

**ACCESS TO GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT
INFORMATION BY RURAL WOMEN IN THE
TANGA REGION, TANZANIA**

By

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Elizabeth Kiondo hereby declare that the content of this thesis is my own work unless specifically indicated to the contrary and that this thesis has not been submitted to any other University for a degree.



Elizabeth Kiondo

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my two children
Doreen Caroline Muivei
and
Alvin Francis Narada
for their patience and understanding.

ABSTRACT

Rural women play significant roles in both food and cash crop production, however, the majority of them lack access to productive resources, including information. To enhance the process of development and to ensure that rural women participate in and benefit from rural development processes, it is important that productive resources such as land, technology and information are made accessible to them.

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which rural women access gender and development information. It therefore investigated how the rural information delivery system is organised and operates in order to gain an understanding of the factors which hamper the accessibility of information to the majority of rural women. This understanding will enable rural development planners and information professionals to design and implement information services which are accessible to all members of the rural community.

In conducting this study in the Tanga region of Tanzania, a sample of 773 households was drawn from an estimated 155,863 households to acquire a sample of rural women. A structured interview protocol was used to collect data from the rural women. A total of 64 human information providers out of a total of 90 targeted to be included in the study, was interviewed. Data was also collected through document reviews and informal discussion with key informants at regional and district levels as well as through personal observations during field work.

The findings of the study indicate that at least 40 percent of rural women are still functionally illiterate and at least 30 percent head rural households. The majority of them still live in poverty with limited incomes. On the other hand the information providers are predominantly male, constituting a male/female ratio of 3:1. The information needs of rural women are practical and strategic in nature.

Information providers used are mainly friends and relatives, village leaders, health extension workers and hospitals and clinics. The communications used in information exchange processes are oral in nature with face to face communication being the main channel used. Formal sources of information such as printed and audio-visual sources are rarely used.

Furthermore, this study has shown that socio-economic factors impact on levels of access and use of information providers. Information made accessible to women is mainly health information, followed by community affairs which is mainly about community problems discussed at village meetings. Very few women benefit from rural training programmes and information on development projects because these are limited to specific project areas. Information delivered is therefore not adequate to satisfy rural women's needs whereas information accessed is moderately relevant as far as their health information needs are concerned.

The main barriers to rural women's access to information include: workload, attitudes of information providers, customs and traditions and non availability of other sources such as printed and audio-visual sources, as well as low income and relatively low education levels of women.

This study has identified several weaknesses in the rural information delivery system which need to be addressed. It is therefore recommended that in order to make information readily accessible to the majority of women, there is a need (i) to formulate gender sensitive policies and institute mechanisms for implementation, which should include the training of information providers in gender issues in services-provision; (ii) to make available adequate financial resources to support rural information services; (iii) to use a variety of sources of information to cater for the heterogenous needs of users; (iv) to have a political will not only to address gender issues but also to sensitize entire rural communities to gender issues.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	-	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AEP	-	Adult Education Programmes
ARWE	-	Association of Rural Women Entrepreneurs
BAWATA	-	<i>Baraza la Wanawake wa Tanzania</i> (National Women's Council of Tanzania)
CBO	-	Community Based Organizations
CCM	-	<i>Chama cha Mapinduzi</i> (Revolutionary Party)
CD	-	Community Development
CREW	-	Credit for Rural Women
CSDP	-	Child Survival and Development Project
DANIDA	-	Danish International Development Agency
DEO	-	Division Executive Officer
EIP	-	Expanded Immunization Programme
EUCFRP	-	East Usambara Catchment Forest Reserve Project
FDCs	-	Folk Development Colleges
FHP	-	Family Health Project
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GTZ	-	German - Tanzania Cooperation
IEC	-	Information, Education and Communication
IKR	-	Institute of Kiswahili Research
ILO	-	International Labour Organization
IMF	-	International Monetary Fund

ITV	-	Independent Television
IWY	-	International Women's Year
LDP	-	Livestock Development Project
MCDWAC	-	Ministry of Community Development Women Affairs and Children
MCH	-	Mother and Child Health
MCQ	-	Multiple Choice Questions
MEUSTA	-	<i>Mpango wa Elimu ya Ukimwi Mashuleni Tanga</i> (Tanga Schools Aids Education Project)
MTNRE	-	Ministry of Tourism, Natural Resources and Environment
NAEP	-	National Agricultural Extension Programme
NACP	-	National Aids Control Project
NATIS	-	National Information Systems
NCC	-	National Consumer Committee
NGOs	-	Non Governmental Organizations
NWICO	-	New World Information and Communication Order
OAU	-	Organization of African Unity
OECD	-	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
PRA	-	Participatory Rural Appraisal
RAO	-	Regional Administrative Officer
RTD	-	Radio Tanzania Dar es Salaam
SADC	-	Southern Africa Development Community
SAPs	-	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SECAP	-	Soil Erosion Control and Agroforestry Project

SRWS	-	Support for Rural Water Sector
SSA	-	Sub Saharan Africa
SSDFP	-	Small Scale Dairy Farmers Project
SNV	-	Netherlands Development Organization
SUWATA	-	<i>Shirika la Uchumi la Wanawake wa Tanzania</i> (The Economic wing of the UWT)
TAMWA	-	Tanzania Media Women's Association
TANGOs	-	Tanzania Non-Governmental Organizations
TAWLA	-	Tanzania Women Lawyers Association
TFTW	-	Training Fund for Tanzanian Women
TGNP	-	Tanzania Gender Networking Programme
TIP	-	Traditional Irrigation Project
TIRDEP	-	Tanga Integrated Development Project
TLS	-	Tanzania Library Services
TV	-	Television
T&V	-	Training and Visit System
UMATI	-	<i>Chama cha Uzazi na Malezi Bora Tanzania</i> (Family Planning Association of Tanzania)
UNESCO	-	United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children Fund
UNIFEM	-	United Nations Fund for Women
UPE	-	Universal Primary Education
UWT	-	<i>Umoja wa Wanawake wa Tanzania</i> (Union of Tanzanian Women)

- VDP - Village Development Programme
- WEA - Women's Economic Activities
- WEG - Women's Expert Group
- WEO - Ward Executive Officer
- WEP - World Employment Programme
- WID - Women in Development

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1. Introduction

There is now a general consensus among scholars, researchers, development and gender experts as well as national governments and international development organizations, on the important role that women play in development¹ (Staudt 1976; Feldman 1984; Moser 1989; Aarnink and Kingma 1992; Tanzania. Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children² 1992; Meena 1993; Barret 1995). The consensus is based on the realization that women contribute significantly to the development process and they cannot be ignored as a critical resource in development. This realization has been partly influenced by pioneering research on "Women in Economic Development" in the 1970s by Ester Boserup who presented significant findings on the role of women in economic development. Moser (1989: 1810) has reported the findings by Boserup (1970) that although women were the predominant contributors to the basic productivity of their communities, particularly agriculture, their economic contribution was not referred to either in national statistics or in the planning and implementation of development projects (Boserup 1970 in Moser 1989: 1810). Furthermore, she also indicates that although women are the chief contributors to economic development, they have not been able to benefit directly from the development processes. Meena (1993: 86-99) highlights and elaborates on the problem in her discussion of how the critical role of

¹In 1997 the Heads of states and governments of the Southern African Development Development community (SADC) signed a gender and development declaration to ensure that gender issues are given due consideration in the SADC Programme of Action and Community Building Initiatives. This is due to the realization that gender equality is a key to sustainable development in the SADC region.

²After this Tanzania. Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children will be referred to as Tanzania. MCDWAC.

women in development was not part of mainstream development thinking and strategies in Africa.

Other studies (Staudt 1976; Feldman 1984; Lewis 1990; Aarnink and Kingma 1992; Barret 1995) have also observed similar trends. These studies have documented women's significant role as producers of both food and cash crops. Women's productive activities are central to their survival and to the economic development of their countries. However, despite rural women's significant role in rural production activities, development projects implemented without due regard to gender relations (gender roles and responsibilities) negatively affected women, leading to a decline in their status in society. For instance, Palmer (1977: 98) points out that "modernization projects with innovative agricultural methods and sophisticated technologies displaced women from their traditional functions and diminished the income, status and power they had in traditional relations". Barret (1995: 222) cites the example of the Jahaly-Pachar Rice Irrigation Project in the Gambia. This project disenfranchised women from their land use rights because improved land was returned to the village in the expectation that traditional gender roles and user rights would be respected. On the contrary Barret (1995: 223) reports that "in fact the men of the villages redefined the land as village land and hence it became the property of men, who are not rice growers". On the other hand, Lewis (1990: 181) explains how the Mwea Irrigation Scheme in Kenya negatively affected women by increasing their workload and diminishing their capacity to earn income and produce food for family consumption.

The negative impact of development processes on women's social position can be attributed to their disadvantaged position in the international sexually-determined division of labour. This disadvantaged situation is further compounded by gender-insensitive development planners and reinforced by negative and traditional societal attitudes to the role of women in society. Although the trend is changing and attempts have been made to change the situation of women, in most cases women are still neglected in formulation of rural development projects and national development plans.

Development planners do not consider gender differences in terms of roles and responsibilities in the use and management of household production economies (Meena 1991; Mehra 1993). This lack of understanding and consideration of gender relations in society has posed problems to the way information is disseminated to rural populations.

According to Mehra (1993: 5) "... it is men who are the main targets for new technologies and information with an assumption that the information will reach women".

The above factors are partly responsible for lack of access to information by majority of women. Williams (1981: 57) points out that:

rural programmes for economic well-being of the people are designed for men, women seldom benefit by such activities although they are actively involved in production, as a result a paradoxical situation exists with women on one hand as major producers of farm crops who are expected to cope with the increasing demand for subsistence food brought about by population growth and technological progress, while on the other hand are denied the technological, economic and social opportunities to do so.

Pakkiri (1992: 1) argues that it is this social and economic bias against women which further distorts their access to information.

The findings from a study funded by the Washington based International Food Policy Research Institute (Natal Witness 1995: 5) established that "though men receive most of the agricultural extension services and technologies, women are caretakers of food supply in developing countries". The study argues that:

if women are given the same resources as men, developing countries will see significant increases in agricultural productivity... reforms are needed on several fronts, from education, training to land ownership... addressing gender disparities in agriculture in developing countries could be an untapped source of productivity gains (Natal Witness, 1995: 5).

Based on the above facts, gender experts (Moser 1989; Walters 1991; Schreiner 1993; Meena 1993; Barret 1995) have emphasized the need to adopt a gender and development approach (which addresses gender issues) in the planning and implementation of development programmes and projects in developing countries. Schreiner (1993: 27) suggests further that development strategies which consider the interests of women should tackle some aspects in the planning and implementation process, namely, access to land, credit and financial backing, education and training, safe living and working environment, equal opportunities, reproductive rights, organizational capacity, discrimination and stereotypes. This is based on the view that it is only through the recognition of the existing unequal gender relations that women will be able to participate equally in the development process, gain self confidence and build their capacity to transform gender relations and thus bring about the desired changes.

In fact, there is increasing evidence from empirical studies which supports the notion that women's access to income, information and education will result in smaller families and improvement in the immediate welfare of their families, communities and the environment. Summers (1992) identifies five areas which yield far-reaching benefits if women are well educated. These include reductions in child mortality, in fertility, the spread of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) and an increase in environmental protection. Mukangara and Koda (1997: 27) discuss studies by Omari and Koda (1991) and Tripp (1996) which point out that women's income gained through survival-oriented income-generating activities has not only increased women's access to independent cash income but has also increased their bargaining power for participation in household decision making and resource allocation. Similar results have been documented in Yorubaland, Nigeria. It has been noted that the ability of Yoruba women to generate reliable income has reinforced their position within the household, which has in turn enabled them to "establish an independent social position which is important in polygamous society" (Dennis 1991: 96).

Besides, improving rural women's access to information will enhance their productivity and earning potential, reduce poverty, boost family welfare, lead to their empowerment and eventually promote general development (Williams 1981; Price 1992; Pakkiri 1992; Summers 1992; Agarwal 1994). It is against this background that the current research study was embarked upon.

The following section addresses the rationale for the need for rural women to have access to information in support of rural and women's development. It discusses different approaches adopted by international donor agencies, non-governmental organizations and developing countries in their efforts to develop the masses of people in rural areas in general and women in particular. The corresponding information support and its implications for development in general and women's development in particular, are examined critically. Thereafter, the researcher presents the statement of the problem, discusses the research objectives and questions and the significance of the study and its basic assumptions.

1.1 Background to the problem

After independence, most African countries were committed to the cause of women's development. These countries not only acknowledged the contribution of women in the independence struggles but also their relatively subordinate position in social, economic and political spheres. The establishment of national women's organizations dedicated to the advancement of women was partly a result of this acknowledgement. However, a serious pitfall for most of these organizations, especially in the case of Tanzania was that they were entrenched within national party organizations which were basically male-dominated. These organizations lacked independent critical analysis of the disadvantaged position of women in society. As a result they paid lip service to the dominant view which placed the role of women squarely in the home as reproducers of future labour power and nurturers of families. Consequently, women's advancement efforts adopted a welfare approach which saw the training of women in spheres which perpetuated their roles as homemakers or "gender specific" occupations such as office secretarial work,

nurses, home economics and domestic science. In rural areas women's roles in food production, processing and storage were not given adequate attention, thus alienating rural women from the development process. Men were the major recipients of support services on the assumption that all members of households, including women, would benefit. According to Moser (1989: 1809; 1994: 60), the welfare approach is based on three assumptions, namely that "women are passive recipients of development rather than participants in the development process; motherhood is the most important role of women and child-bearing is the most effective role of women in all aspects of development".

Information was accessible to a few women in support of this approach and was limited to their traditional role as homemakers. The kind of information was for the support of areas such as family health, home economics and domestic science. For instance, Aboyade (1985: 170), basing her arguments on the Nigerian experience, explains that "community development workers are involved in a women's development programme which is concerned with providing good family living through demonstration of food preparations and other housewifery preoccupations". Mchombu (1993: 167) observed that even this limited information support system, mainly coordinated by home economics agents and community development workers, had a class bias and was skewed in favour of middle-class women on the pretext that poor illiterate women are hard to work with due to their limited capacity to effectively adopt new ideas.

This welfare approach which went hand-in-hand with the modernization "trickle down" theories of development and rural development, in particular, did not create an environment for independent action by women but perpetuated their traditional roles and their dependence on male-dominated family, community, national and international structures.

By the 1970s a number of empirical studies on Third World development raised concern over the failure of modernization theories to bring about meaningful development and about the negative consequences of development projects for the

welfare of women. For instance, though modernization theories held that the distributional effects of development were gender-neutral, the "Women in Development (WID) movement identified a gender gap in effects of modernization across Asia, Africa, and Latin America, documenting gender differences in life expectancy, nutrition and morbidity, literacy as well as ownership of resources and access to income" (Goetz 1994: 29). According to Goetz (1994: 29) research in rural production systems demonstrated that "women's disprivilege was not a "natural" condition but a consequence of an observable decline in their access to their productive social and material resources".

On the basis of the above finding, welfare approaches were strongly criticised by women's activist groups both in developed and developing countries. The 1975 International Women's Year (IWY) which culminated in the declaration of the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-1985) set a framework for alternative approaches to women's development. The alternative approaches within the WID framework are the equity approach and the anti-poverty approach which are associated with the implementation of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) by most governments of developing countries in response to the economic crisis of the 1980s.

All women's development initiatives within the WID framework were based on the realization that the neglect of women in development plans has left untapped a potentially large contribution which could steer nations towards socio-economic development (Moser 1989: 1814). According to the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (1983) as reported by Moser (1989: 1815) the emphasis was therefore on the need to integrate women in development on the grounds that "substantial gains will only be achieved with the contribution of both sexes, for women to play a vital role in contributing to the development process". The need to integrate women in development led to the proliferation of women's organizations and establishment of women's income-generating projects throughout the Third World which were aimed at improving the economic base of women.

The equity approach to women's development adopted a radical stance in its focus which was basically committed to transforming gender relations by calling for equality between men and women. According to Moser (1989: 1811), this equity approach demanded that women should be given a fair share of development benefits and recognized the need for change in traditional roles of men and women. Moser (1989: 1811; 1994: 65) identifies two reasons for the failure of this approach, which is advocated by women activist groups: firstly, it was not favoured by both international donor agencies and Third World governments on the pretext that it interfered with the manner in which gender relations were constructed in societies. Secondly, its "top-down" approach, which led to some cosmetic legislative measures in favour of women, did not ensure practical changes at the implementation levels.

The reluctance of donor and other agencies to adopt the equity approach to women's development led to the design and adoption of alternative approaches within the WID framework. At this time a basic needs-oriented strategy was being popularised by the International Labour Organization (ILO) through its World Employment Programme (WEP). This strategy was to meet the basic needs of the low-income populations such as food and shelter. In this case low-income women were identified as a group needing assistance in order to escape absolute deprivation (Palmer 1977: 99; Moser 1989: 1812). Moser (1989: 1812) points out two reasons emphasised by Buvinic (1983) concerning the need to target women, these are: firstly, the failure of the "trickle down" effect that was partially attributed to the fact that women had been ignored in previous development plans and secondly, because of the traditional importance of women in meeting many of the basic needs of the family.

The anti-poverty approach to women and rural development adopted in response to the basic needs-oriented development strategy, is based on the assumption that the basic problem of development is income inequality and therefore all efforts should be directed towards reducing the inequalities. The focus is on increased productivity of women in low-income households. This approach suggests that such a focus will alleviate poverty and promote economic growth. Emphasis is therefore placed on

increasing the income-generating potential of low-income populations especially women, through the establishment and funding of small-scale women's and rural production enterprises and through improving their access to productive resources.

The anti-poverty approach to women and development has been criticised for adopting a welfare-oriented approach and concentrating on gender-specific projects rather than introducing women into new areas of work. Moreover, in most of these projects, issues of viability and sustainability were not adequately addressed, resulting in the failure of most of them due to a lack of access to raw materials, limited markets and the incapacity to regenerate (Moser 1989: 1812). More profound was the deliberate ignorance of gender relations which meant an increased burden on women who were most of the time trying to balance their productive and reproductive roles.

The efficiency approach was adopted in the process of implementing Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) as part of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) conditionalities in managing the severe economic crisis which impacted on most of the developing countries in the 1980s. The objective of SAPs was to increase efficiency and productivity to enable national governments to increase exports, restore the balance of payment equilibria and to accelerate economic growth. As far as women's development was concerned the objective was to increase women's participation in the economy "on the assumption that increased participation for Third World women is automatically linked with increased equity" (Moser 1989: 1813). However, the implementation of SAPs had an adverse impact on the welfare of women and low-income populations both in urban and rural areas. Emphasis on women's productive roles increased their burden as they cushioned the negative impact of SAPs on their livelihood. This realization led to organizations like the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) to advocate the adoption of "adjustment with a human face". That is, "the formulation of policies that will protect the health and basic nutrition of vulnerable groups during adjustment before "growth resumptions" enable them to meet their basic needs independently" (Moser 1989: 1814).

The efficiency approach has been criticised for limiting some of the gains in the "women in development" movement because reduction in resource allocation in the fields of education and health meant that girls' access to education could be severely limited and their health affected. As is the case with the anti-poverty approach, the emphasis has been on the productive role of women thus completely ignoring the engendered role of women that is, their subordinate position in social and production relations in a given community.

The information support system which corresponds with the WID approaches to women and development are well summarised by Williams (1981: 56) who argues that:

women's information needs besides those which are general for the whole rural population are based on their roles in their families and rural communities, including economic and household welfare roles. Thus their information needs include information on trade opportunities, health and social welfare roles.

Information for trade opportunities is geared towards ensuring women's effective participation in income-generating activities. Most of the trade information which was to be supplied by either non-governmental organizations or community development workers was not always available at the right time. Failure of a good number of women's income-generating activities was partly attributed to a lack of marketing strategies as well as skills and knowledge in their management. For instance, an analysis of problems facing women's income generating groups in the Kilimanjaro region conducted by Tesha (1993: 22-23) found out that these groups faced the following constraints: (i) poor or a lack of feasibility studies prior to starting these groups, (ii) a lack of competency in running social economic groups (iii) low capital investment and (iv) poor coordination and supervision in running of group activities.

WID approaches (especially anti-poverty and efficiency) have been further criticized for not addressing real issues on discrimination against women. Vajrathon (1976) argues, for instance, that many organizations are heading in the wrong direction by believing that if they have many programmes organized for women, the whole problem of inequality will be solved.

The failure of WID approaches to bring significant change at the practical and implementation levels has led gender experts to seek alternative ways of bringing fundamental changes to gender relations in society. It has led to a shift of emphasis from women as special units of analysis to a focus on gender relations. The underlying factor is the realization that unequal gender relations are constructed by society, they are not natural occurrences and they can be transformed to benefit both men and women. Hence, the main objective of this approach lies in the recognition of the need to transform gender relations through "down-up" people-centred, grassroots-based participatory approaches. The emphasis is on "gender-sensitive" development planning as well as creating gender awareness at grassroots levels. Gender sensitivity refers to the recognition of unequal power relations between men and women and the need to challenge them (Walters 1991: 52). At the centre of this approach is the critical issue of women's empowerment. It is argued that gender-sensitive plans will ensure that women are equal participants and beneficiaries of their own development initiatives. It is this approach to development that gender activist groups are pressuring governments to adopt in order to make development beneficial to entire rural communities.

The empowerment approach to women's development arose out of the failure of the equity approach to make an impact due to a lack of commitment on the part of national governments and international donor agencies to adopt it as their official policy approach in the implementation of development projects, as well as the failure of WID approaches to realize satisfactory tangible benefits at the practical level. The empowerment approach differs significantly from earlier approaches in its orientation because it puts emphasis on women's empowerment through greater self-reliance within women's groups at grassroots levels. The main idea is to challenge gender relations through the "bottom-up" approach which mobilises grassroots women around their practical gender needs as a means to confront oppression (Moser 1989: 1815; Price 1992: 56-57).

A good way of how this can be achieved is demonstrated by Price's 1992 study of "Women's organizations in North India". Her findings indicated that grassroots-based

organizations provided a forum for women to come together to discuss their local problems, share ideas and gain new information. In this way women gained self-confidence which enabled them to challenge approaches that predetermined their needs and their involvement in development according to a set framework (Price 1992: 53).

Furthermore, Price (1992: 54) points out that through these organizations women were slowly beginning to explore ways in which they could be involved in defining their needs and priorities. They began to identify needs that fell beyond those arenas seen as traditional family responsibilities and they challenged the public-private divide which saw women's needs as private, to be met within the confines of the family, while the public-political discourses were reserved for men. It is further reported by Price (1992: 51) that in one case organizational experience enabled women to move away from a welfare approach to development to one which focussed on the politics of need interpretation and women's empowerment. Price (1992: 51) concludes that "it is through the process of attempting to identify interests more clearly that women came to interpret their needs and develop other struggles for change".

It is this grassroots-based, "bottom-up" approach to women's development that gender and development advocates have been trying to embrace and integrate in the women's development process. This approach has coincided with a shift in focus in rural development planning which calls for people-centred development programmes. This multi-faceted, participatory approach to development requires communities to identify their own needs, set their own goals and make their own decisions. It calls for a change in the role of development agents from agents of change to facilitators of change. Their role is expected to be that of providing the necessary training and appropriate and relevant information to enable communities to make informed decisions, acquire the necessary skills, knowledge and capacities to transform their own communities.

One of the most important component of a gender-sensitive, people-centred participatory approach to development is information. Gorman (1983: 49) argues that:

a dynamic information support system for effective development must embody collaboration with grassroots development workers who constantly interact with local inhabitants and understand information requirements at practical level. In this way an information support system will be able to play a meaningful role in development.

It is argued that any information support system for rural development should include a mechanism to ensure that women gain access to information. For instance Mchombu (1992) suggests that for information to bring about development there is a need to link it with the socio-economic environment of the community to adopt the most appropriate strategy among the various strategies and options available. It is further argued by this study that gender relations are one aspect of the socio-economic environment which accord women a subordinate position and are responsible for the lack of adequate and appropriate information. As such these unequal relations should be considered in order to make information for total development meaningful.

An information support system for a "gender-sensitive" approach to rural development calls for the dissemination of not only development information as identified in Mchombu's 1993 pioneering research on "Information needs and seeking patterns for rural peoples' development in Africa" but also of gender information which raises gender awareness about gender issues. It is equally important that a system should be designed in such a way as to ensure equal access to information by members of the entire rural communities.

In concluding this section it is argued that information for women's development and rural development is essential because it has the power to mobilize and motivate women, and to impart to them knowledge and skills necessary to make informed decisions, chart out priorities and empower communities to implement development projects. Above all, information is critical in ensuring sustainability.

1.2 Statement of the problem

In Tanzania, as elsewhere in the world, women constitute more than half of the population (Tanzania. MCDWAC 1992). They are the chief producers and reproducers of society, but due to historical factors women occupy a subordinate position in society. This subordinate position is reflected in the existing inequalities in education, employment, property-ownership as well as under-representation in leadership and decision-making positions (Kiondo 1994: 176). In as far as access to information is concerned, women's access to information is generally limited.

A situational analysis of women in Tanzania revealed that in higher education the proportion of women students to the total undergraduate population at the two universities has remained low. In 1980/81 it was 20% while in 1990/91 it was 18%. This trend has also been observed in nearly all post secondary education institutions with the exception of secretarial and nursing colleges (TGNP 1993: 65). In the formal employment sector which is regulated by the government, women are mainly found at the bottom of the occupational ladder, with low wages and fewer opportunities for on-the-job training. National statistics indicate that the only occupation with more women than men is nursing (69%) while female clerical staff and teachers constitute 31% and 27% of the respective total for these occupations (TGNP 1993: 43). It has also been observed that women are excluded from decision-making positions at the national, regional and local government levels. According to the 1991 data from the Ministry of Regional Development and Local Government, women comprised only 10% of the 20 regional commissioners, 10% of the 82 district commissioners and 5% of the 82 district development directors and there were no women regional development directors (TGNP 1993: 55).

The above situation has prompted the Tanzanian government to formulate diverse strategies directed towards the position and status of women in society. The strategies include among others (i) the formation of organizations which aim at the development of women such as the *Umoja wa Wanawake wa Tanzania* (UWT), the Union of Tanzania Women, (ii) the establishment of the Ministry of Community

Development, Women's Affairs and Children, (iii) the adoption of an education system which is geared towards enhancing the enrollment of girls in secondary schools through the establishment of co-educational schools to reduce the disparity between the number of girls and boys in secondary schools and higher learning institutions; and (iv) the introduction of a process of reviewing of all laws which discriminate against women, and the implementing of international agreements which safeguard the rights of women (Tanzania. MCDWAC, 1992).

The subordinate position of women in society affects women's access to information because information programmes designed by information professionals have mostly been gender blind. Meena (1992: 16) points out that "gender blindness refers to the strategies which ignore gender differences in planning, implementation and evaluation". She clearly elaborates that "gender blind plans ignore the fact that men and women play different roles in their societies, and therefore have different needs, and are confronted with different constraints".

The contention of this study is that most information programmes do not take into consideration the issue of gender inequality in society, the assumption being that both men and women are adequately served by the existing information services. Unfortunately, there is not sufficient evidence to support the assumption. On the contrary, several researchers (Staudt 1976; Feldman 1985; Beshu 1989; Kaisamba-Mugerwa 1989; Aarnink and Kingma 1992; Mehra 1993; TGNP 1993; Ngware 1996) have identified a lack of access to information as one of the barriers to women's development efforts.

In Tanzania 90% of the able-bodied population, of which 75% are women, depends heavily on agriculture for its livelihood (Tanzania. MCDWAC, 1992). It is therefore important that information is made accessible to them to improve productivity and their earning potential and thus develop themselves and their communities. Several studies such as those by Kaniki (1989) and Nyariki (1992) have emphasized the importance of information to accelerate societal development. Mchombu (1981) and Matengu (1992) share the same view. For instance, Matengu (1992: 6) argues that

information directed at the rural populations should aim at motivating and empowering local people to take responsibility to transform their society by setting their own goals and making their own decisions. On the other hand, Mchombu (1981) advocates the formulation of a National Scientific and Technological Information Policy to ensure optimum utilization of information in order to achieve national development. It is therefore important to ensure that information, as an invaluable resource for individual, community and national development, is accessible to everyone.

The crucial issue that this study addressed was the accessibility of gender and development information to rural women. As pointed out earlier, several studies have identified a lack of access to information as a constraint to development (Staudt 1976; Aboyade 1981; Williams 1981; Durrani 1985; Mchombu and Mutanyatta 1988; Kivikuru *et al* 1994). From a study in rural Kenya, Feldman (1985: 75) reports differential access to information imparted through farmer training. She reveals that most training for farmers is directed towards men rather than towards women. In her interviews with district agricultural officers it was confirmed that a basic assumption of agricultural extension work is to communicate with male farmers unless males are absent in which case extension workers will talk to women. Related studies (Lewis 1990: 178; Aarnink and Kingma 1992: 16) conclude that women are given relatively less assistance than men by extension services because of (i) prejudicial attitudes towards them, (ii) customary attitudes that men talk to men and women talk to women and (iii) the assumption that it is a man's task to seek information and advice.

However, most of these studies have not gone beyond the identification of the problem to ascertain in concrete terms the barriers to women's access to information and to chart out appropriate strategies which will ensure equal access to information in rural areas. In addition, most of these studies are confined to the examination of rural women's access to agricultural information (Feldman 1985; Aarnink and Kingma 1992) rather than gender and development information. Durrani (1985: 150) argues that the "present information services have not accepted the fact that the

majority of peasants are women faced with dual oppression of the economic system and a male-dominated and oriented society". He therefore challenges information professionals "to undertake research in order to allow the real voice of women peasants and on the basis of which appropriate services can be provided".

Strategies are needed which will facilitate information exchange activities for entire rural populations including rural women. Information professionals like Rosenberg (1986), Matengu (1992) and Mchombu (1993) identify the need to disseminate and exchange adequate, appropriate and relevant information in support of rural development initiatives. In this way rural women could acquire appropriate knowledge and build the necessary capacities not only to participate and benefit from development but also to challenge the unequal gender relations in their communities.

✂ In Tanzania, the problem is that the majority of women, especially in rural areas, lack access to gender and development information which they can use to accelerate their own development and thus improve their ability to take advantage of existing sources of information. Furthermore, sources of information in rural areas are inadequate and this may affect both men and women. Finally, the heavy workload borne by rural women does not leave them with sufficient time to search for information (Besha 1989: 105-106). As a result most of them rely on second-hand information which may either be unreliable or distorted in the process of communication.

