, inadequate social, political and economic policy awareness, knowledge, skills, experience and expertise. Influence of the overbearing incumbent state party has tended to dictate governance policy from above.

Existence of CSO umbrella bodies

Formal CSO networks help to redefine strengths and collective synergies, enabling CSOs to come closer and work together as geopolitical or thematic networks or alliances. Networking resulting in CSOs undertaking such joint programmes as elections monitoring and civic education (1995, 2000, 2005 and 2010 General Elections) has strengthened civil society bargaining advantage, economised efforts and avoided duplication. There are over 228 networks (FCS, 2009), 59% defined by specific themes, with the rest working without specific themes. At least 170 networks are specific to districts, while there are 25 regional networks, and 33 national networks.

Effectiveness of CSO umbrella bodies

In the regional stakeholder consultations, it is noted that 24% of civil society umbrella bodies in Tanzania are ranked as generally effective, while 52% consider them as partly effective or ineffective bodies. In a capacity assessment study of civil society networks in Tanzania commissioned by the Foundation for Civil Society (FCS) and conducted by the University of Dar es Salaam (2008), civil society networks are perceived to be a recent, post 2000 phenomenon, therefore relatively new, amateur and un-institutionalised, with limited experienced leaders, which limit their potential for sustainability. The study is also cautious that despite the fact that networks have origins in their members, a significant number of them were created with the influence of government officials and donors. This fact was noted by NAG members. However, examining and assessing their key role, namely, coordination, nationwide public mobilisation, information dissemination, supporting civil society self determination, and representation of civil society in national policy dialogues, which is evidenced by their visibility in the national media, NAG members were convinced that the umbrella organisations are duly fulfilling their duties, and therefore raised the score of effectiveness of CSO umbrella bodies to 2.28.

Self-regulation

One opinion held by 45% of participants in regional stakeholders consultations is that some mechanisms of CSO self-regulation exist but have limited impact. The other 5.9% are of the view that efforts to put the mechanisms for self-regulation have never existed in Tanzania; while 34% maintain that only preliminary efforts of CSOs self-regulation exist in Tanzania. On the other hand, 15% are strongly convinced that effective mechanisms (with high impact) of civil society self regulation exist in Tanzania. The conclusion drawn from regional stakeholders consultation is that self-regulation of CSOs is the critical organisational development issue for the sector in Tanzania. Since 2000 there have been efforts, originally spearheaded by the Tanzania Association of NGOs (TANGO), and later by FCS and the National NGO Council, NaCONGO, to establish a code of conduct, but these efforts have not been concluded yet.

Support infrastructure

Support infrastructure for CSOs includes the existence of reliable internal rules, procedures, policy and regulations; clearly defined role for staff, management and leadership; office space and work equipment; efficient/effective means of communication and transport; and a clearly defined constituency. The regional stakeholders' data suggest a visible availability of support infrastructure to CSOs in Tanzania. A majority, over 51%, are of the view that support infrastructure in the CSOs is expanding, while 37% believe that civil society support infrastructure is limited.

International linkages

Strong international linkages of CSOs contribute to institutional growth, for example by helping to develop standards and codes, and exposing governance standards to international scrutiny. However, analysing the data collected for regional stakeholders consultations the evidence is such that very few 50% of CSOs are internationally linked and enjoy international networking. A significant group (13%) do not think CSOs have international linkages, while only very (4.7%) think CSOs have numerous international linkages and networking. The level of civil society international networking is such that 49% conduct regional (Africa) level networking, and 42% maintain linkages and networking beyond the region.

3.1.6 Interrelations

Table 3.1.6/1: Indicator scores for interrelations

Communication	1.63
Cooperation	2.69
Total average	**2.16**

In the course of performing day-to-day functions, CSOs develop and need relationships. Tanzania CSOs state in consultations that there is a growing trend of interrelationships. The overall score given to civil society interrelations is 2.16.

Communication
There is strong conviction that the level of communication amongst Tanzania CSOs is either limited (ranked by 42%) or moderate (ranked by 35.5%). Empirical evidence (FCS, 2009) indicates that some CSOs, mostly located in urban centres, have invested in information technology, with 43.8% having access to internet, and 19.4% possessing four or more computers; 142 (about 5%) have their own websites. According to a Tanzania civil society directory, out of 2,860 CSOs, 1,140 (about 40%) by 2009 had email addresses. Mailing lists, discussion forums and phones (especially mobile phones) are the major means of communication amongst CSOs in Tanzania today. In the regional stakeholders' consultations, 18.8% said that there is a significant level of communication across CSOs, while only 3.5% felt there was very limited level of communication.

Cooperation
Cooperation across sectors amongst CSOs in Tanzania is significant. Examples of cross-sector cooperation in the CSI data (RSC) indicate existence of "some cooperation" (45.8%) or "numerous cooperation" (23.7%). The number of times CSOs cooperate across sectors indicate an even distribution pattern of cooperation (ranging between 1% and 2.9%) in all sectors. Cooperation frequencies with the Tanzania Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture (TCCIA) and Kigoma regional NGO network (2.9%) are the highest. Advocacy against the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) and against female genital mutilation have the second highest frequency of cross sector cooperation (1.9%).

3.1.7 Resources

The envisaged development character of civil society is self-reliance. When civil society members resolve to form their groups it is synonymous with a declaration of self-determination. The level to which this is undermined by the quest for resources is a classic civil society dilemma.

Table 3.1.7/1: Indicator scores for resources

Financial resources	1.84
Human resources	1.51
Technological and infrastructure resources	1.21
Total average	**1.52**

Financial resources
In the views of regional stakeholders, financial resources available for CSOs are considered significantly inadequate (50%) or rather adequate (32.7%). However, 5.9% believe CSOs have adequate resources while 11.4% consider they have completely inadequate resources (RSC data).

The corporate sector and international organisations are significant in facilitating civil society capacity. Donations take different forms and shapes. The United Nations Agencies in Tanzania (UNDP, UNIFEM, UN-Habitat, UNESCO), embassies based in Dar es Salaam, International Financial institutions (such as the World Bank) and other international organisations, based in or operating from outside Tanzania are recorded to have donated money, materials or expertise to civil society in Tanzania (REPOA, 2007).

Eight three percent of CSOs maintain a relatively modest annual budget of US$67,000 or below, and have permanent salaried staff (FCS, 2009). However, only 13% of CSOs have an annual budget over and above US$67,000, despite donor dependence being overly pronounced. These findings also suggest about 6% of CSOs in Tanzania do not have budgetary records. The issues behind this are likely to be lack of money or deliberate non-disclosure of their budgets and activities.

Human resources
The RSC data tells us that availability of human resources in CSOs is either rather adequate (44.4%) or inadequate (30.1%). However, 21.5% are confident that CSOs have adequate human resources while only 4% believe they face an acute shortage. Moreover, as is noted in the volunteering assessment section above, as a sector in which many people participate through employment, CSOs in Tanzania employ the equivalent of 2.1% of the economically active population, which is over 20%of non-agricultural employment in Tanzania. The table below shows the variations of human resources across the CSOs.

Table 3.1.7/2: Permanent salaried CSO employees: urban-rural comparison

No. of personnel	Urban (%)	Rural (%)
None	25.4	41.5
1-5 persons	36.5	29.7
6-10 persons	15.9	11.0
11-15 persons	7.9	6.0
16-20 persons	7.9	4.3
Above 20	6.4	7.5

Source: FCS

Technological and infrastructural resources
The situation of technological and infrastructural resources across CSOs in Tanzania is such that regional stakeholders deem resources as either inadequate (44%) or rather adequate (35.1%). There are very few CSO stakeholders (9.3%) who believe the sector has adequate technological resources while 11.5% believe there is a desperate lack of such resources. Similarly, observation indicates that only a few urban-based CSOs have invested in modern information and communication technologies.

3.1.8 Conclusion

The table below provides a summary of overall score of the structure dimension

Table 3.1.8/1: Overall structure dimension scores

Structure dimension	Score
Breadth of participation	1.46

Depth of participation	1.88
Diversity of participation	2.39
Level of organisation	1.61
Interrelations	2.16
Resources	1.52
Total average	**1.84**

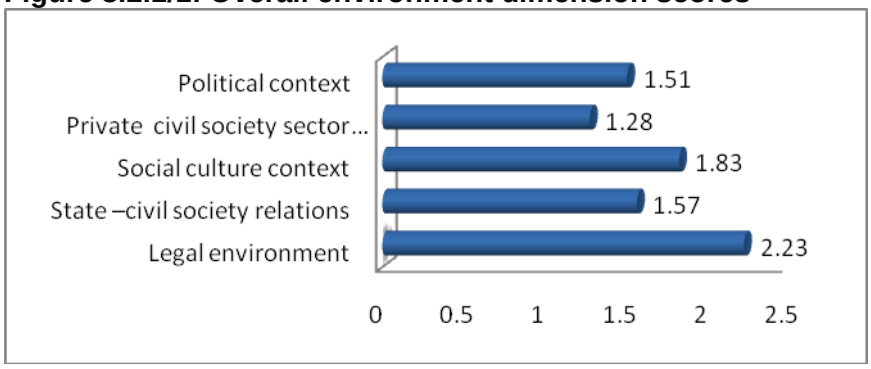
3.2 ENVIRONMENT

3.2.1 Introduction

This section assesses the issue of external environment in which CSOs in Tanzania operate. The question of organisational context suggests some form of power relations that are outside the internal arrangements of an organisation but which, in one way or another, influence or determine what takes place within an organisation. In this context, assessing the environment entails examining a variety of factors influencing or having potential of influencing civil society activities. Environmental sub-dimensions on which the study focused include political context, basic freedoms and rights, socio-economic context, socio-cultural context, legal environment, state-civil society relations, and private sector-civil society relations.

The overall average score for external environment stands at **1.68**. This suggests only a moderate enabling environment, which is in some ways facilitative, in others constraining of activities of CSOs in Tanzania. The following graph summarises scores on environment as given by the NAG based on data from community surveys, regional stakeholders consultations and World Values surveys.

Figure 3.2.1/1: Overall environment dimension scores

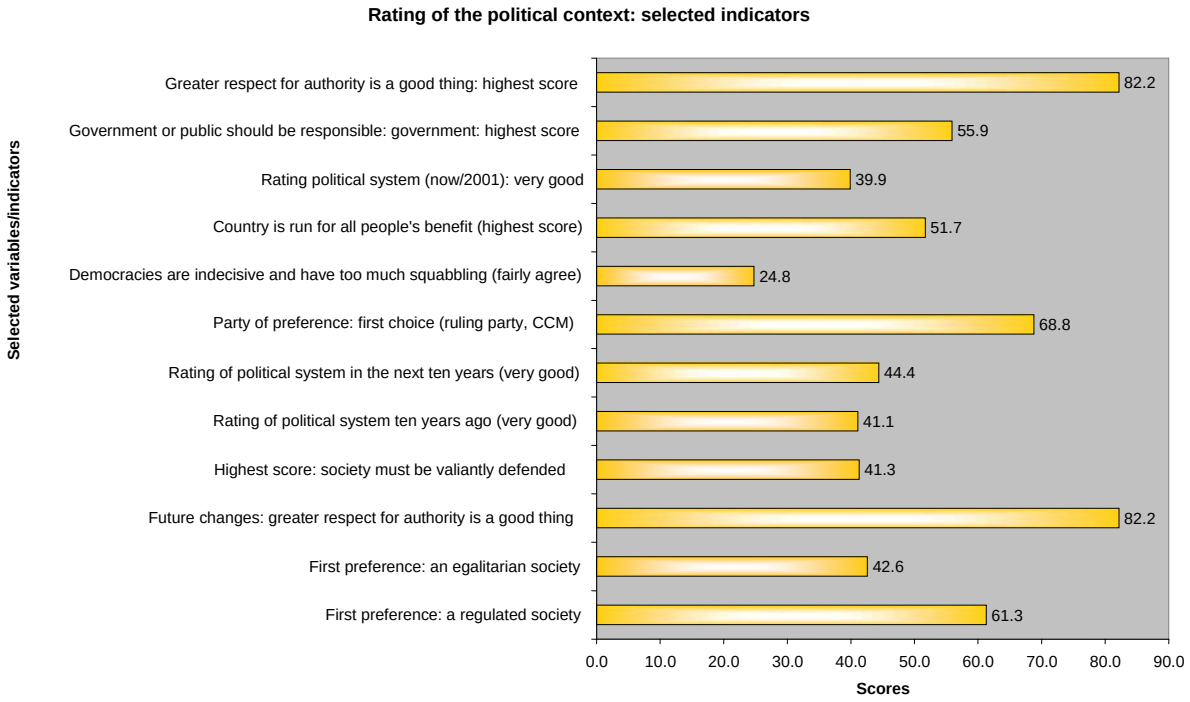


3.2.2 Political context

Under political context, we explore whether the political system allows citizens to enjoy basic political and civil rights and freedoms. Specific issues include civil and political rights and basic freedoms and rights, political competition, rule of law, corruption, state effectiveness, decentralisation, rights to information and media freedoms.

The Tanzania political context is largely explained by the politics of transition towards a competitive and free market economy. The 2001 WVS sheds light on how the general public rate the selected aspects of the political indicators in Tanzania. The graph below, developed from the data compiled by WVS 2001, presents a graphical view of Tanzania political context.

Figure 3.2.2/1: Political context/system of Tanzania: selected indicators from WVS



It is apparent from the graph above that many in Tanzania by 2001 were more convinced that there is need for greater respect for authority (82.2%), while 42.6% strongly wanted to see a more egalitarian society. The data tell us that the political context in which CSOs operate is both facilitative and constraining. Despite the fact that the political system seems to be generally open and suggests a liberal political context, there are a number of limitations that make it fail to be highly conducive for the thriving of autonomous civil society. Unless some barriers are addressed, the political context of Tanzania will continue to constrain civil society.

Civil / political rights and basic freedoms and rights

With regard to human rights, Tanzania is party to core international human rights conventions such as the 1966 Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the International Convention on the Rights of Children of 1989, and more recently, the 2006 International Convention on Disability Rights. Tanzania has also ratified the African Charter on Human and People's Rights of 1981. Finally, at a domestic level, Tanzania has a Bill of Rights which was enshrined in the country's constitution in 1984.The constitution stipulates various rights including political rights. The same constitution, however, has 'claw back clauses' which make it difficult for realisation of some basic rights and freedoms such as freedom of expression and assembly. NAG was concerned about presence of such 'claw back clauses' in the national constitution and called upon all stakeholders to intensify efforts for a more conducive national constitution.

The National Security Act, 1970 restricts access to information. Media freedom exists, although in practice there are some control laws which inhibit, to some extent, freedom of information. There is no right to information legislation. The Bill for this was drafted but it now appears to be in abeyance. However, the media has relentlessly pressed for press freedom. In 1993, the state co-opted the Tanzania Journalists Association (TAJA) in a bid to introduce a draconian Media Bill (Chachage, 2004) seeking to regulate and control media professionals through establishment of a statutory Media Council. Journalists and lawyers opposed to the idea responded with the formation a non-statutory Media Council. The Government shelved the Media Bill towards the end of 1994. The Media Council of Tanzania (MCT) stands vocal today;

between 2006 and 2009 MCT successfully mobilised the public to block yet another government attempt to legislate a law widely regarded as anti-freedom of information. The Tanzania Media Women's Association (TAMWA), supported by gender advocacy groups, successfully pushed for Sexual Offences and Special Provisions Act (SOSPA) legislation.

Limited space for civil society engagement with government exists. Civil society has been regularly invited by government to participate in policy dialogues, such as National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty, decentralisation and local government reforms, privatisations, constitutional and legal reform processes. However, no formal institutional framework to manage and sustain partnership exists at different levels of the government.