It is therefore the contention of this study that efforts should be made to disseminate information to rural women to dissipate the problems identified above. As discussed in the preceding sections, information disseminated to rural women should not only be limited to that which is related to their traditional roles as mothers and wives. It should include aspects of gender and development in order to empower them to make qualitative changes in their standard of living and to enable them to challenge patriarchal gender relations in society. Illiteracy and semi-literacy should not deter information professionals from planning gender-sensitive information programmes

which will take care of the information needs of both men and women. Studies on the information dissemination to non-literate societies (Aboyade 1984; Rosenberg 1986; Newa 1989; Witbooi 1995) have confirmed that there are alternative ways of communicating information to illiterate and semi-literate populations.

Recently the realization that the majority of women lack access to information which can empower them to take control of their lives has led several non governmental organizations, such as the Tanzania Media Women's Association (TAMWA) to take up the challenge of improving access to information for women. They have planned and designed educational and informational programmes directed towards women as the target group. Apparently, most of the activities of these organizations are concentrated in urban areas. It is the opinion of this study that unless deliberate and conscious efforts are made to reach the majority of women in rural areas, they will continue to be disadvantaged as far as access to information is concerned.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate women's access to gender and development information in order to identify possible barriers to access and thereby provide information professionals with the necessary information to design sustainable information provision strategies which will support a gender-sensitive approach to rural development initiatives in the rural areas of developing countries in general, and Tanzania, in particular.

In seeking to establish the extent to which rural information delivery systems in Tanzania adequately serve the information needs of rural women, it is important to determine how the delivery systems are designed, information communication channels organised and how accessible they are to rural women given their socio-economic environment. Therefore, the study investigated access to gender and development information by identifying the rural information services provision as well as the information sources and communication channels used by different actors and participants in the rural development process. It examined whether these

sources and channels of communication are accessible to rural women; determined the relevance and adequacy of information communicated in response to the information needs of rural women, and assessed the appropriateness and effectiveness of the delivery mechanisms used.

In conclusion, this study aimed to investigate access to gender and development information by rural women in the Tanga region, Tanzania.

1.4 Research objectives

This study was undertaken in order to investigate rural women's access to gender and development information. It was envisaged that the results of this study would form the basis for charting out strategies for the design of appropriate information delivery mechanisms which would enhance development towards women's equal access to information. Hence the specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Identify information services operating in the geographical area of the study.
2. Identify information services specifically directed at rural women.
3. Assess the information needs of rural women in the area of the study.
4. Examine the information providers used to disseminate and access information by information workers and rural women respectively.
5. Assess the effectiveness of the various information providers used to communicate information to rural women.
6. Assess the degree of accessibility of various information providers to rural women.
7. Determine if there are relationships between rural women's socio-economic status and the degree of accessibility and use of the various information providers.

8. Determine the relevance of information communicated as perceived by rural women in the area of the study.
9. Determine the adequacy of information communicated to meet the information needs of rural women in the area of the study.
10. Identify barriers to rural women's access to information.
11. Provide some suggestions on how information services can be made accessible to rural women.

1.5 Research questions

The study will therefore be guided by the following questions:

1. What information services are operating in the geographical area of the study?
2. What information services are specifically targeted at rural women in the area of the study?
3. What are the information needs of rural women in the area of the study?
4. What information providers are used by rural women to access information?
5. What information providers are used by human information providers to communicate information to rural people and by rural women to access information?
6. How accessible are the various information providers to rural women?
7. How effective are the various information providers as perceived by rural women and information providers in the area of the study?
8. Are there relationships between rural women's socio-economic status and the degree of accessibility and use of the various information providers?

9. How do rural women perceive the relevance of information communicated to them by the various information providers?
10. Is the information communicated by the information providers adequate in satisfying the information needs of women in the area of the study?
11. What are the barriers to rural women access to information?
12. How can information services in the area of the study be made more accessible to rural women?

1.6 Significance of the study

This study sought to identify barriers to women's access to information thereby enabling information planners and decision makers to remove such barriers in planning appropriate information services which take into consideration the gender and development information needs of women. The findings of this study present an important step in the challenging task of reaching rural women with valid information services which could increase their knowledge-base and thus make them equal participants and beneficiaries of the rural development process.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will assist information professionals to use strategies that will be recommended by this study to re-orient information and extension systems in order to make them "gender-sensitive". This should have three advantages, namely, to achieve (i) a gender balance in development information communication, (ii) a reduction in the male bias in information-exchange activities and (iii) greater gender sensitivity on the part of extension (such as health, education and agriculture) and information workers so that they can recognize the importance of assisting women farmers in rural areas. A re-oriented information service is likely to ensure increased infrastructural support to women, which is critical to them. It should therefore improve their access to information.

The most significant aspect of this study is that it hopes to contribute towards a system and service which will provide equitable access to information as one of the productive resources through a gender-oriented information support strategy which will effectively support rural development initiatives for the benefit of entire rural communities and the nation. This strategy, it is further hoped, can be adapted in other parts of the developing world.

Finally, in conducting a literature search for this study it was evident that very few studies have been conducted to assess the information needs of women and the rural information system's ability to satisfy these needs. Therefore, this study which examined issues of access to information in response to needs of rural women contributes to the body of knowledge on information support strategies and information delivery mechanisms for women and rural development. It builds upon the foundation laid by studies undertaken by Rosenberg (1986), Aarnink and Kingma (1992), Mchombu (1993), Nwagha (1994) and Kivikuru *et al* (1994).

1.7 General assumptions of the study

This study is based on the following assumptions:

1. Women have information needs which have not been adequately met by standard and official information services.
2. A gender-oriented information system geared towards equal access to information by rural populations is crucial in ensuring that women participate in and benefit from the development process; and that gender and development information will empower women to take control of their needs and to make informed decisions on development issues affecting rural communities in general and women in particular.
3. Pro-active gender information services will be able to offer relevant, adequate and accessible services to members of entire rural communities. This is based on the assumption that if information based on the needs of communities is made accessible by appropriate means in appropriate forms it will be relevant and adequate and therefore it will be used to satisfy those needs.

4. Participatory approaches to rural development, responsive to community needs and geared towards building capacities at local levels, need a dynamic information support system as one of their indispensable resources. An appropriate and effective gender-sensitive information support system will ensure that information is accessible to entire rural communities in general and to women in particular.
5. There is need to link information-dissemination efforts to the socio-economic environment to make the process of development more meaningful to rural dwellers.

1.8 Scope and limitations

1. This study was conducted in the three districts of the Tanga region, Tanzania. It examined information services provided by information and extension workers from five sectors only, that is, agriculture, health, community development, forestry and education including library and information services. Henceforth, its findings may not be generalized to other regions and areas of Tanzania where the material conditions may be different and the extent of sectoral interventions in information services provision may be different.
2. Collection of data for this study necessitated the translation of the questionnaires from English to Kiswahili, the national language of Tanzania, which is understood and spoken by most people. Limitations in the data collected may have occurred due to inadequacies in the local language for some technical terminologies or due unintended errors in the translation exercise.
3. Most of the questions demanded high levels of recall and understanding of the people working among rural populations. Lack of awareness and knowledge among some respondents may have affected the quality of the data collected through face-to-face interviews.
4. The researcher and two research assistants were involved in the collection of data through face-to-face interviews. The levels of enthusiasm and style of interview may have differed slightly and thus affected the way the respondents answered some of the questions.

1.9 Operational definition of terms

In this study the following terms are defined as follows:

1. Channel effectiveness: the degree to which a given channel or source produces information that is being sought (Poole 1985: 105).
2. Channel(s) of communication: a medium used to communicate information.
3. Development information: information about ways of improving the socio-economic status of individuals and communities.
4. Gender information: information that is geared towards raising gender-awareness and solving gender-specific problems.
5. Information accessibility: the degree to which an information channel or source of information is available for use (Poole 1985: 103).
6. Information adequacy: the degree to which information is seen or considered to be sufficient to satisfy information needs of the user.
7. Information providers: sources and channels used to communicate information.
8. Information relevance: information is related to actual or perceived needs of the users (Poole 1985: 110).
9. Information services: refers to information exchange activities carried out by both governmental and non-governmental agencies.
10. Information source(s): an individual or an institution that communicates information.

1.10 Summary

1. The important role women play in development has since been recognized. However, development planners lack an understanding of differences in gender roles and responsibilities among the gender groups. As such, gender issues have been neglected in the planning and implementation of development projects. This leads to a decline in women's status in society because the majority of women, especially in rural areas, lack access to productive resources such as land, education and training, information and credit, which are crucial in the development process. It is therefore important that these resources are made accessible to both men and women to accelerate development, hence the need to adopt a gender and development approach to planning and implementation of development projects in developing countries.
2. It is against this background that this study was proposed. The objective was to investigate women's access to gender and development information in order to identify barriers to access and thereby provide information professionals with the necessary information, to enable them to develop sustainable strategies which will support a gendered approach to rural and women's development initiatives in Africa and Tanzania, in particular.
3. The rationale of the study lies in the importance of ensuring that relevant and adequate information is made accessible to entire rural communities to assist them make informed decisions and acquire the necessary skills, knowledge and capacities to transform their own communities. This can be achieved through a gender-sensitive, people-centred participatory approach to development of which the most important component is information.
4. It is hoped that the findings of this study present an important step in the challenging task of reaching rural women with information to satisfy both their practical and strategic gender needs.

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CHAPTER TWO

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2. Introduction

In order to effectively analyse the problem of a lack of access to information for the majority of women in rural Tanzania, it is important to put this study in its proper social, historical and political context. This chapter examines the environment in which the various efforts towards liberating and emancipating the Tanzanian women in general and rural women in particular have taken place since independence in 1961. Emphasis is on the examination of efforts and trends in educating and informing the public particularly women to enable them to acquire the necessary skills to develop themselves, their families, their communities and the nation. The following elements which form part of the context of this study are discussed in the subsequent sections: the Tanzanian economic and political environment in which these efforts have been taking place; the women development efforts; the role of women's and non-governmental organizations; the role of the mass media and the Tanzania Library Service (TLS); rural development and rural information delivery systems; the impact of socio-economic changes on the rural information systems and services, and a critique of trends in rural and women's development in Tanzania. Finally, this chapter ends up with a general description of the area of the study.

2.1 The economic and political environment

Tanzania is an East African country, with an area of 939,704 square kilometres. According to the projections from the 1988 census, where the population was given as 22 million people, Tanzania had an estimated population of 30, 337,000 people by mid-1995 (Berry 1997: 972). With an annual growth rate of 2.8%, the population is estimated to be more than 31 million people in 1998. It is further estimated that

85.00% of the population lives in rural areas. According to the estimates by the World Bank, in 1994 the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was US \$ 3,378 million of the Gross National Product (GNP) per capita of US \$ 140.00 (Van Buren 1997: 976). As such Tanzania is considered one of the poor nations of the world.

In 1967, Tanzania formulated its famous socialist development policies through the "Arusha Declaration". The socialist development policies popularly known as the "Ujamaa policy" guided the development of the country for the next twenty years. On the political front, the country adopted a one party system whereby the ruling party was supreme and it directed the social, political and economic affairs of the nation through its statist³ policies. Two main structures were established in Tanzania, the party structure and the government structure. The party provided the political leadership while the government implemented the development policies and directives as issued by the party (N'gwanakilala 1981: 2).

In order to facilitate development programmes there was a need to develop comprehensive structures of communication and popular participation. Development was directed at villages which were the focus of all development efforts. This was echoed by Nyerere, the first president of Tanzania, in a commonly cited quotation which states, "while others try to reach the moon, we try to reach the village". As part of the efforts to reach the villages, in 1972 government structures were decentralized in order to provide the people with the necessary facilities and structures of participation in the government hierarchy. Alongside decentralization, the villagization programme was developed and implemented in 1974. Through this programme the majority of rural people were settled into planned and permanent villages which were envisaged as centres of social and infrastructural services (Van Buren 1997: 976). Communication structures to reach the people in the village were developed through both the party and the government structures. There were the

³Statist policies refer to policies which give the state and state institutions monopoly in social, economic and political activities. In the social sphere the state control sectors such as health, education and transport. In economics, all major means of production are placed under state control. In politics, the ruling party exerts control over political processes.

ten cell⁴ leaders, the party branch office, the village council and the primary school teacher apart from the extension workers in the various sectors such as agriculture, health, cooperative and community development. These formed the basis of leadership in the provision of development information to the rural people.

On the economic front, all the major means of the economy were nationalized and put under the management of state-owned enterprises. However, dramatic changes took place in the late 1980s which saw the country undergoing serious socio-economic and political changes, from the declared socialist policies which directed the course of social, economic and political development, to a market-oriented economic system which led to the formulation of economic liberalization policies. This was partly a result of the severe economic decline which took place in the country from the late 1970s which led the government to adopt a more pragmatic approach to economic planning (Van Buren 1997: 976). An era of socio-economic and political reforms which transformed the role of the government from provider to facilitator of development followed. As a result, more and more non governmental organizations were established (Gibbons 1994: 22-26). On the political front a multi-party political system of government was introduced which led to the emergence of opposition political parties. On the social front, there was severe deterioration of social services with regard to health, education, roads and water supply.

2.2 Women's development efforts

* Immediately after independence, Tanzania was committed to developing women socially, economically and politically. It is common knowledge that, Nyerere consistently points to the fact that women constitute a national resource since they were part of the national liberation struggle they should be accorded an important stake in the social, economic and political activities of the Tanzania nation.

⁴Ten cell refers to a group of ten households, the lowest level in the government/party administrative structure. (See Figure 1).

As part of its commitment to developing women, the constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania enshrines the rights of each Tanzanian. According to the Women in Development Policy, the constitution "implicitly safeguards freedom, security of life, the right to ownership of property and productive resources, the right to work and to receive the fruits of that work and the right to education to one's desired level" (Tanzania. MCDWAC 1992: 1). In addition, Tanzania is a signatory to several international declarations and conventions, such as the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights, Organization of African Unity (OAU), Charter on Human and People's Rights, as well as the United Nations Conventions on the eradication of all forms of discrimination and prejudice against women.

2.2.1 The Union of Tanzania Women (UWT)

At the national level, to ensure women's emancipation and participation in nation building and development, structures were developed to facilitate the process. In 1962, *Umoja wa Wanawake wa Tanzania* (UWT), that is the Union of Tanzania Women was formed as a vehicle which would steer women's development issues forward. Its mission was, and still remains to mobilize, direct and lead women's liberation as well as to advise the party and the government on matters concerning women. Its specific goals and objectives are:

- i to recognize the disadvantageous position of women,
- ii to initiate concrete steps to remove all barriers to full equality in the economic, educational, legal, political, social and cultural fields (Mdee 1992: 120).

Strategies adopted by UWT to fulfill its objectives include the following:

- i to mobilize women as individuals or groups to initiate and undertake income-generating activities,
- ii to encourage women to join rural savings and credit schemes and farmer training programmes,
- iii to encourage women to apply intermediate technology or labour saving devices in production, transport and domestic work,

- iv to scrutinize all plans, beginning at village level, to ensure that women are full participants and beneficiaries in every sector and to make concrete recommendations in every case about how to improve the plans accordingly,
- v to analyse the practice of laws related to marriage cases, adultery, inheritance and land disputes,
- vi to act as ombudsman on behalf of women to all relevant authorities and sectors (Mdee 1993: 120).

In order for the UWT to have an impact on both urban and rural areas, it had a comprehensive administrative structure which spread its wings from the national to grassroots levels. Executive branches were established at national, regional, district, ward and village levels in accordance with the government's administrative structures. The driving motto behind the UWT's activities was "*wanawake na maendeleo*" or "women and development".

The main activities of the national women's organizations was to mobilize women to undertake economic activities in order to liberate themselves economically. The birth of women's groups around economic activities such as child-care centres, hotel and shop businesses, arts and crafts activities, as well as agricultural activities, followed. Women were encouraged to form economic groups to enable the government and its agencies to reach them with the necessary resources and skills required for their development (Mdee 1993: 120-121).

To facilitate the participation of women in the political sphere it was declared that at grassroots levels women should be included in local government affairs. It was demanded that at least 25% of the village government council should be made up of women to give them a stake in the political and social affairs of their communities. At the national level women were appointed to prominent government positions and, given the minute number of women parliamentarians, fifteen seats were reserved for them in the national parliament. As a result of this decision, the proportion of women's representation in parliament has increased as follows 26 out of 239 seats (10.8%) in 1980-85, 25 out of 244 seats (8.2%) in 1985-1990 and 21 out of 249 (10.2%) in 1990-1995.

The UWT was instrumental in mobilizing women for action and in lobbying the government for women's rights which culminated in the enactment of the 1971 Marriage Act⁵ which was seen as a success story within the women's movement as well as a vehicle for women's liberation in the country.

In the late 1980s amidst the economic crisis, it was evident that the role of the UWT as the sole mobilizer of Tanzanian women had greatly declined. It had failed to achieve its objectives of liberating the majority of women, especially those living in the rural areas of the country as well as the urban poor. The majority of women remained outside the corridors of power, lacking the necessary skills to spearhead their own emancipation. The main reasons given for the failure of the UWT to bring about qualitative changes in the lives of Tanzanian women was the fact that it was not an autonomous body capable of making its own decisions. As an organization under the umbrella of the ruling party, most of the time it had to adhere to the party line. Furthermore, it is argued that the organization's leadership lacked the necessary skills to focus on gender inequalities and instead focussed on the symptoms of the problems leaving the discriminative structures intact (Koda 1985). The UWT's activities established to emancipate women economically failed to take root due to several problems identified, such as a lack of expertise, skills and the resources required to manage their activities efficiently (Mdee 1993: 121).

The UWT does not have a tangible information dissemination infrastructure, information is mainly disseminated through public and village meetings. Women leaders are the main sources of information. Information has also been disseminated through seminars and workshops where information and skills on the management of rural women's enterprises have been imparted to women. The government-owned mass media, that is state-owned radio and newspapers, have also been instrumental in communicating information origination from the UWT to the general public. The UWT, through its economic wing SUWATA (*Shirika la*

⁵The 1971 Marriage Act dealt with, among other things, issues related to types of marriage, division of matrimonial property and child support in case of divorce and for children born out of wedlock.

Uchumi la Wanawake, Tanzania), imparts skills in income-generation activities and information on markets for women's products. It also offers legal advisory services to women. Unfortunately most of these activities are concentrated in urban areas. The UWT branches at district, ward and village levels are supposed to duplicate these efforts through the training of women leaders. However, lack of resources as pointed above have constrained efforts at disseminating useful information at grassroots levels.

In the early 1990s the economic and political changes that were taking place in the country were reflected in other spheres. With the introduction of the multi-party system, the UWT was faced with the greatest challenge in its history. Being an organization established under the wings of the national ruling Party "*Chama Cha Mapinduzi*" (CCM) it was faced with the dilemma of either breaking away from the ruling party and forming an autonomous national women's organization, or remaining under the party umbrella and thus transforming itself into the women's wing of the national ruling political party. After heated debates the UWT resolved to adhere to the party line and to remain the women's wing of the ruling party. With this decision, the UWT automatically ceased to represent the majority of Tanzanian women with no party affiliation. It thus created a vacuum which needed to be filled. The proliferation of a number of autonomous women's organizations which directed their efforts at developing and emancipating women followed. The formation and nature of these organizations is discussed later in this chapter. The next section addresses the government's efforts to develop women in the country.

2.2.2 The Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children (MCDWAC)

As part of the efforts to develop women in Tanzania, in 1990 the government established the Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children (MCDWAC) which was charged with the responsibility of coordinating and acting as a catalyst to women's development policy in the country. In doing so it works in collaboration with both governmental and non-governmental organizations. The

functions of the Ministry with regard to women's development are:

- i to formulate and supervise the implementation of the WID policy,
- ii to coordinate and evaluate projects which are donor-supported to ensure the advancement of women in the country,
- iii to educate the community on the importance of family planning and child care, general domestic as well as environmental upkeep and sanitation, and the use of appropriate technology in order to improve productivity,
- iv to raise awareness among women so that they can identify problems facing them and plan ways and lay down strategies to overcome these problems,
- v in collaboration with the ruling party, to sensitize the community about the effects of societal norms and values that discriminate against women and maintain norms and values that promote equality,
- vi to ensure that women participate fully in all activities relating to community development (Mrutu 1993: 14).

Among the strategies adopted by the Ministry to enhance women's development and gender equality, was the formulation of the WID policy, of credit policy guidelines in order to assist women acquire credit for productive activities, and the establishment of the Training Fund for Tanzanian Women (TFTW) to ensure the advancement of women's education given the low levels of education of the majority of Tanzanian women.

Other initiatives undertaken by the government to advance women as a target group include the establishment of a legal aid clinic to assist women on legal matters, the creation of the Gender Advisory Board in the Bureau of Statistics to ensure timely and reliable statistics on the situation of women so as to eliminate stereotypes and consolidate movement towards attaining full equality (Mrutu 1993: 15-16).

In 1992, the MCDWAC formulated the WID policy which was to guide the direction of women's development activities in the country. The objectives of the policy are

the following:

- i to define the meaning of the concept of “women in development”,
- ii to identify problems arising from planning without a gender focus and to give guidelines in planning with a gender focus,
- iii to identify obstacles hindering the participation of women in development and to direct ways of removing the obstacles,
- iv to initiate strategies and establish a system of reducing women's heavy workload,
- v to expound ways which would be used in coordinating women and development programmes (Tanzania. MCDWAC 1992: 5).

However, facilitating the development of women in Tanzania is not a domain of the MCDWAC only. A host of other institutions and organizations (governmental, non-governmental and international), working in various sectors of society, are committed to developing the masses of Tanzanian women given their crucial role in the development of the nation.

The MCDWAC depends heavily on community development workers at grassroots level to disseminate information on various relevant and important issues on women and development. It also organises sensitization seminars to promote gender-sensitivity in both the public and private sectors. It depends on the mass media and other women's NGOs to publicise gender issues in order to raise gender awareness. To a certain extent, MCDWAC lacks effective structures to effectively disseminate information to the public. Limited publicity of the WID policy formulated in 1992 can partly be attributed to this lack of effective information dissemination structures.

2.2.3 The role of women's and non-governmental organizations

The 1980s and 1990s saw the proliferation of women's associations, in the form of non-governmental organizations working on women and gender issues. The main objective was to undertake concrete strategies in their efforts to improve the lot of Tanzanian women.

In order to achieve their objectives, these organizations developed rigorous education and information campaigns aimed at the gender-sensitization of the different players in all spheres of the social, economic and political life of Tanzania and have been at the forefront of educating and informing the Tanzanian public on issues related to women and development.

First, some women's groups saw the need to fill the vacuum left behind by the UWT when it decided to remain a women's organization under the umbrella of the ruling party. As a result *Baraza la Wanawake Tanzania* (BAWATA), the Tanzanian Women's Council, was born as an organization whose objective was to unite all Tanzanian women irrespective of their political orientation in order to reinforce the struggle for gender equality on all fronts, that is, social, economic and political. The main activities of BAWATA are to promote the economic empowerment of women especially in rural areas and to impart vocational skills to assist young people achieve self-employment. The council has also designed a Policy Monitoring and Advocacy Programme the objectives of which are to monitor the progress of reforming policies and reviewing laws which have a negative impact on women's development. The monitoring process focuses on land and inheritance rights, social services' delivery and violence against women (BAWATA 1996: 4).

The BAWATA administrative structure emphasises grassroots participation and has, to a great extent, taken advantage of the government administrative structure (See Figure 1) to reach the masses of people at grassroots levels. However, in 1996 the council was banned from conducting its activities by the government for allegedly adopting "political structures" and being "political" in its organizational and mobilizational aspects. The organization has contested the banning order in court and it has been awarded a court injunction to continue with its activities while the court case is proceeding.

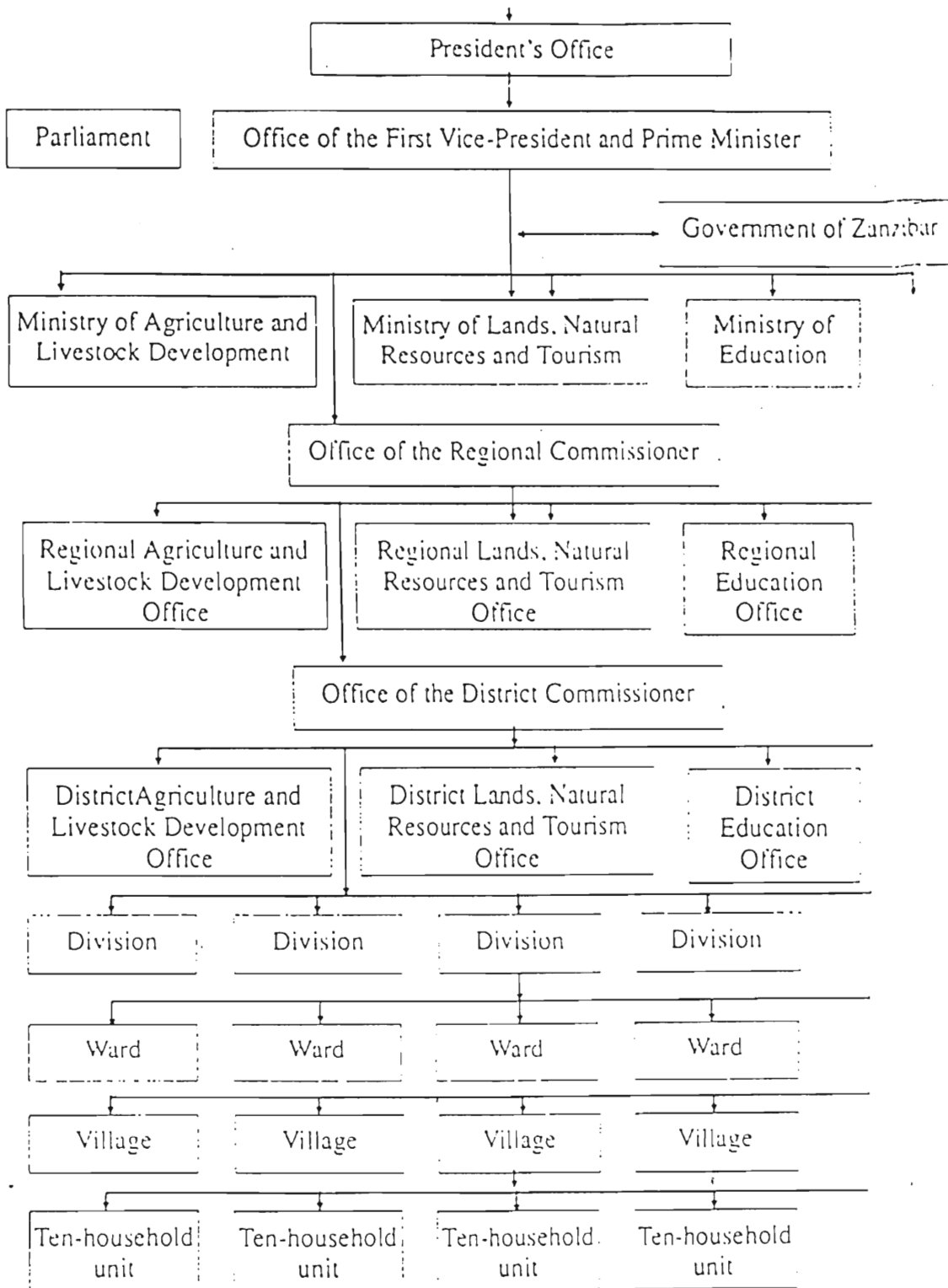
In the health sector there is the Child Survival and Development Project (CSDP), government implemented programme supported by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). This programme targets the problems of malnutrition and child and

maternal deaths. The main components of the programme are "health, water and environmental sanitation, adequacy of food intake, child care and development, information, education and communication" (Muro 1993: 5). Under the CSDP there are the Women's Economic Activities (WEA) aimed at improving the economic conditions of women and the Advocacy and Sensitization Activities directed at planners and implementors at all levels (Muro 1993: 5).

Other programmes in the health sector include those undertaken by "*Chama cha Uzazi na Malezi bora Tanzania*" (UMATI), that is, the Family Planning Association of Tanzania. This is a non-governmental organization whose objective is to provide family planning services to the public to enable Tanzanians to plan their families and become responsible parents. Through its strategic plan, UMATI has been able to undertake several community projects aimed at promoting awareness among the general public. In so doing it has an active Information, Education and Communication (IEC) section whose responsibility is to develop a host of educational and informational materials such as booklets, posters, leaflets and films (Nsekela 1993: 112-113). It also organises seminars and workshops for various target groups to disseminate relevant information related to family planning, safe motherhood and the health of women and children.

In the information field, the Tanzanian Media Women's Association (TAMWA) has been very active in educating and informing the general public and women about women and gender issues. TAMWA was founded in 1987, its original objective being to change the negative way in which the media portrayed women. Over the years it has been instrumental in gender-sensitizing the general public through its diverse information communication strategies. First, it has a publication unit which collects and repackages relevant information to make it available in accessible formats. It publishes a regular magazine titled "*Sauti ya Siti*" or Siti's Voice and a popular education series in the form of pamphlets, leaflets and posters, for example.

Figure 1: THE GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE



Source: Updated from Mgeni 1995: 241

These publications enlighten the public on major women's concerns such as sexual harassment, domestic violence, teenage pregnancy, drug abuse, rape, the law of inheritance, maternal mortality and morbidity and women's diseases amongst other things. Secondly, it conducts short courses to impart skills and knowledge in information technology, radio programme production and popular theatre to women's groups. Thirdly, it manages a documentation centre on women and gender-related literature which consists of about 100 books, 50 magazines and 300 publications in the form of research reports and conference papers (Kiondo1994: 64). Fourthly, the organization conducts highly publicised seminars on women and gender issues for selected target groups such as women leaders. Participants are expected to go back to their communities with the necessary skills to impart knowledge they have gained to these communities. Finally, it manages a Women's Crisis Centre in Dar es Salaam which provides counselling and legal services to victims of violence and gender discrimination.

In the education field, adult education experts have initiated programmes geared at creating gender-sensitive materials for new literates. The Women's Expert Group in Adult Education (WEG) was formed to make adult education transformative in nature in order to liberate women in general and change societal attitudes in particular. The main objective of the WEG was to examine the relevance of post-literacy learning materials for women's problems and needs (Lasway and Biswaro 1993: 127).

Activities undertaken by the WEG include reviewing the adult education curriculum to make it more gender-sensitive and conducting seminars and workshops to raise awareness about gender issues for all those involved in adult education at all levels. The target groups include those involved in the production of rural newspapers, films and radio programmes and in rural libraries, education, Folk Development Colleges (FDCs)⁶ and the Institute of Correspondence⁷. The WEG is also involved in the

⁶Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) are residential colleges intended for functional literacy graduates. The training programmes emphasize life support skills. These are also used for the training of literacy teachers, adult education co ordinators and village managers, for instance.

⁷Institute of Correspondence offers continuing education courses to the adult public through correspondence.

training of adult education teachers of the new post-literacy as well as in developing and publishing post-literacy reading and learning materials which focus on the problems and needs of target groups (Lasway and Biswaro 1993: 129).

Given the scarce resources for adult education, the WEG depends largely on donor funding for its activities. However, the plan for the future of adult education activities lies with the community based organizations (CBOs) which are expected to be instrumental in initiating and promoting adult education programmes according to their needs. Adult education experts remain the facilitators of the adult learning process (Lasway and Biswaro 1993: 130).

In the legal field, several organizations are in the forefront of educating the public, particularly women, by disseminating legal information in areas of need. Their main objective is to increase the public's and women's awareness of their legal rights. Activities undertaken by these organizations include "gender-sensitization, human rights advocacy, legal literacy for women and supporting women in crisis". The establishment of Legal Aid Clinics, training of paralegal personnel and production of legal information pamphlets are some of the activities undertaken to disseminate information and raise awareness on legal issues, according to Mukangara and Koda (1997: 59). Organizations which are active in this area are the SUWATA, TAMWA, TAWLA (Tanzania Women Lawyers Association) and the Human Rights Centre.

The activities of individuals, institutions, governmental and non-governmental organizations in women's development in the country could not operate independently of each other. Therefore, a networking programme was considered necessary to work cooperatively and exchange information and expertise in all issues related to women's and gender development in the country. In 1992 the Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP) was formed to network and provide solidarity to different groups and organizations. The view among these organizations was to supplement the efforts of the UWT and MCDWAC in improving the situation of women in Tanzania.

The main goal of TGNP is “to link transformative people and groups engaged in women’s and gender issues at national and regional levels with grassroots women and communities so as to provide the basis for women’s empowerment and social transformation” (TGNP 1993: 2). One of its specific objectives is “to generate, communicate and disseminate knowledge about women and gender issues as widely as possible” (TGNP 1993: 3). To achieve this particular objective, the programme disseminates information using, for instance, seminars, workshops, books, pamphlets, posters, videos, radio programmes, songs and popular theatre (TGNP 1993: 4). It also holds weekly seminars on gender and development, publishes a quarterly newsletter titled “*Ulingo wa Jinsia*” or Gender Platform and manages a documentation centre which collects and organises relevant materials on women, gender and development issues.

The establishment of non-governmental organizations has been a new trend in Tanzania. It should be noted that these organizations are not confined to women’s development programmes. There are several others committed to providing development services to the general public by either supplementing efforts undertaken by the government or bridging gaps in areas where government activities are limited. These organizations operate under the umbrella of the Tanzania Non-Governmental Organization (TANGO). In 1992 there were about 224 such organizations (Kiondo 1994: 50).

It is generally argued that non-governmental organizations have an advantage in conducting successful community development and information-dissemination activities for the public. Reasons given for this advantage are as follows:

- i due to their relatively small size, it is easier for them to formulate and implement policies,
- ii NGOs can reach and respond to the needs of the people more easily and more quickly,
- iii they use a bottom-up approach in the implementation of development projects (Uganda. Ministry of Women in Development 1990: 204).

In facilitating women's development, it has been pointed out that "non-governmental organizations have become the most dynamic arena for women's empowerment" (TGNP 1990: 57). In support of this view, Hyden (in Gibbons 1994: 18), an expert in African development issues calls upon African states to create an "enabling environment" for development to take place in their countries. He argues that "local community-based efforts, informal-sector entrepreneurship and other spontaneous activities constitute the anchor points on which development must be based".

2.2.4 The role of the mass media

In Tanzania, the mass media have been very instrumental in educating and informing the public. The socialist and egalitarian development strategies adopted by the government necessitate the use of the mass media, especially radio and radio fora as tools for social and economic transformation. As far as decision-makers and planners are concerned, mass communication has the capacity and the potential to enhance the process of socio-economic, political and cultural change (Newa 1989: 39).

As part of the government's efforts to enhance social, economic and cultural development, several mass media sources of information were used both in urban and rural areas. The national broadcasting services, Radio Tanzania, Dar es Salaam (RTD), which is government-owned, designed several educative programmes in almost all sectors including agriculture, health, cooperatives, adult education, forestry and women's development programmes. Apart from these programmes, relevant messages were broadcast through song, dance and slogans as well as radio shows (dramatized programmes). To ensure a two-way flow of information, radio fora were launched in villages to discuss major issues in the relevant radio programmes.

The radio has also been used to educate the public on gender and women's issues in general. The RTD has regular features on these issues titled "Women and Development" and "Women's Half Hour" in Kiswahili and English respectively. In

addition, it has been noted that on average there are about sixteen programmes focussing on women and development aired on RTD each year (TGNP 1993: 69).

Although, radio and newspapers have been used widely in Tanzania, studies have shown that despite its capacity to inform the public, access to radio is severely limited especially in some rural areas of developing countries including Tanzania and Malawi (Mchombu 1993; Utah 1993; Mlama 1994). On the other hand, rural newspapers were launched not only to educate and inform but also to enlighten and develop a reading culture (Newa 1989: 39; Msuya 1992: 23; Kivikuru 1994: 47). It has been noted that rural newspapers generate a lot of interest among the rural people. However, over the years the production and distribution of rural newspapers has been hampered by financial, bureaucratic and management bottlenecks (Newa 1989: 39; Kivikuru *et al* 1994: 50).

In Tanzania, mass information-communication campaigns have used a combination of information providers which, among others, include song and dance, slogans, printed materials (posters, pamphlets, clothing) public meetings, and group discussions (Newa 1989: 44).

By the 1990s, there were dramatic changes in the mass media scene in Tanzania necessitated by socio-economic and political transformation which was taking place in the country. In the economic arena, the new stance was a market-oriented economy as opposed to the planned socialist economy proclaimed in the 1967 Arusha Declaration, while on the political front, the country was transforming itself from monolithic party politics to a multiparty system with the emergence of new political parties.

The changes taking place in the economic and political sphere reflected themselves in the social sphere with the emergence of privately-owned mass media such as privately-owned newspapers, radio, and television stations.

These new sources provided avenues for airing alternative points of views. Among the many issues undertaken by the privately-owned media, the question of women and gender has featured prominently as indicated below:

- i the Independent Television (ITV) station has a one-hour weekly programme devoted to women and development. This programme aims to educate and inform the masses by addressing the main issues at stake in the struggle to develop and emancipate Tanzanian women.
- ii Radio One has a one-hour weekly radio programme titled "*Miwani ya Maisha*" that is "Life Vision" which discusses major women and development concerns in the country.
- iii "*Majira*" and "*Mtanzania*" are newly launched, privately-owned newspapers which carry informative and educative feature articles on women and gender issues. Main issues discussed include women and land, education, economy, political participation as well as the social problems faced by Tanzanian women.

These information activities undertaken by the privately-owned media supplement those carried out by the state-owned media which also include programmes on women and development as well as other development-related programmes delivered to the public.

The late (1992) installation of television broadcasting in Tanzania meant that for a long time, radio and newspapers were the main forms of mass media available to the public.

2.2.5 The role of the Tanzania Library Service (TLS)

The Tanzania Library Service (TLS) was established in 1963 to oversee the development of libraries in Tanzania. As part of its mandate, the TLS had established several regional and district libraries to create a network of libraries. The objective was to extend library and information services to the people throughout the country. Of the library network created, the TLS played a central role by preparing

and implementing plans, coordinating materials' acquisition and staffing (Dahlgren 1995).

As far as the provision of library and information services to rural communities is concerned, the TLS provided rural library services in the form of book boxes to clubs and institutions, mobile library services and postal services. Over the years, rising costs and other problems of managing services led to the termination of services provided to rural people. Problems encountered in the provision of rural library services included vehicles maintenance costs, fuel costs, loss of library materials in the circulation process and insufficient materials in the main local language, Swahili (Ilomo in Dahlgren 1995).

Furthermore, after the formulation and implementation of decentralization policy in 1972, regional and district libraries were under the jurisdiction of local authorities. Local authorities were required to take over the costs of managing these libraries, the TLS maintained its coordinating role. As such the level of development of a regional or district library and the level of information services it could extend to rural communities depended very much on the extent to which local authorities were ready to commit sufficient resources for information services.

Although the TLS has been bestowed with legal powers to promote and manage libraries services in both urban and rural areas (Kaungamno 1993: 812), it has played a very marginal role in the provision of information services to rural people of Tanzania.

2.3 Rural development and rural information and extension services

To spearhead the development of rural areas where the majority of Tanzanian people live, the government has formulated rural development policies, the guiding principle being "*maendeleo vijijini*" or "development to the villages". The Arusha Declaration of 1967 put great emphasis on the elimination of illiteracy, poverty and

diseases by means of programmes of socialism and self-reliance (Van Buren 1997: 976). Under the rural development programme, a number of projects and programmes were initiated in the effort to bring qualitative change to the lives of rural people. These included extension programmes in the field of agriculture, health, community development, forestry, cooperatives, as well as fisheries and adult functional literacy programmes which embraced the concept of rural libraries and rural newspapers.

There are several institutions which undertake information/extension services in the area of the study. As far as the government is concerned, there is a standard government structure which encompasses several social and economic sectors. This structure ensures that the activities of each particular sector operate at grassroots levels through deployment of information providers (extension workers) who work closely with local government officials at ward and village levels (See Figure 1). The major social sectors represented and administered at the ward levels and which are examined in this study are agriculture and livestock, health, forestry, community development and education, including the provision of library information services to rural people.

The following sections discuss the various information/extension services undertaken by both government and non-governmental organizations in the area of the study. Discussion in this section will revolve around information/extension services provision within the framework of the various projects and programmes in each of these sectors, by both governmental and non-governmental organizations operating in the area of the study.

2.3.1 The agricultural sector

2.3.1.1 The National Agricultural and Livestock Extension Project (NALEP)

In the agricultural sector, information-exchange activities directed at imparting skills and knowledge in agriculture and livestock development to farmers are coordinated

by the National Agricultural and Livestock Extension Project (NALEP). The objective of this project is to provide extension services (advice) on crop and livestock in order to improve productivity and income for farmers. These activities are undertaken in all the three districts in which the study was conducted, namely, Muheza, Korogwe and Lushoto. NALEP activities involve the training of village extension officers through monthly training sessions on relevant agricultural messages to be delivered to farmers. The messages given are site-specific and demand-oriented (Shelukindo 1996).

The main approach used to disseminate information is the training and visit (T&V) in which a model (contact) farmer is selected from the community to implement new agricultural ideas in his/her plot for other members of the community to emulate. Information-exchange activities, therefore revolve around educating this contact farmer and other neighbouring farmers.

The NALEP project is sponsored by the World Bank and it is in its second phase of implementation (1997-2001). According to the Lushoto District Extension Officer, the second phase is going to be more pragmatic in its approach than the first. The programmes are being modified to include elements of needs assessment through participatory rural appraisal (PRA) which will encourage a group approach in the process of information dissemination. In addition, gender issues will be more carefully scrutinized and the plan is to make sure that at least 30% of women participate in each planned information-dissemination activity aimed at imparting to farmers the relevant skills and knowledge needed to improve agricultural productivity (Shelukindo 1996).

2.3.1.2 Soil Erosion Control and Agroforestry Project (SECAP)

In the agricultural sector there are also non-governmental organizations whose activities supplement those undertaken by the government through NALEP. In the Lushoto District there is the Soil Erosion Control and Agroforestry Project (SECAP) funded by the Federal Republic of Germany (GTZ). The objective of this project is to

ensure that sustainable and ecologically-sound soil and water conservation measures as well as agroforestry systems are applied in the Usambara Mountains. The expected output is increased farmer productivity and awareness of improved agricultural and environmental development issues (Shelukindo 1996).

Information-exchange activities undertaken by SECAP include advising farmers in the area of soil erosion control, specifically about how to make terraces and contour lines on their farms to counter soil erosion problems on hill tops, as well as agroforestry and afforestation. Other activities involve the promotion of improved fruit and tree cultivation, organic farming techniques, how to develop tree nurseries, crop husbandry and livestock development through zero-grazing approaches to counter pressure on scarce land.

Information directed towards imparting skills and knowledge to the farmers takes the form of exchanges through leaflets, pamphlets and booklets, meetings, video shows, tours, trial demonstrations and training of farmers.

Participatory rural appraisal (PRA) and catchment approaches are used in the planning and implementation of information-exchange activities respectively. This ensures the participation of the target groups through a bottom-up approach. Farmers participate in the whole process of information communication at the hamlet level (a cluster of 20 to 30 households) in order to ensure a two-way flow of information. Through the hamlet approach, a specific area is covered uniformly in a given time. Gender-sensitive approaches are used in planning of information-exchange activities in order to ensure that both men and women benefit. This also ensures that the programme is site-specific and addresses farmers' needs and priorities in that specific area (Shelukindo 1996).

2.3.1.3 Traditional Irrigation Programme (TIP)

Another significant area in which agricultural information is exchanged is through TIP activities. This programme is funded by the Netherlands Development Organization.

Its main objective is to ensure sustainable development of irrigated agriculture in the Lushoto District. Its activities revolve around the rehabilitation of agriculture with due regard to soil and water conservation, tree planting, water management and use. The expected benefits include increased productivity, improved food security, increased levels of income for rural population, production of fodder for domestic animals, trees for timber and firewood and improved gender relations at household and village levels through training in leadership, gender, soil and water management (TIP, Gender Development Officer 1996).

In the planning of TIP activities, gender-sensitive approaches are applied to ensure that both men and women participate and benefit from the planned activities. In integrating gender issues the programme expects that women will benefit directly by acquiring rights to crops, land and income, participating in decision-making processes as well as raising awareness among water users on the division of work and wealth at household and village levels (TIP, Gender Development Officer 1996).

2.3.1.4 Integrated Livestock Development Project (LDP)

This is one of the projects under the general framework of the Tanga Integrated Rural Development project (TIRDEP). Its objectives are to adjust livestock numbers to counteract the problem of land scarcity, to integrate livestock and agriculture, to improve peoples' nutrition, to improve farmers' income and to achieve an ecological balance (Baum *et al.* 1983). Within the context of the project, farmers are informed and educated on how to improve their livestock through application of modern techniques. Information is disseminated through face-to-face communication, pamphlets and training of farmers in modern livestock development techniques.

2.3.2 The health sector

Information and education on health issues are imparted to rural communities within the framework of the various health projects and programmes which operate in the area of the study. The main ones are discussed in the following sections:

2.3.2.1 The Family Health Project (FPH)

In the health sector information is exchanged through the various activities undertaken by the Health Department both at district and division levels, through the National Health Education Unit in the Ministry of Health.

Information-exchange activities revolve around disseminating information which emphasizes the prevention of communicable diseases. Through the Family Health Project (FHP) of the Ministry of Health, (funded by the German Government) a number of activities are undertaken by health extension workers deployed at village levels. First and foremost is the task of educating the masses of rural people on the prevention of diseases. The emphasis is on environmental sanitation, improving rural dwellings, encouraging the building and using of pit latrines and inculcating the importance of boiling drinking water. Information on symptoms of diseases such as cholera, plague, malaria and meningitis which affect people in the area of the study is disseminated to the communities. Emphasis is also placed on the importance of sending people displaying the symptoms of such diseases to a health centre and not to traditional healers. This information is also extended to traditional healers, who in the fight against the killer diseases, have a working relationship with health extension workers (Msangi 1996).

An integrated mass approach is undertaken by the Health Department in all the three districts to ensure that health information is effectively delivered to the masses of rural people. The health information-exchange infrastructure has been extended to the village level by the training of volunteer village health workers who report directly to the village government. This has, to a great extent, made health information readily accessible to the masses of rural people. Information-exchange activities involve the production and distribution of posters which carry information on AIDS awareness, family planning, child immunisation, family nutrition, and home first-aid. In addition, village health workers, in collaboration with village leaders, carry out field trips which involve face-to-face communication from one household to another. Using such visits, on-the-spot health information needs of the households

are assessed and information is delivered accordingly. Relevant messages on environmental sanitation such as cleaning of the household surroundings, boiling drinking water, improving dwellings and building of pit latrines are transmitted (Msangi 1996).

2.3.2.2 Mother and Child Health (MCH)

The Health Department also disseminates information through the traditional Mother and Child Health (MCH) services. These services are mainly directed at rural women who are educated on various methods of family planning, child nutrition, sexually transmitted diseases and the importance of child immunization.

2.3.2.3 Expanded Immunization Programme (EIP)

This programme which is funded by the Danish Development Agency (DANIDA) targets rural families with the objective to immunize all children below the age of five against major child killer diseases. The programme provides facilities and training of health workers in the rural areas.

Through this programme, rural families and especially rural women are educated and informed on the importance of immunization through outreach programmes and when they attend MCH centres. Information is communicated through face-to-face communication, posters, radio programmes, and group discussions.

2.3.2.4 The National Aids Control Project (NACP)

The National Aids Control Project (NACP), under the Ministry of Health, also extends its services to the rural communities in the area of the study. The project disseminates AIDS awareness information to the rural community through distribution of posters, seminars, workshops and film shows.

2.3.2.5 *Mpango wa Elimu ya Ukimwi Mashuleni Tanga (MEUSTA) Tanga Schools Aids Education Project*

This a regional programme coordinated by the Education Department. The objective is to disseminate aids-awareness information to school-going children in the Tanga region. Information is exchanged through pamphlets, posters, video, films, song and dance and theatre.

2.3.3 The community development sector

The Community Development Department usually works with all the other sectors at district, division, ward and village levels, in planning development projects for rural people. The programme of action for community development is to empower rural communities legally, socially, economically and politically in order to eradicate poverty and to improve education and training for development purposes. The community development department works to develop the infrastructure necessary for development to take place at grassroots level. It mobilises the rural community for self-help projects such as the building of schools, health-care centres, roads, water wells, improving housing conditions, and liaising with credit institutions to acquire funding for such projects (Zongo 1996).

The Community Development Department has a special unit which focuses on women and development. The objective of the Women's Unit is to improve the welfare of rural women and to mobilize them to undertake viable economic activities and to disseminate the information needed by rural women to build up their capacities to operate both profitably and sustainably.

2.3.3.1 Tanga Integrated Rural Development Programme (TIRDEP)

The Tanga Integrated Rural Development Programme (TIRDEP) was established to oversee various development projects in the rural areas of the Tanga region. The main objective of the programme is to assist the regional office with elaborate and

comprehensive rural development projects, specifically the implementation of community projects (TIRDEP 1984).

2.3.3.2 The Village Development Programme (VDP)

The Village Development Programme (VDP) was established under the umbrella of TIRDEP. The goal of the VDP is to contribute to the establishment of self-sustaining development projects geared towards a lasting improvement of the living conditions of rural people in the region.

The VDP encourages rural people to initiate development projects based on their own needs and priorities. The philosophy behind VDP projects is the total participation of rural communities in the whole planning process of village projects. Training in skills required by the project is provided and rural people have been trained for instance, with regard to business skills and training opportunities, as well as procedures for applying for loans. The VDP encourages rural women to initiate development projects, and professional advice on various issues pertaining to the running of sustainable projects is made available to them. Rural women in the area of the study have benefited through projects, such as agricultural, poultry, hybrid cattle and piggeries projects.

2.3.3.3 Credit for Rural Women (CREW)

There are several non-governmental organizations working in the community development field. Most of these organizations direct their efforts at mobilizing rural women for economic emancipation. Among these organizations is CREW (Credit for Rural Women) whose objective is to mobilize women individually or in groups to establish economic ventures and to apply for loans. These women are encouraged to establish women's voluntary groupings which become part of the Association of Rural Women Entrepreneurs (ARWE) and through this association information on various issues of interest can be easily accessed by its members.

2.3.3.4 United Nations Fund for Women (UNIFEM)

The United Nations (UN) organization is also involved in mobilizing women in the Tanga region for productive activities. A UN credit scheme operates in four districts of the Tanga region namely Korogwe, Lushoto, Muheza and Handeni where it finances businesses undertaken by rural women's groups. The objective is to finance medium term-investments in such fields as small scale-farming (fruit and vegetables gardening), poultry, horticulture, forestry, bee keeping and cottage industries.

UNIFEM related information-exchange activities revolve around procedures for loan application, advice on how to write project proposals as well as training on how to run profitable small-scale enterprises (Korogwe District Community Development Officer 1997).

2.3.3.5 Support for Rural Water Sector (SRWS)

SRSW is a non governmental organization which facilitates the planning of water projects in rural communities. Its philosophy is to encourage participation of communities (both gender groups) in the planning and maintenance of water wells in the rural areas, as well as community responsibility for bearing some of the costs.

Information-exchange activities undertaken within the project revolve around imparting skills and knowledge about the management and maintenance of village water wells, as well as sustainable and efficient use of water resources by rural women in the villages. Women have been trained in the maintenance of water wells and have participated in village water committees as required by the 1991 water policy⁸ (SRWS project document 1996).

⁸The National Water Policy was formulated in 1991. It provides for community participation in the management of water supply and sanitation services. It pays special attention to women by stipulating that 50% members of Village Water Committees should be women.

2.3.4 The forestry sector

2.3.4.1 The East Usambara Catchment Forest Reserve Project (EUCFRP)

The Forestry Department undertakes several activities at village level geared towards the sustainable use of forestry and forestry products by rural communities. This project undertakes its activities in parts of the Muheza and Korogwe districts. (It should be noted that forestry activities in the Lushoto district are partly undertaken by SECAP). Its activities concern mainly mobilizing the rural communities living around reserve areas to be more sensitive to conservation issues and to make sustainable use of forest resources. To obtain the support of the local village population, the Forestry Department, through information and education campaigns, assists local populations to generate alternative sources of income. Villagers are mobilized to adopt both farm-forestry and agro-forestry activities. In order to enhance local participation in environmental, conservation and information-exchange activities, the Forestry Department has adopted animation methodologies which entice local people to participate effectively. Using these methodologies, the information exchange process undergoes four phases namely, (i) mobilization and creating awareness, (ii) organization and training, (iii) implementation and controlling and (iv) consolidation and training (Tanzania. Ministry of Tourism, Natural Resources and Environment (MTNRE) 1995).

A variety of information-exchange activities are undertaken by the project, including village public meetings, discussion groups, video/film shows, displaying posters, field tours and training of farmers in agro forestry and related activities. This project encourages rural women to form environmental conservation groups in which they undertake farm and agro forestry activities. In these groups information is exchanged and skills and knowledge are imparted on conservation issues (Tanzania. MTNRE 1995).

2.3.5 The education sector

The District Education Department has a major responsibility of undertaking educational activities in their areas of jurisdictions. Through school principals and ward education coordinators, the department liaises with the rural populations in the villages as far as education matters are concerned. The activities undertaken are supposed to go beyond formal education activities in schools to include adult education activities, both functional and post-literacy. This includes overseeing the rural libraries and rural information centres (Mushi 1996).

The school going children have been instrumental in disseminating information to the rural communities through song/dance, poetry and theatre. Through these information-exchange activities, short relevant messages on education, health and the environment are communicated to the rural people. Through the staging of cultural performances, education coordinators in liaison with other information workers in the rural areas, have made a great contribution to making the community aware of various issues.

2.3.5.1 Adult Education Programmes (AEP)

The education sector undertakes several adult education programmes. There are two main types of activities, those involving functional literacy and those on post-literacy activities. The objective of adult education programmes, apart from mobilizing people for their development, is that of “mobilising rural and urban masses to understand government policies, to acquire life-support skills, to eradicate illiteracy and to provide knowledge and skills on agriculture, health, home economics and rural construction in order to raise productivity and standards of living” (Kalinjuma 1983: 32). The adult education personnel in the area of the study work in conjunction with other development sectors to inform and educate rural people in several areas of social and economic development in the area of the study. In order to support these programmes, two other projects were designed as follows:

2.3.5.2 Rural Libraries and the Rural Newspaper Programme

Rural libraries have the objective of creating a permanent literate environment and to make available books on a wide variety of vocational and recreational topics. The objective of the programme was to establish at least one rural library in each village. In several villages and wards these libraries were part of the literacy programmes. In the fifteen wards visited by this researcher during field research, only four wards had collections of books called "rural libraries". These are the Gare and Lushoto wards of the Lushoto District, Kilulu and Maramba wards of the Muheza District and the Mombo ward of the Korogwe District.

Rural libraries were created primarily to support functional literacy as well as other post-literacy adult education programmes. In establishing a network of rural libraries, rural newspapers and rural radio fora, the objective was to ensure the retention of literacy skills acquired as part of the functional literacy programmes (Newa 1989: 39; Msuya 1992: 3). The survey carried out for this study has indicated that most of these libraries are no longer operational and are thus not accessible to the majority of rural people in the area of the study.

Through a rural newspaper programme, a newspaper titled "*Tujiendeleze*" (let us develop ourselves) was published and distributed in the northern zone which includes the Tanga region, as part of the efforts to provide reading materials which reflect local news and events to rural people in general and to the new literates in particular. However, currently, the rural newspaper has ceased to be published due to lack of equipment and resources.

As a way forward, it means alternative means of reviving and sustaining these services have to be devised. These alternative means should take into consideration shifts in government policy-orientation. The Adult Education Department is increasingly looking for initiatives from the community-based organizations (CBOs) to revive and sustain these services. The department will remain as a facilitator which will provide the expertise needed (Mushi 1996).

2.4 The impact of socio-economic changes on rural and women's development

The socio-economic and political changes currently taking place in Tanzania have had an enormous impact on the people. As part of the transition from socialist to liberal policies, government priorities have shifted tremendously. According to the TGNP (1994: 34) "government priorities have shifted from human to economic development, from food to cash crops, from small scale to large scale enterprises, from inward orientation to export-led policy in development". As a result of this shift in policy-orientation the government investment in support of social services has declined relative to other sectors. People are expected to contribute towards their own development as individuals and as communities on the basis of cost-sharing principles.

The main impact of these policies has been the deterioration of services, given the limited capacity of the majority of people, especially in the rural areas, to pay for services. The impact can be seen in the level of service delivery in the field of health, agriculture, farmers' cooperatives, education as well as community development. This has also had an impact on the existence of rural libraries, rural newspapers and on functional and post-literacy programmes.

These changes have also impacted negatively on the role and position of women in Tanzania (Mbughuni 1994: 232; Lugalla 1995: 48). Lugalla (1995: 47-51) points out that the SAPs have led to women's poor health, increased workload, poverty, sexual harassment and intensified gender inequalities.

It is within this context that the government looks upon the CBOs, donor-led development programmes and projects as well as the non-governmental organization community to join hands with communities to effect qualitative changes in the process of socio-economic and cultural development as well as women's development. It is also due to the intensification of unequal gender relations, that some non-governmental organizations are slowly embracing gender planning in their


development work in rural areas in order to alleviate the negative impact of the economic crisis on women. A good example of these are the Traditional Irrigation Project (TIP) and the Soil Erosion Control and Agroforestry Project (SECAP) which all operate in the area of the study.

On the other hand, although the government of Tanzania has committed itself to making gender a key aspect in its development policy formulation, programmes and projects, there are implementation problems at all levels of the development process. The problems have been identified as a lack of resources, a lack of publicity for the WID policy, a lack of training for gender planning, a lack of expertise as well as a lack of sensitivity on the part of development planners. In addition, the MCDWAC lacks the legal powers required to enforce the implementation of the WID policy formulated in 1992 (Mukangara and Koda 1997: 63-80). The main point which should be emphasised, is that the government should not only develop mechanisms for policy implementation but it is equally important that there should be a political will among government functionaries to use mechanisms to implement gender policies in order to achieve positive results.

2.5 A critique of trends in rural and women's development

Development planners and experts have contended that development programmes were planned and formulated without due regard for the differential role that men and women play in their communities. The marginalization of gender issues in rural development planning and strategies was a disadvantage for rural women who continued to lack access to productive resources such as land, education, credit and information (Lewis 1990: 176-180; Meena 1993: 94; Mbughuni 1994: 225; Ngware 1996: 39). However, from a positive point of view, the progressive rural development policies which embraced the expansion of health services (including Mother and Child Health (MCH) clinics), adult education and the Universal Primary Education (UPE) drive ensured some gains as far as meeting women's practical needs is concerned. To some extent these interventions facilitated women's capacity to improve their position in society (Mbughuni 1994: 214).

However, general arguments from gender and development experts on the development programmes under "Ujamaa policy" are summarized by Mbughuni (1994: 214) who argues that under the Arusha Declaration "development programmes did little to transform oppressive gender relations...development programmes continued to entrench women in reproductive roles".

 The neglect of gender issues in government policy and strategies has had a negative impact on the development and empowerment of women and communities. In Tanzania, "the empowerment of women is hampered by the fact that Tanzanian policies do not strive to question the existing gender relations, some of which are culturally and politically sanctioned" (Lugalla 1995: 52). As a result the majority of women in Tanzania have not been able to benefit squarely from rural development programmes. Development planners have not considered constraints on women's roles in society. Ngware (1996) discusses how these constraints, identified as a lack of access to land, traditional customs, a lack of access to education, training and information, create a vicious circle and thus impact negatively on women. She argues that a lack of access to land

- i inhibits women's ability to use resources effectively and sustainably;
- ii leads to a lack of access to credit for lack of collateral;
- iii leads to a lack of access to technical support and information from extension workers
- iv and leads to land degradation (Ngware 1996: 39).

It is therefore, within the context of the above social, economic and political development and changes in Tanzania that this study was undertaken, to ascertain how best rural women can be informed to take charge of their own development and that of their communities during the transition phase. In this context, of interest to this study is the arrival at the Tanzanian development scene of the various non-governmental organizations which this study will show are committed to and more active in adopting revolutionary approaches to educating and informing the masses of Tanzanian men and women than the relevant government agencies. A crucial question is: to what extent will these organizations forge alliances and partnerships with government agencies to improve accessibility of gender and development information to the rural masses especially women?

2.6 The area of the study: the Tanga region

2.6.1 Location and physiology

The Tanga region is located in the north-eastern part of Tanzania. It is one of the twenty administrative regions of the country. It borders the Republic of Kenya to the north, the Indian Ocean to the east, the Morogoro and Coast regions to the south and the Kilimanjaro and Arusha regions to the west (See Map no.1). The exact geographical location is between 4-6 degrees of latitude north of the equator and 27-30 degrees east of Greenwich.