Political competition and decentralisation

Opening up for political competition and initiatives towards decentralisation were acknowledged by NAG as important landmarks in the recent political history of Tanzania. This is due to the fact that since 1992, Tanzania is a multiparty system, allowing parties to compete for political leadership via regular general elections conducted after every five years. Furthermore, Tanzania has experienced mutual cooperation, cohabitation and interaction between political society and the civil society. Political opposition leaders are highly regarded as having pioneered, in the early 1990s, contemporary civil society in Tanzania. Such organisations as the Legal and Human Rights Centre (LHRC), African International Group of Political Risk Analysis (PORIS), African Research Institute for Eastern and Southern Africa (ARIESA), and Tanzania Election Monitoring Committee (TEMCO) are noted as having been founded by political opposition activists. A strong civil society was viewed as an effective backup to the nascent political opposition.

However, over the last two decades, political reform in Tanzania has been characterised by notable political liberalisation and development of democratic institutional structures. Consolidation of democracy has however, been limited and managed from above. The transition to a multiparty system in 1992 was accompanied by only limited institutional change and few meaningful alterations in the operative rules of the political game. The reform project was neither propelled by massive popular movement, nor resulted from a change of governing regime.

Another limitation in the political context is that competition becomes battle. Opposition political parties in particular tend to question the election management bodies in terms of their autonomy, because they are appointed by the incumbent president who also, in most cases, becomes one of candidates. In general, there are pressures for having a level playing field before, during and after elections. The political system also limits freedom of participation in elections because independent candidates are not allowed. All these limitations have ignited concerns and demands for a new constitution that would address these and related limitations. The process toward a new constitution has just begun as of January 2011 and will presumably conclude by 2014. Key stakeholders, including the general public, are currently discussing the modality of content and process of Tanzania constitutional making.

Another factor is that civil society in Tanzania is characterised by weak civic competence and inadequate awareness, knowledge, skills, experience and expertise. Influence of an overbearing incumbent state party has tended to dictate governance policy from above. Many civil society groups have been co-opted, while numerous intellectuals, the media, trade unions and cooperatives have compromised their positions. The current trend seems to be that most intellectuals, businesses, professionals and even religious elites maintain overt or covert strategic relationships with the ruling elite, mainly being survival coping strategies. There are also concerns that important civil society groups, such as women, rural population, ethnic minorities, religious minorities and poor people are not equitably represented in the main political system of Tanzania. There is no official political

discriminatory policy, but built-in mechanisms keep civil society groups away from elective political offices. The Political Parties Act (No. 5/1992) legalises political parities only to contest the elective political offices. Private candidates are constitutionally outlawed to contest elections (art. 21, 39, 47 and 67, URT 1977 Constitution, 2005).

The ability to engage politically is also limited, especially in rural areas, by poverty and low levels of education. The poor majority experience low levels of education in makeshift schools. The Tanzanian literacy rate is 67.8% of the total population, broken down into 79.4% males and 56.8% females (URT, 2002 Census). A number of counteracting factors seem to influence the diversity of civil society political engagement in Tanzania. Between 2005 and 2010, only 40 civil society groups conducted voter related civic education or voter education activities (UNDP, 2006). During the 1995 general elections, 60 civil society groups teamed up to form the Tanzania Election Monitoring Committee (TEMCO) to independently observe the elections. TEMCO also observed the 2000 and 2005 elections and confirmed results by one of the six qualifying certificates on whether elections were free and fair. During the 2010 general elections, 17 national CSOs formed the Tanzania Civil Society Consortium on Election Observation (TACCEO), which conducted independent observation of elections along with TEMCO. The respective election observers' reports were published citing scathing irregularities, including vote rigging, manipulation and electoral process corruption with impunity. The use of political and financial power to silence and force civil society to condone corruption in the electoral process is revealed in the example below.

Studying the subject matter in 2004, PORIS reveals the following:

"The case of Prime Minister Judge Joseph Sinde Warioba is not an isolated one... Individuals who had taken forms to contest the Bunda seat against the then Prime Minister, Mr J S Warioba, were persuaded by district leaders not to stand against Mr Warioba by offering financial incentives. One potential candidate by the name of Malagila, for example, is alleged to have complained about his not being promoted for a long time. Immediately, he backed down from the race, Malagila, who worked as a junior health officer at the district hospital, was awarded a double promotion backdated a couple of years. He collected a cheque worth Tshs. 53,000" (Mlahagwa, 1994:220).

Not many civil society groups are engaged in what is more a donor-driven high-level discourse about governance policy reforms, focusing on local government, administration of justice, health, public finance, public administration and state governance sectors (URT, 2009). Not more than five civil society groups are seriously involved in the anti-corruption campaign, and less than 40 civil society groups are involved in the Publish What You Pay (PWYP-T, 2010) campaign for extractive industries revenue transparency.

In Tanzania, there is provision for separation of power between legislature, judiciary and executive. However, there are concerns that the executive is overbearingly powerful compared to the other branches. Furthermore, Tanzania is a country with a two tier system, of central government and local government systems. Tanzania is still undergoing decentralisation reforms which started in the mid 1990s.

Rule of law and corruption

Tanzania has a multi-layer court system from primary courts to the Court of Appeal. However, the Corruption Perception Surveys (CPS) conducted and published annually (2008, 2009, 2010) by ForDIA indicate that corruption is above average. Moreover, the police, judiciary, power and health sectors and other government agencies have a high ranking for corruption. The CPS data is consistent with the Transparency International's (TI) Corruption Perception Index (CPI) for Tanzania. Tanzania CPI scores for 2010, 2009 and 2008 are 2.7, 2.6 and 3 respectively, on a scale where a score of 10 would indicate the complete absence of corruption. Furthermore, in the 2009 and 2010 East Africa Bribery Index, Tanzania ranked third and fourth, with corruption prevalence of 17% and 28.6% respectively. On this index of the level of corruption prevalence, lower percentages are better. Grand corruption involving public procurement in the energy sector and the Central Bank has also come to light over the last four years. The table below presents 2010, 2009 and 2008 annual CPS rankings published by ForDIA.

Table 3.2.2/1: 2010-2008 reports of state of corruption in Tanzania

2010		2009		2008	
Actor	**%**	**Actor**	**%**	**Actor**	**%**
Police	85.3	Power utility/ TANESCO	82.35	Power utility/ TANESCO	83.15
Health	84.05	Police	75.8	Police	82
Judiciary	83.6	Judiciary	75.75	Licensing and revenue	78.5
Power utility/ TANESCO	82.8	Licensing and revenue	75.65	Health	76.85
Licensing and revenue	81.85	Water and sewerage	74.9	Water and sewerage	76.3
Water and sewerage	79.95	Health	74.65	Natural resources	73.45
Education	79.3	HIV/AIDS	71.7	Judiciary	73.3
Roads and works	79.2	Education	69.1	Education	71.8
Natural resources	75.8	Natural Resources	67.6	Land and housing	70.4
Land and housing	75.55	Roads and works	66.15	HIV/AIDS	66.3
HIV/AIDS	71.35	Land and housing	64.8	Cooperatives	64.8
Cooperatives	66.1	Cooperatives	60.05	District Executive Director (DED) Office	58.5
District Executive Director (DED) Office	53	District Executive Director (DED) Office	51.95	Ward Development Committees (WDCs)	42.65
Ward Development Committees (WDCs)	47.5	Ward Development Committees (WDCs)	41.2	Roads and works	nil

Source: ForDIA 2010 CPS report

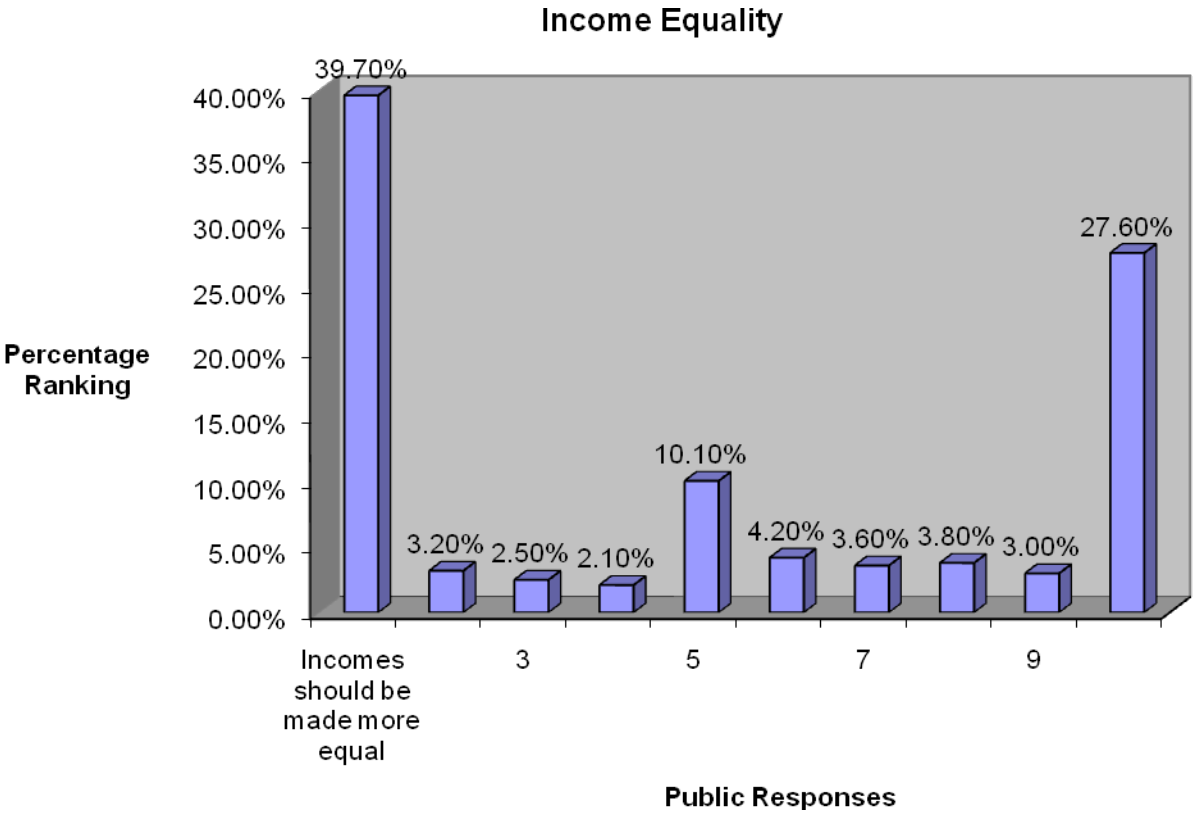
3.2.3 Socio-economic context

The socio-economic context sub-dimension examines the extent to which the socio-economic environment facilitates or acts as a barrier to civil society development. One measure of a country's economic status is the level of dependence on donor support. In this regard Tanzania is a dependent country, with about 40% of its national budget depending on donors. This also implies competition for resources between government and CSOs.

CSO dependence on donors is critical. In a survey conducted by FCS in 2008, it is indicated that 81% of national networks are highly dependent on donors. Among the regional networks, 77.6% are donor dependent. Overbearing donor dependence has the potential of compromising CSOs' autonomy (FCS, 2008)

Poverty is also a key aspect of socio-economic context. The level of poverty is high among the general public. A sizeable number of the general population live below the poverty line and do not enjoy the necessary basic quality utilities and social services, such as clean and safe water, health facilities and education, to mention just a few. The WVS 2001 data presented in the graph below shows that people are demanding greater income equality.

Figure 3.2.3/1 Public responses on income inequality



Last but not least, the overall verdict with regard to the Tanzanian socio-economic context is that CSOs are generally operating under unreliable and limited funding sources. Donor dependence is high and poverty level among the general population is substantial.

3.2.4 Socio-cultural context

Prevailing socio-cultural norms and attitudes, including interpersonal trust, tolerance, and public spiritedness, have a bearing on CSO activities, which rely on social capital to be effective. The CSI data indicates that Tanzanians are intolerant of homosexuality. However, apart from this, with regard to other questions that sought to establish the extent to which people in Tanzania have discriminatory tendencies towards others, the findings show that generally Tanzanians are not discriminatory. Another significant finding is that most Tanzanians belong to a particular religious denomination.

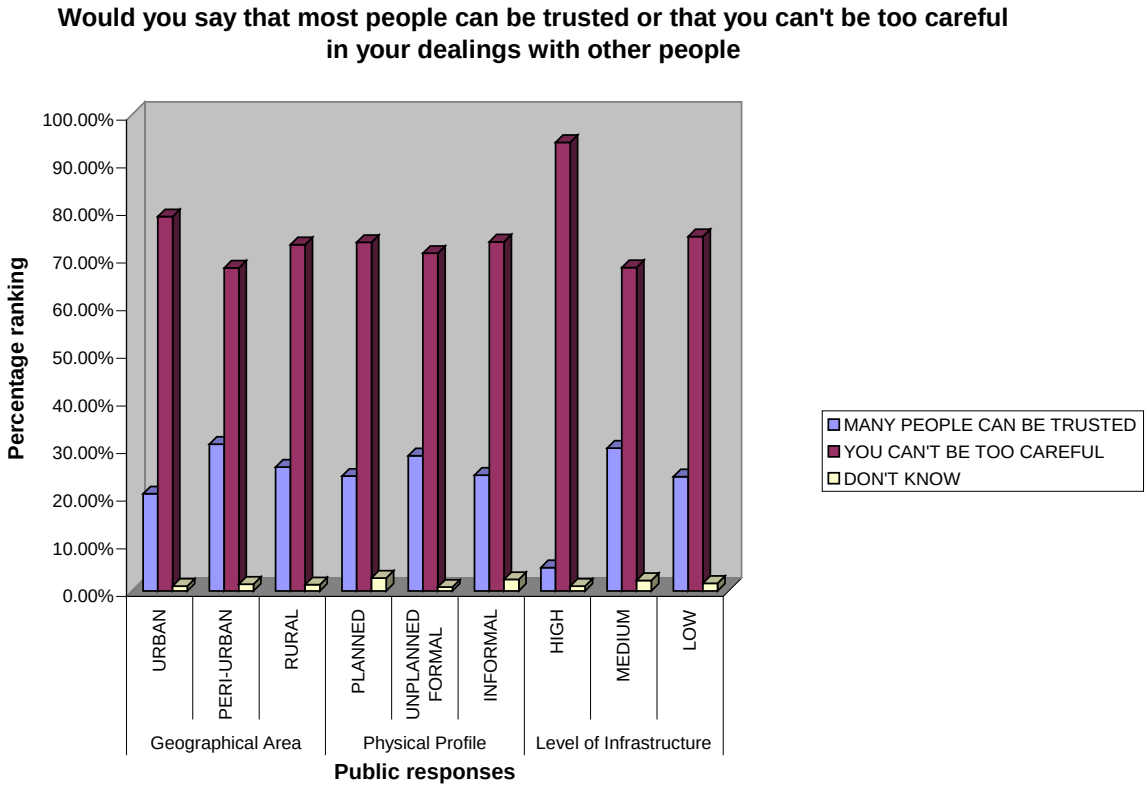
Table 3.2.4/1: Indicator scores for socio-cultural context

Trust	2
Tolerance	2
Public-spiritedness	1.49
Total average	**1.83**

Trust

Among the public, trust between people is a key indicator of the ability for social activity to succeed. Yet trust is still an issue among the public as the below figure, which draws from the community survey data, illustrates.

Figure 3.2.4/1 Public trust when dealing with others



What is evident is the fact that people indicate that members of society cannot be trusted wholly, in all three types of neighbourhoods selected for the assessment. Increasing rates of mugging, theft, human rights abuses, conning and corruption feeds perceptions of individual insecurity, and has put people on their guard when it comes to associating with anybody.

Despite the above sort of moderate trust, it is important to note that trust is manifested as high in a number of other ways in Tanzania. One such way is the trust amongst the Roman Catholic Church community, organised around households and families for common social and religious pursuits. Another way is the fact that many Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies (SACCOS) have been established and maintained primarily via a core value of trust among SACCOS members.

Tolerance

Tanzanian society is on average estimated to have a medium level of tolerance that occasionally varies depending on the circumstances of issues or incidences. Mob justice against petty thieves, for example, co-exists with moderate 'softer' reaction to grand corruption, except when mobilised under a common concern.

Tolerance levels for the traditionally discriminated, marginalised or stigmatised groups varies, depending on whether status has an attached favourable socio-cultural value, or where contexts support rigid stigma and ostracisation. The CSI Community Survey established that people are overtly reluctant to have homosexuals as their neighbours, but do not shy away from people living with HIV/AIDS. This can be seen as an indication of higher level of informed awareness about HIV/AIDS, which can at last in part be attributed to civil society activities. There are CSOs fighting negative traditional socio-cultural values and practices, such as female genital mutilation.

Figure 3.2.4/2: Levels of discrimination against people with HIV/AIDS

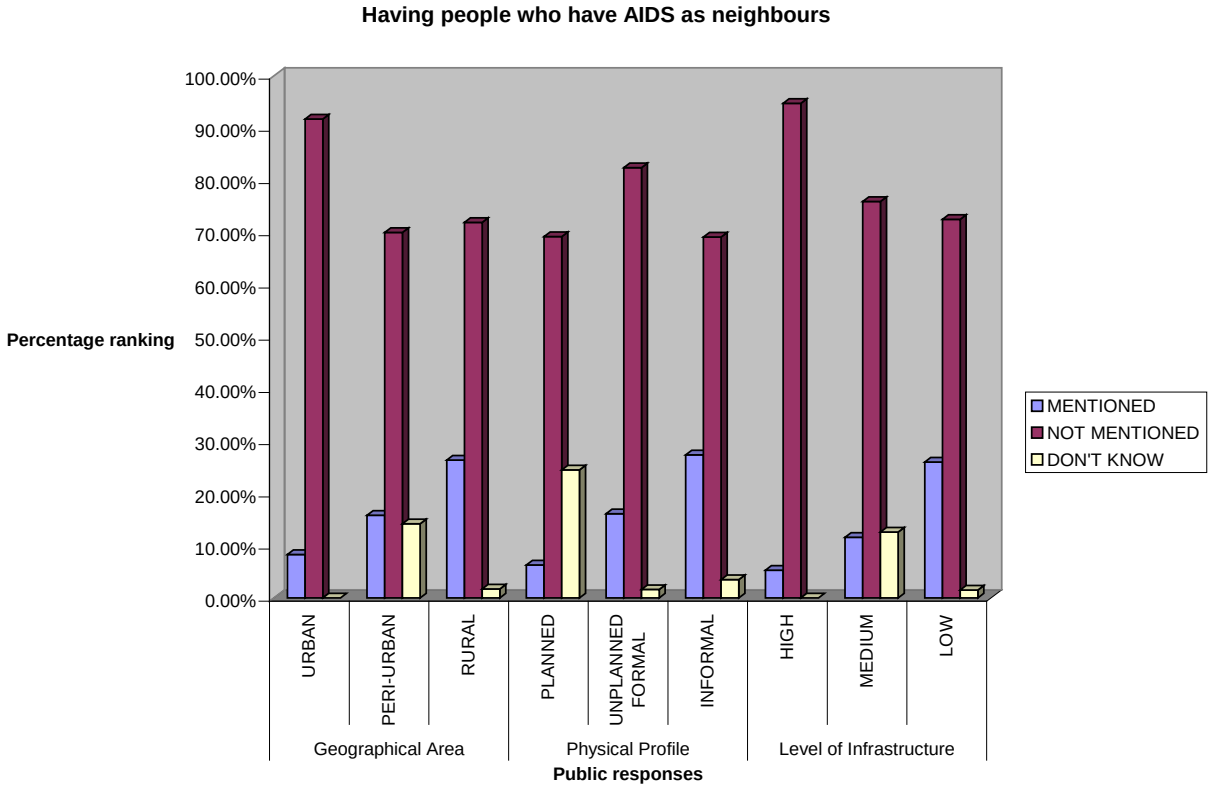
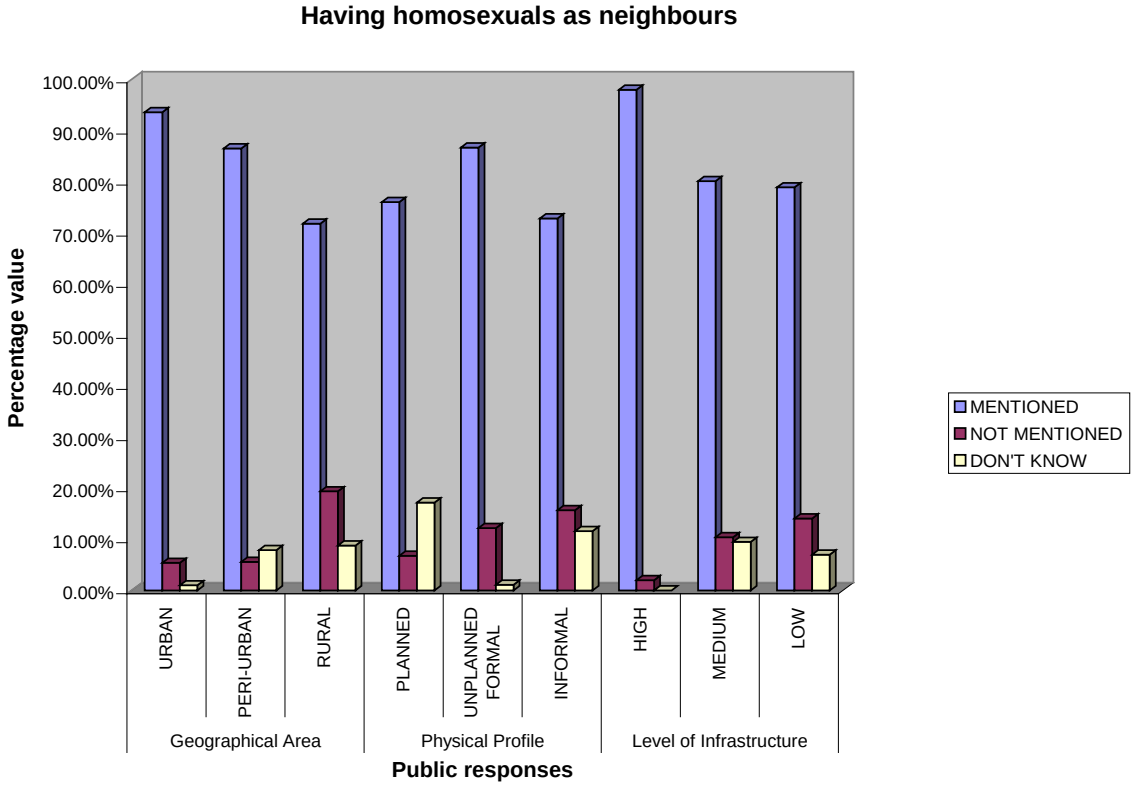


Figure 3.2.4/3: Levels of discrimination against homosexuals



Public-spiritedness

Individual conceptions of trust can also be used to gauge the level to which members of the public adhere to principles of honesty, ethics and responsibility. From the CSI Community Survey, it was seen that in many ways, people perceive that some non-adherence to ethics with reference to public goods or responsibilities is permissible, and hence tax avoidance and benefit fraud do occur. For example, 34% of the respondents in urban neighbourhoods stated that claiming government benefits which one is not entitled to can always be justified, although 44.4% condemned such behaviour, as the figures below indicate.

Figure 3.2.4/4: Acceptance of claiming government benefit to which one is not entitled

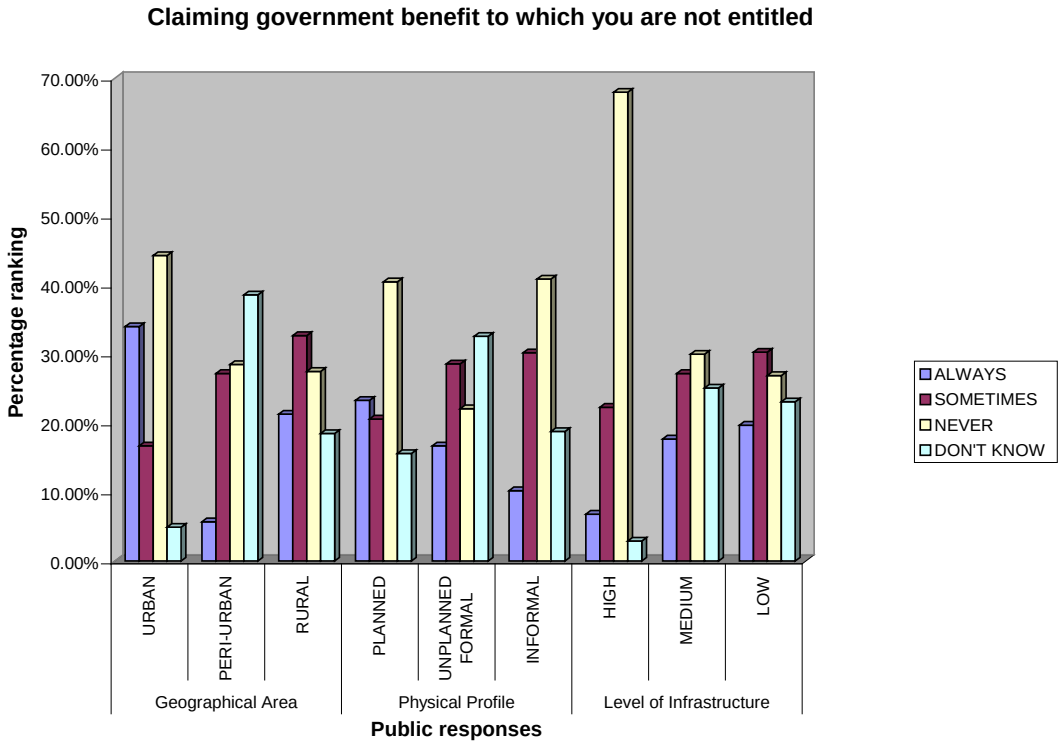
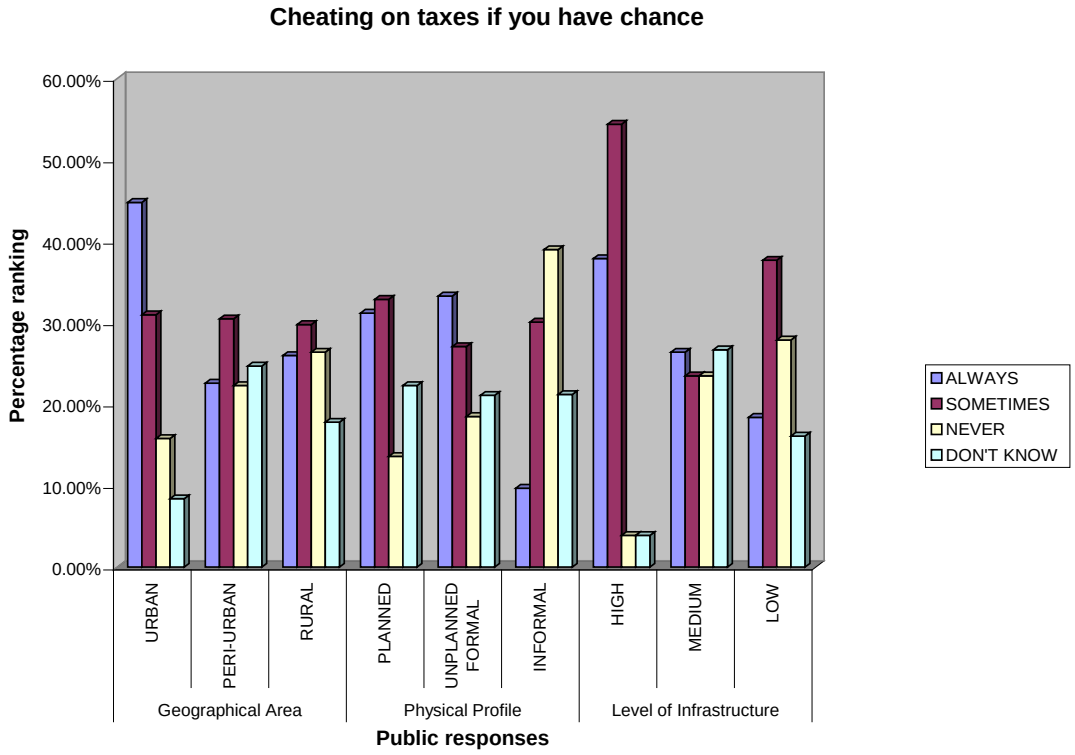


Figure 3.2.4/5: Acceptance of cheating on taxes



3.2.5 Legal environment

Table 3.2.5/1: Indicator scores for legal environment

CSO registration	2.7
Tax regime for CSOs	1.75
Total average	**2.23**

CSO registration

In Tanzania, the legal and regulatory framework for CSOs is very complex as there are multiple powers, laws and regulations which are involved. Some legal experts have regarded this multiplicity of legal and regulatory sources as being more of a constraint rather than an asset (Makaramba, 2004). According to FCS (2009), the main instrument for laws and regulations for the non-profit sector, including CSOs, is the Non-Governmental Act (Act No. 24 of 2002). This was intended to unify the law for the governance of all NGOs in Tanzania. Instead, the new law has only streamlined the registration of NGOs and forced NGOs registered under other laws to comply with its provisions. However, it has neither invalidated nor prohibited registration of NGOs under other laws.

There are various laws and regulatory frameworks impacting on the work of CSOs, including the Societies Act (2002), which controls registration of societies, and the Cooperative Societies Act, which governs the formation, constitution, registration and operation of cooperative societies. The multiplicity of these laws sometimes confuses CSOs and NGOs as to which specific regulatory framework they belong to.

Findings from CSI regional consultations also highlighted that registration procedures for CSOs are cumbersome and bureaucratic. Responding to a question on whether the registration process was quick, 25.4% said it was, whereas 56.6% said it was not. Further, 42.2% of regional stakeholders stated that they were subjected to unreasonable restrictions from government, 40.6% said that while there were restrictions, these were reasonable, and 16.4 % said there were no restrictions.

Related to this, the FCS report (2009) categorically states that generally, although there is a national policy and law on NGOs, Tanzania still lacks a national sector-wide policy and law on CSOs. The existing NGO Law does not cover the activities of all non-profit organisations or make them more accountable to the public. Having a harmonised policy, legal and regulatory environment is very important, as this would have the potential to reduce conflicts and confusions that NGOs and CSOs face in the course of registration and operation, and would also reduce bureaucratism. The FCS study (2008) recommends, among other things, that “registration authorities should simplify and shorten procedures for CSOs/NGOs and their networks.”

What could be summed up from the above findings is that the legal environment does not only restrict the registration, but also operation of civil society. However, despite such limitations, civil society has attempted to advance policy and legal reform engagements. Overall, there have been some fairly successful engagements. For example, civil society teamed up with individual lawyers and journalists demanding political reforms in the early 1990s and these initiatives contributed towards political and related reforms that followed thereafter.

CSOs in Tanzania are not exempted from taxation. Civil society does not directly and automatically fall under the tax regime philanthropy category, although under special conditions, subject to meeting laid down criteria, some CSOs may qualify for tax exemptions related to philanthropic activities.

3.2.6 State-civil society relations

State-civil society relations constitute an important component of civil society operations. The relationship may be characterised by different degrees of autonomy for civil society, dialogue, cooperation and support. Findings from CSI regional stakeholder consultations help shed some light on these variables related to state-civil society relations, as depicted in table 3.2.6/1.