2.6.2 Administrative division

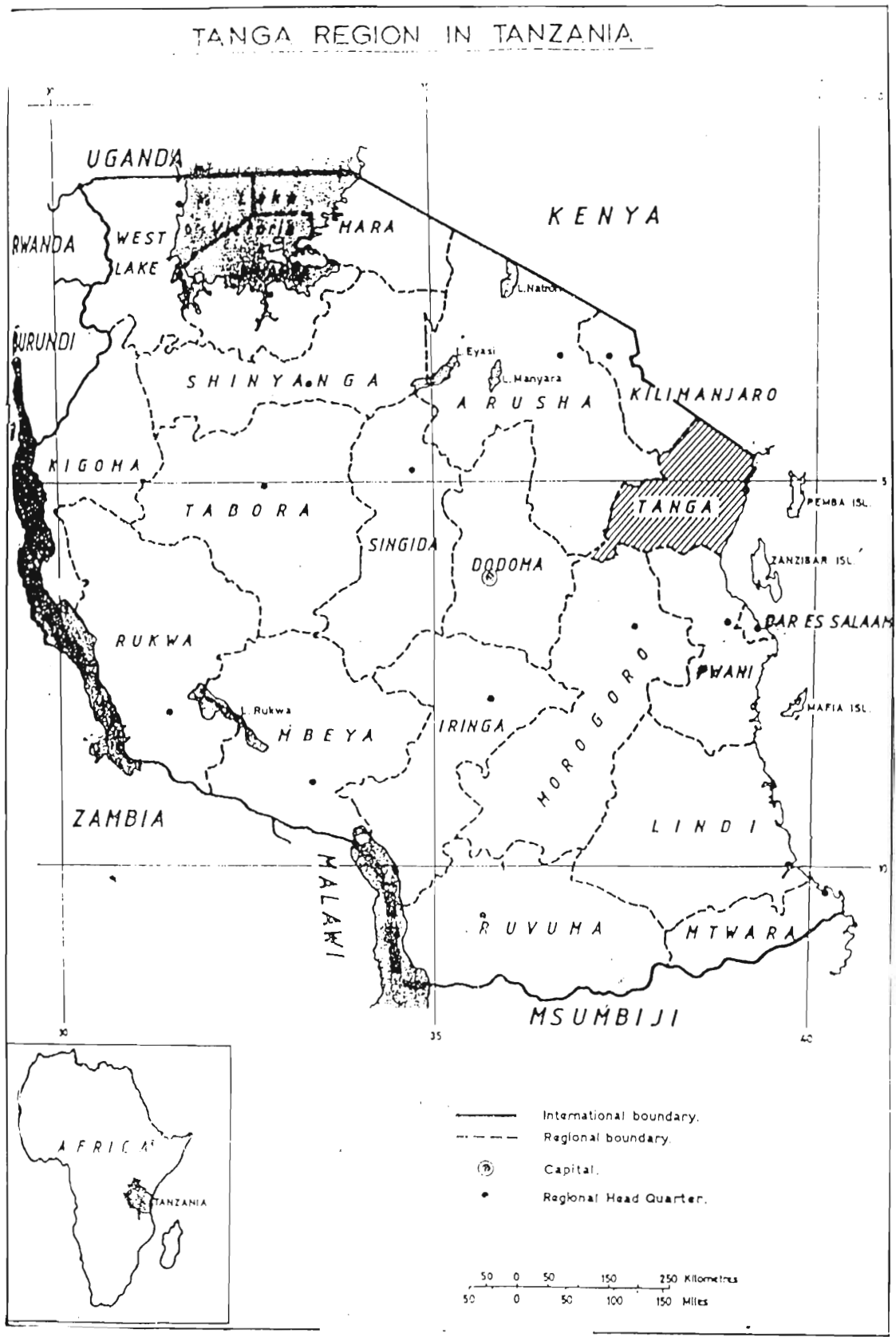
The region has a total area of 26,807 square kilometres. It is divided into six administrative districts, namely, Tanga, Muheza, Korogwe, Lushoto, Handeni and Pangani (See Map no.2). There are over 37 divisions and not less than 138 wards. It has a total of 557 registered villages. According to the 1988 census report (Tanzania. Bureau of Statistics 1990) there is an average of 5.1 people per household.

2.6.3 The population

According to the 1988⁹ population census, the Tanga region has a population of 1,280,262. Of this number 625,837 are male and 654,425 are female. The population in urban areas is 225,912 and 1,054,350 in rural areas. This means about 82.35% of the population lives in the rural areas of the region.

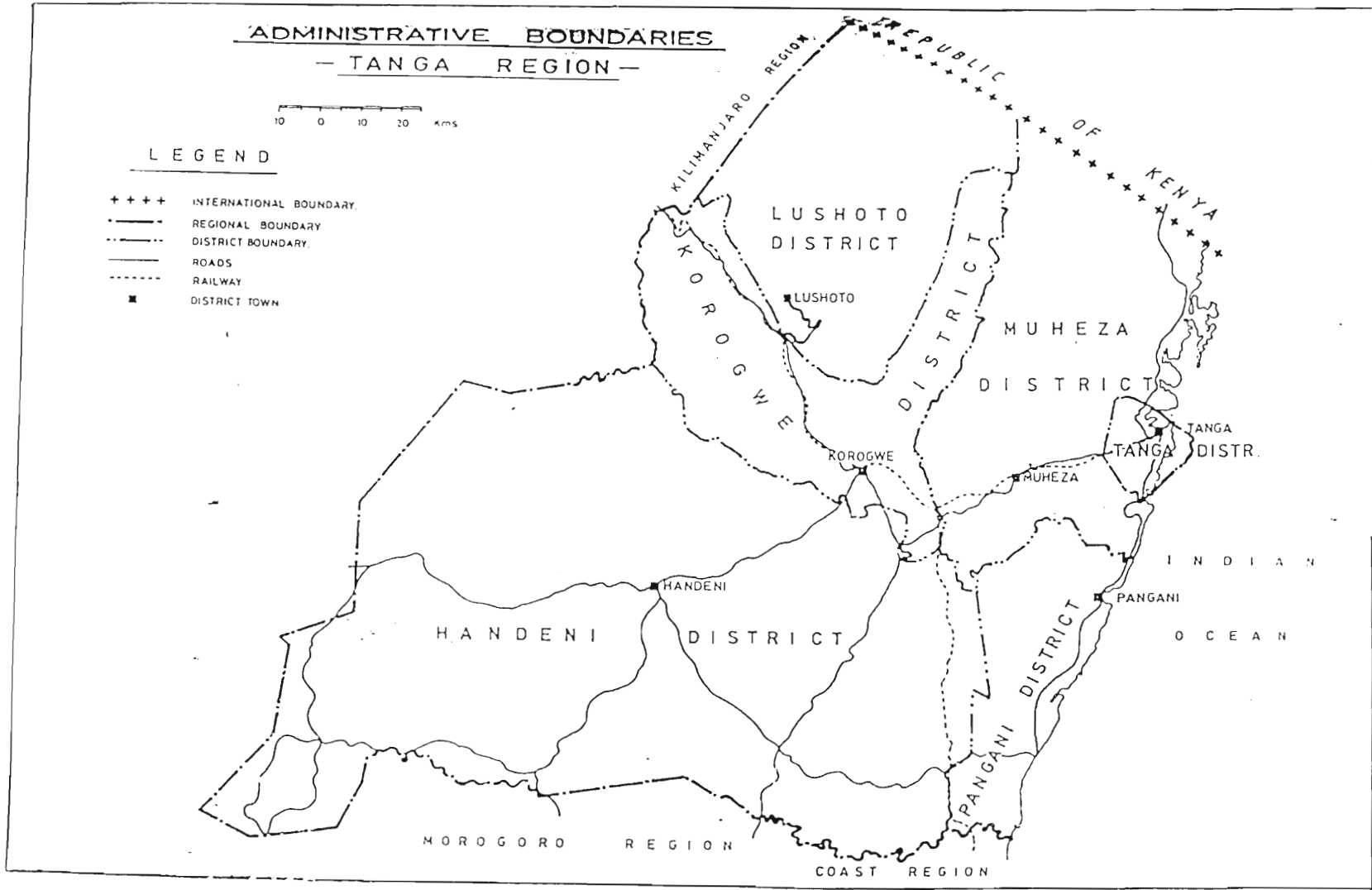
⁹In Tanzania a population census is conducted after every 10 years. In 1998 a Population census was not conducted because of a lack of funds on the part of the government. Therefore the 1988 figures are the most recent official population figures available.

Map no.1: TANGA REGION IN TANZANIA



Source: Msuya, J. 1992: 8

Map No. 2



Map no.2: ADMINISTRATIVE BOUNDARIES - TANGA REGION

Source: Msuya, J. 1992: 9

The population distribution in the region is very uneven. Although the Handeni district covers approximately 49.3% of the total area it has only 19.5% of the population, while the Lushoto district is heavily populated with almost 29% of the regional population living in an area covering 13.0% of the total regional area (Msuya 1992: 8).

2.6.4 Economic activities

Like other regions in the country, the Tanga region depends heavily on agricultural activities. Main crops grown in the area include maize, beans, coconuts, fruits and vegetables. There are large sisal estates which are spread along the Tanga railway line. Tea estates are mainly found in the Amani area of the Muheza District, while coffee is grown in some parts of the Lushoto district.

Tanga is among the regions earmarked for industrial development in the country. It has a substantial industrial base comprised of heavy, medium and small scale industries. Major industries located in Tanga include the steel rolling mills, and the Tanga cement and fertilizer industries. Others include chemical, sisal products and textile industries. As such, the region, ranks high among those which have achieved relative socio-economic development in the country (Msuya 1992: 9).

2.6.5 The social services infrastructure

The health infrastructure includes 12 hospitals, 17 health centres, 158 dispensaries and 110 village health posts in the region. Lack of equipment, drugs, staff and buildings are common problems at all levels of the health service system.

Educational activities in the region include a teachers' training college, 22 secondary schools, 650 primary schools and three folk development colleges. There is a regional library in Tanga town and a district library in Lushoto town.

In terms of transport, Tanga can be reached by road, railway, sea and air. It has a road network from Dar es Salaam to Nairobi in Kenya, as well as from Dar es Salaam via Tanga to Kilimanjaro and Arusha to the north west. A railway line (popularly known as the Tanga line) runs from Dar es Salaam through Tanga and Kilimanjaro in Tanzania to Nairobi in Kenya and Jinja in Uganda. The region has a harbour and a small air strip.

2.6.6 The study area

The survey undertaken for this study focussed on three districts of the Tanga region, which were randomly selected, namely the Muheza, Korogwe and Lushoto districts. The original plan to undertake a comprehensive survey of all the five rural districts was abandoned due to both financial and time constraints.

The Muheza district is the second largest district covering 19.6% of the total regional area. It is divided into three zones, namely, the coastal areas, the slopes of the Usambara mountains and a mountainous area. It has a total population of 231, 349 living in 45, 673 households. The female population is 49.8%. The district has 142 villages in 35 administrative wards and six divisions (Tanzania. Bureau of Statistics 1990).

Korogwe, the third largest district, forms a narrow lining to the southern half of the Usambara mountains. It has about 246, 781 people living in 44, 922 households. The female population accounts for 50.55% of the population. The district has a total of 132 villages divided into 20 administrative wards in four divisions (Tanzania. Bureau of Statistics 1990).

The Lushoto district occupies the land mass known as the West Usambara. It has about 357,531 people living in 65, 268 households. The female population is about 51.00%. The district has a total of 136 villages divided into 32 administrative wards in eight divisions (Tanzania. Bureau of Statistics 1990).

2.7 Summary

The Tanzanian government is committed to developing the masses of Tanzanian women and acknowledges the importance of integrating women in the development process. As part of this commitment, several efforts have taken place. Apart from facilitating the formation of the Union of Tanzania Women, the establishment of the Ministry of Women's Affairs and the signing of several international conventions aimed at protecting the rights of women in 1992, the government, through the Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children formulated the "Policy on Women in Development in Tanzania". The objective of the policy was to identify problems arising out of planning without a gender policy, to identify obstacles that hinder the participation of women in development and provide guidelines for gender planning (Tanzania. MCDWAC 1992: 5).

The above efforts are part of the realization that it is only through planning with a gender focus that productive resources and services provision can be made accessible to all gender groups. In this way, women can directly participate in and benefit from development processes. However, it is important that mechanisms for the implementation of gender and development policy should be developed. Adequate financial, human and material resources should be made available for successful implementation.

This chapter has discussed the social, economic and political environment with regard to the struggle for women and rural development. It has demonstrated Tanzania's commitment to develop the rural people through its policy of socialism and rural development formulated after the 1967 Arusha Declaration. As part of the rural development process, elaborate rural information delivery systems were established to educate and inform the rural people in order to bring about qualitative change in their lives. However, rural women have not been able to benefit significantly due to lack of concern for gender issues in the planning and implementation of development projects and programmes.

The socio-economic and political changes of the 1990s, which have led to radical shifts in economic, social and political policy orientation are discussed with regard to their impact on the rural information delivery system and rural and women's development.

The role of government, non-governmental organizations and the mass media in educating and informing the masses of Tanzanian people on critical gender and development issues is also examined.

A critique of trends in rural and women development are discussed in order to pave the way for alternative strategies which will ensure accessibility of information for rural and women development to all members of the rural community.

This chapter, concludes by giving a general description of the area of the study in terms of location, administrative division, population, economic activities and the social infrastructure.

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CHAPTER THREE

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

3. Introduction

In the 1980s and 1990s a considerable number of studies have been conducted on the rural information environment in developing countries. The overall objective of these studies has been to gain a better understanding of the dynamics of the rural information environment to enable information professionals to design appropriate rural information delivery systems which will meet the information needs of the rural people. The rationale behind these studies has been that the majority of people in the rural areas lack access to adequate and relevant information. Furthermore, the failure of rural development initiatives to bring about qualitative changes in rural areas has been partly attributed to this lack of access and use of appropriate information.

Studies on the rural information environment address different dimensions of the situation. Firstly, there are those which focus specifically on semi-literate and non-literate populations in rural areas. These studies investigate effective channels for communicating information to the above-mentioned target groups in rural areas (Aboyade 1984; Rosenberg 1986; Newa 1989). Secondly, there are those which seek to define and understand the information needs of rural populations with regard to rural development in general and agricultural development in particular (Aina 1985; Kaniki 1989; Ojiambo 1989; Nwagha 1992; Price 1992; Mchombu 1993; Dulle 1997). These focus on central issues such as information needs and information-seeking behaviour, information use and transfer mechanisms in rural areas. Thirdly, there are studies which focus on the role of the media, both local and indigenous in communicating information in rural areas. These studies are based on the perception of participation of rural people in creating their own information-exchange media which reflect local content and are based on local needs (Rosenberg 1986; Kivikuru *et al* 1994; Mlama 1994). Studies falling under

the three categories above constitute the core of the literature review in this study.

The central themes that constitute the review are:

1. Access to information: what constitutes access to information? What factors are responsible for unequal access to information between urban and rural populations, upper and lower classes and men and women?
2. Information needs and information-seeking behaviour: what constitutes information needs? What are the information needs of rural populations? Do women have special information needs? If yes how are these needs determined? How are they perceived by women and by information providers? What are the information-seeking patterns of rural populations? Do women seek information differently from men? Are their information needs satisfied?
3. Information use, transfer and delivery strategies: How is information exchanged in rural areas and how does this affect the accessibility of information by rural women? Which sources of information are preferred by, or accessible to, rural women? How do the various information providers interact with women users? What are the best strategies for disseminating information to rural women given their socio-economic position in rural communities? What strategies have been used to disseminate information to rural women?

In all the above three cases methodologies for studying the problems, providing solutions and their appropriateness are critically analysed.

3.1 Access to information: conceptual issues

This part of the review discusses theoretical and conceptual issues related to access to information. Access to information is a fundamental concept in information services. International organizations, governments, non-governmental organizations, libraries and information centres, for instance, all strive to ensure that information is made accessible to those who need it. The main question is, what exactly constitutes access to information?

Access to information is a multi-dimensional concept which connotes social, economic and political power relations between various social groups both at national and international levels. In her theoretical discourse, Cilliers (1994: 18) perceives access to information as related to the “availability of an information infrastructure which includes communication channels, delivery systems and access points needed for acquisition, processing and use of information”. However, it is contended that the availability of an information infrastructure is not enough to ensure accessibility of information. Users of information should be information-literate, able to search and use information effectively. Information literacy is defined as “knowledge of the required information, knowledge of where to obtain it, skills to acquire it, knowledge of the ways to acquire it” (Cilliers 1994: 18). Gorman (1983), Rosenberg (1986), Mchombu (1993), and Karelse (1994) have emphasised the need to link access to information to the socio-economic and political environments of a target group. This could enhance the appropriateness of information for the specific information needs of users in a specific community, whether in rural or urban areas (Gorman 1983).

At the international level, issues related to access to information connote economic and political power relations between the developed north and the underdeveloped south. The developed north has the financial and technological resources to acquire, organize and control information while the underdeveloped south lacks such resources (Rada 1994). In order to bridge the gap, there were proposals in the 1980s to establish a New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO). Underdeveloped countries of the south are concerned that the control and distribution of information is favouring the developed north.

At national level, especially in developing countries, access to information has been examined in the context of socio-economic classes, the rural-urban dichotomy and gender relations. Inequalities in accessing information have been observed between the upper and lower classes both in urban and rural areas. In urban areas, there are the upper class and middle class urban dwellers as opposed to the lower shanty town, illiterate or semi-literate, unskilled urban dwellers (Lundu and Milimo 1990).

Within the rural communities are the literate and rich farmers on the one hand and the poor, mostly illiterate peasants on the other. Studies (Feldman 1985; and Aarnink and Kingma 1992) in developing countries have shown that in rural areas most of the agricultural information aimed at improving agricultural productivity is to a great extent accessible to large scale farmers who are mostly male members of the rural communities. These studies used both qualitative and quantitative methods to arrive at their conclusions. The strength of these methodologies lies in their ability to give comprehensive conclusions, because qualitative methodologies can accommodate unexpected social conditions.

In the context of the rural-urban dichotomy, inequalities in accessing information have been observed between urban areas and rural areas. Development patterns in most developing countries are skewed in favour of urban areas. Infrastructures for the acquisition, organization and dissemination of information have been established in urban centres, while the rural areas still lack elaborate and coordinated information infrastructures. Although there have been several interventions made by governments to facilitate access to information in rural areas, the gap is yet to be bridged. With regard to the situation in East and Central African countries Made (1994: 32) conducted a comprehensive review of the situation using reports of empirical studies, theoretical and philosophical discourses. He concludes that "there are no information services that really satisfy the needs of people in rural communities, the peasants, the squatters, workers in rural industries and women". A similar conclusion has been drawn by Rosenberg (1993) after conducting a situational analysis of rural resource centres in Africa. Lack of access to information by the majority of rural people has inevitably created not only an information gap but also a development gap between the urban and rural areas. The gap is a major contributing factor to the low socio economic status of rural populations (Nwagha 1992: 80). People in rural areas continue to be ignorant of modern ways of improving agricultural productivity, environmental sanitation, preventive health care methods and nutrition. All these factors could greatly enhance the quality of life of rural populations (Nwagha 1992; Pakkiri 1992).

In the context of gender relations, it has been observed by Durrani (1985), Nwagha (1992), Mlama (1994), Dulle (1997) and others that the majority of women especially in rural areas tend to lack access to information. Mlama (1994: 42) argues that “although both men and women in rural areas lack access to information for development purposes, women are affected more because of their inferior position relative to men”. This argument is based on her study of development information communication to Tanzanian rural communities. In her study Mlama (1994) used qualitative research methodologies, in which separate women’s focus group interviews were used to derive the data upon which the arguments were based. The appropriateness of this methodology lies in the fact that women are given a forum to voice their problems and experiences.

Meanwhile, in his study of dissemination of agricultural information to small scale dairy farmers in Southern Highlands of Tanzania, Dulle (1997: 47) found that among those who benefit from information disseminated through the Small Scale Dairy Farmers Project (SSDFP), only 11.8% were women. As a result, more often than not, the majority of rural women remain ignorant not only of modern and efficient ways of improving agricultural productivity but also of their economic and political rights as members of society. Theoretically, the Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP 1993) points out that the situation arises out of unequal socio-economic and political relations between men and women.

In general those who lack access to information are identified as those who belong to the lower socio-economic classes, to which the majority of rural women belong. According to Bunch (1987: 4) these are “the disadvantaged, the deprived or the alienated”.

3.1.1 The right to access information

In developed countries, access to information is regarded as one of the fundamental rights of citizenship. The right of all citizens to have unobstructed access to information is enshrined in the national constitutions of these countries. National

governments of these countries have an obligation to establish and support structures that facilitate the accessibility of information. In developing countries, national governments, non-governmental organizations, institutions and information professionals are directing substantial efforts to bridging the information gaps between urban and rural areas. At a regional conference called to examine the state of information provision to rural communities of African countries, information professionals declared that:

Access to information services is a basic human right. Governments should ensure that this right applies to all citizens and especially to rural communities, the disadvantaged, disabled and the illiterate (The Gaborone Declaration 1994: 143).

It has been emphasised by Abid (1994: 11) that "it is not enough to recognize the right to access information. To give it substance, we have to conceive and put in place information services which correspond to the actual needs...".

In the United States and Britain lack of access to information by disadvantaged groups has been addressed through the establishment of Community Information Services. In Britain, the National Consumer Committee (NCC) report pointed out that continuous access to information is important to ensure effective citizen participation in modern democratic society (NCC Report cited in Bunch 1987).

In developing countries several efforts have been directed at bridging the gap in inaccessibility of information between urban and rural areas. The rationale for this concern is the commonly known fact that approximately 80% of the population of developing countries lives in the rural areas amidst poverty, illiteracy, ignorance and diseases. At the same time the productive activities of the rural people constitute the backbone of national economies. Information professionals posit the importance of establishing structures which would facilitate access to information in order to accelerate development and bridge the gap between urban and rural communities.

Although the need for equitable access to information has been emphasised, there is a general lack of concrete organization, coordination, implementation and, above all, comprehensive policy to back such an emphasis. In her review of the situation in

the Sub-Saharan African (SSA) region, Pakkiri (1992: 1) argues that “access to reliable sources of accurate, value-free and relevant information, although widely recognised yet lacks organizations and implementation programmes in most countries of the region”.

In most African countries, there are no comprehensive provisions or guidelines concerning ways to bridge gaps created by inequalities in accessing information by the various social groups. This is partly because some of the SSA countries are yet to formulate national information policies. Made (1994: 32) points out that information services in rural areas “function in isolation from one another without an attempt at a coordinated approach”. With regard to the situation in Nigeria, Mohamed (1994) proposes the establishment of a National Commission of Information to coordinate the activities of the various information agencies. He argues that the extent of bridging gaps in any society will depend largely on several factors which include the type and source of information, the mode of operation of information agencies and systems, the extent of cooperation, the relevance of information and a range of services, as well as timing in the acquisition of information and the intended audiences (Mohamed 1994: 104-105).

In attempts to address issues about making a useful information infrastructure available in rural areas on the one hand and on how the rural people could be made information literate on the other, information professionals (Rosenberg 1986; Kaniki 1989; Mchombu 1992; 1993; Matengu 1992; Kivikuru *et al* 1994; Kaniki 1995) and others have been confronted with several questions that demand empirical investigations in order to obtain realistic solutions. These and other related studies will be reviewed in this chapter.

3.1.2 Barriers to equal access to information

In his review of issues related to community information, Bunch (1987: 4) identifies three factors responsible for inequalities in accessing information. These are broadly described as (i) a lack of publicity: most of the time users lack awareness that

information which can help exists, (ii) inappropriate communication channels: some users lack the ability to understand information in the form in which it is presented and (iii) location and mobility: the problems of access caused by geographical position or individual mobility. This is generally true for people living in remote rural villages and nomadic people.

The non-accessibility of sources of information, especially in print and audio-visual forms has been identified as another barrier. Kantumoya (1992: 34) points out that "information meant for public consumption is disseminated through newspapers, television or radio which for various reasons are out of touch with the common man or woman".

On the other hand, Mlama (1994: 54) identifies similar barriers for people living in the rural areas of developing countries. She points to "low income levels, low literacy rates, a poor communication infrastructure, the one-way character of the mass media and institutional forms of communication" as factors that contribute to inequalities in accessing information between various social groups both in urban and rural areas.

In his review of obstacles to the flow of agricultural information to African farmers, Aina (1990: 201-203) identifies three factors, namely, a high level of illiteracy, a dearth of radio and television sets and an inadequate number of personnel trained in agricultural information.

3.1.2.1 Barriers to rural women's access to information

Literature on access to information indicates that there are barriers which affect the rural people in general as discussed above and those which affect women in particular. These are reviewed and discussed in this section.

As far as rural women's access to information is concerned, Mlama (1994: 52) presents six factors which contribute to unequal access to information between men

and women. These are poverty, illiteracy, low levels of education, unfair division of labour, cultural inhibitions and various forms of gender oppressions. Similarly, Aarnink and Kingma (1992: 16), in their empirical study of information communication between extension workers and female farmers found out that the main barriers women face in accessing information are: prejudicial attitudes towards women, traditions and customs, and gender roles and responsibilities where it is assumed that it is a man's task to seek information and advice. In her review of constraints in providing information to women, Raseroka (1990: 158-166) argues that "culturally based constraints might... be the greatest which have to be confronted by information specialists" (Raseroka 1990: 164). She identifies lack of time and illiteracy as the other barriers to women's access to information and she argues that lack of time has led women to rely on unofficial sources of information such as friends and relatives. Lund (1998: 7) discusses the problem of lack of time in her review of "The effects of poverty and inequality on participatory and institutional development". She argues that women's workloads have "a direct effect on the time available to spend on economic organization and community activities". Besha (1989) has raised a similar concern about the impact of women's workloads on their participation in information communication activities. Due to lack of time, more often than not, information is exchanged during routine communal activities such as water fetching, gathering of firewood and traditional ceremonies (Raseroka 1990). This makes friends and relatives the main source of information for women.

The above review shows that there are several factors which lead people and women, particularly, to lack access to information. These factors arise out of the social, economic, cultural and geographical environments of the users.

3.2 Information needs and information-seeking behaviour of rural people

3.2.1 Information needs

The information needs and the information-seeking behaviour of users have been of interest to information workers because these are the foundation upon which meaningful and effective information services could be based (Mchombu 1993). Several empirical studies (Kaniki 1989; Matengu 1992; Nwagha 1992; Mchombu 1993; Kaniki 1995; Sturges and Chimseu 1996; Dulle 1997) were designed to assess, among other factors, the information needs of communities or special groups of users in rural communities.

In analysing information needs, both quantitative and qualitative methodologies have been applied in the research process. The most common methodologies used have been the survey methodologies using both structured and unstructured interviews or questionnaires. These methodologies may or may not include the “critical incident approach” to information needs assessment. For instance, Mchombu (1993) and Kaniki (1995) have used the critical incident approach. This approach translates problems experienced by users in their daily activities into information needs and is based on the assumption that new information, knowledge or skills would be useful in solving problems identified by users. These methodologies have been successful in establishing the needs of various groups of users.

On the other hand, other researchers (Price 1992; Mloma 1994; Sturges and Chimseu 1996) have used alternative methodologies in the assessment of information needs of users. These researchers have used qualitative research methodologies. According to Sturges and Chimseu (1996: 139) “qualitative research has the ability to be more open to the unexpected than strictly quantitative methods”. In analysing needs of illiterate and neo literate populations in Ibadan, Nigeria, Aboyade (1984) used an action-oriented, participant-observation methodology to analyse the information needs and information-seeking patterns of users.

Meanwhile, Kivikuru *et al* (1994) applied both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies in their action-oriented research of nine villages in Tanzania. The methods have been applied to gain a wider understanding of dynamics of development information communication in a rural environment. On the use of multiple research methodologies to study a problem and provide a solution, Glazier and Powell (1992) argue that “multiple approaches from which researchers may draw conclusions give researchers a better opportunity to understand the complex social phenomenon with which they are faced”.

In assessing the information needs of users and special groups of users the appropriateness of the methodology to be employed should not only be based on the nature, scope and objectives of the study but also on its reliability and validity (Bulmer 1993: 10-11). An analysis of trends in information needs assessment indicates that increasingly researchers have tended to employ qualitative methodologies (Price 1992; Mlama 1994; Sturges and Chimseu 1996) or a combination of both (Kivikuru *et al* 1994).

The nature of information needs of rural populations and disadvantaged groups has also been examined by several researchers such as Fairer-Wessels (1987), Matengu (1992), Kivikuru (1994), and Kaniki (1995), to mention just a few. Understanding the nature of the information needs of users is crucial in setting up relevant information services. Research done by Kivikuru *et al* (1994) to determine among other things, the nature of information needs in nine Tanzanian villages, concludes that most needs belong to the realm of basic needs. These findings have been supported by research done by Fairer-Wessels (1987), Matengu (1992) and Kaniki (1995) who investigated, among other things the nature of information needs of urban black women in Mamelodi, South Africa, rural communities in Ovamboland, Namibia and two rural communities in Kwa-Zulu Natal and the former Transkei respectively. All of them found that most of the information needs in these communities were basic in nature. In the nine Tanzanian villages and in Ovamboland people identified basic needs such as firewood, water, land, proper housing and health services (Matengu 1992; Kivikuru 1994). In addition Zaaiman

(1985: 134), referring to the information needs of disadvantaged blacks in South Africa, points out that “the majority of blacks needs information of a type that will suit their particular needs and these often lie at the level of survival”.

Information experts, Du Plooy (1988), Horton (1983) as reported in Du Plooy (1988) and Kaniki (1995) have used Maslow’s social class theory of needs to explain levels of information needs. Du Plooy (1988: 4) identifies five levels of information needs as follows: level 1: coping/survival information; level 2: helping information; level 3: enlightening information; level 4: enriching information; and level 5: edifying information. This theory posits that the lowest level of needs must be satisfied before the demands on the next level could be made. Research (Fairer-Wessels 1987; Mchombu 1993; Kivikuru 1994; Kaniki 1995) has shown that the majority of people in rural communities and urban disadvantaged groups need information at the first level in the hierarchy of needs, that is, survival information. These people have been generally characterized as information-poor in the sense that they have limited access to information and are apparently less aware of the value of information (Du Plooy 1988: 5).

These above observations have led researchers such as Rosenberg (1986), Mchombu (1993) and Made (1994) to conclude that information needs relate to the characteristics of the user or the community and that these needs reflect the user’s socio-economic, cultural and political environment.

Although information needs are associated with the peculiar social, economic, cultural and political characteristics of rural communities, it has been observed in several studies (Matengu 1992; Mchombu 1993; Kivikuru *et al* 1994) that some of the needs are in the field of agriculture, health and energy, for instance, availability of firewood.

In their qualitative research, which was based mainly on focus group discussions, Sturges and Chimseu (1996: 148) make similar observations. They found out that in rural Malawi people need information on “agriculture, health, hygiene, water supply,

education and literacy and credit and loans". This can be explained by the fact that the majority of people in the rural communities are engaged in agricultural production, while the rural health and energy infrastructures have yet to be fully developed. In the agricultural sector, studies by Aina (1985) Ojiambo (1989), and Kaniki (1989), in Nigeria, Kenya, and Zambia respectively, concluded that peasant farmers need information on methods of improving agricultural productivity.