Table 3.2.6/1: Indicator scores for state–civil society relations

Autonomy - state control of civil society	2
Dialogue - state-civil society dialogue	1.71
Cooperation and support	1
Total average	**1.57**

Autonomy
The issue of autonomy is touched upon by findings with regards to CSO registration and operation that we have noted above, where 42.2% of respondents said that CSOs were subjected to unreasonable restrictions. Furthermore, 44.7% of regional stakeholders reported that the state rarely extends undue interference in civil society, while 26% said that it sometimes does.

Dialogue, cooperation and support
A question that asked regional stakeholders whether there is dialogue between the state and civil society resulted in 40.7% of respondents describing dialogue as 'limited' and 49.3% as 'moderate'. This implies that the general relationship between CSOs and the state in Tanzania is one is which there are occasional, but isolated incidents and moments in which the government and CSOs have worked together and cooperated. This was especially the case after the opening up of political pluralism in Tanzania, since the 1990s.

It can be concluded that limited space for civil society engagement with government exists. Civil society has been regularly invited by the government to participate in policy dialogues, including the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty, decentralisation and local government reforms, privatisations, constitutional and legal reform processes. CSOs likewise invite government functionaries to activities and collaborate with the government in some occasions. However, no formal institutional framework to manage and sustain partnership exists at different levels of the government. Furthermore, there are also incidents when the relationship between CSOs and the government changes from mutuality to hostility. This relationship involves particularly CSOs that are advocacy or pressure group oriented.

3.2.7 Private sector-civil society relations

The CSI project in Tanzania also endeavoured to establish the extent to which the private sector relates with civil society, focusing on private sector attitudes towards civil society, corporate social responsibility (CSR) and corporate philanthropy. The table below summarises findings (from regional stakeholders consultations) related to private sector-civil society relations with particular focus on private sector attitude towards civil society and corporate philanthropy and corporate social responsibility.

Table 3.2.7/1: Indicator scores for private-civil society sector relations

Private sector attitude towards civil society	1.51
Corporate philanthropy and corporate social responsibility	1.05
Total average	**1.28**

Private sector attitude to civil society

Findings from regional stakeholder consultations indicate that 60.8% of business associations rarely, 15.3% sometimes and only 15.8% frequently participate in broader civil society initiatives. With regards to the overall private sector attitude toward civil society, 34.4% of respondents were of the view that the attitude is supportive, 27.5% that it is suspicious and 16.0% that it is indifferent. This suggests that private sector attitude towards civil society in general is regarded as moderately welcoming, but the two do not regard each other in full trust. Perceptions that civil society interferes with personal matters would seem to play a large role in the attitudes of the private sector. On the other hand, civil society often regards the private sector as preoccupied with minor issues, such as sponsoring national football games and making occasional gifts, with only marginal effort directed to supporting key societal needs, such as poverty eradication programmes.

Corporate social responsibility (CSR)

53.9% of respondents were of the view that there is limited CSR in Tanzania, 30.5% said that it is moderate and 10.9% that it is insignificant. These data indicate that there is still a long way to go in terms of realising significant CSR in Tanzania.

More recently, the engagement of civil society in the EITI and PWYP coalitions in Tanzania that address the extractive industry has exposed significant ethical issues related to mining sector revenues. At the same time, mining companies' adherence to their corporate social responsibility promises have been inadequate, particularly where livelihood sacrifices by neighbouring communities have been made to give way to large scale mining. The perception is therefore that major companies largely pay lip service to notions of corporate social responsibility, while frequently disregarding the negative social and environmental impacts that generate from their activities.

Corporate philanthropy

Views on corporate philanthropy were essentially captured in the context of findings from the regional stakeholder consultations, as noted above. However, in addition to this, it is worth noting that the 2009 FCS report documents that key stakeholders seem to see potential for CSOs to be financially supported by the private sector. It shows that surveys conducted indicate that 68% of the respondents believe that the private sector could concentrate on funding CSO activities, and 70% that the private sector can build technical capacity of CSOs. It further reported that 50% of respondents were of the opinion that the private sector could help CSOs to acquire office space, as many CSOs do not have modern offices. Last, but not least, the report shows that whereas many government officials and media people preferred the private sector to assist in building the capacity of CSOs. This can therefore be seen as a call to CSOs to diversify sources of funding for their future sustainability, as is also recommended by the 2008 FCS study on CSOs networks.

Relations with other sectors

Apart from interacting with government, CSOs in Tanzania interact with other key stakeholders in the course of executing their visions and missions. Among stakeholders in pursuit of more or less similar general functions (information dissemination and articulation and aggregation of people's interests) are political parties and the media. Currently, there are 18 fully registered parties and there are many media (print and electronic), following liberalisation policies that were introduced in the mid 1980s. These are important parts of the external environment of CSOs. The history of Tanzania indicates that some CSOs have

come to be parents of political parties. A good example is the Tanganyika African Association (TAA), a trade union which was later transformed into Tanganyika African National Union party and fought for the independence of Tanganyika.

In Tanzania, there have been initiatives by some CSOs to establish links with political parties they consider could foster the agenda they stand for. CSOs with particular focuses such as disability rights, gender rights, land rights and education rights have shown collaborative links with parties that have policies which address their respective missions. It is, however, important to note that the regulatory environment tends to somehow frustrate the possibility of networking between CSOs and political parties. This is because CSOs in Tanzania are prohibited by law from engaging in 'politics', and are called upon to be 'non-partisan'. There is no concise and detailed conceptualisation (in legal terms) of what constitutes the 'political' and 'apolitical' for CSOs activities. This sweeping regulation creates a frustrating environment and at times, CSOs are subjected to threats and sanctions of deregistration.

With regards to media-CSOs relations, there is generally a mutual and cooperative relationship between the two in Tanzania. Many media houses report on CSOs issues and at times team up with them when in defence of similar causes, especially of public interests. Some media and CSOs have been witnessed providing similar or related stances on issues such as good governance, fighting corruption or poverty reduction.

3.2.8 Conclusion

This section has demonstrated that there is a moderate external environment which both facilitates and constrains activities of CSOs in Tanzania. There is need for further harmonisation of the legal, regulatory and policy environment. The political playing field is not yet level. There are limitations in citizens' enjoyment of basic rights and freedoms. Low economic power and substantial levels of poverty are part of the challenging environment in which CSOs operate. Both CSOs and the government have high donor dependency. This has potential to compromise the performance and autonomy of CSOs.

Finally, the socio-cultural environment in contemporary Tanzania is not altogether an asset to the effectiveness of CSOs. There is a lack of a coherent national culture, partly due to the impact of globalisation and neo-liberal cultures. There are also some ethnically-based traditions, such as female genital mutilation and belief in witchcraft in some locations, which constrain some CSOs, especially in human rights CSOs. All these limitations and challenges need to be addressed, in order for a more enabling environment for healthier operations of CSOs to be realised. The table below provides the summary of overall scores for the environment dimension.

Table 3.2.8/1: Overall environment dimension scores

Environment dimension	Score
Political context	1.51
Socio-cultural context	1.83
Legal environment	2.23
State–civil society relations	1.57
Private sector-civil society sector relations	1.28
Total average	**1.68**

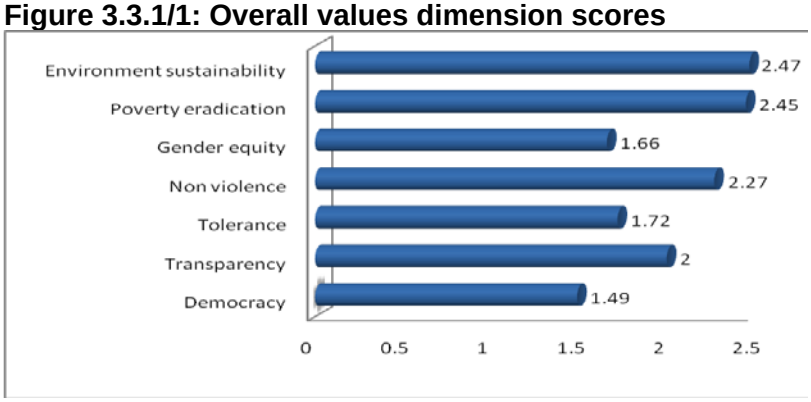
3.3 VALUES

3.3.1 Introduction

This section focuses on the practice of values by CSOs, which entails positive manifestations by CSOs in their routine operations of the normative principles for which they stand. In other words, CSOs are expected to practice and adhere to the values and principles they advocate**.** Findings in this regard show that there are some strides made by CSOs, but more needs to be done. The overall average score, **2.01**, indicates that there are significant achievements, but that it still falls short of ideal, standing at around two thirds of the way towards the maximum score.

The CSI implementation in Tanzania was concerned with the following variables in this context: democracy, transparency, tolerance, non-violence, gender equity, poverty reduction and environmental sustainability. In the following account, an attempt is made to present findings for each of these specific variables. The following graph summarises the scores for each of these sub-dimensions.

Figure 3.3.1/1: Overall values dimension scores



3.3.2 Democracy

Democratic practices within CSOs

Civil society is expected to internalise the promotion of democratic practices as a key value, as well as advocating these. Regional stakeholders were asked to cite examples, in the last year, of practices, actions, campaigns and programmes that aimed at promoting democracy within the sector. 12.0% of respondents cited no examples, 55.6% cited only one or two examples, 26.9% cited several, and 5.6% cited many. This means that there are not many readily available examples of democratic practices within CSOs. This is a big challenge because democratic practice within civil society is one of the core values for a healthy civil society. The following table summarises responses to this question.

Table 3.3.2/1: Democratic practices within CSOs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	none	13	9.1	12.0	12.0
	only one or two examples	60	42.0	55.6	67.6
	several examples	29	20.3	26.9	94.4
	many examples	6	4.2	5.6	100.0
	Total	108	75.5	100.0	

Additionally, discussions in the CSI implementation in Tanzania established that there is a lack of a coherent and enforceable framework among CSOs which could enhance democratic practices by CSOs across the board. It was further established that initiatives toward this have been sporadic and have failed to culminate in a national fully fledged and enforceable framework. There have, for example, been efforts to establish a CSOs/NGOs code of conduct, but as yet this has not progressed. This is one of the biggest challenges to CSOs in Tanzania.

Civil society actions to promote democracy

RSC findings in regard to civil society actions to promote democracy are presented in the table below.

Table 3.3.2/2: Civil society actions to promote democracy

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	insignificant	8	5.6	5.9	5.9
	limited	38	26.6	28.1	34.1
	moderate	66	46.2	48.9	83.0
	significant	23	16.1	17.0	100.0
	Total	135	94.4	100.0	

The above findings from regional stakeholder consultations indicate that 5.9% of respondents said civil society has an insignificant role in promoting democracy, 28.1% said its role was limited, 48.9% were of the view that its role was moderate, and 17.0% said the role was significant. These statistics indicate that civil society in Tanzania has made some moderate strides toward actions or programmes that promote democracy.

In addition to the above statistical data, the CSI project in Tanzania documented that some CSOs have been at the forefront of lobbying and advocating for democratic policy decisions. There have been vocal CSOs, such as Concern for Development Initiatives in Africa, Legal and Human Rights Centre and the Policy Forum. The strong voices and calls for democratic and rights-based approaches to decision making can be seen to have contributed towards the enactment of some legislations' such as the Sexual Offences Special Provisions Act (SOSPA) of 1998 and the Land Act and Village Land Acts of 1999. These have addressed some, if not all, issues that are seen as constraints to advocates of democracy.

Furthermore, efforts to ensure that democratic practices are upheld in the country as a core value, undertaken by CSOs, were manifested through the leadership of the self-appointed NGO Bill Core Group of CSOs, composed of Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP), TANGO, LHRC and HakiElimu. They launched the unsuccessful anti-NGO Bill campaign in Dodoma in November 2002 where they tried to lobby Parliament in favour of CSOs (Kaiza, 2005). It was also established that there are manifestations of some CSOs networks impressively embracing and promoting democratic values (Kweyamba, 2008), as well as other CSOs networks which do embrace them, but relatively less impressively (FCS 2008, 2009). To be more specific, the 2008 FCS report indicates that 36.1% of respondents interviewed on practice of democratic principles within CSOs, said they were satisfactorily observed and 50.7% said they were observed to some extent.

Last, but not least, the CSI implementation in Tanzania revealed that other avenues for influencing or demanding for democratic practices have been expounded by CSOs via social auditing for government public accountability. In the recent past, NGOs have engaged in budget execution monitoring, Public Expenditure Tracking Surveys (PETS), Public Service Delivery Assessment (PSDA) and Corruption Perception Surveys (CPS). These activities have provided essential input to NGOs and CSOs advocacy activities (CPS report (ForDIA, 2008)). All these initiatives are manifestations of CSOs' commitment to values of democratic practices.

3.3.3 Transparency

Corruption within civil society

29.0% of regional stakeholders reported that they see occasional corruption in civil society, 27.4% see frequent corruption, 22.6% felt corruption was very frequent, and 21.0% believe it is rare. These percentages show that corruption practices within civil society are evident and CSOs cannot be seen to be fully 'clean'. This is one of the serious challenges which, if left unabated, may tarnish the strides so far made to promote democracy and good governance. The scores for corruption within civil society are summarised in the following table.

Table 3.3.3/1: Corruption within civil society

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	very frequent	28	19.6	22.6	22.6
	frequent	34	23.8	27.4	50.0
	occasional	36	25.2	29.0	79.0
	very rare	26	18.2	21.0	100.0
	Total	124	86.7	100.0	

Financial transparency of CSOs

Financial accountability was assessed by asking regional stakeholders if they made their financial accounts public. The findings in this regard indicate that 87.3% did and 12.7% did not do so. This is an indication that most CSOs abide by common contemporary financial practices which call for public transparency. The following table summarises the scores.

Table 3.3.3/2 CSOs' financial transparency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	no	14	9.8	12.7	12.7
	yes	96	67.1	87.3	100.0
	Total	110	76.9	100.0	

Civil society actions to promote transparency

With regards to its role in the promotion of government transparency, 46.7% of regional stakeholders said civil society's role is limited, 29.9% that there is moderate role, and 5.8% that its role insignificant. With regards to the question on the promotion of corporate transparency, 41.6% of respondents felt that the contribution of civil society is limited, 28.9% that it is moderate, and 12.5% that it is insignificant. The data on the two questions, on government transparency and corporate transparency, do not differ very much.

3.3.4 Tolerance

Tolerance within civil society
Regional stakeholders were asked whether there are significant forces within civil society that are explicitly racist, discriminatory or intolerant. 37.9% of respondents could identify no examples of such behaviours within civil society, 37.9% could cite only one or two examples, while 18.9% could think of several examples. This implies that majority of CSOs are tolerant and non-discriminatory internally. When asked about the weight of such intolerance forces, only 5.4% of respondents said that such forces dominated civil society, 20.7% that they constituted significant actors within civil society and 47.8% that these were marginalised and isolated forces. This again suggests that the significant forces within civil society are tolerant.

Civil society actions to promote tolerance
A question that asked respondents to cite examples of civil society actions to promote tolerance revealed that 47.2% of respondents could give no examples, 36.1% could give one or two and 13.9% could think of several examples. These figures indicate that CSOs, while internally acknowledging tolerance, do not significantly contribute towards the promotion of tolerance through their actions. A related question asked respondents to assess the magnitude of civil society's role in promoting tolerance at societal level. 11.3% were of the view that civil society's current role in promoting tolerance at the societal level is insignificant, 35.5% felt it was limited, 37.1% said it was moderate. Only 16.1% felt it to be significant. This again implies that civil society could still do more to help promote tolerance in society.

3.3.5 Non-violence

Non-violence within civil society
A question was posed to respondents during regional stakeholder consultations which asked them to describe whether there are forces within civil society that use violence (aggression, hostility, brutality and fighting) to express their interests. 5.7% of respondents said the presence of violence was significant and was practised by mass-based groups, while 17.1% said violence was isolated and was used by isolated groups. 21.9% said violence was occasional and was by isolated groups, while 55.2% said that violence use was extremely rare. This means that the highest percentage, over half of respondents, believe that there is a non-violent culture within civil society.

A related question also asked whether incidents using violence within civil society were denounced by other civil society actors. 4.1% of respondents felt that violence within civil society was never denounced by other civil actors, 21.5% that it was rarely denounced and 27.3% that it was usually denounced. 47.1% of respondents said that violence within civil society was always denounced by other civil society actors. These statistics generally show that violence within civil society is not something that is embraced or entertained by other civil society actors.

Civil society actions to promote non-violence and peace
Turning to the more positive role of civil society in this sphere, participants in regional stakeholder consultations were also asked if they could cite examples of civil society-led public campaigns, actions or programmes dedicated to promoting non-violence and/or peaceful conflict resolution within the last year. 26.1% of respondents could think of no examples, 53.4% could cite one or two examples, 18.2% could think of several and 2.3% could cite many examples. This data indicates that the majority of CSOs are not performing well in promoting non-violence and peaceful conflict resolution. This remains a challenge, as incidents of violent crimes and non-peaceful management of conflicts are notable in Tanzania, as well as neighbouring countries.

A related question also asked in the consultations was to assess the current role of civil society in promoting non-violence and peaceful conflict resolution at the societal level. 9.4% of respondents said that the role was insignificant, 29.9% that the role was limited, 33.9% believed it to be moderate, while 26.8% felt it was significant. What can be concluded is that CSOs are still challenged to elevate their role in promoting non-violence and peaceful conflict resolution at the societal level, given that it is only 9.4% of respondents who acknowledged that they are doing a significant job in this area.

3.3.6 Gender equity

Gender equity within the civil society arena and gender equitable practices within CSOs

Regional stakeholder respondents were also asked whether there are significant forces within civil society that are sexist or discriminatory against women. 26.9% of respondents could cite no examples of sexist behaviour, 34.5% could think of one or two examples, 24.4% could cited several, while 14.3% could offer many examples. The percentages of 'several' and 'many' responses amount to less than 40%, which suggests that the remaining percentages constitute CSOs which are not sexist and discriminatory against women. This is an indication that majority of CSOs generally have acceptable attitudes towards the status of women.

A related question intended to establish the extent to which sexist practices within civil society were publicly denounced by other civil society actors. 8.5% of respondents said that other civil society actors would never denounce sexist practices within civil society, 20.2% said that this rarely happens, 46.5% said that this would usually happen, and 24.8% stated that this would always happen. The data implies that the majority of other civil society actors denounce sexist practices within civil society. The 46.5% 'usually' and 24.8% 'always' responses amount to an impressive reaction.

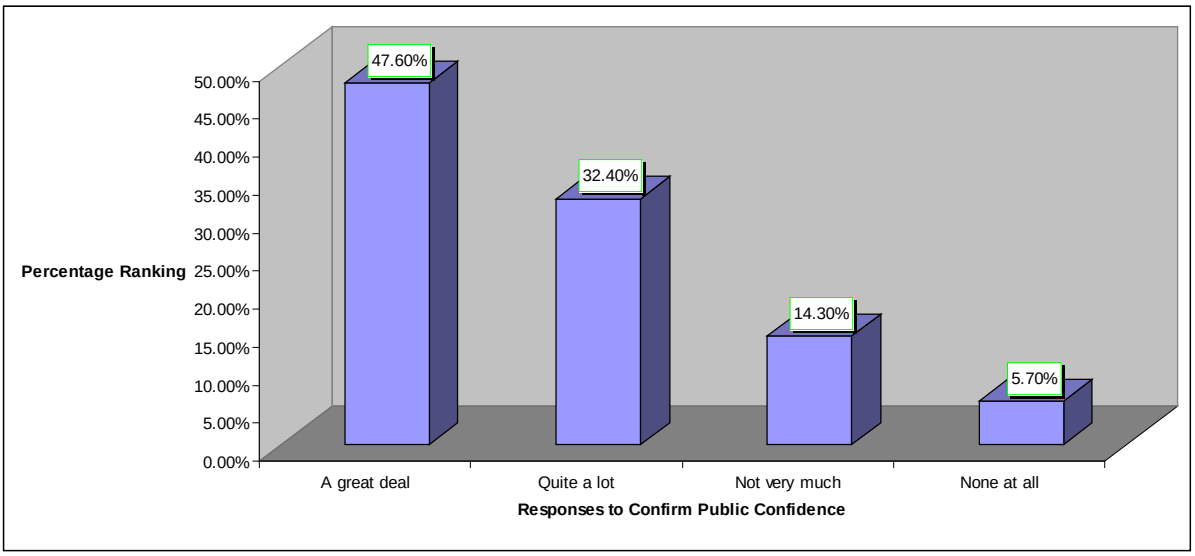
Civil society actions to promote gender equity

Regional stakeholders were further asked about their proactive roles in promoting gender equity. The first question asked respondents to cite examples, in the last year, which indicate there are civil society public campaigns, actions or programmes dedicated to promoting gender equity. 8.0% of respondents could offer no examples, 58.0% cited only one or two examples, 22.3% cited several, and 11.6% could think of many examples. This means that civil society is not doing impressively at promoting gender equity. 22.3% 'several examples' and 11.6% 'many examples' responses are do not suggest a strong performance.

The other question asked respondents for their assessment on the current role of civil society in promoting gender equity at the societal level. Responses were that 2.3% said the role was insignificant, 24.8% said it was limited, 41.4% said the role was moderate, and finally 31.6% said it was significant. As in the previous question, performance here is also not impressive, given that only 31.6% of the respondents acknowledged that the current role of civil society in promoting gender equity was significant.

However, despite the above seemingly unimpressive performance, the CSI in Tanzania was able to capture that there are also some generally impressive initiatives by women's CSOs towards heightening participation of women in governance in Tanzania (WVS, 2001). WVS reports that 47.60% and 32.40% respondents have 'a great deal' of confidence or 'quite a lot' confidence respectively in women's movement in Tanzania. This creates a total of 80% of those interviewed appreciating the role of the women's movement in Tanzania. The following figure summarises this data.

Figure 3.3.6/1: Confidence in the women's movement



Source: World Values Survey, 2001

The above impressive performance of the women's movement cannot be justly comprehended without recognising the role of the NGOs and CSOs that have been behind the movement. These have, in some cases, been the engines of specific interventions that have achieved impact via lobbying, advocacy and related strategies and tactics. Gender equity interventions by civil society need to be strengthened and promoted.

3.3.7 Poverty eradication

Civil society actions to eradicate poverty

The strength of poverty eradication actions in civil society was assessed by asking regional stakeholder participants whether, in the last year, they could cite examples of civil society public campaigns, actions or programmes dedicated to eradication of poverty. 7.6% could think of none, 50.4% cited only one or two examples, 30.3% cited several, and 11.8% could think of many examples. This implies that only around 40% of CSOs are seen to be actively engaged in the field of poverty eradication, accruing the 30.3% 'several examples' responses and 11.8% 'many examples' responses. There is therefore a challenge for civil society to broaden its engagement with issues related to poverty eradication; this is one of the most serious challenges, not only in Tanzania, but also in most African countries.

Another related question sought respondents' opinions on how they assess the current overall efforts and role of civil society towards poverty eradication. 3.6% said the role was insignificant, 28.3% that it was limited, 35.5% that the role was moderate, and 32.6% said the role was significant. This data suggests a slightly higher performance when compared to responses to the first question. This implies that perceptions of sectoral performance in addressing poverty eradication are higher, than assessments of individual CSOs interventions.

3.3.8 Environmental sustainability

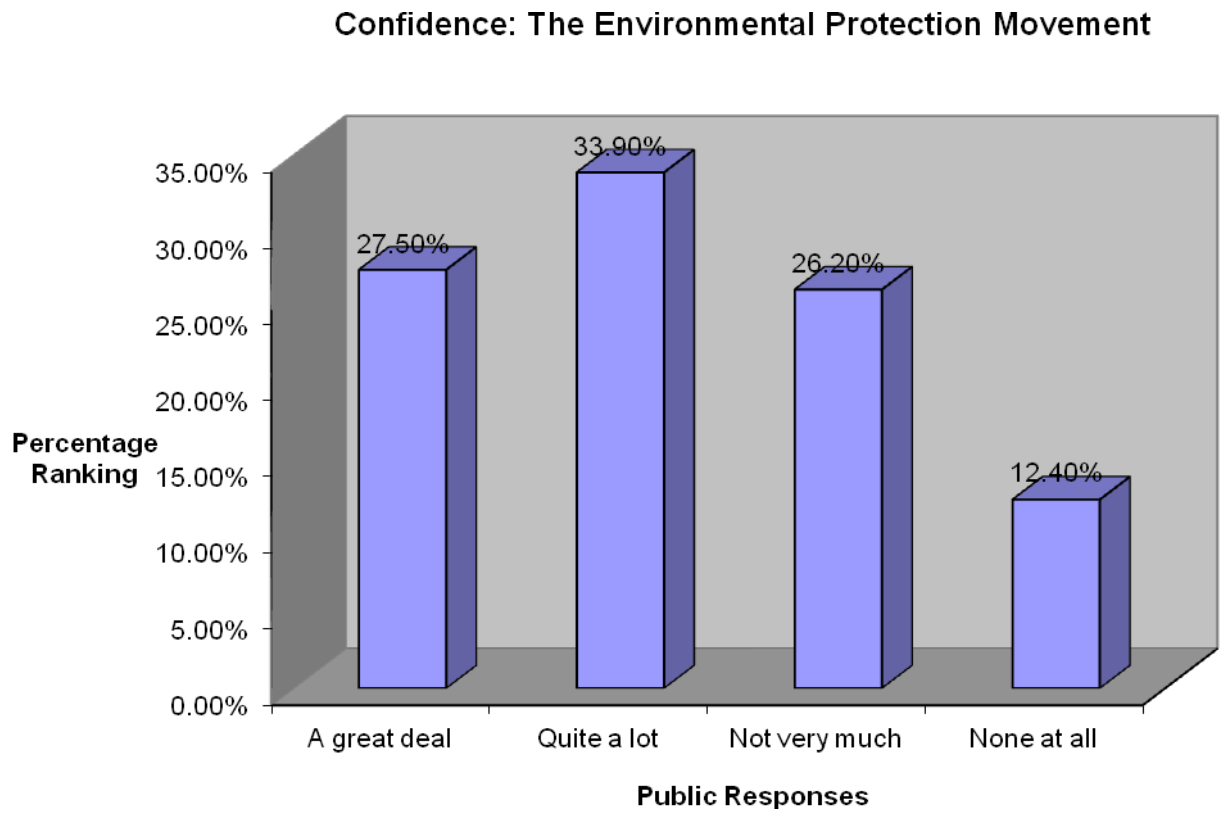
Civil society actions to promote environmental sustainability
Priority on the value of environmental sustainability in civil society was assessed through a question that asked whether, in the last year, respondents could cite examples of civil society public campaigns, actions or programmes dedicated to protecting the environment. 5.1% could cite no examples, 56.8% could think of only one or two, 28.8% cited several examples and 9.3% cited many. Through these responses, the majority of CSOs are not performing well in promoting environmental protection. This is one of the challenges to CSOs because environmental protection is one of the topical and critical issues in Tanzania and globally.

In addition to the above findings related, the CSI captured that there are a number of CSOs focusing on environmental issues, while others addressed multiple issues while also concerning themselves with the issue of environmental conservation and care. Mutakyahwa and Robinson (2004) provide interesting data regarding how NGOs and CSOs uphold and are concerned with promotion of environmental values in Tanzania. The following paragraph summarises it:

"…A large number of NGOs register an interest in environmental issues; they range from small-scale initiatives working on localised issues to larger-scale activities that seek to influence the government's and general public's understanding and behaviour more widely. There are many ways in which NGOs interpret and promote the term 'environment'. Some NGOs focus on the quality of the living environment in urban and/or rural areas. Others are more concerned with conservation, protection of species and/or the relationships between nature reserves and local communities. Others are concerned with assisting people to develop sustainable livelihoods - in other words, to be able to manage their local resources for the benefit of economic growth but in ways that do not destroy locally-available resources or the environment. Yet other NGOs emphasise the problem of global warming and the need for information sharing and lobbying" (p.55.)

Furthermore, the World Values Survey (WVS, Tanzania, 2001) also sheds light on how the public perceive the environmental protection movement in Tanzania.

Figure 3.3.8/1: Confidence in the environmental protection movement



Source: World Values Survey, 2001

The WVS 2001 findings in the above graph indicate that the public generally believe that the environmental protection movement is making a difference and has a promising future. Summing up those who provided responses that they had 'a great deal' of confidence (27.50%) or 'quite a lot' (33.90%) gives a total of 61.40% as signals of positive faith in the movement. This is a promising sign, recognising the fact that CSOs and other stakeholders involved in environmental protection movement are making a difference.

3.3.9 Conclusion

From this section, it is evident that some strides have been made in as far as CSOs' practice of values. Some good achievements are noted in the area of democracy, gender equity, environmental protection, tolerance and non-violence. There are however areas revealed as needing more concerted efforts, including: enhancing practices that would help fight against corruption, promoting transparency and increasing interventions related to poverty eradication. Generally the degree to which CSOs have complemented government activities in providing social services has raised the sector's profile in terms of responding to societal needs among the public. According to regional stakeholders, the proactive tendency of some CSOs in foreseeing and pursuing issues developing in society has also generated more trust and acceptance, in comparison to the dysfunctional institutions of the state.

The above overall impressive strides are also justified by other recent research findings. The 2009 FCS Annual Report, on the topic of public awareness about CSO activities, shows there is increased awareness and visibility of CSOs operating in Tanzania, especially in areas where a particular CSO has worked or delivered goods or services. 81% of community members interviewed believe CSOs have benefitted them, while 94% of other stakeholders perceived CSOs as beneficial to the community. A further concerted effort needs to be made

to ensure that the practice of values is evident not only within CSOs, but also becomes part and parcel of the daily life of the public in Tanzania. The table below summaries the overall score of the values dimension.

Table 3.3.9/1: Overall values dimension scores

Values dimension	Score
Democracy	1.49
Transparency	2
Tolerance	1.72
Non violence	2.27
Gender equity	1.66
Poverty eradication	2.45
Environment sustainability	2.47
Total average	**2.01**

3.4 IMPACT

3.4.1 Introduction

This section analyses the extent to which civil society in Tanzania is active and successful in fulfilling essential functions, related to the five sub-dimensions of the impact dimension in the CSI methodology. These sub-dimensions are: influencing public policy, holding the state and private corporations accountable, responding to social interests, empowering people and meeting societal needs. Generally, the findings illustrate that civil society is an active player in the social and political landscape of Tanzania, but the degree of impact varies, depending on the issues addressed. The overall score of the impact dimension is **1.57**.

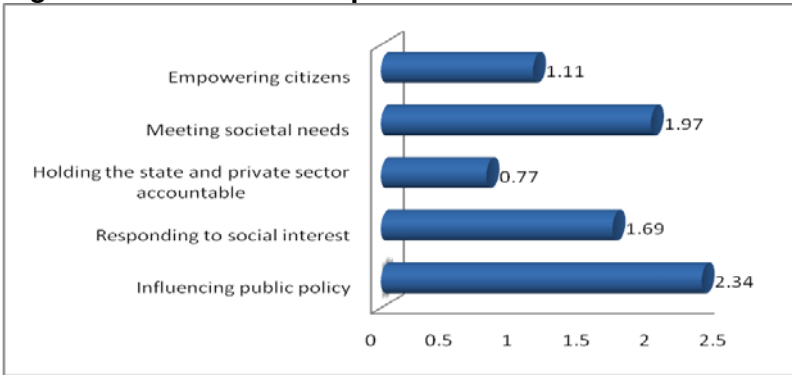
In order to measure civil society impact, three issues were identified by the NAG as being among the most important social concerns in Tanzania, namely transparency, gender equity and human rights. According to the NAG, examination of these three issues would help form an accurate picture of the impact of civil society in the five areas identified above.