Mchombu (1993) makes a clear distinction between the needs which are common to most rural communities and those which are unique to a specific locality. The latter have been defined as location-specific needs which are determined by factors such as culture, geographic location, level of socio-economic development as well as the general environment.

Kempson (1990) and Kaniki (1995) emphasise the need to constantly monitor the information needs of users. It should be noted that information needs are not static, they change over time according to patterns of change in the community. Therefore, information needs assessment should be a continuous process so as to make information services relevant to the needs of both actual and potential users of information services (Kaniki 1995: 9). According to Kaniki (1995: 9), information services which are not based on user's actual needs are obviously limited in terms of satisfying users' needs.

Effective use of information services by potential users is most often limited by a lack of awareness on the part of potential users of their need for information (Fairer-Wessels 1987; Kempson 1992; Kaniki 1995). To the majority of people, especially in rural areas, the concept of information need is too abstract for them to comprehend (Mchombu 1993). Most of the time these people are either not aware that they need information or that information which can be used to solve their problems is available. In researching rural development information needs Mchombu (1993) observed that unless needs are linked to specific problems which people encounter in their daily activities, they will simply say that they do not have any information needs. Fairer-Wessels (1987) and Kaniki (1995) make the same

observation in their investigations of information needs of urban black women and two rural communities in South Africa respectively. Some of the respondents exhibited a general lack of awareness that they needed information to solve their problems. To overcome this problem, some empirical studies which assess information needs of users use a diagnostic approach and direct questioning of farmers on the type of problems they experience in their daily lives (Dulle 1997), or information needs are assessed within the context of information-seeking behaviour of users (Kaniki 1989; 1995).

The findings above challenge information workers to stimulate user-awareness. Cronin (1981: 37-47) argues that information provision should be proactive, and that information workers should act as catalysts in stimulating user-awareness and in ensuring optimal use of resources.

3.2.1.1 Analysis of women's needs

Do women have unique information needs, distinct from those of the general population in their communities? This critical question will form the basis of the discussion in this part of the review. A clearer understanding of the information needs of women is crucial to this study.

Moser (1994: 36), one of the renowned gender studies experts, argues that:

Women and men have different positions within the household and different control over resources, they not only play different and changing roles in society, but also have different needs.

This analysis forms the basis for delineating women's needs from the needs of the general population in the community.

As pointed out earlier in this review, women's needs are based on their roles in society. Momsen (1985), Moser (1994), and other gender experts have shown that in most developing countries women play a triple role in their societies. These have been identified as productive, reproductive and community managing roles. Moser

(1994: 36) elaborates on these roles by explaining that reproductive work refers to child-bearing and rearing responsibilities; productive work refers to women's engagement in productive activities such as agriculture, and community managing role refers to work around provision of items of collective consumption undertaken at the level of the community. At the same time she cautions that, women's needs vary widely and may be determined by several factors such as the socio-economic and class positions and ethnic and religious structures (Moser 1994: 37).

In her philosophical analysis, Moser (1989; 1994) defines women's interests or gender needs broadly dividing them into strategic gender needs and practical gender needs. Moser (1994: 39) defines gender needs broadly as:

...the needs women identify because of their subordinate position to men in society, strategic gender needs vary according to particular contexts. They relate to gender divisions of labour, power, control and may include such issues as legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages and women's control over their bodies. Meeting strategic gender needs helps women to achieve greater equality. It also changes existing roles and therefore challenges women's subordinate position.

While practical gender needs are defined as:

...the needs women identify in their socially accepted roles in society, practical gender needs do not challenge gender divisions of labour or women's subordinate position in society, although rising out of them. Practical gender needs are a response to the immediate perceived necessity, identified within a specific context. They are specialized in nature and are often concerned with inadequacies in living conditions such as water provision, health care and employment (Moser 1994: 40).

In general, strategic gender needs are distinguished from practical needs in that they entail a strategic goal such as women's emancipation and equality, thus challenging the prevailing forms of women's subordination. Strategic gender needs may arise out of struggles for practical gender needs (Moser 1994: 233).

The process of distinguishing women's practical needs from those which are strategic has been criticized by other researchers such as Schreiner (1993) and Barret (1995). In her criticism, Schreiner (1993: 75) argues that "the distinction

between strategic and practical gender needs degrades the practical needs of women. It obscures the crucial link between women's broader political and legal rights under which women live and struggle". According to her, the empowerment of women should be based on a clear understanding of how broader, legal and political rights are connected to women's basic problems. On the other hand, Barret (1995: 222) argues that "women's practical roles and hence needs are a reflection of women's subordinate position". She argues further that "it is therefore difficult to address women's practical needs successfully without confronting women's engendered position within society". It should be noted that the bottom line of these arguments is the fact that both practical and strategic needs should be addressed simultaneously in the planning and implementation of development projects in order to achieve benefits for women. The struggle to satisfy practical needs should not be used as a stepping stone towards satisfaction of strategic gender needs.

Despite the above criticisms from Schreiner (1993) and Barret (1995), the distinction between practical and strategic gender needs provides us with useful insights into the specific information needs of women. Moser emphasises the point that "the differentiation between practical and strategic gender needs provides a critical planning tool" (Moser 1994: 41). Using the above analysis of women's needs, information needs of women could be identified as strategic gender information needs and practical gender information needs. Strategic gender information needs require gender-awareness information (TGNP 1993) to satisfy them.

Gender-awareness information includes information which would enable women at grassroots levels to become aware of their engendered position in society, thus raise awareness in order to challenge unequal gender relations in society. Such information includes among other things, information about institutionalised forms of discrimination, an equitable division of labour and information on how women can exercise their reproductive rights.

3.2.1.2 Information needs of women

Scholars (Momsen 1985; Moser 1989; Meena 1991; Moser 1994; and others) have consistently argued that, women occupy a subordinate role and as a result are disadvantaged by the existing socio-economic and political systems. For this reason, special attention should be directed to them. As a result women, especially rural women, have been identified as a specific information user group. In conducting a literature search for this study, it was evident however that very few empirical studies had been conducted to assess the special information needs of women. The existing studies (Fairer-Wessels 1987; Nwagha 1992; Price 1992; Mlama 1994) which have attempted to identify and assess information needs of women in rural and urban areas have made several observations. Nwagha (1992: 76-77), employed the quantitative survey methodology in her study of information needs of women in rural Nigeria. In her study she identifies the information needs of women as information about ways of improving agricultural productivity, primary health care, family planning, nutrition, food storage and credit facilities. In her review of information transfer activities in rural Nigeria, Williams (1981: 55) broadly identifies the information needs of rural women in three areas namely, trade opportunities, health and social life. In her survey of information needs of urban black women in South Africa, Fairer-Wessels (1987: 54) found out that women need information about money, health and education.

An examination of information needs identified by researchers cited above indicate that rural women's needs fall under the category identified by Moser (1994) as practical gender needs. These needs are mostly based on their roles in the family and society as producers and reproducers.

Basing their analysis on the problems experienced by women in their engendered roles as subordinate members of society, the Tanzania Gender Networking Programme (TGNP) takes a more radical stance with regard to the information needs of women. According to the TGNP (1991: 115) women also need information about women and gender, the sort of information which meets a "need to raise

awareness among women, it should not adopt a WID (Women in Development) improvement approach which stops short of gender transformative analysis and action, and isolates women instead of challenging gender structures as a social issue”.

In her review of constraints in providing information services to women, Raseroka (1990: 161) argues that “information plays a major role for empowerment of women in policy and cultural interpretations of basic needs”. These needs are identified as “access to land, shelter, food, water, fuel, health and education, leadership roles, assessment of own needs, management skills, division of labour and control of factors of production” (Raseroka 1990: 161). It can be concluded from Raseroka’s discourse that rural women do not only need information on health, family planning and basic services, but they also need gender-awareness information which would enable them to solve gender problems they experience especially in terms of access and control of productive resources.

Although there seems to be general agreement that women have specific needs, it is the way that these needs are determined that is of interest to this study. The most important factors are reliability and validity of methods used and results achieved. Some of the needs identified as specific to women, such as the need for agricultural information (Nwagha 1992), are indeed applicable to other members of society. Most of the time information needs purported to be specific to women are identified as general community needs by those involved in rural development projects (Price 1992). Price (1992) argues further that women’s development information needs and the information support needed to satisfy them are predetermined by an existing set of frameworks. As a result, development projects targeted to women are welfare-oriented in nature and revolve around women’s traditional roles as producers and reproducers. Moreover, as pointed out above, rural women’s information needs assessment has not been widely conducted to make conclusive arguments. It is also important to note that the majority of rural women fall under the category of “disadvantaged groups” with limited access to information. In most cases their articulated needs are at the primary level of survival information as

shown in Fairer-Wessel's (1987) study. The next section will discuss recent trends in the assessment of information needs of women.

3.2.1.3 Assessment of information needs of women

As noted in section 3.2.1, increasingly researchers are employing alternative methodologies in assessing information needs of users. This trend can also be observed in the assessment of information needs of women. In their studies, Price (1992) and Mlama (1994) have employed qualitative research methodologies to broaden the scope and focus of their researches.

Studies by Price (1992) and Mlama (1994) conducted in India and Tanzania respectively indicate that if women are given the space and time to come together and reflect on their common problems as women, then strategic gender needs could be successfully assessed. In a study of women's organizations in India, Price (1992: 53) discovered that women's fora provided an opportunity for women to discuss their problems and share their ideas. In these fora, problems confronted by women such as domestic violence, rape and alcoholism came to light. Under some religious and cultural circumstances, problems arising out of women's engendered position are regarded as natural and private, that is, not to be discussed in public. However, through women's fora, women in India began to identify needs that fell beyond those arena which were seen as being traditional women's family responsibilities (Price 1992: 54). Price's study concludes that "...predetermined modes of service delivery for development limit the opportunities offered to oppressed groups such as women to express their own needs".

In a related study, Mlama (1994), investigating among other things the information needs of rural women and how these could be satisfied through the use of traditional media, made the same observations. In her study, participatory research methodologies were used to allow for the participation of the target group in identifying, discussing and analysing their development problems. In the data collection phase of the research, identified development problems were presented

theatrically in an attempt to solicit and entice wide discussion on how to solve the problems (Mlama 1994: 63). It is reported that in the focus group discussions which involved the participation of women, they expressed anger and frustration over problems they experienced as women. In Mlama's research, problems identified in the five Tanzanian communities of Msoga, Mkambalani, Namiongo, Msalai and Mbuyuni fall into the two categories of practical and strategic gender needs. These include "Lack of water, poverty, school girl pregnancy, unfair division of labour, failing income-generating activities as well as general male domination and oppression" (Mlama 1994: 64). Mlama's study employed the qualitative research methodology in identifying women's needs as opposed to quantitative problem-oriented methods used by other researchers such as Fairer-Wessels (1987) and Nwagha (1992). The trend in women's information needs assessment is to use alternative methodologies to broaden the focus as far as women's information needs are concerned. Although the use of participatory research methodologies has widened the scope of women's needs, it should be noted that the process of assessing needs and specifically the strategic needs of women is intricate. It is important to note that various factors which may affect the final results are intermingled in the process. Since most of the strategic needs are in the "private domain", factors such as religion, culture and levels of awareness of women as well as the dynamics of the information needs assessment process need to be considered. For instance, in the study carried by Sturges and Chimseu (1996), it has been noted that although in some instances separate women focus group discussions were held, the nature of identified needs did not differ significantly from those of other members of the community.

From the above review, it is evident that obviously there are needs which can be qualified as unique information needs of women. These arise out of their engendered position in society and thus could be clearly distinguished from those which are general to the whole population. However, due to intricacies involved in assessing and analysing strategic needs of women, the few existing efforts have been mainly directed at satisfying practical gender needs through provision of information and training which reinforces women's traditional roles. Provision of

gender-awareness information directed at satisfying strategic gender information needs of rural women has not yet been taken seriously by information professionals.

3.2.2 Information-seeking behaviour

An understanding of information needs should go hand in hand with an understanding of the information-seeking behaviour of users. Information-seeking behaviour is a process through which a person goes to identify, access and use information to satisfy a need. Such an understanding would enable information professionals not only to understand some of the needs but also to identify accessible sources of information. This understanding will enable information professionals to chart out realistic strategies for providing rural communities with relevant information.

Researchers (Matengu 1992; Mchombu 1991; Kivukuru 1994) have observed that in most instances rural people seek information through their own indigenous communication systems. Information is usually sought from oral sources such as friends, family, opinion leaders, elders and traditional healers (Kaniki 1989; Ojiambo 1989; Matengu 1992; Kivukuru *et al* 1994). Durrani (1985) and Made (1994) argue that in the process of seeking and exchanging information, rural people have developed their own oral communication system.

In a study of information needs and information-seeking behaviour of six rural communities in Nigeria, Aina (1985: 39) found that although farmers needed information on methods of improving agricultural productivity and on agricultural credits and loans, farmers never made any appreciable efforts to seek information through agricultural institutions or banks, while 79.80% indicated that they never visited any bank to seek information on agricultural credit or loans. These findings are corroborated by those of Kaniki (1989) and Ojiambo (1989) who also established that, more often than not, farmers sought information from oral sources rather than institutional sources such as libraries. Kaniki (1989: 161) identifies factors which make farmers dependent on oral sources of information as a lack of awareness

about the existence of alternative sources of information, a lack of access to available sources of information and inability to utilise some sources of information due to low levels of education. While Aina (1985: 41) argues that unavailability of institutional sources such as libraries in the rural areas is responsible for the observed patterns of information seeking among rural people, both Aboyade (1984: 41) and Aina (1985: 262) tend to agree that the potential for the literate and non-literate farmers and other rural people to use institutional sources such as libraries to meet their information needs exists. Aboyade (1984: 259) concludes that the findings of the action-oriented Badeku research project implies that "people can actually go out and seek information rather than wait for someone to offer it".

3.2.2.1 Information-seeking behaviour of rural women

Research studies (Fairer-Wessels 1987; Nwagha 1992) indicate that rural women, like their male counterparts, largely seek information from the indigenous communication system. In her study of information needs of rural women in Nigeria, Nwagha (1992) found out that women sought information from audio and mainly oral sources such as radio, community leaders, friends and relatives, as well as from religious leaders. It was observed in the study that 60% of the respondents used radio, 25% used neighbours and friends while 15% used community leaders.

Aarnink and Kingma (1992: 33) found that, in the absence of formal channels of communication, women have developed their own ad hoc ways of getting information mainly from school-going children (relatives), neighbouring women (friends) and by observation.

In their action-oriented research Kivikuru *et al* (1994) introduced modern communication media to nine Tanzanian villages to accelerate the dissemination of development information. Through community participation the project introduced rural resource centres, film programmes and rural newspaper fora, for instance. In evaluating the impact of modern communication media in the information-seeking patterns of the people, Kivikuru *et al* (1994: 26) established that although the

information seeking patterns of both men and women changed after the introduction of the modern communication media, men were more inclined to use them than women. It was observed, for instance, that radio listening and newspaper reading were dominated by male members of the rural communities (Kivikuru *et al* 1994: 26).

The above observations suggest that even after radio and newspapers were made accessible to rural communities, the majority of women could not access them. Similar observations have been reported in the Village Reading Room project in Botswana by Mchombu and Mutanyatta (1988) and in the Badeku pilot project in Ibadan, Nigeria by Aboyade (1984). In the Badeku project it was observed that among the 61 clients of the library, only 17 were women who visited the library only once. It was further observed that some men sought information on behalf of their wives (Aboyade 1984: 250-251).

Although, Ojiambo (1989) concluded his study by arguing that rural farmers use sources of information that are readily accessible to them, studies by Aboyade (1984), Mchombu and Mutanyatta (1988) and Kivikuru *et al* (1994) cited above, indicate that this may not always be the case. It is noted from these studies that even after making sources of information such as radio, newspapers and libraries accessible to rural communities, women could not access them adequately. This implies that there are other factors which are responsible for the choice and use of available sources of information. For instance, Poole (1985: 119) shows that although information-channel use is a function of information-channel accessibility, he concludes that information channel preference is a function of user awareness.

3.3 Information use, transfer and delivery mechanisms

3.3.1 Information exchange activities in rural areas

As pointed out in the previous sections, rural people use oral sources of information to communicate information and ideas. As research studies (Rosenberg 1986; Matengu 1992; Mchombu 1993; Kivikuru *et al* 1994) have indicated, these sources

may include friends, relatives and religious or opinion leaders. Mabongunje (1981: 258) classifies these sources into four major groups, namely, kinship and friendship structures, marriage ties, market contacts and settlement schemes. It is generally agreed that knowledge and information communicated through oral channels of communication have been important in the long history of rural communities in the diffusion of items of innovation for survival (Mabongunje 1981; Durrani 1985; Rosenberg 1986).

Traditionally, rural people use a variety of occasions and places to exchange information. Karlsson (1994: 49) referring to the situation in South Africa, points out that information is exchanged at gathering places such as at water-collection points, bars and tribal authority meetings whilst men gather information at beer drinking places or communal decision-making meetings. Matengu (1992) and Mchombu (1993) had already made similar observations about women in their research of rural communities in Ovamboland, Namibia and in three African countries respectively, noting that rural women would normally gather information in the places they frequent such as communal water wells or market places. Karlsson (1994: 49) further notes that "gathering places where information is sought clearly reflect traditional division of labour between men and women".

3.3.2 Rural knowledge and communication systems

The traditional knowledge obtained in a particular traditional rural community has been referred to as indigenous knowledge, while the traditional system of communicating knowledge and information has been referred to as the indigenous communication system (Rosenberg 1986; Mchombu 1992; Mchombu 1993; Karlsson 1994). Mchombu (1992: 66-67) argues that the indigenous knowledge system consists of two components namely, the public and the private domains. He explains that the knowledge system in the public domain is held by traditional experts such as traditional healers. The indigenous communication system uses indigenous channels of communication which include oral literature, theatre, dance, drama and folktales (Rosenberg 1986; Mchombu 1993; Karlsson 1994; Mlama 1994).

Information exchange activities in rural areas are not limited to the communication of indigenous knowledge through indigenous communication channels but there are several agencies and institutions which carry out information-transfer activities in rural areas. Both governmental and non-governmental organizations undertake information dissemination activities in such areas as agriculture and health extension, community development and cooperative activities, for instance. Mabongunje (1981: 60) points out that "the rationale for creation and institutionalization of these agencies is to foster a continuous flow of accurate information to rural communities". According to him, the role of extension work is not only to ensure a sufficient flow of information to the rural people, but also to teach skills needed for change.

Knowledge and information aimed at modernization and social change communicated to the rural people from outside the rural community have been referred to as the exotic or exogenous knowledge system (Rosenberg 1986; Mchombu 1992; Karlsson 1994). Modern channels of communication have been used to communicate exogenous knowledge and information in the rural areas. These include newspapers, radio, films, rural resource centres and village reading rooms or rural libraries.

Further analysis of the knowledge system in rural communities indicates that there is a third knowledge system which Mchombu (1992: 67) points out, combines elements from the indigenous and exogenous systems. This includes information and knowledge generated through the development process. Karlsson (1994: 50) refers to this third knowledge system as the "synergistic information system". Mchombu (1992; 1993) recommends that in order to ensure effective information transfer and exchange activities in rural areas, any development communication strategy should attempt to link the three knowledge systems. This view is supported by Durrani (1985: 150) who succinctly argues that "no modern information system will succeed in the rural areas unless it comes to terms with the existing oral systems", that is, the indigenous knowledge and communication systems.

3.3.3 Communication channels used in rural areas: effectiveness and accessibility

Theoretically, various factors are linked to accessibility of information. Poole (1985: 115-133) undertook a comprehensive study using documentary and content analysis techniques to investigate issues of accessibility of channels of communication. In his study he made several theoretical propositions namely, (i) information-channel use is a function of information-channel accessibility (ii) information-channel preference is a function of information-channel accessibility (iii) information-channel preference is a function of information channel-credibility (iv) perceived information-channel accessibility is a function of user awareness and, (v) perceived information-channel accessibility is a function of user experience.

This part of the review (the following sections) will examine these theoretical propositions in the light of the accessibility of various channels of communication to rural people in general and to rural women in particular.

In attempts to reach rural populations with appropriate information to enhance social, economic and structural changes, various channels of communication have been employed. Most of these interventions, particularly from government agencies, have concentrated on the introduction and use of modern communication media. There are two schools of thought with regard to the use of modern communication media for information transfer activities in rural areas. Some researchers (Mabongunje 1981; Kivikuru *et al* 1994) advocate the use of modern communication media. They posit the view that although traditional communication media are widely used and accessible to the rural communities, they are "limited in scope and inadequate in communicating information for modern development purposes" (Kivikuru *et al* 1994: 20). This school of thought advocates the introduction of modern media such as radio, newspaper fora, rural resource centres, films and other audio-visual materials. Mlama (1994: 64) argues critically against this approach and identifies some anomalies in the use of modern communication media. She argues that, in most instances rural newspaper fora have been

introduced in areas with low income levels and low literacy rates. Radio and television broadcast a variety of development programmes targeted at rural people although the majority of them do not own radio and television sets. Meanwhile, development films have been made for audiences with no cinema facilities or which could not be reached by mobile film vans.

The other school of thought (Rosenberg 1986; Mda 1991; Mlama 1994; Katetere 1995) points to the fact that development information communication efforts have not been very successful in rural areas due to the inaccessibility of the modern media of communication for the majority of rural people. Many rural people with low incomes cannot afford to purchase communication media such as newspapers, radio or television. Low literacy levels and the one-way character of modern channels of communication have been identified as reasons for such inaccessibility. Mlama (1994) points out that the advantage of indigenous media over modern media is the fact that such media exist and are already in use at the grassroots levels. It is argued that modern communication systems do not foster a two-way flow of information (Mlama 1994). However, Mlama (1994) cautions that the mere adoption of indigenous media does not necessarily allow for a two-way flow of information. Both Rosenberg (1986) and Mlama (1994) argue that an effective two-way flow of information can only be achieved through the participation of the target groups in all phases of the communication process.

In a study concerning repackaging of information for development projects in Southern Sudan, Rosenberg (1986) argues that communication is effective if it allows for community participation in the methods of communication and in the creation of the media. In her study, Rosenberg (1986) used participatory research methodologies in which communities were involved in all phases of the information communication process. She reached the conclusion that "information is effectively communicated through indigenous channels of communication" and that "locally produced media is therefore preferred to mass media" (Rosenberg 1986: 19).

It is generally assumed that communication of development information in rural areas has more often than not relied on the use of modern communication media and completely neglected indigenous forms of communication operating in rural areas. Mchombu (1993) and Durrani (1985) point out that any information-communication effort should consider the channels of communication already in existence. Zinanga (1995: 6) argues that usually development workers have their own perception of appropriate and effective methods of communicating information which may be different from those perceived and used by rural communities. Such situations may result in information being inaccessible to the target populations.

Mabongunje (1981: 260) in his study of a spatial approach to the development process, acknowledges the critical importance of information to enhance development. He calls for a spatial approach which pays attention to scale and context, in order to ensure an effective two-way information flow in rural areas. He elaborates that “context relates to the needs for not only appropriateness in the choice of channel but also effectiveness in its capacity to motivate”. Scale on the other hand refers “to the size of the audience which can be reached and effectively motivated” (Mabongunje 1981: 258). It is further argued that the “key element in defining the importance of a particular channel is its motivational capacity”. As such, effectiveness or success should not be based on the amount of information disseminated but on the capacity to motivate (Mabongunje 1981: 256).

3.3.4 Indigenous channels of communication

Community theatre and dance have been identified as effective methods of communicating information to illiterate and semi-literate populations. It allows for community participation in all phases of the communication process from identification of information needs to actual information transfer (Rosenberg 1986; Mda 1991; Mlama 1994; Katetere 1995). Mda (1991: 66-67) coordinated the “Theatre for Development Project” in Lesotho which was regarded as a medium of communicating development information. In this project, theatre was used as a

means of encouraging villagers to initiate and participate effectively in development activities. Mda (1991: 66) cautions against the top-down communication of prepackaged development information. He argues that the mere assessment of development-information needs followed by repackaging of information for communication to meet the identified needs, is not enough because the process lacks community participation in the prioritization of needs. Such an approach would therefore undermine the level of awareness of the information transferred. Participatory modes of communication are the most appropriate because they encourage participation in identifying and understanding problems. They also stimulate debate, discussion and action (Rosenberg 1986; Mda 1991; Mlama 1994; Katetere 1995).

3.3.4.1 Accessibility of indigenous media to rural women

Studies like those by Nwagha (1992) and Mlama (1994) have shown that because of the high levels of illiteracy among rural women and their position in socio-economic relations, they are more inclined to use oral sources of information than other sources. Furthermore, like men, women possess unique traditional knowledge in a variety of fields specific to their roles in traditional societies. This knowledge has been passed on from generation to generation. One problem is that this indigenous knowledge is not being fairly acknowledged (Mchombu 1992; Munasinghe 1995).

In traditional rural societies, more often than not the sexual division of labour demands that women and men work separately. In some communities it is a taboo for women to speak articulately in the presence of men. Kivikuru *et al* (1994: 44) noted that in some instances "it was almost impossible among some ethnic groups to stimulate a conversation and ideas in a group comprising of women and men". It was further observed that attempts to hold such groups saw the discussions being "dominated mostly by men and women not being able to express their feelings", hence the conclusion that the use of oral communication as a means of communicating development information in a session comprising of both gender groups may have serious limitations. Murwira (1998: 13) advises that women should

be approached separately to enable them to articulate their problems and suggest solutions.

This does not mean, however, that if approached carefully, indigenous media cannot play a useful role in communicating gender and development information to rural women. Mlama (1994: 64) concludes that the potential for using indigenous communication media in communicating development information to rural women is there, and that women possess the skills necessary for using such media.

3.4 Mass media channels of communication

3.4.1 Radio, television/video and films

Although radio and television have been praised as powerful media of communicating information to rural communities, studies like those of Mchombu (1993), Karlsson (1994), Kivikuru *et al* (1994) and Mlama (1994) have revealed serious limitations in their use in rural areas. Apparently, despite their power and presumed effectiveness, radio and television programmes do not reach the majority of people in rural areas. It has been observed that the availability of radio and television sets is a serious problem in countries such as Tanzania, Malawi and some parts of rural South Africa (Mchombu 1993; Karlsson 1994). In his study, Mchombu (1992: 69, 1993: 176) reported that radio was owned by only 54% and 25% of households surveyed in rural Tanzania and Malawi respectively. Furthermore, even where available, the radio was either faulty or lacked batteries to make it operational. With regard to the situation in South Africa, Karlsson (1994: 53) reports that the Eurospace company found it problematic to communicate with rural areas specifically by using radio and television. The company survey showed that "in settlements of less than 500 people, only 15.5% of the community ever see any TV and barely have access to radio". Kivikuru *et al* (1994: 20) and Utah (1993: 151) established that the majority of rural people cannot afford to buy and maintain radio or television sets, while Mchombu (1992;1993) argues that even those who can afford to own radio sets are not tuning into educational and extension programmes.

He concludes that radio as a means of communicating development information in rural areas has serious limitations. Other limitations have been identified by Durrani (1985: 150) and Utah (1993: 151) include the use of inappropriate languages, bad timing of the programmes and poor quality of messages.

In some countries the availability of radio sets in rural households is not a serious problem. A study by Nwagha (1992: 80), investigating the sources of information used by rural women in rural Nigeria discovered that over 60.00% of the respondents in the sample used radio as a source of information. In Sri Lanka, an Intermediate Technology Project, the mission of which was to communicate technological information to rural women, established that the radio had the potential of reaching up to 70% of the rural people (Munisinghe 1995: 18).

3.4.1.1 Accessibility of radio, television/video and film information to rural women

The accessibility or inaccessibility of information communicated through radio and television to rural women depends on the socio economic and political conditions pertaining in a particular area or country. For instance, a Nigerian study (Nwagha 1992: 80) shows that although radio is accessible to 60.00% of rural women, it is not effectively used to communicate development information to them. Reviewing the situation in Kenya, Durrani (1985: 149) points out that there are very few programmes for the peasants in the national radio broadcasts. Utah (1993: 151) reports that in Malawi the state radio devotes only 12 hours a week to health information programmes while 40 hours are reserved for political propaganda.

On the other hand, the introduction of radio and television in the resource centres of nine Tanzanian villages as part of the Commedia Research Project did not ensure accessibility of information by rural women. Kivikuru *et al* (1994: 20) discovered that “radio listening at the centre was mainly a male affair and done mostly in the afternoon after a days work”, while women in the villages said they were preoccupied with other activities throughout the day that they did not have time for

radio listening at the centre. It was further noted that even in households where radio sets were available, most of the time women were not able to listen to radio. In such cases women complained that men had a habit of taking either the valuable gadget itself or the batteries to the local pub where they spent long hours (Kivikuru *et al* 1994: 68).

In Zimbabwe, the Radio Listeners Club project was conceived as a way of reaching rural women with useful information. Radio was thought to offer the best solution to problems associated with literacy, language, distance and access (Mavoneka 1991: 58). The radio programmes were planned in a way which allowed the women involved to identify and prioritize their information needs and also to decide on the content of the programmes. The advantage of the project was that it enabled rural women “to make decisions on development issues which entails progress...” Mavoneka (1991: 10) points out that the only limitation was that access to radio information was limited to the information needs of rural women who were involved in income-generating groups thus leaving out the majority who also needed information.

3.4.2 Newspapers and other print media

Like radio and television, newspapers and other forms of print media are not readily accessible to the majority of the people in rural areas. The problem lies in the affordability and availability of these sources of information. Furthermore, the high level of illiteracy among rural people is also responsible for the inaccessibility of information contained in print media (Kaniki 1989). Other reasons are language barriers and the remoteness of rural communities (Mavoneka 1991).

In the Commedia Research Project, Kivikuru *et al* (1994: 76) established that even where newspapers are made available, they are read by two distinct groups of people, that is, the school children and the local intelligentsia such as teachers and extension officers. In her study, Nwagha (1992: 80) discovered that “newspapers,

books and other printed sources did not feature prominently as sources of information used by rural women”.

The use of printed materials as sources of information in rural areas presumes high levels of literacy and the availability as well as the affordability of materials. For, instance, in Sri Lanka, the Intermediate Technology Project successfully used newspapers and magazines as a means of disseminating technology information to rural women. The project was planned to ensure a two-way flow of information through dialogue. It is reported that reader-participation increased because rural women had a chance to share knowledge, attitudes, views and to discuss common problems (Munisinghe 1995: 20). However, in her report Munasinghe (1995) does not discuss literacy levels among rural women in Sri Lanka or the percentage and characteristics of rural women who actively participated in the project.