Transparency: High levels of corruption, both grand and petty corruption, have been seen as affecting people's access to service and rights to decent living, including reducing the state's ability to function effectively and maintain its responsibility to the public in general. In this case, civil society is seen as an effective player in advocating and pressurising stakeholders, individuals and corporations alike, for accountability, ethics and responsibility

Gender equity: Civil society in Tanzania is actively engaged in addressing gender-based discrimination and inequities, partly upheld by customary practices, sexism and structural inadequacies have perpetuated female abuses.

Human rights activities: These involve advocacy against the violation of basic human, political and civil rights that have plagued Tanzania over the years. These issues concern individual and collective rights, and they touch on human rights abuses "involving the police, a sluggish court system, marginalisation of certain groups such as women, children" (Mhina, 2007: 114) and communities on the margins such as artisanal and small-scale miners, pastoralists and hunter/gatherer societies. Increasingly, human rights advocacy has also focused on witchcraft–related abuses, such as albino killings and killings of older people.

Figure 3.4.1/1: Overall impact dimension scores



3.4.2 Influencing public policy

In this section, the impact of civil society in Tanzania on policy processes is assessed, including the impact of CSO advocacy on selected policy issues. These issues are discussed in terms of how active and successful activities have been in influencing policies. For example, civil society organising and/or lobbying government to provide services to the population were mentioned as among the best achievements at community level. This sub-dimension was given a score of 2.34. According to secondary data, civil society is perceived as quite active on social policy-related issues, but this impact is limited because of organisational and capacity constraints in effectively engaging marginalised groups in society to mobilise for change. Their effectiveness is gauged by the degree to which public policy emanates from the civil society agenda or pressures. Civil society engagement in political aspects is widely acknowledged. Efforts of advocacy groups pushing for improving governance in resource and environmental management, civic awareness/education and voter education during elections, and conducting a bribery index are discernible examples. Comparatively however, civil society is regarded as having more impact in influencing social policy, scoring 2.66, than it is in influencing public policy, with a score of 2.02.

Some examples of advocacy initiatives include:

- The workers movement (TFTU) in 2010 seeking improvement of the welfare of public low-salaried employees.
- The movement to protest against privatisation of public corporations (railways, power utility corporations, and other parastatal organisations), 1998.
- Peasants/pastoralist movement against diminishing grazing lands due to privatisation of lands (former wheat farms in northern Tanzania and ranches in central Tanzania) (2001).
- A growing culture of writing commentaries and letters to editors reflecting opposing views against unpopular policies, positions, actions or practices of the government.

Civil society's impact on social policy

Regional consultations indicated that civil society is indeed very active on social policy – 88.6% of respondents felt it was, with only 11.4% claiming that it is not active at all.

Advocacy has not always been easy. Haki Elimu's activities in promoting, advocating and monitoring the government's Primary Education Development Programme, early 2005, led it to publish analytical reports through the media on the situation of education provision in schools, to which it sought public response. Their activities earned them a formal prohibition by the government. Community-based systems of governance of resources are also a response by governments to decentralise and empower certain aspects of management to the people, which they have been demanding.

Table 3.4.2/1: Civil society impact on social policy

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
	Very active	117	88.6	88.6	88.6
	not active at all	15	11.4	11.4	100.0
	Total	132	100.0	100.0	

Source: RSC, 2010

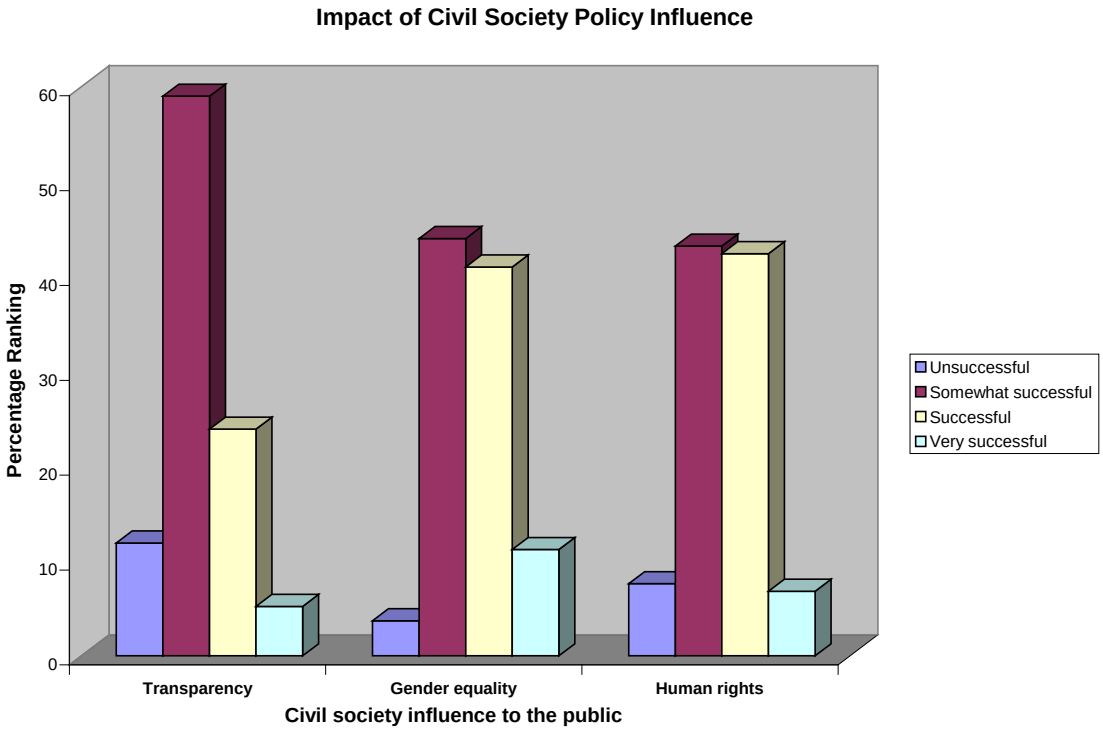
Civil society's impact on public policy

Civil society activities have contributed towards positive developments in human rights, such as the institution of the Sexual Offenses Special Provisions Act of 1998 (SOSPA), which came largely a result of pressure from gender activist bodies. Other examples include public litigation against official corruption in politics (in the electoral process); follow-up and reporting on human rights violations, including the pressure to deal with evictions of artisanal and small-scale miners; and effective cooperation of civil society with the Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance (CHRGG) established in 2001 on related matters. All of these can be considered examples of success. CSOs also participate in the development of poverty eradication strategies and national budgeting process. National budgeting processes were an exclusive government endeavour in the past, but with pressure, civil society's contribution had been integrated, with a gender perspective. This has allowed a more inclusive approach, enabling more sensitive consideration of public demands.

Civil society's impact on key policy issues

According to the RSC scores, civil society's impact on key policy issues is considered as somewhat successful, being more successful in influencing gender rights and human rights, with less influence on issues related to transparency, one of Tanzania's major concerns. The table below based on the data from Regional Stakeholder Consultations indicate the extent to which civil society have influenced policy in Tanzania.

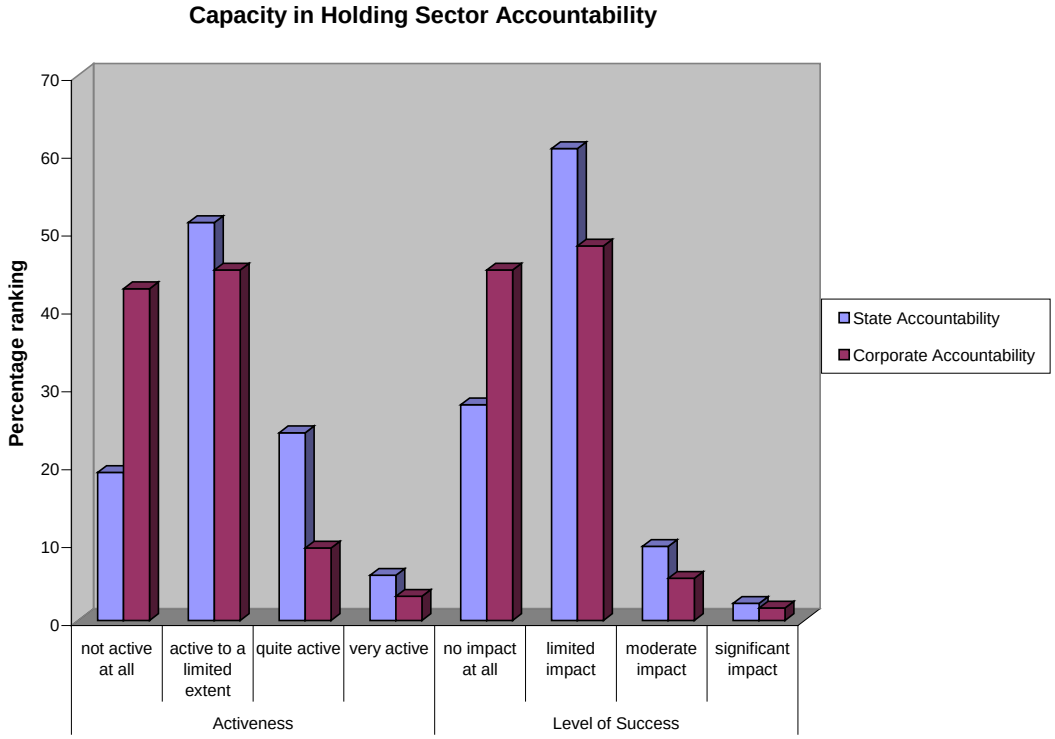
Figure 3.4.2/1: Civil society impact on selected policy areas



3.4.3 Holding the state and private sector accountable

Civil society in Tanzania is perceived as having different capacities in holding the state or private sector accountable, with a score of 1.03 for holding the state accountable, compared to a modest score of 0.5 for influencing private sector companies.

Figure 3.4.3/1: Civil society impact In holding state and private sector to account



Holding the state accountable

Civil society in Tanzania is seen by the RSC as only active to a limited extent (49%) in issues related to holding the state accountable, while only 5.6% of RSC participants perceived it as very active. Hence, its success rate is estimated by most, 58.0%, as only limited, while 26.6% see it as having no impact at all.

Holding private sector corporations accountable

According to the RSC data, 40.6% of respondents felt that civil society was active only to a limited extent in holding private sector corporations accountable, while slightly less, 38.5%, felt that civil society is not active at all in this area. In this regard, civil society's success rate was estimated as quite low, being rated as significant by only 1.4% and having moderate impact by 4.9% percent. The pressure by civil society on corporate responsibility is however growing, amidst significant state protectionism, and recent coalitions and movements such as the Publish What You Pay (PWYP) Tanzania chapters are evident of these activities and influences.

3.4.4 Responding to social interests

The average score for this dimension is 1.69. This was acquired from the assessment of civil society's responsiveness, assessed as quite high, although participants in the NAG perceived that public trust in civil society is still quite low, which presents an inhibiting factor to responsiveness, as is indicated below.

Table 3.4.4/1: Indicator scores for responding to social interest

Responding to social interest	
Responsiveness	2.73
Public trust	0.64
Total average	**1.69**

Responsiveness
In responding to society's priority concerns, civil society in Tanzania is seen as quite successful in campaigning for the areas of gender equity (41.0%) and human rights (42.7%) but relatively successful in campaigning for transparency (47.6%)

On average, indicators that civil society in Tanzania is responsive to social concerns could be seen in terms of its growing membership and its increasing dominance in the political landscape and in media campaigns. Even though respondents indicated that quite successful examples of responsiveness are few, among the most prominent are campaigns to promote democracy. There are numerous examples of this, including on good governance in parliament by the Foundation for Civil Society and campaigns to sensitise Ihefu Basin and Ngorongoro pastoralists who were evicted from their pasture land.

Public trust
People report high confidence in religious institutions, as indicated in WVS data, which states that 64.8% have a great deal and 28% have quite a lot of confidence in churches (WVS, 2001). This may reflect a strong tradition of community service: faith-based organisations (FBOs) own 491 out of 3,060 public health centres (URT, 2003) and many schooling facilities, with which they deliver health and educational services. Moreover, 39.6% of Tanzanians have a great deal, and 36.2% have quite a lot, of confidence in the press while 34.9% have both a great deal and quite a lot of confidence in labour unions.

The fact that 57.3% of people have a great deal of confidence and 25.8% have quite a lot of confidence in the government (WVS, 2001) implies civic engagement in Tanzania is not high. However as discussed earlier, the public has high confidence in the women's movement, rating 47.6% for a great deal of confidence and 32.4% for quite a lot of confidence.

Even though the labour movement in Tanzania is felt to be quite inactive, with various restrictions on its practice and enduring questions about its autonomy, the WVS 2001 shows that many Tanzanians demonstrate commendable optimism and confidence in the labour movement and labour unions. This can be seen through the percentage of those who responded as having a great deal of confidence (34.9%), with the same amount saying they have quite a lot of confidence. The sum of these is 69.8%, or over two thirds of those interviewed. This is an impressive confidence level. However, given the more recent challenges labour unions have faced, some of which have been noted above, it is possible that the confidence might have dropped slightly.

3.4.5 Empowering citizens

The score for empowering citizens is 1.1, indicating a moderate impact by civil society on the public. This impact on empowerment is discussed below, illustrating the impact on the public by civil society in its endeavours of informing citizens, building capacities and empowering marginalised groups.

Table 3.4.5/1: Indicator scores for empowering citizens

Empowering citizens	
Informing/educating citizens	1.35
Building capacity for collective action	1.99
Empowering marginalised people	0.91
Empowering women	0.56
Supporting livelihoods	0.73
Total average	**1.11**

Informing and educating citizens
From the NAG assessment, the average score given to this indicator is 1.35. Respondents in the RSCs indicated that civil society is quite active in undertaking public information or public education activities, scoring 32.9% for quite active and 43.4% for active to a limited extent. Sensitising and awareness creation on HIV prevention is among the key areas that civil society is engaged in, and many CSOs operate both as advocacy and service provision organisations addressing HIV/AIDS. Advocacy on gender-based abuses, such as domestic violence and the rights to inheritance for widows, have been ongoing for a long time and were suggested as very instrumental in informing communities.

Building capacity for collective action
Common initiatives of people mobilising or coming together to address a specific problem in Tanzania may include coming together for subscribing money for the construction of a road, or a social service facility – such as establishing Savings and Credit Cooperative facilities (SACCOS), or constructing a health or education facility.

There are also conspicuous attempts by certain groups in society to come together to make demands such as the rights to fair employment conditions, for example by academics (UDSM, 2009), higher education students in most institutions 2009/2010 and the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA), the workers' movement. Community-based environmental rights protection groups are emerging and growing strong.

However, this was seen as not so regular and was possibly isolated among specific groups. In the community survey, it was perceived that mobilising around a specific problem or in order to address a specific need was not so high, although on average people would participate in solving a common need as illustrated in the two issues below.

Table 3.4.5/2: Building capacity for collective action

Issue	Score
Attend/participate in the community coming together around a specific problem	0.81
Attend/participate in directly solving a specific problem/addressed a specific need	1.19

Empowering marginalised people
Many examples are evident of civil society activities in empowering marginalised groups, including by forming coalitions to press for inclusive governance systems to ensure social justice – such as the Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP) and FemAct. A few other examples include the fight for the rights of pastoralists led by Pastoralists Indigenous NGO (PINGOs Forum); action against female circumcision and abuse of women by WOWAP and TGNP; and civic and voter education, which has been undertaken by numerous CSOs in Tanzania. However, from the community survey, the score given to the rate at which people attend or participate in issues specifically for helping poor people in the community improve their lives was 0.91, indicating that it was not as regular.