3.4.2.1 Accessibility of newspapers and other print media information to rural women

The major problem regarding print media as a source of information for rural women is the fact that the level of illiteracy among them is high. Nwagha (1992: 77) reports that 82% of the rural women surveyed in her study were illiterate, with no formal education of few years of schooling. According to Nwagha (1992: 80) it was not surprising therefore to discover that they mainly depended on oral sources to access information. In Malawi, Utah (1993: 149) made similar observations. In his research he indicated that rural women used oral sources to access health information. Frequently-used sources in order of preference were hospitals and clinics (54.60%), health extension workers (28.45%), radio (13.50%), and friends and relatives (4.00%).

In the Commedia project where newspapers and other print media were made available through the resource centres, Kivikuru *et al* (1994: 76) established that, like radio listening, newspaper reading was dominated by male members of the community. In the second round of the survey conducted to assess the impact of the

project it was reported that the use of newspapers by women had slightly increased. In proportion to male users, however, women remained a minority. It was also noted that urban women have more access to mass media and printed sources of information than rural women. The National Demographic Survey in Tanzania shows that, on average, 24.9% of women read newspapers, 46.0% listen to radio and only 3.4% watch television at least once a week. By contrast, in rural areas only 14.8% of women read newspapers, 35.0% listen to radio and only 1.3% watch television (Tanzania. Bureau of Statistics and Planning Commission 1993: 20).

3.5 Institutional channels of communication

3.5.1 Extension work

Extension workers in various fields of specialization have been involved in information-transfer activities in rural areas. They provide information on issues pertaining to agriculture, adult education, health cooperatives, and community development, for instance. These extension workers have the responsibility of ensuring that information is communicated successfully to impart skills to rural people in order to improve living conditions, and to some extent, encourage participation in the development process (Mabongunje 1981: 258).

Extension workers use a variety of communication media to deliver information, including for example, face-to-face communication, leaflets, lectures, demonstrations, TV and radio and agricultural shows. However, several studies (Mabongunje 1981; Aina 1985; Mchombu 1993) have concluded that in developing countries extension workers have not been very successful in making a significant impact in rural areas.

Obstacles to effective information delivery by extension services have been identified by these studies as an inadequate number of extension workers, disregard for indigenous knowledge and indigenous communication media and the non-participatory nature of communication media used more often than not by

extension workers (Mabongunje 1981; Aina 1985; Mchombu 1993; Mlana 1994; Zinanga 1995). Mabongunje (1981) points to the fact that the ratio of extension workers to farm families in developing countries is 1:2000 compared to 1:400-500 in developed countries. The inadequate number of extension workers has been identified as a crucial factor in limited levels of information access by rural people in research done by Aina (1990), Mchombu (1993) and Utah (1993).

The attitude of these extension workers is another factor which limits effective information transfer. In his study, Mchombu (1993: 167) observes that, generally extension workers “regard themselves as ‘professionals’ dealing with people who need to be educated in modern agricultural practices”. This attitude does not encourage participation but rather the imposition of ideas through an ineffective top-down approach. Other factors identified by Aina (1990: 202) and Utah (1993: 149) include infrequent contact between extension workers and rural people possibly caused by the remoteness of some rural communities, as well as financial and transport problems. Aina (1990) further points out that the slow rate of communication between researchers and extension workers and the limited range of information available to rural people are barriers to successful extension work.

3.5.1.1 Accessibility of extension services information to rural women

Extension services as a source of information for rural women have serious limitations as revealed in several studies (Feldman 1985; Lupanga 1986; Ojiambo 1989; Nwagha 1992; Aarnink and Kingma 1992). Lupanga (1986) discovered that the proportion of male to female extension workers in rural Tanzania was 79.00% to 21.00% respectively. This severely affects the accessibility of agricultural information for rural women given limitations imposed by traditions and customs on the levels of interaction between male extension workers and rural female farmers. In her study Nwagha (1992: 79) established that over 70.00% of rural women surveyed had never been visited by agricultural extension workers. In Kenya, Feldman (1985) found out that it was government policy to communicate information to male farmers while communication with female farmers took place when no male was present.

3.5.2 Rural libraries/rural resource centres

Rural libraries are information providing institutions which are established in rural areas in an attempt to provide relevant information services to the majority of rural people. However, rural libraries in most instances have proved very ineffective. In most cases they have been extensions of replicas of urban public libraries. They have been mainly established through the top-down approach, and as such they were neither based on actual needs of the rural people nor stocked with appropriate resources (Durrani 1985; Karlsson 1994; Kaniki 1995). Karlsson (1994: 50) argues that "...libraries based on western models have largely been inaccessible and irrelevant to the needs and interests of the rural African population". Obstacles to effective rural library services include emphasis on print media in areas with low literacy levels, a lack of materials in local languages, as well as a lack of financial and skilled staff (Kaniki 1994; Karlsson 1990). In his study, Newa (1989: 84) concludes that rural "public libraries do not play an important role among peasant farmers because they are not perceived to be important sources of information". According to Newa (1989) this is mainly due to their physical and psychological inaccessibility.

On the other hand, the community/resource centre concept has been conceived using a different vision to make it an effective alternative to the rural library (Rosenberg 1991; Stilwell 1992; Kaniki 1994). Rural resource centres differ significantly from the conventional rural library in that in addition to normal services, they provide advice, guidance and a referral service. They also stock materials in a variety of formats to meet the needs of new and non-literate users (Rosenberg 1993). It has been emphasised that rural resource centres can only be effective if established in response to community information needs through community participation (Kaniki 1994; Karlsson 1994). As Kaniki (1994) succinctly puts it, empowering rural people is the main goal of a rural resource centre.

In South Africa, the imbalance in information services provision between the urban and rural areas is being addressed through the establishment of rural resource

centres which have developed through community participation in accessible places and with resources in all formats to ensure their use. Kaniki (1994) emphasises though, that it is important to market the services of the resource centre effectively. The sustainability of rural resource centres in terms of resources is an issue that has to be addressed seriously (Samuels 1991; Rosenberg 1993). Samuels (1991) proposes a network of rural resource centres to promote sustainability. He expresses concern that replicas of urban resource centres set up in rural areas may create and perpetuate dependency in terms of resources and expertise on urban colleagues and friends (Samuels 1991).

In an action-oriented research in Badeku, Nigeria, the potential of conventional library services to serve non-literate rural people was examined. The assumption of the study was that the library had the potential to serve the non-literate populations and to act as a focal point for all information transfer activities in rural areas (Aboyade 1984: 224). The findings of this study confirmed the potential role of the library in serving rural communities, because services were provided in a way that even those who were not literate could benefit.

3.5.2.1 Accessibility of rural libraries/rural resource centres to rural women

Rural resource centres will be more likely to have the potential to effectively serve rural women's information needs effectively if women are actively involved in their establishment and management through gender-sensitive planning. Gender-sensitive planning will ensure that women are actively involved in all phases of planning and implementation as emphasised by Moser (1989;1994) and Schreiner (1992). Studies have yet to be carried out to investigate accessibility of resource centres to women in South Africa. However, studies by Aboyade (1984) Mchombu and Mutanyatta (1988) and Kivikuru *et al* 1994 done in Tanzania, Botswana and Nigeria respectively have concluded that these institutions (village reading rooms, rural resource centres or rural libraries) are not being used adequately by rural women.

3.6 Summary

It is evident from this review and the reviews carried out by other researchers (Made 1994; Adimorah 1994) with regard to the situation in East and West Africa respectively, that rural people are not adequately served by current information services.

Furthermore, it is clear that there are obvious differences in accessing information between rural men and women. Differences have also been observed in the way rural men and women seek information (Aboyade 1984; Kivikuru *et al* 1994).

Although, the way women seek information may not be significantly different from that of men, from the review it can be suggested that rural women are more inclined to use oral sources more than formal sources even when the latter have been made available. To some extent this observation contradicts Ojiambo's (1989) conclusion that people use sources of information which are readily accessible to them. As noted elsewhere in this review (See section 3.3.1) this does not always appear to be the case with women, implying that there are factors other than accessibility which may affect choice and use of sources of information, as far as rural women are concerned.

Although the problem of delivering information to rural women has been identified by several research and review studies (Durrani 1985; Lupanga 1986; Kivikuru *et al* 1994; Made 1994) very few empirical studies have been carried out to investigate the problem and to chart out appropriate strategies for dealing with the problem. The few studies (Nwagha 1992; Mlama 1994) which have attempted to tackle the problem, have not come up with concrete recommendations in terms of reaching rural women with appropriate information services. Nwagha.(1992) recommends a single radio channel strategy, while Mlama's study (1994) is confined to the effectiveness of indigenous media as a communication strategy. There is a need for a holistic approach to the problem. In most cases efforts directed at informing rural women are limited to their roles as producers and reproducers of society, that is, their practical gender needs. Needs arising out of their engendered position have

not been given serious attention by both development workers and information professionals. These are referred to as strategic gender needs. Schreiner (1993) and Barret (1995) argue that for women to benefit, it is important to address both practical and strategic needs simultaneously.

Empowering rural women for effective participation in the rural development process requires that adequate information should be made accessible to them. Information should not be limited to rural women's roles as reproducers, producers and community managers. Communication of gender-awareness information to satisfy strategic gender needs is equally important. Although there has been some resistance on the part of government and some donor agencies to the adoption of gender-sensitive approaches to development, there are indications that sooner or later this is bound to change radically. It has been noted for instance, that the World Bank has already shown the way by adopting the gender and development approach as part of its development strategy (Barret 1995: 223) which others are likely to follow. In its 1994 annual report the World Bank states that the gender and development strategy is the focus that the Bank is going to promote to enhance women's participation in development (World Bank Annual Report quoted in Barret 1995). In 1997, the heads of states and governments of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) signed a gender and development declaration to ensure that gender issues are given due consideration in the SADC Programme of Action and Community Building Initiatives as part of the sustainable development strategy. This implies that in the near future there will be more demand for the provision of both gender and development information as a means of empowering women to participate in and benefit from the development process.

It is the view of this researcher that this study comes at an opportune time. The findings of this study will be instrumental in motivating information and development workers to adopt strategies that will ensure that rural women gain access to both gender and development information.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to assess and determine the extent of rural women's access to gender and development information in the Tanga region of Tanzania. The study therefore examined the rural information environment by looking at the different ways in which rural women access information. In doing so there was a need to undertake an assessment of rural women's information needs, examine the type of information that women are able to access, the information providers used, their effectiveness and the degree of relevance and adequacy of the information accessed.

The descriptive survey methodology was employed for the study because of its suitability to research of this nature. The survey technique has the ability to determine the characteristics, opinions, attitudes, behaviour and beliefs of a larger population (Sanders and Pinhey 1974: 127; Busha and Harter 1980: 54). The descriptive survey strategy enabled the researcher of this study to collect the intended data which assisted in analysing demographic characteristics of the respondents, their behaviour in searching for information, patterns of information access as well as the opinions, attitudes and behaviour of rural information providers as far as provision of information services to rural women is concerned. In addition, the "survey research technique saves time and money, without sacrificing efficiency, accuracy and information adequacy in the research process" (Busha and Harter 1980: 54).

Although, different research techniques have been applied in studies of this nature as discussed in the literature review, the criteria for choosing a research method to be used in a research includes the appropriateness of the technique to the objectives of the study and its validity and reliability (Bulmer 1993: 10-11). This study

which sought to determine not only the extent of rural women's information needs but also the extent to which information is accessed to satisfy these needs, demanded collection of extensive quantitative data. Therefore, the quantitative survey method was deemed the most appropriate because of its advantage in providing extensive quantitative data (Bulmer and Warwick 1993: 31). In assessing rural women's information needs, a diagnostic approach which links specific problems to needs was adopted. In this study needs were linked to specific problems (practical and strategic) women experience in their daily lives. This approach has been used successfully in other similar studies (Mchombu 1993; Matengu 1992).

4.1 Population of the study

The population of the study involved two distinct groups of respondent namely, the rural women residing in the three rural areas randomly selected for this study and the human information providers, that is, information and other extension workers in a number of sectors, that is health, agriculture, forestry, community development, education and library and information services. These are the information providers who constantly interact with rural communities. As such, an understanding of the nature of their information communication operations and their attitudes towards rural women as users of their services is important to this study. Studies investigating the nature of information communication processes in a rural environment have acknowledged the importance of surveying the two groups, that is, the information providers and information users, in order not only to cross-check information but also to improve the validity and reliability of the final results (Kaniki 1989; Newa 1989, Dulle 1997).

4.2 The sampling process

4.2.1 A sample of rural women

Since the target population was large and scattered throughout the region, the multi-stage sampling technique was employed to draw a representative sample of respondents from the three selected districts. The multi-stage area sampling technique is commonly used in developing countries to draw samples from rural populations, particularly because lists of wards and villages are available from national census reports (Bulmer 1993: 91). A sample of 228 households was selected from a total of 45,673 households in the Muheza District. In the Korogwe District a sample of 224 households was drawn out of an estimated 44,923 households, while in Lushoto a sample of 321 households was drawn from a total of 65,268 households in the District. The first stage was to draw a sample of wards from a list of 24 wards in the Muheza District, 20 in the Korogwe District and 32 in the Lushoto District. Five, four and six wards were randomly selected respectively. At the ward level, a further random sampling technique was used to select villages to be surveyed in each ward. A total of 11, 13 and 14 villages were surveyed in the Muheza, Korogwe and Lushoto Districts respectively. The proportional sampling technique was used to determine the number of respondents in each ward as shown in Table I. After identifying the villages to be included in the sample, assistance was sought from village leaders to compile a list of households from which a sample of respondents was drawn. At the household level, if more than one adult female was present, a list of adult female members of the household was compiled and a respondent would be selected randomly. It should be noted that the Tanzanian Ujamaa policy which led to the resettlement of villagers into Ujamaa villages led to the systematic nature of Tanzanian villages. The majority of villagers do not live in scattered areas, they rather live close to one another in planned villages, the objective being to facilitate the provision of services. To a great extent this system facilitated the data-collection process.

Table 1: A SAMPLE OF RURAL WOMEN FROM THE THREE DISTRICTS OF TANGA REGION

MUHEZA DISTRICT		KOROGWE DISTRICT		LUSHOTO DISTRICT	
Ward	Sample size	Ward	Sample size	Ward	Sample size
Maramba	96	Magoma	39	Soni	37
Mhinduro	44	Mashewa	34	Lushoto	66
Daluni	16	Makuyuni	128	Gare	45
Muheza	30	Kwamndolwa	23	Malindi	73
Magila	42			Mlalo	75
				Mbuzii	25
TOTAL	228		224		321

4.2.2 A sample of human information providers

At first the idea was to draw a random sample of human information providers of the districts involved in the survey. The plan was abandoned because at the time of conducting this survey in 1996, there was an impending retrenchment of civil servants, which made the pretesting of the instruments problematic. Since the workers in most government departments were not sure of their future, their work morale was at very low levels and extra work such as completing research questionnaires was likely to be considered a bother, hence not taken seriously. This became apparent at the pre testing stage when ten questionnaires were distributed to agricultural, adult education and health extension workers at Muheza. The questionnaires were received with reluctance, and the follow-up of the completed questionnaires was extremely difficult and time-consuming. After persistent follow-ups the researcher was able to get only four questionnaires, that is, 40.00% of the total distribution.

In the light of the above situation it was decided that the information providers would be contacted in person at their work stations, with the assistance of the ward secretaries whose cooperation was solicited in the endeavour. In each ward visited, one extension worker from each of the five professions represented was contacted for the interviews. Prior information about the number of information providers was obtained from the respective ward leaders. The objective was to contact six professionals in each ward drawn from the following sectors: community development, adult education, agriculture, health and forestry and library information workers wherever available. This selection was intended to provide a representative picture of extension and information services provided in the area of the study. At the end of the survey the following were contacted and interviewed: 17 out of 30 from the Muheza District; 19 out of 24 from the Korogwe District; 28 out of 36 from the Lushoto District. Therefore, a total of 64 information providers out of the intended 90 were contacted. This represents 71.11% of the targeted information providers.

4.3 Instrumentation

The data collection instruments for the study consisted of the following:

- i A structured interview protocol administered to rural women in the area of the study (See Appendix 1A and 1B).
- ii A structured interview protocol administered to human information providers in the area of the study (See Appendix 2A and 2B).
- iii Informal discussions with various leaders and information workers (key informants) at different levels (village, ward, division, district and region).
- iv Secondary sources of information such as research reports, pamphlets and some project documents.

The interview schedules included questions that sought to elicit information that can be grouped as follows:

- i Demographic information about the respondents (information providers and rural women).

- ii Information needs assessment.
- iii Information about accessibility and use of information providers.
- iv Information about the type of information accessed and its relevance and adequacy to the needs of rural women.
- v Barriers to accessing information by rural women.

As explained earlier the original plan to collect data from information providers by means of a self-administered questionnaire was abandoned in favour of using an interview schedule. This was due to the fact that there was limited time to follow up completed questionnaires from information providers working in remote rural areas. This would have been a time-consuming exercise and may have proved futile at the end because of the above-mentioned prevailing low morale. To avoid difficulties, a decision was made to contact these workers at their work stations in the rural areas when the interviewing of rural women was taking place. For each ward, one day was set aside by the principal researcher to interview information providers and to hold informal discussions with ward and village leaders.

4.3.1 Pre-testing of the instruments

Before the actual administration of the data collection instruments, the interim interview schedules for both rural women and information providers were translated into Kiswahili (See Appendix 1B and 2B). This was done by a Kiswahili expert from the Institute of Kiswahili Research at the University of Dar es Salaam.

A pilot study was conducted to pretest the interview protocols to determine their clarity and relevance to the objectives of the study. The pretesting was done in three villages of the Muheza District, namely Lusanga, Enzi and Matemboni Villages in June 1996. A total of thirty women were interviewed in the field testing. The original questionnaire for information providers was distributed to ten information providers stationed at the Muheza District offices, response rate was 40% as explained earlier.

Lessons from the pilot studies were incorporated into the final drafts of the interview protocols.

4.4 The data collection process

Due to the extensive nature of the data collection process, two research assistants were recruited to assist with the face-to-face interviews. Both of them have diplomas in education and had prior experience in conducting adult education surveys in rural areas. In addition, both of them are originally from the geographic area of the study and they belonged to the same ethnic group as the respondents, and as such, they had deep knowledge of the local language, customs and traditions.

In order to achieve consistency, efficiency and continuity, the two research assistants were trained on how best they could collect data using the interview schedules designed for this study. The training sessions involved simulation and role-playing to acquaint them with the content of the schedules. In addition the training sessions also involved instruction on the following topics namely, overview of the goals and objectives of the study, an overview of gender issues in society; an overview of issues related to rural development and extension programmes; an overview of information-exchange processes in rural areas, as well as interviewing techniques and public relations.

The personal interview method or the face-to-face interview method was employed because of the relatively low levels of education among rural women respondents and for convenience as far as the information providers were concerned.

Advantages of the interview survey, as pointed out by Sanders and Pinhey (1974: 145), include high response rates, clarification of confusing questions if any, greater flexibility and opportunity to observe respondents as well as the ability to control the interview process.

The interviews were conducted by the principal researcher and the two research assistants between August 1996 and February 1997. Most of the interviews were done at the respondents' homes, while others took place at the village government offices. In cases where the respondents could not be located easily, an alternative respondent was identified from the drawn list or the interviewer would return later to the selected household.

To conduct field research for this study, a research clearance was obtained from the University of Dar es Salaam and was subsequently presented to the Tanga Regional Administrative Officer (RAO) who in turn granted the researcher permission to conduct field research in the three districts of the Tanga region (See Appendix 4C). Letters of introduction were given to the researcher for presentation to the district authorities who further introduced the researcher to the Divisional and Ward Executive Officers (DEO and WEO) requesting them to cooperate in the research effort.

Actual field work involved contacting the WEOs in selected wards as shown in Table 1. Letters of introduction were presented and discussions were held at the WEOs office in which the nature, objectives and expected benefits of the study were discussed. At the meeting, the villages to be surveyed were identified and a survey timetable was drawn up indicating dates on which particular villages would be surveyed.

A message would be sent by the WEOs to the respective village leaders informing them of the research and urging them to inform potential respondents (rural women) in their respective areas. At the same time the WEOs would make efforts to contact information providers stationed in the wards informing them of the researchers' intention to meet them for the interviews. On agreed dates the information provider would convene at the office of the WEOs and the interviews would be conducted at the WEOs office.

In rural Tanzania, a credible socio-political organization exists which facilitates researchers' contact with villagers. The leadership structure and power relations, ranging from the village chairperson to the ten cell leaders was instrumental in introducing the researchers to the villagers thus wading off any suspicions on the part of the respondents. This situation was also noted by Kivikuru *et al* (1994: 40) in their Commedia research project.

This study benefited largely from these structures. At the villages, a list of households would be compiled at the village leader's office with the assistance of leaders of clusters/hamlets. Where a list already existed it was updated and used. By using a table of random numbers, households were selected and included in the sample. The village secretaries were given the responsibility of guiding the researcher and the assistants to the ten cell leaders who located the household included in the sample and introduced the group to the respondents in their areas of jurisdiction. This facilitated the establishment of trust and confidence between the researcher, the assistants and the respondents. Most of the interviews were held at the respondents' households in an amicable environment. In this way the data-collection process was highly successful. As Kivikuru *et al* (1994: 40) rightly note that "for a survey in any village to succeed it is necessary to work through village leaders".

It should be borne in mind that conducting research in rural areas of African countries requires a lot of patience and perseverance. First, the process of moving from one household to the other, trying to locate the respondents in the sample was time-consuming and exhausting. Secondly, the abstract nature of this study, which deals with information as a resource which is needed for problem solving is not well understood among rural dwellers. Finally, some of rural women are either illiterate or semi-literate, henceforth a question which could easily be handled by an educated person would take a lot of time to explain to some rural women who lacked exposure (due to limited mobility) to the complexities of the world around them.

4.5 Data analysis and presentation

The data from the two interview protocols was coded using the Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) coding sheets from the Computer Services Division of the University of Natal. The two sets of data sheets were then scanned and the data converted to machine-readable form. Using the Quattro Pro computer software package version 6.01, the data was further processed and analysed.

Descriptive statistics were mainly derived from the data. For open-ended questions, content analysis methodology was used. The resulting data was presented as frequency distributions, cross tabulations and percentages.

4.6 Evaluation of the methodology used in this study

This study employed the survey research methodology with face-to-face interviews to collect the data. The extensive survey approach which covered the three districts of the Tanga region was made possible by a generous research grant obtained to support the study. The grant enabled the researcher and the two research assistants to travel widely in the area to collect data from the two groups of respondents, that is, the rural women and the information providers.

Although recent trends in information research indicate that more studies employ alternative research methodologies as discussed in Chapter Three, survey methodology was deemed appropriate for research of this nature. The objective of this research study, which was to examine the extent of rural women's access to information, demanded the collection of quantitative data in order to quantify the extent of access to information. The methodology employed enabled the researcher to collect the extensive quantitative data required to answer the research questions posed by the research study. The research instruments employed, that is the structured interview protocols, were deemed appropriate for this type of study primarily due to their ability to generate data which is amenable to descriptive analysis, and secondly due to the nature of respondents, especially the rural

women, some of whom are either illiterate or semi-literate. Moreover, the survey interview is a flexible approach because it is always possible to make interesting on-the-spot observations. By using the interview protocol it was possible to achieve a high response rate, 100% for rural women and 71.11% for information providers, because it was always possible to get an alternative respondent from the sampling frame when the intended person was not available for the interview. Completeness of data was achieved due to the fact that the face-to-face gave the interviewer time to make clarifications. The process also enabled the interviewer to stimulate the interest of the respondents by explaining the objectives and expected benefits of the study. To get honest responses, it was possible and important to assure respondents of their anonymity. It was therefore emphasized from the beginning that their responses were absolutely confidential and that they had been selected through scientific procedures.

Both close-ended and open-ended questions were employed in the interview protocols for information providers to allow them to provide their opinions on certain intricate issues related to the provision of information to rural women.

Due to complexity in measuring frequency of use of the various information providers by the respondents, a guideline was used to determine frequency in order to standardize the responses.

The methodology and the procedures employed to collect data for this study were appropriate in that they enabled the researcher to acquire the intended data which responded to the objectives of this study.

4.7 Summary

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology employed in conducting this study. It identifies the study population, explains the sampling process, the instrumentation used, the data collection process and the procedures used to analyse the data. Finally, it evaluates the appropriateness of the methodology used with regard to the nature and objectives of the study.

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CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF THE STUDY FINDINGS

5. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings obtained from the data collected for the study in relation to the research questions posed in Chapter One. The study examined the accessibility of gender and development information by rural women in the three districts of the Tanga region. In doing so it examined rural information services provision, specifically the information providers used and the type of information that rural women access with regard to the problems they face in their daily lives.

A total of 773 women, that is 228 from the Muheza, 224 from the Korogwe and 321 from the Lushoto Districts were interviewed using a structured, in-depth interview schedule. The data was also collected by the administration of another structured interview protocol to 64 information providers who were involved in the provision of education and information services to rural communities in the area of the study. The information providers provided their perspective of the problems women experience and the way they seek and access information to solve the problems they face. In addition, the information providers also gave their opinions on the barriers women face in accessing information and made proposals on what can be done to improve the flow and exchange of information to make it more accessible to the majority of rural women.

The findings of the study are presented in the subsequent sections.

5.1 Demographic characteristics of rural women surveyed

5.1.1 The sample and age of rural women surveyed

A total of 773 rural women in the area of the study were surveyed. Of these 228(29.49%) were from the Muheza District, 224(29.99%) from the Korogwe District and 321(41.52%) from the Lushoto District. The findings indicate that the majority of rural women in the sample are between the age of 26-35 years (31.82%) and 36-45yrs (20.83%), while only (3.11%) were over 65 years of age (See Table 2).

Table 2: DISTRIBUTION OF AGE GROUPS OF RURAL WOMEN BY DISTRICT (N=773)

AGE GROUP	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
16 - 25 yrs	42	18.42	38	16.96	56	17.45	136	17.59
26 - 35 yrs	70	30.70	75	33.48	101	31.40	246	31.82
36 - 45 yrs	52	22.81	48	21.43	61	19.00	161	20.83
46 - 55 yrs	38	16.67	39	17.41	59	18.38	136	17.59
56 - 65 yrs	21	09.21	17	07.59	32	09.97	70	09.06
over 65 yrs	05	02.19	07	03.13	12	03.74	24	03.11
Total	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

5.1.2 Marital status

The distribution of rural women by marital status in the sample shows that the majority (63.26%) of them are married. Rural women who are widowed account for 12.68% of the respondents. The rest are either single (09.83%), divorced (09.57%) or separated (04.66%). Table 3 shows the distribution of rural women by marital status.

Table 3: DISTRIBUTION OF MARITAL STATUS OF RURAL WOMEN BY DISTRICT (N=773)

MARITAL STATUS	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Single	29	12.72	18	8.03	29	9.03	76	9.83
Married	133	58.33	148	66.07	208	64.80	489	63.26
Divorced	24	10.53	20	8.93	30	9.34	74	9.57
Widowed	28	12.28	29	12.95	41	12.61	98	12.68
Separated	14	6.14	9	4.02	13	4.05	36	4.66
Total	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

5.1.3 Levels of education

The majority of respondents have primary school education (41.43%). These are followed by those who have no formal education (32.47%), while those who have attended functional literacy programmes make up 14.75% of the respondents. At least 09.44% of the respondents are school drop-outs (primary school education incomplete). These have between three and six years of formal education. The number of rural women who have secondary school education is dismally low (only 1.81% of respondents) and none have a higher education qualification. Table 4 shows distribution of the respondents by level of education.

Table 4: DISTRIBUTION OF LEVELS OF EDUCATION OF RURAL WOMEN BY DISTRICT (N=773)

LEVELS OF EDUCATION	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
no formal education	69	30.26	80	35.71	102	31.77	251	32.47
adult education	33	14.47	31	13.84	50	15.58	114	14.75
primary education	102	44.47	85	37.95	133	41.43	320	41.40
secondary education	06	02.63	04	01.79	04	01.25	14	01.81
technical education	00	00.00	00	00.00	01	00.31	01	00.13
higher education	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
primary education incomplete	18	07.89	24	10.71	31	09.66	73	09.44
Total	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

5.1.4 Main occupation and income levels

As expected, the majority of respondents (85.64%) undertake farming as their main occupation. Other main occupations of the rural women include business activities (7.12%) and traditional handicrafts (3.23%). Those working as civil servants (2.59%) or professionals (0.78%) account for only 3.3%. There are very few students (0.65%) because most of those who are older than 16 years are expected to have completed their primary education, while access to secondary education is limited.

The findings indicate that the majority of rural women (86.26%) have very low incomes of between 0 -100,000 Tanzania shillings (Tsh.) per annum. Only 1.55% have an income of over 400,000 Tshs per annum. Tables 5 and 6 show the distribution of respondents by main occupation and levels of income respectively.

Table 5: DISTRIBUTION OF MAIN OCCUPATIONS OF RURAL WOMEN BY DISTRICT (N=773)

OCCUPATION	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
farmer	185	81.14	195	87.05	282	87.85	662	85.64
business	21	9.22	18	8.04	16	4.98	55	7.12
traditional crafts	9	3.95	4	1.78	12	3.74	25	3.23
civil servants	9	3.95	4	1.78	7	2.18	20	2.59
professional	2	0.88	3	1.34	1	0.31	6	0.78
students	2	0.88	0	0.00	3	0.93	5	0.78

Table 6: DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME LEVELS OF RURAL WOMEN BY DISTRICT (N=773)

INCOME LEVELS	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
0 -50,000	89	39.04	104	46.42	145	45.17	338	43.73
50,000-100,000	104	45.62	93	41.52	132	41.12	329	42.56
100,001-200,00	25	10.96	19	8.48	36	11.21	80	10.35
200,001-400,00	6	2.63	4	1.79	4	1.25	14	1.81
over 400,001	4	1.75	4	1.79	4	1.25	12	1.55
Total	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

NB: The rate of exchange in 1996 was 1 US \$ = 630.00 TSH.

5.1.5 Membership of civic and political organizations

Table 7 is intended to show the respondents' membership of various civic and other organizations. The findings indicate that very few rural women in the area of the study are members of civic and other organizations (respondents could belong to more than one type of organization). It is noted, for instance, that only 29.62% of the respondents are members of political parties, while only 15.01% are members of the

Union of Tanzanian Women (UWT). The rest (2.72%) are either members of the Rural Credit and Savings Society or of a religious association (6.47%) such as the Christian Women's Association. There was a total of 341 (44.11%) non-responses.