Empowering women
Several and diverse initiatives to empower women exist, although most are urban based. Nevertheless coalitions and networks addressing issues related to economic, social, legal and political empowerment such as TGNP or FemAct, including small-credit facilities, are growing and have touched on women's and gender relations in Tanzania. More women are standing for elections (October 2010 national elections), and the advocacy for 50-50% representation in parliament is gaining momentum. However, overall, community survey respondents did not indicate that civil society's engagement in helping women in the community improve their lives as significant. The score given for this aspect was 0.56.

Building social capital
Although neither the regional stakeholder consultations nor community survey sought direct response on the issue of building social capital, its assessment can be judged from the other indicators in the sub-dimension of empowering citizens as presented above. Examples include those where civil society was able to build in people the skills and capacities to mobilise and network together and to pursue issues of their interest as informed citizens, including setting up income generation activities.

Supporting livelihoods
Supporting livelihoods through facilitation of income-generating activities, creating a savings culture through SACCOS, and promoting positive living through HIV/AIDS related interventions, are among the primary activities of CSOs in communities. Many community-based CSOs are formed with the objective of livelihood improvement, although CSOs at these levels are usually constrained by lack of adequate resources and skilled personnel.

In the community survey the aspect of people participating in helping community members to set up income generating activities earned an average score of 0.73, illustrating that although there are several activities designed to improve livelihoods, these are not as wide-ranging as they could be.

3.4.6 Meeting societal needs

The average score for meeting societal needs was 1.97, an average score among the sub-dimensions of the impact dimension. This is not surprising because although civil society is seen to have growing visibility in both private and public spheres, the RSC participants indicated that sometimes CSOs are challenged by inadequate resources to make their impacts relevant, and the fragmentation of CSOs, several of them dealing with similar issues, tends to lead to duplication of efforts rather than efficiency. Hence although, to a large extent, civil society has complemented government obligations in provision of social services, and has also acted as watchdogs, in the case of inconsistencies or discrimination, it has been only averagely successful.

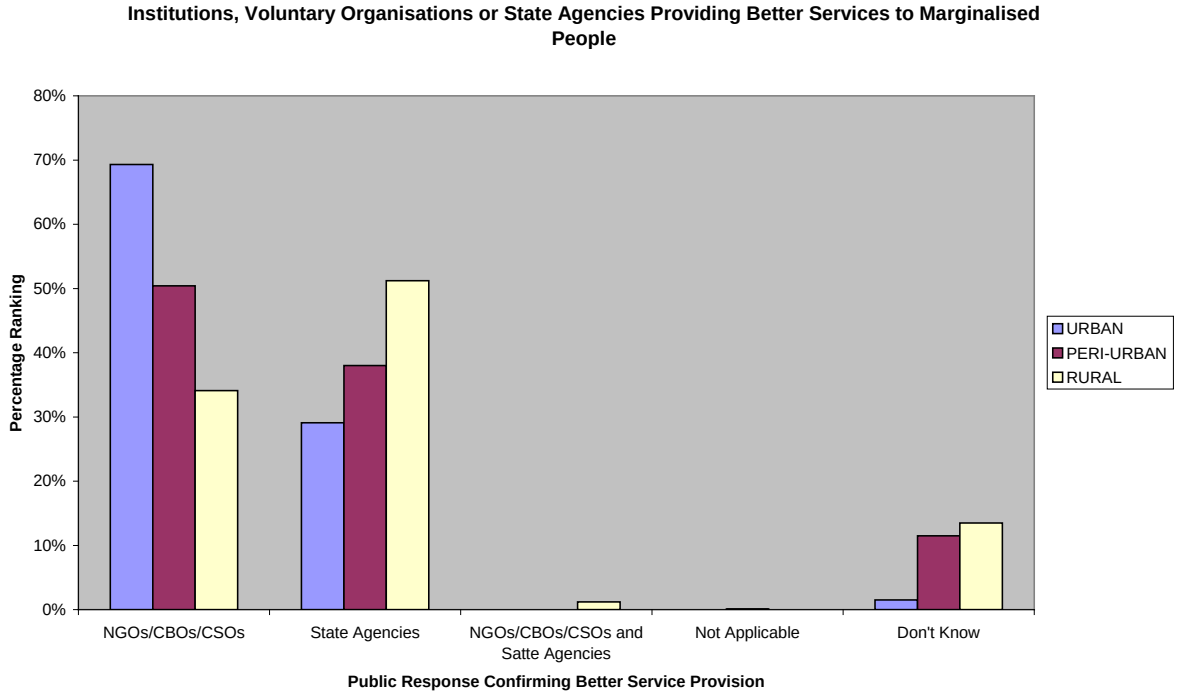
Lobbying for state service
Secondary data indicates certain policy gains due to CSOs lobbying activities for services in the water sector, education, health, HIV/AIDS and legal measures or rights. Growing space for civil society activity in Tanzania has allowed people to question the government on issues of their concern, such as poor roads, incomes and questionable efficiency of public corporations. 51.7% of the respondents agreed that civil society does indeed lobby for state service provision, and 19.6% negated that contention. The most common area mentioned in the lobbying was for better education provision.

The success rate was regarded as average, with 6.3% of the community survey respondents claiming that this lobbying was unsuccessful, 45.5% believing that it was somewhat successful, 12.6% saying that efforts were successful but only 1.4% of respondents stating that this lobbying was very successful.

Meeting social needs directly
Meeting societal needs was awarded a score of 2.0 by the NAG. In both the community survey and RSC, most respondents were aware of civil society's initiatives in meeting societal needs directly. This was evident in the cumulative score on whether civil society has been successful in meeting society needs directly; which received a 98.5% score in community survey. According to secondary data, the Foundation for Civil Society (FCS) Tanzania has established that CSOs have become important actors for the delivery of social services and the implementation of other development programmes**,** as a complement to

government action, or by advocating for services and institutions that the state fails to or does not have a responsibility to provide, but which citizens consider as important or necessary. The figure below illustrates how civil society is regarded as the most significant player in terms of providing services to marginalised people, more than the state, while CSO-state collaboration in these services is seen as negligible.

Figure 3.4.6/1: Comparison between agency types on the level of provision of social services



Source: CSI Community Survey, 2010

External stakeholders attribute civil society as active and visible in directly meeting pressing societal needs more through service delivery, and the promotion of self-help initiatives. The sector's visibility is more evident in the provision of social service and economic facilities. For example, the non-government sector provides more hospitals than the government.

Table 3.4.6/1: Share of health facilities between government and CSOs 1999

Facilities	Government	Voluntary		Parastatal	Private	Total
		Church	Non-church			
Hospitals	81	83	2	17	45	228
Health centres	284	30	13	6	11	344
Dispensaries	2,512	450	274	260	780	4,276
Total health facilities	2,877	563	289	283	836	4,848

Source: Mhina, 2007, p 81

However, the impact in the direct provision of other services such as legal rights services, and services to address women's issues, such as domestic abuse, are regarded as average. This is evident as only 10% of stakeholders in the RSC discussions felt civil society had been successful, while 56% indicated that they were not successful at all. Nevertheless, secondary data indicate a certain degree of policy gains due to CSOs lobbying activities for services in the water sector, education, health, HIV/AIDS and legal measures or rights.

Meeting needs of marginalised groups

Civil society in Tanzania has been exemplary in making demands for the rights of marginalised groups, even if advocacy has not always met with success. Policy gains due to CSOs lobbying activities are evident in the sectors of water supply, in education and health provision, in legal services and in HIV/AIDS related services. National and regional based organisations, such as the National Coalition for People Living with HIV and AIDS (NACOPHA) have been able to advance their needs which have been incorporated in the Tanzania National HIV and AIDS Policy (2010, revised draft).

The table below presents data from the community survey on the categories of institutions assessed as providing best services to marginalised people, such as the poor or women and people in other categories (e.g. people with disabilities, traditional pastoralists).

Table 3.4.6/2: Agency types assessed as providing best services to marginalised groups

	Institution	**Percentage**
1	NGO/CBO/CSO	49.5%
2	State agencies	36.8%
3	NGO/CBO/CSO and state agencies	0.3%
5	Don't know	12.6%
	Total	100

Civil society institutions are indicated as providing better services than state agencies at a considerable higher rate. However, there is no significant difference in the level of assistance that people receive when they turn to either a CSO or a state agency for help, as the CS data indicated. The quality of services given to marginalised people was therefore given an average score of 1.50.

3.4.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, the overall score of the impact dimension, which is 1.58, indicates that the impact of civil society in Tanzania is somewhat evident, but not yet at a high level. This is drawn from both the RSC and community survey, and the assessment of the NAG. The highest score given to the indicator on influencing public policy, 2.34, implies that to a large extent civil society in Tanzania has become a reliable forum among the general public, although it has still quite low impact in holding both the state and private sector accountable, given an average score of 0.77. However, often challenges arise due to inadequate information or knowledge, or inability to access government attention or documents on time because of historical bureaucracies. It is evident that civil society in Tanzania is indeed growing into a force to be reckoned with.

Table 3.4.7/1: Overall impact dimension scores

Impact dimension	Score
Influencing public policy	2.34
Holding the state and private sector accountable	0.77
Responding to social interest	1.69
Empowering citizens	1.11
Meeting societal needs	1.97
Total average	**1.57**

4. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF TANZANIAN CIVIL SOCIETY

The general perception gathered from the CSI was that the role of civil society in Tanzania is growing and that it engages a good number of the people in activities and operations. The social and political environment in Tanzania was also seen as being conducive for the development of civil society. Some challenges, including limited skills and occasional state intervention in certain civil society processes, however do exist. Specifically, the strengths and weaknesses include the following:

4.1 Strengths

(i) Breadth of country coverage: The wide variation of CSOs in Tanzania includes organisations such as charities, development, non-governmental, community based and faith based organisations; and social movements, self-help groups, trade unions, women's organisations, professional associations, business associations, coalitions and advocacy groups, implying that civil society is active in a range of societal issues with quite extensive coverage.

(ii) Networking: The establishment of umbrella organisations, including sector networks such as those in HIV/AIDS or environmental protection, promotes joint advocacy efforts and information sharing.

(iii) Political will from government: There is recognition by government of civil society activities in Tanzania, including its engagement and participation in some public processes such as development and review of poverty eradication strategies, budget process, and in other sectors.

(iv) Skills in operations: Many CSOs have elaborate visions and missions (including programmes and guidelines) to inform their operations, showing that they strive to abide to certain principles. For example, those CSOs working on poverty, on advocacy on democracy, transparency and accountability do not only design strategies to guide their operations, but also show skills in pursuing the same.

4.2 Weaknesses

Among the major weaknesses and challenges to civil society included the following:

(i) Inadequate resources: Many groups work under stringent conditions, are under resourced, and many more are heavily donor dependent. Donor dependence has implied that to some extent, the objectives and activities of some CSOs may be donor driven, losing their local ownership in the process. Inadequate resources also affected networks and CSO umbrella bodies.

(ii) Urban bias: CSOs were seen to be largely urban-based, with those communities in the margins such as in the rural areas less represented.

(iii) Lack of democratic leadership: One-person shows, quite often the founding individuals of a CSO, dominate smaller CSOs while the larger ones lack adequate and skilled staff to run operations. Nepotism and, sometimes, egoism prevail in some CSOs, and this is because of a single person being able to dictate terms in an organisation

(iv) Political interference: Occasional state interference in civil society activities such as public action, rallies and protests was seen as affecting the social environment, sometimes weakening them but also tarnishing the initiatives and esteem of these organisations.

(v) Inadequate skilled personnel: This was seen as a result of inadequate remuneration comparative to other sectors, making it harder to attracted skilled personnel. Hence some organisations resort to semi-skilled untrained

staff, while they lack the resources to support training for required skills and capacities. This has affected performance.

(vi) Low capacity to illustrate achievements: Competing claims on impact between the government and civil society have diminished the acknowledgement of the real impact from civil society. This is because CSOs' ability to assess their own impacts is low, some impacts are a process and take a long time, and in most cases impacts are not documented. But at the same time, there is significant duplication of efforts by several CSOs.

(vii) Limited collaboration between stakeholders in the civil society: There is limited collaboration of CSOs involved in different aspects of development, creating conflicts or less effective interventions.

(viii) Low confidence and innovation: Lack of flexibility and ability to innovate on the part of many CSOs in addressing the changing issues of society, for example, democracy or transparency, possibly make them bogged down in out-dated paradigms. This was sometimes seen as simply being dictated by a founding person's perceptions and wishes rather than universally acknowledged values. Donor influence was also identified as compelling some organisations to shelve their primary objectives and respond to donor funding demands.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

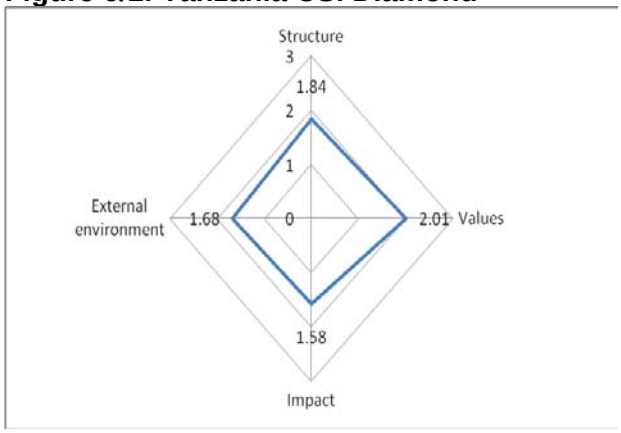
In the light of the above findings the following recommendations are made:

1. A comprehensive capacity and needs assessment, accompanied by a capacity building programme for informal and unregistered civil society groups in Tanzania, is needed. This should be developed, designed and carried out by existing fully grown and expertise-based CSOs. To undertake the programme effectively, government policy directives to local government authorities' facilitation of the efforts is vital. The UNDP, together with Tanzania CSI stakeholders, specifically NAG members, should take the central role of resource and social capital mobilisation to support the programme.
2. There is need to address limitations that are associated with the political context of the environment. This includes heightening civic education among the general public, having a more conducive national constitution, and amending or appealing against legislations and laws that constrain realisation of basic rights and freedoms by citizens.
3. There is need for a further concerted effort to fight corruption as it acts as a stumbling block to CSOs' missions and visions, as well as something that is needed to enhance good governance and rule of law in Tanzania.
4. The government and CSOs need to reduce donor dependency (especially funding that comes from outside Tanzania) by exploring and exploiting domestic funding potentiality. This challenges both parties to develop programmes that could attract potential funders, including the domestic private sector.
5. National economic growth that has a significant impact on people's lives is strongly recommended in order to reduce poverty levels among the general public.
6. Having a harmonised policy, legal and regulatory environment for civil society is very important, as it has potential to reduce conflicts and confusions that face NGOs and CSOs in the course of registration and operation.
7. There is need for a coherent national culture (partly in resistance to the impact of globalisation and neoliberal cultures) which can inform civil society in broad terms. This will offer a worldview in which civil society activities can be framed and galvanised.
8. There is need for fighting against some ethnically-based traditions such as female genital mutilation and belief in witchcraft in some locations of Tanzania. These not only undermine access to human rights by some Tanzanians but also constrain some CSOs, especially those addressing human rights issues.
9. Education and capacity building is needed to members of CSOs and the society at large.
10. Wider involvement of the mass media is needed in publicising civil society's direction, achievements and challenges.
11. More networking should be facilitated to establish stronger platforms for making demands or pursuing social and public needs.
12. The establishment of a detailed and coherent National CSOs Code of Conduct is urgently needed as this has high potential for promoting practice of values such as democracy, transparency and accountability amongst CSOs in Tanzania.
13. Efforts toward fighting corruption within civil society need to be intensified as this is not only a negative practice on the part of civil society but has become a cancer in the contemporary governance process in many countries of Africa.
14. Civil society needs to broaden its engagement with issues related to poverty eradication because this is one of the serious challenges, not only in Tanzania but in many other African countries. Particular emphasis should be put on interventions by as many different CSOs as possible, because poverty is a cross-cutting issue.