Table 7: DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL WOMEN BY MEMBERSHIP OF ORGANIZATIONS BY DISTRICT

ORGANIZATION	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
political parties	78	34.21	59	26.34	92	28.66	229	29.62
women's organizations	28	12.28	35	15.62	54	16.82	117	15.01
youth organization	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
cooperative society	2	0.87	9	4.19	21	2.72	32	4.14
religious association	1	0.45	2	0.89	50	6.47	53	6.85
professional association	0	0.00	1	0.45	1	0.26	2	0.26

5.1.6 Knowledge of women's organizations

There are several organizations which have been very instrumental in mobilizing Tanzanian women for development as discussed in Chapter Two (The context of the study). This study investigated among other things, rural women's knowledge of these organizations. The findings are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: RURAL WOMEN'S KNOWLEDGE OF WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS BY DISTRICT

ORGANIZATION	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UWT	194	85.08	183	81.69	286	89.09	663	85.76
BAWATA	66	28.95	57	25.45	76	23.67	199	25.74
TAMWA	21	09.21	14	06.25	11	03.43	46	05.95
TAWLA	04	01.75	02	00.89	01	00.31	07	00.91
TGNP	03	01.31	01	00.44	01	00.31	05	00.65

The findings in Table 8 show that the Union of Tanzanian women (UWT) is known by the majority (85.76%) of the respondents. BAWATA is known by at least 25.74%, while the other organizations such as TAMWA (05.95%), TAWLA (00.91%) and TGNP (00.65%) are rarely known by the respondents. TAMWA, TAWLA and TGNP are more specialised, professional women's non-governmental organizations. There was a total of 110(34.26%) non-responses.

5.2 Demographic characteristics of information providers

5.2.1 Gender and age of respondents

The analysis of the demographic characteristics of the information providers surveyed shows that the majority of information providers in the area of the study are male (78.13%). Female information providers make up only 21.87% of the respondents. Their ages range between 16 years and 55 years, the compulsory retirement age for civil servants. At least half of them, that is 50.00% are between 36-45 years, while only 03.12% are between 16 and 25 years of age. Tables 9 and 10 show the distribution of information providers by gender and age.

Table 9: DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMATION PROVIDERS BY GENDER (N=64)

GENDER	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Male	50	78.13%
Female	14	21.87%
Total	64	100.00%

Table 10: DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMATION PROVIDERS BY AGE GROUP (N=64)

AGE	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
16-25 yrs	2	3.12%
26-35 yrs	20	31.25%
36-45 yrs	32	50.00%
46-55 yrs	10	15.63%
over 55 yrs	0	0.00%
Total	64	100.00%

5.2.2 Education and field of specialization

The findings of this study indicate that 96.88% of the information providers have completed secondary school education and have college training in their areas of specialization. None of them have university education and 3.12% have primary education. One had military training apart from training in his area of specialization (See Table 11).

The distribution of respondents by field of specialization shows that the majority work in the agriculture/veterinary field (31.25%), followed by health (21.87%), adult education (17.19%), forestry (15.63%), community development (14.06%) and none in library and information services (See Table 12).

Table 11: DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMATION PROVIDERS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION (N=64)

LEVEL OF EDUCATION	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
primary education	2	3.12%
secondary education	62	96.88%
college education	62	96.88%
university education	0	0.00%
military training	1	1.56%

Table 12: DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMATION PROVIDERS BY FIELD OF SPECIALIZATION (N=64)

FIELD OF SPECIALIZATION	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
health	11	17.19%
agriculture/veterinary	20	31.25%
community development	9	14.06%
adult education	14	21.87%
library/information	0	0.00%
forestry	10	15.63%
Total	64	100.00%

5.3 Information services in the area of the study

The first research question of this study sought to identify main information services in the area of the study. The guiding question was: what are the main information exchange activities operating in the area of the study? This section therefore identifies main information services and structures which play a major role in informing and educating the rural people. Details of the organizations involved and modes of information communications employed have been discussed in Chapter Two (The context of the study).

5.3.1 Health extension services

Health information services are provided within the framework of the FHP, the MCH, the EIP, the NACP, and the MEUSTA. Hospitals and clinics are also part of the health information service infrastructure. These health information programmes and services operate in all the districts of the study.

Among the 64 information providers interviewed, 25(39.06%) provide information on environmental sanitation and diseases control and on AIDS awareness. While

18(28.12%) disseminate information on family health and concentrate on issues such as family planning, child health care, immunization and family nutrition.

5.3.2 Agricultural extension services

Agricultural information services are provided within the framework of the NALEP in all the three districts of the study. In addition, services are also provided by the LDP, the SECAP and the TIP in the Lushoto District.

Agricultural extension workers are involved in disseminating information on better farming techniques specifically on issues such as soil erosion control, land use, irrigation, disease control, modern planting techniques, use of improved seeds, and agricultural credits. Of the 64 information providers interviewed at least 25(39.06%) said they were involved in agricultural information communication.

5.3.3 Forestry and environmental conservation extension services

The forestry department, the SECAP and the EUCFRP are involved in the provision of environmental conservation information services to the rural communities. The forestry department operate in all the three districts of the study. SECAP operate mainly in the Lushoto District and EUCFRP operate in parts of the Muheza and Korogwe Districts. Information services emphasise environmental conservation, tree planting and sustainable use of land and forest resources.

Among the 64 information providers interviewed 25(39.06%) are involved in the provision of information in this area.

5.3.4 Community development extension services

The provision of information services by the Community Development Department concentrates on mobilising rural people for community projects such as building of water wells, building and maintenance of health centres/clinics, schools and other

public services' infrastructure. As such, information services are provided in a wide range of community needs. Other organizations providing information services in this area include the VDP in the Korogwe and Muheza Districts, the CREW, the UNIFEM and the SRWS in all the three districts surveyed.

The community development department and these other organizations mobilise women as well as other members of the rural community to participate in income-generating and other self-help activities. The information providers (64) interviewed said that they provide information services in various areas, namely, simple appropriate technology 15(23.43%), rural cooperative skills 10(15.62%), trade and marketing 10(15.62%), women and women's groups activities 10(15.62%) while the rest 05(07.81%) provide information related to building of modern houses and maintenance of water wells.

5.3.5 Adult education services

The adult education department is mainly involved in post-literacy activities. As part of adult education services rural people are educated in life-support skills in various areas such as agriculture, health, home economics, rural enterprises, business and marketing skills. The adult education services are closely linked with other rural services. Therefore, they normally work in conjunction with other extension services, especially health, agriculture and community development. At least 21(32.81%) of the 64 information providers interviewed provide services in this area.

5.3.6 Rural library and information services

In general, there are no tangible library and information services which are accessible to the rural communities. There is a district library in Lushoto town which is ill equipped and staffed. The book collection contains old and dated materials.

Very few other rural libraries exist at ward or village level. These are at Maramba and Kilulu villages in the Muheza District, Dochi and Gare villages in the Lushoto

District and Mombo village in the Korogwe District. These are supervised by village chairpersons and coordinated by the adult education department. Among the information providers interviewed, none is involved in the provision of rural library information services.

Although, there are special NGOs, church, and school libraries in the area of the study these are for the use by members of these institutions.

5.4 Information services targeted at rural women

Although information services are provided to entire rural communities, there are some organizations which also target women as users of information. The second research question sought to investigate the type of information services specifically targeted to reach rural women. An assessment was made by asking information providers whether or not they do target women with information services. On the other hand, the interview protocol for women asked questions to ascertain the awareness of women of information services targeted at them, if any. The findings are presented in Table 13b.

Of the 64 information providers interviewed 39(60.94%) said that they do target rural women with information services. The services are targeted at rural women either individually or more often in their working or income-generating groups. The remaining 25(39.06%) pointed to the fact that information is disseminated equally to all members of the rural community regardless of gender. Those who target rural women with specific information services (that is, the 39 were further asked to mention the type of information they provide. Information providers may have indicated more than one type of information as presented in Table 13a.

Table 13a: INFORMATION SERVICES TARGETED AT RURAL WOMEN (N=39)

TYPE OF INFORMATION	NO.	PERCENTAGE
health information	33	84.61%
home economics	10	25.64%
fruit and vegetable gardening	07	17.94%
loans and income generating projects	07	17.94%
agroforestry information	06	15.38%
simple technology	03	07.69%
cooperative savings&credit information	02	05.12%

Table 13a shows that rural women are mainly targeted to receive health information 33(84.61%) followed by home economics information 10(25.64%). Other information targeted at women includes information on fruits and vegetable gardening, 07(17.94%), loans and income generation 07(17.94%), agroforestry 06(15.38%), while very few information providers target women with simple technology 03 (7.69%) and cooperative savings and credit information 02(5.12%).

On the other hand, the rural women were asked about their awareness of such services targeted at them. The findings are presented in Tables 13b and 13c.

Table 13b: RURAL WOMEN'S LEVELS OF AWARENESS OF SERVICES TARGETED AT THEM BY DISTRICT (N=773)

AWARENESS	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	158	60.96	120	55.36	217	67.60	495	64.04
No	31	13.59	51	22.76	20	06.23	102	13.10
Do not know	39	25.43	53	23.66	84	26.17	176	22.76
Total	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

The findings above indicate that at least 495(64.04%) of the respondents are aware of information services targeted at them. Those who said yes (the 495 respondents), were further asked to mention the special services they are aware of. The findings are presented in Table 13c. More than one information service could be mentioned by each respondent.

Table 13c: TYPE OF INFORMATION TARGETED AT RURAL WOMEN AS GIVEN BY DISTRICT

TYPE OF INFORMATION	MUHEZA N=158		KOROGWE N=120		LUSHOTO N=217		TOTAL N=495	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
health information	111	70.25	108	90.00	201	92.62	420	84.84
loans and income generating	43	27.21	48	40.00	81	37.32	172	34.74
credit and savings	04	02.53	24	20.00	00	00.00	28	05.65
simple technology	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
Information from radio programmes through women's radio fora	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00

The data collected indicate that rural women in the area of the study are mainly supplied with health-related information as indicated in Tables 13a and 13c by both information providers and rural women in the three districts, that is the Muheza District 111(70.25%), 108(90.00%) in the Korogwe District and 201(92.62%) in the Lushoto District. Furthermore, the findings indicate that information about other fields is provided sparingly in situations where women have been organized in groups of income-generation or credit and savings. This information chiefly concerns women's development projects and how rural women can acquire loans to develop their income-generating projects. Other information provided is related to their role as producers and reproducers, that is, information on fruit and vegetable gardening and home economics. Information on fruit and gardening is targeted at them to enable them to improve the nutritional status of their families, especially children, and to improve their income levels through selling surplus products, if there are any.

It should also be noted that the SECAP, EUCFRP and TIP activities target rural women to ensure that women are part and parcel of the information communication process. They target rural women in their women's working groups or in community working groups and it is demanded that at least 30% of members should be women. Information targeted at rural women through these activities concerns soil and water conservation, agroforestry as well as fruit and vegetable gardening.

5.5 Information needs of rural women

The third research question of the study sought to assess the needs of rural women in order to ascertain the information they would require to solve the problems they confront in their daily lives in the rural environment. These needs were surveyed by investigating the problems rural women encounter daily as well as the severity of the problems. The findings indicate that rural women face a myriad of problems as shown in Table 14a.

5.5.1 Development information needs

Table 14a: DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION NEEDS OF RURAL WOMEN IN THE AREA OF THE STUDY (N=773)

PROBLEM/NEED	VERY SERIOUS		SERIOUS		NOT SERIOUS	
farming	181	23.41%	484	62.61%	54	6.98%
health	105	13.58%	294	38.03%	148	19.15%
water	283	36.61%	178	23.02%	81	10.47%
housing	128	16.55%	271	35.05%	53	6.85%
firewood	225	29.11%	428	55.36%	65	8.47%
land	69	8.93%	263	34.02%	61	7.89%
marketing	35	4.53%	93	12.03%	70	9.05%
food	140	18.11%	468	60.54%	48	6.20%
loans	204	26.39%	28	3.62%	2	0.26%
literacy	90	11.64%	30	3.88%	0	0.00%
transport	97	12.54%	53	6.85%	0	0.00%

The assessment of rural women's development-related problems shows that the main problems rural women in the area of the study face are the availability of clean/safe water and firewood. These problems have been rated as 'very serious' by 283(36.61%) and 225(29.11%) of the respondents respectively. Another problem that has been rated as very serious is the availability of loans 204(26.39%). Awareness of this problems has been stimulated by the knowledge that a rural credit facility is available. This information has created a demand/need which has not been satisfied.

Farming identified by 484(62.61%) respondents, non-availability of food identified by 468(60.54%) respondents and health indicated by 294(38.00%) have been rated as serious problems by the majority of respondents. This is due to the fact that the majority of women still uses labour-intensive agricultural activities, while food-related problems have been caused by drought conditions, low productivity levels and demand for cash income. The drought caused crop failure in most parts of the region during the 1995/96 crop season. Health issues are problematic because most people living in extremely poor conditions remain particularly prone to communicable diseases. But the findings of this study show that the health information communication strategies may have reduced the intensity of this problem. It is noted that health as a problem has been rated as very serious by only 105(13.58%) respondents.

5.5.1.1 Information providers' estimation of development information needs

Table 14b: INFORMATION PROVIDERS' ESTIMATION OF DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION NEEDS OF RURAL WOMEN (N=64)

PROBLEM/NEED	VERY SERIOUS		SERIOUS		NOT SERIOUS	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
farming	19	29.68%	43	67.18%	0	0.00%
health	3	4.68%	40	62.50%	21	32.81%
water	23	35.94%	23	35.93%	18	28.12%
housing	6	9.37%	44	68.75%	13	20.31%
firewood	39	60.93%	24	37.50%	1	1.62%
land	33	51.56%	14	21.87%	3	4.68%
marketing	0	0.00%	16	25.00%	48	75.00%
food	2	3.12%	46	71.87%	18	28.12%
loans	23	35.94%	40	62.50%	0	0.00%
literacy	13	20.31%	39	60.94%	11	17.19%
transport	14	21.87%	20	31.25%	07	10.93%

Information providers' estimation of the development needs of women indicate that very serious problems which need serious attention as far as rural women are concerned include, energy resources, the need for firewood 39(60.93%), land 33(51.50%), provision of clean water 23(35.93%) and availability of loans for rural women's economic activities 23(35.93%). Serious problems which need attention include food security 46(71.87%), housing conditions 44(68.75%), farming 43(67.18%), health matters 40(62.50%) as well as literacy 40(60.94%).

5.5.2 Gender related information needs

Table 15a: GENDER RELATED PROBLEMS/NEEDS OF RURAL WOMEN (N=773)

PROBLEM/NEED	VERY SERIOUS		SERIOUS		NOT SERIOUS	
poverty	252	32.60%	320	41.39%	102	13.19%
opportunities	48	06.21%	299	38.68%	177	22.89%
skills/knowledge	201	26.00%	219	28.33%	177	22.89%
work overburden	408	52.78%	271	35.06%	23	02.97%
decision making	183	23.67%	407	52.65%	95	12.28%
harassment	83	10.73%	162	20.96%	58	07.58%
violence	66	08.53%	125	16.17%	49	06.33%
abandonment	55	07.11%	61	07.89%	30	03.88%
equal rights	86	11.12%	137	17.72%	19	02.45%

As far as rural women are concerned the gender related problems they face include work overburden 408(52.78%), poverty 252(32.60%) and the lack of modern skills and knowledge 201(26.00%). These have been rated as very serious problems. Other problems such as lack of decision-making power 407(52.65%), equal opportunities 299(38.68%) and harassment 162(20.96%) have been rated as serious problems.

Problems arising out of women's subordinate position are mainly considered to be in the private domain even though it can be argued that to a great extent these problems impact upon women's access to information and other productive resources. To determine further to what extent these problems are considered or thought about by rural women in their income-generating groups, those who belong to such groups were further asked whether they reflect and discuss on gender-related problems. This approach was used because it was thought that women in their groups may have had an opportunity to reflect on both their practical and strategic gender needs.

The findings presented herein indicate that of the 102(13.20%) of women who belong to working groups, only 34(33.33%) discuss strategic gender problems in their groups while the rest, 69(66.64%) do not. In the cases where these problems are discussed, that is the 34(33.33%) the issues discussed include: how to acquire skills and knowledge to run their development projects, 31(91.18%); acquisition of decision-making power, 30(88.24%); lack of equal opportunities, 28(82.35%); property ownership, 22(64.70%); discrimination, 20(58.82%); other issues such as domestic violence, 11(32.35%); and abandonment, 9(26.47%).

Those who do not discuss strategic gender problems that is the 68(66.64%) were asked to give reasons. The findings show that the reasons given include the response that they are merely concerned with income-generating projects to improve their livelihood, 60(92.75%). Other reasons given are a lack of awareness, motivation and leadership skills in analysing these problems, 54(78.25%), while the rest think that the problems are private issues to be sought out privately, 14(20.78%).

5.5.2.1 Information providers' opinion of gender problems/information needs

Table 15b: INFORMATION PROVIDERS' OPINION ON GENDER RELATED PROBLEMS FACED BY RURAL WOMEN IN THE AREA OF STUDY (N=64)

PROBLEM	STRONGLY AGREE		AGREE		UNCERTAIN		DISAGREE		STRONGLY DISAGREE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
poverty	17	26.56	43	67.18	0	0.00	2	3.12	0	0.00
opportunities	7	10.93	39	60.93	1	1.56	17	26.56	0	0.00
skills/knowledge	11	17.18	49	76.56	2	3.12	2	3.12	0	0.00
work overburden	51	79.68	13	20.31	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
decision making	33	51.56	23	35.93	4	6.24	4	6.24	0	0.00
harassment	9	14.06	35	54.68	17	26.56	1	1.56	2	3.12
violence	2	3.12	26	40.62	31	48.43	1	1.56	2	3.12
abandonment	3	4.68	29	45.13	26	40.62	1	1.56	1	1.56
equal rights	12	18.75	43	67.18	3	4.68	3	4.68	1	1.56

A considerable number of information providers in the rural areas, strongly agree that rural women's gender-related problems are work-overburden 51(79.68%), decision-making 33(51.56%) and poverty 17(26.56%), while only a few of them strongly agree on the occurrences of problems such as harassment 9(14.06%), equal opportunities 7(10.93%), abandonment 3(4.68%) and violence 2(3.12%). It is also noted that information providers agree that rural women's face problems related to skills/knowledge 49(76.56%), lack of equal rights 43(67.18%), poverty 43(67.18%) and equal opportunities 39(60.93%). (See Table 15b).

5.6 Information providers used by rural women

Research question number four sought to examine the information providers used by rural women to access information. In doing so this study investigated the specific information providers used by women to access information on the gender and development problems they encounter; the frequency of contact between rural women and the various information providers; information providers used by rural women in their income-generating groups and information providers used to access information on topical issues such as availability of loan/credit from governmental and non-governmental organizations. Respondents could give more than one information provider for dealing with their information needs. It must be noted therefore that in the case of the information provider mentioned (as in Table 16a) the possible total of returns would have been 773. The findings are presented and discussed.

Table 16a: INFORMATION PROVIDERS USED BY RURAL WOMEN FOR DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION (N=773)

INFORMATION PROVIDER	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
village leaders	195	25.23	357	46.18	221	28.58
village elders	4	0.52	136	17.59	633	81.88
religious leaders	8	1.03	18	2.32	746	96.50
women leaders	67	8.66	21	2.71	684	88.48
rural experts	226	29.23	457	59.12	90	11.64
traditional healers	102	13.19	220	28.46	450	58.21
friends/relatives	269	34.79	333	43.07	171	22.12
books/newspapers	14	1.81	104	13.45	653	84.47
radio	75	9.70	226	29.23	470	60.80
films/tv/video	2	0.25	95	12.28	681	88.09
library/information centre	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
adult education centre	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
political party office	1	0.12	40	5.17	732	94.69
local govt office	27	3.49	78	10.09	667	86.28
hospital/clinic	185	23.93	356	46.05	227	29.36
cooperative office	0	0.00	2	0.18	771	95.00

Table 16a presents the findings concerning the information providers used by rural women to access development-related information. The findings indicate that friends and relatives 269(34.79%), rural experts 226(29.23%), village leaders 195(25.23%) and hospitals and clinics 185(23.93%) are the chief information providers used frequently by rural women in the area of the study. Other information providers such as books/newspapers and radio, as well as other institutional sources such as local government and party or cooperative offices are rarely used.

Table 16b: INFORMATION PROVIDERS USED BY RURAL WOMEN FOR GENDER-RELATED PROBLEMS (N=773)

INFORMATION PROVIDER	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
village leaders	13	1.68	83	10.73	672	86.93
village elders	45	5.82	120	15.52	606	78.39
religious leaders	49	6.33	59	7.62	664	85.89
women leaders	17	2.19	26	3.36	729	94.30
rural experts	7	0.90	12	1.55	752	97.28
traditional healers	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
friends/relatives	147	19.01	297	38.42	359	46.44
books/newspapers	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
radio	9	1.16	48	6.20	716	92.62
film, TV/Video	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
library/information centre	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
adult education centre	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
party office	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
local government	8	1.03	16	2.06	754	97.54
hospital clinic	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
village council	0	0.00	3	0.38	770	99.62

Table 16b shows the sources of information consulted for gender-related problems. Again, friends and relatives 147(19.01%) are frequently consulted for these problems. Other sources include religious leaders 49(6.33%) and village elders 45(5.82%).

5.6.1 Contact between information providers and rural women

Table 16c presents an analysis of the frequency of contact between the various information providers and rural women in the area of the study, in the process of communicating and accessing gender and development information.

Table 16c: FREQUENCY OF CONTACT BETWEEN RURAL WOMEN AND RURAL LEADERS/INFORMATION PROVIDERS (N=773)

LEADERS/INFORMATION PROVIDERS	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
political leaders	0	0.00	173	22.38	599	77.49
village leaders	195	25.23	334	43.20	206	26.64
community development workers	16	2.06	97	12.54	655	84.73
health extension workers	169	21.86	310	40.10	94	12.16
agriculture and veterinary workers	70	9.05	162	20.95	539	69.72
cooperative officers	0	0.00	33	4.26	738	95.47
teachers/adult educators	7	0.90	132	17.07	632	81.76
librarian information worker	0	0.00	0	0.00	773	100.00
forestry extension workers	22	2.84	116	15.01	634	82.02
water supply workers	0	0.00	26	1.03	665	86.03
bank officer	0	0.00	10	0.12	763	98.70
land officer	0	0.00	01	0.00	772	99.87

The findings above indicate that most often rural women have frequent contact with local (village) leaders 195(25.23%) and health workers 169(21.86%) whilst others who occasionally have contact with rural women include political leaders 173(22.38%) agricultural workers 162(20.95%), teachers 132(17.07%) forestry extension workers 116(15.01%) and community development workers 97(12.54%).

5.6.2 Rural women's income-generating groups

Rural women are usually mobilized to join income-generating groups, by both governmental and non-governmental organizations undertaking development activities in rural areas. The main argument is that it is easier to reach women with services when they are in groups than individually. This study investigated to what extent rural women in the area of the study have joined these groups and to what extent sources of information are made accessible to them. The findings indicate that at least 102(13.20%) (See Table 1a, Appendix 1) rural women have joined

women's income-generating groups. Of these, 29(12.72%) are in the Muheza District, 28(12.50%) in the Korogwe District and 45(14.01%) in the Lushoto District (See Table 1a, Appendix 1). The activities undertaken by these women groups are discussed in the following section.

5.6.2.1 Activities undertaken by rural women in their income-generating groups

The following Table 17a shows the area of activity of rural women who have joined income-generating women's groups.

Table 17a: ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN BY WOMEN IN THEIR INCOME-GENERATING GROUPS (N=102)

AREA OF ACTIVITY	MUHEZA N=29		KOROGWE N=28		LUSHOTO N=45		TOTAL N=102	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
agricultural projects	13	44.83	05	17.86	26	57.78	44	43.14
income-generating projects	19	65.52	21	75.00	28	62.22	69	67.65
savings&credit society	02	06.90	15	53.57	08	17.78	25	24.51
environment conservation groups	03	10.34	05	17.86	10	22.22	18	17.65

Table 17a shows that the majority 69(67.65%) undertake income-generating activities such as milling machine projects, hotel and shop keeping or beer-brewing projects, while 44(43.14%) undertake agricultural activities, especially fruit and vegetable gardening or tree nurseries projects. The rest 25(24.51%) have either joined the women's credit and savings associations or women's environment conservation groups 18(17.65%). The credit association seems to be stronger in Korogwe district especially at Mashewa and Kwamdolwa villages. Most women environmental conservation groups were observed in Shashui, Magila and other villages of the Lushoto District where SECAP and TIP activities are carried out.

5.6.2.2 Information providers used by rural women in their income-generating groups

Information providers accessible and used by rural women who have joined these income-generating groups are presented in Table 17b.

Table 17b: INFORMATION PROVIDERS USED BY RURAL WOMEN IN THEIR INCOME-GENERATING GROUPS (N=102)

INFORMATION PROVIDER	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
village leaders	84	82.35	08	07.84	10	09.80
village elders	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00
religious leaders	19	18.62	10	09.80	73	71.56
women leaders	98	96.07	02	01.96	03	02.94
rural experts	94	92.15	00	00.00	08	07.84
traditional healers	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00
friends relatives	88	86.27	01	00.98	13	12.74
books/newspapers	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00
radio	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00
films/television	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00
library/resource centre	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00
adult education centre	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00
political party	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00
local government	53	51.96	43	42.15	08	07.84
hospital/clinic	00	00.00	00	00.00	102	100.00

From the findings it would appear that women in working groups have easier access to village leaders 84(82.35%), women leaders 98(96.07%) rural experts 94(92.15%) as well as local government offices 53(51.96%) in the course of executing their group activities. It is interesting to note that, as a group, these rural women do not enjoy joint access to printed or audio-visual sources of information such as books, newspapers, video, radio and audio cassettes, to access needed information.

5.6.2.3 Information providers used to access information on credit/loans

To corroborate the data collected above, this study further investigated ways in which rural women get access to information on availability of credit/loans for rural women's development from both governmental and non-government organizations.

This study investigated among other things, awareness of the availability of such facilities and the information providers rural women have used to access the information. The findings indicate that the majority of rural women 574(74.26%) (See Table 1b, Appendix 1) is aware of the availability of rural women's loan/credit fund from governmental and non governmental organizations. Table 18 below shows that the main sources of information used to access the information are friends and relatives 396(68.98%) village meetings 243(42.33%) where the village leaders are the source of information followed by women groups 125(21.77%) and radio 116(20.20%).

Table 18: INFORMATION PROVIDERS USED BY RURAL WOMEN TO ACCESS INFORMATION ON AVAILABILITY OF CREDIT FUND FOR RURAL WOMEN

INFORMATION PROVIDER	MUHEZA N=166		KOROGWE N=179		LUSHOTO N=229		TOTAL N=574	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
radio	45	27.10	36	20.11	35	15.28	116	20.20
newspapers	13	07.83	15	08.37	05	02.18	33	05.74
friends/relative	129	77.71	118	65.92	149	65.06	396	68.98
women groups	32	19.27	35	19.55	58	25.32	125	21.77
village meeting	80	48.19	72	40.22	91	39.73	243	42.33
Human information providers	14	08.43	22	12.29	36	15.72	67	11.67

5.7 Channels of communication used

Research question number five sought to investigate the channels of communication used by information providers to communicate information to rural communities in the area of the study. It also sought to investigate the channels used by rural women to access information communicated by these rural information providers.

Information providers could identify more than one channel as applicable. The findings are presented in Tables 19a and 19b.

Table 19a: COMMUNICATION CHANNELS USED BY INFORMATION PROVIDERS TO COMMUNICATE INFORMATION TO RURAL COMMUNITIES (N=64)

CHANNEL	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
demonstration	38	59.37%
group discussion	55	85.93%
village meeting	54	84.37%
films	15	23.43%
tv/video	04	06.25%
audio cassettes	00	00.00%
radio fora	01	01.56%
books	11	17.18%
pamphlets/magazines	06	09.37%
posters	32	50.00%
song/dance	17	26.56%
face-to-face communication	36	56.25%

From the data presented above, it is noted, that more often than not, information providers in the rural areas use group discussions 55(85.93%), village meetings 54(84.37%), demonstration 38(59.37%), face-to-face communication 36(56.25%) and posters 32(50.00%) to communicate information to the rural people in the area of the study. Information providers could have indicated more than one channel.

Table 19b: COMMUNICATION CHANNELS USED BY INFORMATION PROVIDERS TO COMMUNICATE INFORMATION AS GIVEN BY RURAL WOMEN BY DISTRICT

CHANNEL	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
demonstration	39	17.10	34	15.17	53	16.51	126	17.83
discussion groups	64	28.07	23	10.26	92	28.66	179	23.15
village meeting	154	67.54	145	64.73	167	52.02	466	60.28
films	39	17.10	23	10.26	30	09.34	93	12.03
tv/video	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
audio cassettes	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
radio fora	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
books	05	02.19	00	00.00	06	01.86	11	01.42
magazines/pamphlets	03	01.31	00	00.00	08	02.49	11	01.42
posters	49	65.35	164	73.21	206	64.17	514	64.49
song/dance	51	22.36	39	17.41	75	23.36	165	21.34
face to face communication	98	86.84	191	85.26	290	90.34	679	87.83

The above findings show that rural women access information delivered to them by information providers through face to face communication 679(87.83%), posters 514(64.49%) and village meetings 466(60.28%). The least used channels of communication include song and dance 165(21.34%), films 93(12.03%), books 11(01.42%), and pamphlets 11(01.42%), while videos, radio and audio cassettes are not used.

5.7.1 Effectiveness of channels of communication as perceived by rural women and information providers

Research question number six sought to examine how information providers and rural women perceive the effectiveness of the various channels of communication they use to communicate and access information respectively. Therefore, the information providers were asked how effective the various channels of

communication they use are in communicating information as far as the rural women in the area of the study are concerned. Likewise rural women were asked how effective the various channels of communication used in information communication are in terms of understanding the information communicated to them. The following Tables 20a and 20b indicate their opinions (responses).