6. CONCLUSION

We conclude this report by presenting the findings of the Tanzania CSI study in the CSI Diamond.

Figure 6/1: Tanzania CSI Diamond



The overall study found that the growth of civil society in Tanzania is steady and relatively slow, but is consistent in all four dimensions of Structure, Environment, Values and Impact.

The Structure dimension has an overall score of **1.84**, indicating it is over the midway point towards the highest score. The implication of this revelation is that after about 15 years of establishment, stabilisation and growth, CSOs are steadily making efforts to consolidate institutions and mobilise the community to become socially relevant.

The overall score for the Values dimension is **2.01**, indicating the extent to which civil society has realised the conventional values of democracy, human rights, integrity, and others upon which social movements develop. Within conventional values civil society is developing different but clear positions which the public support, and which help develop notions of good governace, democracy and promotion of human rights. This score is also more than half way towards the highest index score of 3.

The overall score for the Impact dimension is **1.57**. The overall picture we get from this score is that the visibility of the impact of civil society programmes, projects and activities in Tanzania is moderate. Some members of the public may have witnessed and possibly benefited from CSO activities,which include service delivery, advocacy, research, capacity building and to a lesser extent, holding private sector corporations accountable and public trust. Moreover, the media have done a great deal of work to publicise social values attached to the activities that are conceived, planned and executed by civil society. The impact of the civil society activities in Tanzania should be expected to steadly move ahead towards two thirds of the highest score of 3.

The overall score for the Environment dimension is **1.68**, slightly higher than a half way score, suggesting that the external environment is becoming or promising to become conducive for civil society to thrive. However, understanding that the national policy environment is not static and always determined by a number of exogenous and endogenous variables, the score should not be taken for granted or give rise to complacency, as there is still a long way to go in terms of creating a healthier external environment which would contribute toward having a more vibrant, strong and effective civil society. Among the issues worth pursuing include efforts towards mutual relationships between civil society and other key stakeholders as well as a conducive policy, legal and regulatory frameworks.

The overall conclusion is that civil society in Tanzania has made substantial progress. However, progress is largely moderate and average. There are challenges and limitations that still confront it. The above recommendations would help move towards the realisation of a healthier, strong, viable and effective civil society in Tanzania.

ANNEXES

ANNEX I: INDICATOR SCORES BY NATIONAL ADVISORY GROUP

Dimension	*Total score*	*Sub-dimension name*	*Total for sub-dimension*	*Indicator name*	*Indicator*
1 Structure	**1.84**				
		1.1 Breadth of participation	1.46		
				1.1.1 Non- partisan political action	0.76
				1.1.2 Charitable giving	1.77
				1.1.3 CSO membership	0.52
				1.1.4 Volunteering	2.00
				1.1.5 Collective community action	2.26
		1.2 Depth of citizen participation	1.88		
				1.2.1 Charitable giving	1.77
				1.2.2 Volunteering	1.86
				1.2.3 CSO membership	2.00
		1.3 Diversity of civil society participants	2.39		
				1.3.1 CSO membership	2.95
				1.3.2 CSO Leadership	2.40
				1.3.3 Distribution of CSOs	1.82
		1.4 Level of organisation	1.61		
				1.4.1 Existence of CSO umbrella bodies	1.05
				1.4.2 Effectiveness of CSO SO umbrella bodies	2.28
				1.4.3 Self-regulation	1.00
				1.4.4 Support infrastructure	1.74
				1.4.5 International linkages	2.00
		1.5 Inter-relations	2.16		
				1.5.1 Communications	1.63
				1.5.2 Cooperation	2.69
		1.6 Resources	1.52		
				1.6.1 Financial resources	1.84
				1.6.2 Human resources	1.51
				1.6.3 Technological and infrastructural resources	1.21
2 Environment	**1.68**				
		2.1 Political context	1.51		
		2.2 Socio-cultural context	1.83		
				2.2.1 Trust	2.00
				2.2.2 Tolerance	2.00
				2.2.3 Public spiritedness	1.49

		2.3 Legal environment	2.23		
				2.3.1 CSO registration	2.70
				2.2.2 Tax laws for CSOs	1.75
		2.4 State-civil society relations	1.57		
				2.4.1 Autonomy	2.00
				2.4.2 Dialogue	1.71
				2.4.3 Cooperation/support	1.00
		2.5 Private sector-civil society relations	1.28		
				2.5.1 Private sector attitude to civil society	1.51
				2.5.2 Corporate social responsibility and philanthropy	1.05
3 Values	**2.01**				
		3.1 Democracy	1.49		
				3.1.1 Democratic practices within CSOs	0.98
				3.1.2 Civil society actions to promote democracy	2.00
		3.2 Transparency	2.00		
				3.2.1 Corruption within civil society	1.50
				3.2.2 Financial transparency of CSOs	1.62
				3.2.3 Civil society actions to promote transparency	2.88
		3.3 Tolerance	1.72		
				3.3.1 Tolerance within the civil society arena	1.43
				3.3.2 Civil society actions to promote tolerance	2.00
		3.4 Non-violence	2.27		
				3.4.1 Non-violence within the civil society arena	2.00
				3.4.2 Civil society actions to promote non-violence and peace	2.53
		3.5 Gender equity	1.66		
				3.5.1 Gender equity within the civil society arena	1.29
				3.5.2 Gender equitable practices within CSOs	1.20
				3.5.3 Civil society actions to promote gender equity	2.50
		3.6 Poverty eradication	2.45		
				3.6.1 Civil society actions to eradicate poverty	2.45

		3.7 Environmental sustainability	2.47		
				3.7.1 Civil society actions to promote environmental sustainability	2.47
4 Impact	**1.57**				
		4.1 Influencing public policy	2.34		
				4.1.1 - Civil society's impact on social issues	2.66
				4.1.2 - Civil society's impact on public policy	2.02
		4.2 Holding stage and private corporations accountable	0.77		
				4.2.1 Holding state accountable	1.03
				4.2.2 Holding private corporations accountable	0.50
		4.3 Responding to social interests	1.69		
				4.3.1 Responsiveness	2.73
				4.3.2 Public trust	0.64
		4.4 Empowering citizens	1.11		
				4.4.1 Informing/educating citizens	1.35
				4.4.2 Building capacity for collective action	1.99
				4.4.3 Empowering marginalised people	0.91
				4.4.4 Empowering women	0.56
				4.4.5 Supporting livelihoods	0.73
		4.5 Meeting social needs	1.97		
				4.5.1 Lobbying for state services	2.70
				4.5.2 Meeting pressing social needs directly	2.00
				4.5.3 Meeting needs of marginalised groups	1.20

ANNEX II: MEMBERS OF NATIONAL ADVISORY GROUP

1. Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA)
2. Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP)
3. Registrar of NGOs: Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children (Government)
4. Media Owners Association of Tanzania (MOAT)
5. Eastern Africa Support Unit for NGOs (EASUN)
6. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
7. Association of Non Governmental Organisations in Zanzibar (ANGOZA)
8. Tanzania Higher Learning Institution Students Organisation (TAHLISO)
9. Tanzania Federation of Cooperatives (TFC) Ltd
10. Network of International Civil Society (NGOs) Organisations/CARE International (Tanzania)
11. The Foundation for Civil Society (FCS)
12. Tanzania Chamber of Commerce and Industry Agriculture (TCCIA)
13. Tanzania Non-Governmental Organisations (TANGO)
14. The Federation of Disabilities' Organisations in Tanzania (SHIVYAWATA)
15. Christian Social Service Commission (CSSC)
16. Tanzania Muslim Council (BAKWATA)

ANNEX III: MEMBERS OF NATIONAL INDEX TEAM (NIT)

1. Bubelwa Kaiza	Coordinator
2. Dr Rosemarie Mwaipopo	Participatory Researcher
3. Audax Kweyamba	Civil Society Expert

ANNEX IV: CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY COMPANIES

No	Name of company	Specialisation	Contribution
1	AZANIA Bank	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated food and some home materials valued at Tsh. 5 million for the Gongo la Mboto bomb victims.
2	Bank of Baroda	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated foodstuffs and Tsh. 2 million for the Gongo la Mboto bomb victims.
3	Barclays Bank (T) Ltd	Commercial services (aids to trade)	The bank has offered assorted items including clothing, sanitary items and food stuffs, valued at Tsh. 2.4 million.
4	Barclays bank Tanzania Limited	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Offered items including clothing, sanitary items and food-stuffs, valued at Tsh. 2.4mto victims of missile blasts in Gongo la Mboto. Also donated a total of 350 litres of blood.
5	Barrick Gold Mine	Extractive (Primary)	Introduced the Barrick's Lake Zone Health Initiative in Tanzania to help combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis and improve access to health services for underserved population.
6	Barrick Gold Mine	Extractive (Primary)	Donated Tsh. 38 million for establishment of a new maternity hospital in Dar es Salaam.
7	CELTEL	Commercial service (aids to trade) advertising	Contributed US$ 100,000 budget for its corporate social responsibility initiative under the 'Build of Our Nation' (BON) project. The money is to be used in purchasing and donating school books in this year's programme.
8	Cooperative Rural Development Bank (CRDB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Launched a school buses project in Dar es Salaam, started with five buses, and the project will be run by Shirika la Usafiri Dar es Salaam (UDA).
9	EXIM Bank Tanzania	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Contributed cash and goods worth over Tsh. 5.1m to the victims of Gongo la Mboto bomb blasts.
10	Highland Estates		Contributed ten tonnes of rice.
11	Kenya Commercial Bank (KCB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Contributed to build a modern classroom for A-level students worth over Tsh. 10m at Lyasikika Secondary School.
12	KLM	Commercial services (aids to trade)- transport	In April, May and June 2010, KLM's AirCares programme supported the fight against malaria by promoting Malaria No More and enabling passengers to donate money.
13	KLM and National Microfinance Bank (NMB)	Commercial services (aids to trade) - transport and bank	Donated Tsh. 10 million (approx. €5,500) for the construction of a classroom at Maweni primary school.
14	Media Council of Tanzania (MCT)	Commercial service (aids to trade) advertising	Donated books worth Tsh. 1.3 million to the Dar es Salaam School of Journalism (DSJ).
15	Media Council of	Commercial	Donated an assortment of books to the

	Tanzania (MCT)	service (aids to trade) advertising	Tanzania Library Services (TLS) worth Tsh. 10.5 million.
16	Murzah Oil Mills and Zacharia Group	Manufacturing	Donated 1,000 bags of cement.
17	National Bank of Commerce (NBC)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Contributed Tsh. 34 million to the construction of Tumaini University Dar es Salaam College.
18	National Bank of Commerce (NBC)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated books worth Tsh. 2.5 million to Destiny Secondary School
19	National Bank of Commerce (NBC)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Contributed school desks worth Tsh. 2.5 million to Makabe Primary School
20	National Bank of Commerce (NBC)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Contributed 15 desks worth Tsh. 750,000 to Kumbukumbu primary school in Dar es Salaam
21	National Microfinance Bank (NMB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Contributed Tsh. 10 million and 10 computers to the Hanang Education and Economic Empowerment Trust Fund.
22	Precision Air Services Ltd	Commercial services (aids to trade) - transport	Contributed Tsh. 15 million cash donation towards the National Food Relief Fund, a special fund established by the Tanzanian government to mobilise resources towards offsetting the famine in Tanzania brought by prolonged drought which resulted to poor harvests.
23	Sahel Trading Company	Commercial - trade	Donated a metal detector to help locate stray bombs.
24	Serengeti Breweries Limited (SBL)	Manufacturing	Contributed 300 iron sheets, 300 bags of cement, 200 bed sheets and 200 mosquito nets to victims of missile blasts in Gongo la Mboto.
25	Serengeti Breweries Limited (SBL)	Manufacturing i	Donated Tsh. 1.5 million to the Tanzania Sports Writers Association (TASWA) football team.
26	Tanga Cement Company	Manufacturing	Contributed two classrooms and furniture worth Tsh. 476 million to Hairiya nursery school in Muheza district, Tanga region.
27	Tanzania Breweries Limited (TBL)	Manufacturing	Donated 100 mattresses and 100 mosquito nets worth Tsh. 6 million to Mawenzi hospital.
28	Tanzania Chamber of Minerals and Energy (TCME)		Donated food items with a value of Tsh. 11 million to victims of missile blasts in Gongo la Mboto.
29	Tanzania Leaf Tobacco Company Limited (TLTC)	Manufacturing	Contributed 24 solar panels to Mabwegere Village in Kilosa District, Morogoro Region, worth Tsh. 70 million.
30	Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA)		Donated 20 cartons of supplementary books to Mpanda schools and collages, valued at Tsh. 12 million.
31	Tanzania Ports Authority (TPA)	Commercial services (aids to trade) - transport	Donated foodstuff worth Tsh. 20m/- to victims of the Gongo la Mboto blasts.
32	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated a total of 40 iron sheets worth Tsh. 520,000 for construction of new latrines to Mkuyuni Sec School.
33	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to	Donated Tsh. 2 million to assist Rungwe East constituency in improving the

		trade)	education sector.
34	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated Tsh. 2 million to assist the district to buy laboratory equipment for its schools.
35	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated Tsh. 3 million to Ulanga constituency to support construction of classes for the district secondary school.
36	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated Tsh. 3 million to Mbagala Orphanage to support its operations.
37	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated Tsh. 3 million to Nguvu Sawa Group, a group of people with disabilities, to support their economic group.
38	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Contributed Tsh. 3.5 million to Kwembe Primary School in Kinondoni to support completion of construction of two classes.
39	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated Tsh. 3.25 million to Teresina Sisters - Faraja Home Care for orphans and the needy.
40	Tanzania Postal Bank (TPB)	Commercial services (aids to trade)	Donated Tsh. 5 million to Masengwa Secondary School in Shinyanga to support school development programme.
41	Tanzania Telecommunications Company (TTCL)	Commercial service (aids to trade) advertising	Donated Tsh. 200 million to be spent on various social activities effective for 2011.The money is a 25% increase from 150m/- which was spent in 2010. Also, donated items included maize and wheat flour, cooking oil, salt, soap and goats, worth Tsh. 5 million to four orphan centres based in Coast and Dar es Salaam regions (centres which received the donation were Yatima group, Mother Thereza orphanage, Kibaha orphanage and Mkakuya orphanage).
42	TIGO	Commercial service (aids to trade) advertising	Contributed Tsh. 76m towards a project that aims to detect and treat childhood eye problems. The project to be carried out by Comprehensive Community Based Rehabilitation in Tanzania (CCBRT), also focussing on training health personnel on basic emergency obstetric and neonatal care.
43	TWIGA Cement Company Limited and Rotary Clubs	Manufacturing	Contributed 190 tons of cement and 2,432 iron sheets worth Tsh. 74.2 million for reconstruction of flood stricken areas in Kilosa District, Morogoro region.
44	VODACOM	Commercial service (aids to trade) advertising	Donated Tsh. 58 millions (GBP 25,000) to victims of bomb blast at the Gongo la Mboto.
45	VODACOM	Commercial service (aids to trade) advertising	Donated Tsh. 15 million to Orphans Foundation Fund to support in needy children and orphans in Arusha.
46	ZAIN/AIRTEL	Commercial service (aids to trade) advertising	Donated Tsh. 10 million Tshs for equipment as part of marking World AIDS Day to Mwananyamala hospital.

47	ZAIN/AIRTEL	Commercial service (aids to trade) advertising	Donated Tsh. 104 million (US$72,000) for books to 104 secondary schools.

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