Table 20a: EFFECTIVENESS OF CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION AS PERCEIVED BY INFORMATION PROVIDERS (N=773)

CHANNEL	VERY EFFECTIVE		EFFECTIVE		NOT EFFECTIVE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
demonstration	60	93.75	04	06.25	00	00.00
group discussions	50	78.12	14	21.87	00	00.00
village meetings	13	20.31	48	75.00	03	04.68
films	54	84.37	09	14.06	01	01.56
video	53	82.81	10	15.62	01	01.56
audio cassettes	40	62.50	23	35.93	01	01.56
radio fora	41	64.06	21	32.81	02	03.12
books	05	07.81	49	76.56	10	15.62
pamphlets	09	14.06	45	70.31	10	15.62
posters	35	54.68	28	43.75	01	01.56
song/dance	59	92.18	05	07.81	00	00.00
face to face communication	62	96.87	02	03.13	00	00.00

The findings indicate that as far as the information providers are concerned the most effective way to communicate information to rural women is through face-to-face oral communication media 62(96.87%), demonstrations 60(93.75%), traditional media (song and dance) 59(92.18%), films 54(84.37%), video 53(82.37%) and group discussions 50(78.12%). Books 49(76.56%), village meetings 48(75.00%) and pamphlets 45(70.31%) are rated as effective.

Table 20b: EFFECTIVENESS OF CHANNELS USED BY INFORMATION PROVIDERS AS PERCEIVED BY RURAL WOMEN

CHANNEL	VERY EFFECTIVE		EFFECTIVE		NOT EFFECTIVE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
demonstration	124	98.41	02	01.58	00	00.00
discussion	167	93.29	12	06.70	00	00.00
meeting	39	08.36	319	68.45	135	28.90
films	83	89.24	09	09.67	01	01.00
video	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
audio	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
radio	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
books	04	36.36	07	63.63	00	00.00
pamphlets	07	63.63	04	36.36	00	00.00
posters	232	44.70	287	55.29	00	00.00
song/dance	125	75.75	41	24.84	00	00.00
face to face	524	77.17	155	33.82	00	00.00

On the other hand rural women perceive demonstrations 124(98.41%) and group discussions 167(93.29%) to be the most effective channels of communications. Followed by films 83(89.23%), face-to-face communication 524(77.17%) and traditional media (song and dance) 125(75.75%). Village meetings 319(68.45%), books 07(63.63%), posters 04(55.29%) and pamphlets (36.36%) are rated as merely effective. It should be noted that the opinion of rural women was based only on the channels used in their contact with information providers.

5.8 The extent of accessibility and use of audio-visual, printed and traditional/indigenous sources of information

Research question number seven sought to examine the extent of accessibility of sources of information such as radio, films, TV/Video, audio cassettes, posters, books and newspapers. The extent of accessibility of these communication

channels by rural women was measured by determining their awareness of the availability of these sources and the extent and frequency of their use. The findings are presented below.

5.8.1 Rating of accessibility of audio-visual and printed sources of information by rural women

5.8.1.1 Access to radio

As far as the accessibility of radio as a source of information is concerned the findings show that at least 318(41.13%) out of 773(100.00%) of the households surveyed have a radio set at home. On the other hand radio-listening frequency among respondents shows that, of those who have a radio set at home, 286(89.93%) make an effort to listen to the radio albeit occasionally, while 32(10.07%) respondents said that they do not listen to the radio at all. Only 40(8.79%) of those who do not have radio sets in their households make an effort to go to a neighbour's home where a radio set is available to listen to the radio. Other places such as the village hall, shop or pub are not popular with women as radio-listening venues.

Furthermore, in analysing rural women's access to radio as a source of information two important factors which can have an impact on levels and types of information accessed were also analysed. These are frequency of listening and the time of the day at which women have an opportunity to listen to the radio. The findings indicate that as far as radio listening is concerned a total of 326(42.17%) respondents have an opportunity to listen to radio programmes. Respondents were asked about their weekly radio listening frequency. The findings indicate that: 75(23.00%) of the respondents listen to the radio daily, 67(20.55%) four to six times a week, 76(23.31%) two to three times a week and 108(33.13%) once a week. Further analysis indicates that the majority of them, 289(88.65%), listen to the radio in the evening, while only 80(24.54%) get a chance to listen to the radio in the afternoon and 76(23.31%) listen to the radio in the morning.

Those who do not listen to the radio at all, 447(57.83%) were asked to give reasons why they do not listen to the radio. The findings show that reasons given include, mainly, the non-availability of radio sets at home 401(88.13%). Another factor was a lack of time to listen to the radio at other places where it may be accessible, 310(68.13%), while 156(34.28%) indicated a general lack of awareness of the importance of the radio as a source of information. Other reasons provided range from lack of ownership of a radio set to family conflict and other people's attitudes with regard to a woman visiting a public place frequented by men for radio-listening purposes, 36(7.91%).

5.8.1.2 Access to books, newspapers and other periodicals

In this section the incidence of reading among rural women in the area of the study is reported as well as the type of publications read, the frequency of use of such publications and the degree of accessibility of publications. (Due to complexity of measuring frequency, a guideline to determine frequency was used by the researcher. (See section 4.6 Evaluation of methodology used in this study). The findings are presented in Tables 21a and 21b.

As far as the use of various publications such as books, newspapers and other periodicals is concerned, the findings of the study indicate that indeed rural women do have limited access to these sources of information. At least 203(26.26%) respondents do some reading of publications, while the majority 570(73.74%) do not (See Table 1c, Appendix 1). Of those who do some reading, 187(24.19%) read books, 131(16.95%) read newspapers and 34(4.40%) read other periodicals (See Table 1d, Appendix 1). It is further indicated that, of those who have access to these publications, 67(35.82%) read books frequently (these account for only 8.66% of total respondents) while 121(64.17%) of them read occasionally (that is 120 or 15.52% of the total respondents) (See Table 21a). This study also sought to establish where these publications are acquired. The findings indicate that of those who use various publications the majority 192(94.58%) (or 24.84% of total respondents) get these publications from friends or relatives, while only 40(19.70%) that is (05.17% of

the total respondents) of those who do some reading do actually buy these publications. The rest get them either from rural information providers (16.74%) or (4.39% of total respondents) or from church, 20(2.58%), school, 10 (1.29%) or health centre, 4(0.51%).

Table 21b shows that the majority have rated books, 586(75.80%), newspapers, 511(66.11%) and other periodicals, 739(95.60%) not accessible which means that very few people have access to printed sources of information.

Table 21a: FREQUENCY OF USE OF PUBLICATIONS READ BY RURAL WOMEN

PUBLICATIONS	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
books	67	08.66	120	15.52	586	75.80
newspapers	10	01.29	121	15.65	642	83.05
periodicals	03	00.38	31	04.01	739	95.60

Table 21b: DEGREE OF ACCESSIBILITY OF PUBLICATIONS AS GIVEN BY RURAL WOMEN (N=773)

PUBLICATIONS	VERY ACCESSIBLE		ACCESSIBLE		NOT ACCESSIBLE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
books	29	03.75	158	20.44	586	75.80
newspapers	04	00.52	127	16.42	511	66.11
periodicals	00	00.00	34	04.39	739	95.60

5.8.1.3 Access to films, video and audio-cassettes

In this section the extent of accessibility and use of audio-visual sources of information by the respondents in the area of the study is presented in Tables 22a and 22b.

Regarding the degree of accessibility of audio visual sources of information as given by the respondents, responses indicate that films are not accessible in rural areas, while 29(3.75%) and 1(0.13%) of the respondents rated video and audio-cassettes as very accessible to them respectively. However, 248(32.08%) of the respondents rated films as accessible while 525(67.92%) rated them as not accessible. Meanwhile the findings indicate that videos have been rated accessible by 294(38.03%) and not accessible by 450(58.21%) of the respondents. Even though audio-visual sources are accessible to rural communities, very few rural women make use of these sources as the findings of this study indicate below.

The extent of use of audio-visual sources of information such as films, video or audio cassettes by rural women is very limited. The findings of this study show that only 97(12.55%), 190(24.58%), 46(5.96%) make some use of films, video and audio sources of information respectively (See Table 1e, Appendix 1). The frequency of use of these sources of information shows that ,like printed sources, these sources are also used occasionally. Only 15(7.89) or (01.94% of total respondents) and 10(21.74%) or (1.29% of total respondents) indicated frequent use of video and audio sources of information respectively. The majority of respondents 103(13.32%) indicated that they listen to or view these sources at the village hall or square. Other places, 124(16.04%) include at the school 78(10.09%), in passenger buses, 30(5.04%) and at the church 16(2.06%).

Table 22a: FREQUENCY OF USE OF FILMS/VIDEO AND AUDIO SOURCES OF INFORMATION

SOURCE OF INFORMATION	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
films	00	00.00	97	12.55	676	87.45
video	15	01.94	175	22.63	583	75.42
audio cassettes	10	01.29	36	04.66	727	94.04

Table 22b: DEGREE OF ACCESSIBILITY OF FILMS/VIDEO AND AUDIO SOURCES OF INFORMATION AS GIVEN BY RURAL WOMEN

SOURCE OF INFORMATION	VERY ACCESSIBLE		ACCESSIBLE		NOT ACCESSIBLE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
films	00	00.00	248	32.08	525	67.92
tv/video	29	03.75	294	38.03	450	58.21
audio cassettes	01	00.13	71	09.18	701	90.68

5.8.1.4 Access to posters

Posters can be useful sources of communicating information to rural populations to make them aware of coming events or activities and also to advise them about various health, political, agricultural as well as environmental conservation issues. This study investigated the extent of accessibility and use of this source of information by rural women in the area of the study.

The findings show that at least 514(66.49%) respondents in the area of the study have access to posters compared to 259(33.51%) who do not have (See Table 1f, Appendix 1). These rural women use posters displayed in public areas to gain awareness on various issues, especially health and forest conservation awareness.

5.8.1.5 Access to traditional/indigenous media

This study also sought to investigate the extent to which traditional media are used as a source of development-related information by rural women in the area of the study. The findings indicate that traditional media are not widely used as sources of development information by rural women. Of the three traditional media, song and dance, 156(20.18%) is used more often than traditional theatre, 77(09.96%) and poetry, 55(07.12%). Table 23 shows the frequency of use of traditional media.

Table 23: FREQUENCY OF USE OF TRADITIONAL MEDIA BY RURAL WOMEN (N=773)

TRADITIONAL MEDIA	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
song/dance	2	0.26	156	20.18	615	79.56
theatre	0	0.00	77	09.96	696	90.03
poetry	0	0.00	55	07.12	718	92.88

5.8.1.6 Access to rural library/rural resource centre

All the rural women in the three districts said there were no rural libraries in their villages (100%). Independent investigation of this issue revealed that most of the rural libraries which had been established in the 1970s, primarily to support functional literacy activities ceased to operate in the past three or four years. As such most of the materials in the former rural libraries were gathering dust at the village government offices and have since been transferred to village schools or Ward offices. These books and other materials were seen by the researcher at Maramba and Kilulu Ward Offices in the Muheza District. Mombo Ward Offices in the Korogwe District. An organized book collection was also found at Gare Ward Secretary's office in Lushoto District. According to the Gare Ward Secretary, the use of this collection is closely monitored and restricted to few because of fear of loss of material. Another collection of books was seen at the Dochi village chairperson's office in the Lushoto District. The chairperson said that the collection was not in use since most of the adult education activities in the village had ceased to operate. He was considering transferring the books to the District library. Most of the villagers are not aware of the availability of such collections unless they have personal contacts with either the village leaders or ward officials. The reasons given for the poor state of rural libraries is the lack of resources and volunteer personnel to undertake the rigorous task of organizing them for greater accessibility. It should be noted that although the Lushoto District has a district library located at the centre of Lushoto town, it lacks professionally trained staff, and the collection consists of old outdated materials weeded from the National Central Library and transferred there. According

to the “librarian” or caretaker of the collection a lot of users used to flock to the library to read newspapers, but newspapers are no longer available at the library for lack of financial resources and these users no longer visit the library.

5.8.2 Information providers’ estimation of accessibility of channels of communication

Information providers were asked to estimate the degree of accessibility of channels of communication in the area of the study. The findings are presented in Table 24.

Table 24: INFORMATION PROVIDERS ESTIMATION OF ACCESSIBILITY OF CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION IN THE AREA OF THE STUDY (N=64)

CHANNEL	VERY ACCESSIBLE		ACCESSIBLE		NOT ACCESSIBLE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
books	00	00.00	19	29.68	45	70.31
newspapers	00	00.00	12	18.75	52	81.25
journals	00	00.00	09	14.06	55	85.93
pamphlets	00	00.00	10	15.62	54	84.37
posters	35	54.68	29	45.31	02	03.12
films	00	00.00	22	34.37	44	68.75
tv/video	00	00.00	25	39.06	39	60.93
audio cassettes	00	00.00	06	9.37	58	90.62
radio	22	34.37	46	71.87	01	01.56
rural library	00	00.00	02	03.12	62	96.87

According to the information providers, posters 35(54.68%) and radio 22(34.37%) are highly accessible in rural areas than any other channels of communication. Channels regarded as accessible include radio 46(71.87%), posters 29(45.31%), video 25(39.06%) and films 22(34.37%), while inaccessible sources include the rural library 62(96.87%), audio cassettes 58(90.62%), journals/magazines 55(85.93%), newspapers 52(81.25%) and books 45(70.31%).

5.9 Possible relationship between rural women's socio-economic status and the degree of access and use of printed and audio-visual sources of information

Research question number eight sought to investigate a possible relationship between rural women's socio-economic status and the degree of access and use or non-use of the various printed and audio-visual sources of information. Three variables, namely, age, education and level of income, which could have an impact on use or non-use of sources of information by rural women in the area of the study, were selected for examination. The findings are presented in Tables 25a, 25b and 25c. The findings indicate that all the three variables, that of age, education and level of income, have an impact of access to and use of sources of information by respondents.

5.9.1 The age of respondents and the use of printed and audio-visual channels of communication

Table 25a shows the findings of the possible relationship between age and the use of printed and audio visual channels of communication.

Table 25a: THE AGE OF RESPONDENTS AND THE USE OF PRINTED AND AUDIO-VISUAL CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION (N=773)

CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION	16-25yrs		26-35yrs		36-45yrs		46-55yrs		56-65yrs		over 65 yrs	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
books	41	30.15	76	30.89	38	23.60	24	17.64	08	11.42	00	00.00
newspaper	27	19.85	65	26.42	23	14.28	13	09.56	03	04.28	00	00.00
magazines	07	05.15	22	08.94	03	01.86	02	01.47	00	00.00	00	00.00
films	20	14.71	43	17.48	21	13.04	10	07.35	03	04.28	00	00.00
tv/video	43	31.62	87	35.36	36	22.36	22	16.17	02	02.85	00	00.00
audio	11	08.09	21	08.53	06	03.72	06	04.41	02	02.85	00	00.00
radio	51	37.50	126	51.22	577	47.82	54	39.70	17	24.28	01	04.16
posters	103	75.73	204	82.93	115	71.42	70	51.47	21	24.28	01	04.16
Total	136		246		161		136		70		24	

As far as the possible relationship between age and level of access and use of sources of information is concerned, the findings (in Table 25a) indicate that younger women (26-35) are more likely to make use of sources such as books 76(30.89%), TV/video 87(35.36%), radio 126(51.22%) and posters 204(82.93.%) compared to those between the ages of 46-55 who make less use of books 24(17.64%), TV/video 22(16.17%), radio 54(39.70) and posters 70(51.47%).

5.9.2 Education levels of respondents and the use of printed and audio-visual channels of communication

The following table 25b shows the possible relationship between educational levels of respondents and the use of printed and audio-visual channels of communication.

Table 25b: EDUCATIONAL LEVELS OF RESPONDENTS AND THE USE OF THE VARIOUS PRINTED AND AUDIO-VISUALS CHANNEL OF COMMUNICATION (N=773)

CHANNEL	no formal education		adult education		primary education incomplete		primary education		secondary education		technical education	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
books	00	00.00	17	14.91	21	28.76	135	42.18	14	100.00	01	100.00
newspaper	00	00.00	07	06.14	06	08.22	105	32.18	13	92.85	01	100.00
magazines	00	00.00	00	00.00	02	02.77	22	06.87	10	71.42	01	100.00
films	08	03.18	14	12.28	06	08.22	63	19.68	06	42.85	01	100.00
tv/video	24	09.56	27	23.68	17	23.28	111	34.68	11	78.57	01	100.00
audio	04	01.59	04	03.51	03	04.11	28	08.75	07	50.00	01	100.00
radio	48	19.12	56	49.12	31	42.46	178	55.62	13	92.85	01	100.00
posters	78	31.07	83	72.81	54	73.97	284	88.75	14	100.00	01	100.00
Total	251		114		73		320		14		01	

With regard to the possible relationship between education and use of sources of information, the findings show that the higher the level of education the higher the use of sources of information. For instance those who only completed secondary

education, almost all of them, that is 14(100.00%) make use of books compared to 135(42.18%) of primary school leavers and 17(14.91%) of functional literacy graduates. With regard to the use of printed and audio-visual sources of information the findings indicate that 13(92.85%) of secondary school graduates have access and make use of radio, 11(78.57%) of video, 14(100.00%) of posters and 13(92.85%) of newspapers, while of those with no formal education, only 48(19.12%) make use of radio, 24(9.56%) of video, 78(31.07%) of posters and none of newspapers or books.

5.9.3 Income levels and the use of printed and audio-visual channels of communication

The following Table 25c shows the possible relationship between respondents' levels of income and the use of printed and audio visual channels of communication.

Table 25c: RESPONDENTS' LEVELS OF INCOME AND THE USE OF PRINTED AND AUDIO-VISUAL CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION (N=773)

CHANNELS OF COMMUNICATION	< 50,000		< 100,000		< 200,000		< 400,000		> 400,000 ¹	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
books	21	06.21	99	30.09	48	60.00	10	71.43	09	75.00
newspapers	07	02.07	66	20.06	39	48.75	12	85.71	07	58.33
magazines	00	00.00	07	02.13	15	18.75	07	50.00	05	41.66
films	11	03.25	56	17.02	21	26.25	05	35.71	04	33.33
tv/video	38	11.24	98	29.78	40	50.00	08	57.14	06	50.00
audio	07	02.07	13	03.95	16	20.00	04	28.57	06	50.00
radio	79	23.37	169	51.36	60	75.00	10	71.14	08	66.66
posters	159	47.04	267	81.15	69	86.25	10	71.14	10	83.33
Total	338		329		80		14		12	

The findings indicate that rural women with low incomes make less use of formal sources of information compared to those who have moderate or high income levels.

For instance, 9(75.00%) of the respondents who have a high income make use of books, 7(58.33%) of newspapers, 5(41.66%) of magazines or pamphlets, 6(50.00%) of video, 8(66.06%) of radio and 10(83.38%) of posters, compared to those with low income who make less use of books 21(06.21%), of newspapers, 7(02.07%), none of other periodicals, of radio 79(23.37%) and 159(47.04%) of posters.

5.10 Relevance of information accessed by rural women from various information providers

Research question number nine sought to assess the relevance of information disseminated by information providers and accessed by rural women. The degree of relevance of the information disseminated to rural women was measured by determining the relationship between rural women's information needs and the information that is made accessible to them. Rural women were asked to mention the information they access from the various information providers, to specify what messages the information carries (See Tables 26a and 26b) and then to determine the degree of relationship between their needs and the information accessed (See Table 27a). The findings are presented in the following sections.

5.10.1 Information accessed from radio

To determine the information the respondents access from radio, those who listen to the radio, that is 326(42.17%) of the respondents (as reported in section 5.8.1.1), were asked which radio programmes they listen to and the frequency of their listening to such programmes. Their responses are presented in Table 26a.

Table 26a: TYPE OF INFORMATION ACCESSED FROM RADIO BY THE RESPONDENTS (N=326)

TYPE OF INFORMATION	FREQUENTLY		SOMETIMES		NEVER	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
political	38	11.65	153	46.93	135	41.41
health	64	19.63	191	58.58	71	21.77
education	09	02.76	35	10.73	282	86.50
agriculture	26	07.97	171	52.43	129	39.57
women&development	25	07.66	132	40.49	169	51.84
religious	64	19.63	191	58.58	71	21.78
current affairs	97	29.75	215	65.95	14	04.29
death announcement	90	27.60	192	58.89	44	13.49
entertainment	44	13.49	196	60.12	84	25.76

Analysis of the data about what information rural women access from the various radio programmes shows that rural women (that is the 326 or 42.17% of the respondents as reported in section 5.8.1.1) who have access to radio listen frequently to current affairs/news bulletins 97(29.75%), death announcements 90(27.60%), religious programmes 64(19.63%), health 64(19.63%) and entertainment 44(13.49%). Other programmes that rural women listen to occasionally include health and religious programmes 191(58.58%) each, agriculture 171(52.43%), political 153(46.93%) and women and development issues 132(40.49%).

5.10.2 Information accessed from other information providers

The respondents were also asked to mention the type of information they access from other information providers (printed, audio, traditional sources) and from human information providers. The responses are summarised in Table 26b.

Table 26b: TYPE OF INFORMATION ACCESSED FROM PRINTED, AUDIO, TRADITIONAL SOURCES AND FROM INFORMATION PROVIDERS

TYPE OF INFORMATION	publications		posters		films/video		Traditional Sources		Information providers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
educational	33	04.26	02	00.25	00	00.00	122	15.78	104	13.45
political	110	14.23	131	16.94	00	00.00	112	14.49	78	10.09
agriculture	37	04.78	20	02.58	03	00.38	31	04.01	223	28.84
health	68	08.79	514	66.49	50	06.46	157	20.31	673	87.06
business	12	01.55	65	08.41	00	00.00	00	00.00	06	00.77
environment	06	00.77	127	16.43	55	07.11	12	01.55	126	16.30
women development	20	02.58	00	00.00	00	00.00	03	00.38	109	14.10
religious	162	20.95	70	09.05	60	07.76	00	00.00	00	00.00
entertainment	129	16.68	06	00.78	153	19.79	00	00.00	00	00.00
community affairs	86	11.12	00	00.00	05	00.38	10	01.29	339	43.85
current affairs	84	10.86	00	00.00	03	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00

It is noted from the above findings that the majority of rural women who make use of various publications usually have access to religious 162(20.95%), entertainment 129(16.68%) and political information 110(14.23%). Religious information is mainly accessed from religious books, while political literature mainly comes in the form of newspapers many of which in Tanzania carry sensational stories about the state of politics especially under the multiparty system. It is also noteworthy that of the publications accessible to rural women in the area of the study, few have information on health 68(08.79%), agriculture 37(04.78%) and education 33(04.26%). Even fewer have information on business 12(01.55%) and environment 06(0.55%).

Posters made accessible to rural areas mainly carry health messages. From Table 26b, it is noted that at least 574(66.49%) of the posters seen by rural women carry health messages. Others communicate either political 131(16.94%) or environmental

127(16.43%) messages. Few posters convey religious 70(09.05%), business 65(08.41%) and agricultural 20(02.58%) messages.

Those rural women who have access to audio-visual sources of information such as films, video and audio-cassettes usually have access to entertainment 153(19.79%). This is followed by religious 70(07.76%), environmental 55(07.11%), health 50(6.46%) and agricultural 03(00.38%) information. The findings of this study show that traditional media especially song and dance, have been used in the rural areas mainly to disseminate health 157(20.31%) information. It was noted during field research that usually song/dance, theatre and poetry activities are performed by school children to relay awareness information to the rural communities. Through traditional media, educational 122(15.78%) information is also relayed to the communities. Educational messages communicated to the community include the importance of sending children to school, and the importance of contributing to school welfare. Political information 112(14.49%) geared towards mobilising the rural population for political activities such as joining political parties or participating in voting during elections is also communicated through traditional media, especially through song and dance.

Information providers and local community leaders have the task of mobilizing the rural populations in their communities for development activities. This study investigated what type of information disseminated by these information providers reaches rural women in the area of the study. The findings in Table 26b indicate that, most often rural women get access to health information 673(87.06%) followed by information on community affairs 339(43.85%). This is followed by information about agriculture 223(28.84%), the environment 126(16.30%), women's development 109(14.10%) and education 104(13.45%). Information on agriculture mainly mobilises women to plant their crops in time, to use modern techniques in planting and to use fertilisers. Information on women's development is mainly targeted at mobilising women to form working groups in order for them to acquire loans from various agencies working for rural women's development.

5.10.2.1 Relevance of information accessed from various information providers

Table 27a: RATING OF RELATEDNESS OF INFORMATION FROM VARIOUS SOURCES BY RURAL WOMEN

Degree of relationship	Radio N= 326		Publications N=203		Posters N=514		Audio/video N= 287		Trad. sources N=158		Inf. Provider N=689	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Very related	36	11.04	20	09.85	191	37.15	41	14.29	44	27.85	280	40.63
Related	177	54.29	68	33.49	315	61.28	54	18.82	118	74.68	366	53.12
Not related	71	21.77	115	56.65	08	01.03	190	66.20	10	06.33	33	04.79

From the above findings it would seem that rural women can relate directly to information accessed from information providers, 280(40.63%) and from posters, 191(37.15%) to their problems and needs. They have rated as 'very related' information accessed through posters (See Table 27a) because the information makes them aware of the various issues surrounding them especially those problems related to their health and that of their families. Rural information providers and village leaders communicate information related to community health as well as other community affairs such as issues related to problems of availability of water, firewood, and schools (See Table 26b).

On the other hand information providers were asked to determine the relationship between the needs and the information made available through the different interventions in rural areas. According to the information providers 45(75.30%) information delivered to rural women in the area of the study is not related to the information needs of the rural women, the reason being that most often it is the top-down approach that is used in disseminating information. Needs assessment surveys are not conducted, extension messages to be delivered to farmers are ready-made at the district headquarters and passed through the information providers to be delivered to the farmers. Those who think that the information services are moderately related to the needs gave the following reasons: information delivered to rural communities is directed at solving the problems of rural people

such as firewood, health, agriculture as well as raising productivity and levels of income to eradicate poverty.

5.11 Adequacy of information accessed by rural women

It is important that information accessed by rural women should be sufficient to satisfy their information needs. Therefore, information providers accessible to rural women should deliver information adequate to satisfy all areas of need. Information delivery should not concentrate on some areas of need and leave other areas unattended since most of the needs of rural women are interrelated. Therefore, research question number ten was set to assess the extent to which information made accessible to rural women in the area of the study is adequate to satisfy their information needs. The question of adequacy of information delivered was posed to both the rural women and the information providers.

The findings are as follows: of the 64 information providers interviewed during field research, 30(46.87%) are of the opinion that the information is adequate to solve the problems and satisfy the needs of rural women, while 33(or 51.56%) think that the information they deliver is not adequate to solve the problems rural women experience. Only one (01.56%) believes that the information services are very adequate to solve the problems and take care of the needs of rural women. The basis for their opinion is the relevance, appropriateness and pertinence of information communicated to the needs of the rural women.

Those who said information is adequate as well as those who said that information is not adequate were asked to give reasons why they think the services are adequate or not adequate. The responses are analysed and the findings are as follows: for those who think that the information is adequate believe that it is adequate to solve agricultural, firewood and health problems and for raising the income levels of rural people. Those who think information is not adequate gave the following reasons: first it is not possible to reach rural women effectively with all the information they need due to infrastructural problems (32 or 50.00%); secondly, the barriers that impede

women's access to information have not been removed to make it easier to provide women with adequate information services (10 or 15.63%) and thirdly, there are no concrete strategies to make sure that adequate information services reach rural women 5(7.81%).

On the other hand the rural women feel that the information that is made accessible to them through various interventions from both governmental and non-governmental organizations is not adequate to satisfy all their needs as indicated by their responses. Only 145(or 18.75%) of the rural women are satisfied with the information they access from various sources while 628(81.24%) are not satisfied because they completely lack access to development information or because the information they do access is not adequate to satisfy their needs.

In rural areas information is communicated to the rural communities through both official and unofficial sources. This situation can create problems of authenticity as well as validity of that information since information passing from one oral source to another can easily lose its original focus and meaning and thus become inadequate in terms of satisfying users' needs and being true to the essence of the original message. In order for information to be adequate to satisfy the needs of the rural people, a two-way communication process needs to be instituted between providers and users of information.

Information about loans/credit for rural women is discussed below in this context. Information about loans/credit for rural women has been accessible to rural women from various official and unofficial channels of communication. The adequacy of information on loans and credit for rural women was assessed to determine to what extent the information was adequate to satisfy the needs of rural women in the area of the study.

The findings presented below indicate that at least 574(74.26%) rural women had accessed this information. Of these, 42(7.32%) were very satisfied that the information was adequate to satisfy their needs for this type of information,

218(37.98%) were somewhat satisfied and the rest, that is, 314(54.74%), were not satisfied that adequate information was communicated to them to understand the nature and conditions of the loans made available to them.

5.11.1 Areas in which adequate information is needed by rural women

To establish in which areas information is lacking or inadequate the rural women were asked, to name the type of information they would require to satisfy their information needs. The responses are presented in Table 27b.

Table 27b: RURAL WOMEN'S UNSATISFIED INFORMATION NEEDS

INFORMATION NEEDS AREAS	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
agriculture	181	79.38	167	74.55	226	70.40	574	74.25
food security	131	57.45	122	54.46	113	35.20	366	47.34
business/marketing	77	33.77	42	18.75	67	20.87	186	24.06
poultry/livestock	72	31.57	84	29.12	120	15.52	276	35.70
handicraft	55	24.12	62	27.67	80	24.92	197	25.48
gender awareness	46	20.17	29	12.94	37	11.52	112	14.49
health information	23	10.08	13	05.80	15	04.67	51	06.59
credit/loans	97	42.54	65	29.01	123	38.31	285	36.87
legal information	12	05.26	11	04.91	08	02.49	31	04.01
leadership and organizational skills	20	08.77	15	06.69	15	04.67	50	06.46
education/training opportunities	24	10.52	18	08.03	16	04.98	58	07.50
project development	14	06.14	05	02.23	10	03.11	29	03.75
community information	06	02.63	03	01.33	12	03.73	21	02.71
employment opportunities	03	01.31	01	00.44	05	01.55	09	01.16

The information that is required by rural women is that which is concerned with issues of agriculture 574(74.25%) which is the main occupation of rural women, food security 366(47.25%), loans and credit 285(36.87%) and income generation, for instance, poultry/livestock 276(35.70%), handicrafts 197(25.48%) and business/marketing information 186(24.06%). All these are in the area where income levels can be improved and self-development achieved. Health information is adequately disseminated in the rural areas, so that only 51(06.59%) of rural women need more information on health issues.

The other information which rural women need is that on educational development and training opportunities 58(07.50%), leadership and organization of women's groups 50(06.46%), legal information 31(04.01%) and project development 29(03.75%). It is indicated by these findings that awareness levels on the importance of information to solve problems is relatively low. Very few women need information on education, employment and legal rights. It is also important to note that gender awareness is not an information need felt by most rural women. This is because these are enlightening information needs that require relatively high levels of awareness. The majority of women is still struggling to survive, thus needing survival information such as that on agricultural productivity, food security and income generation.

5.12 Barriers (obstacles) to rural women's access to information

Research question number eleven sought to determine the problems that impede the accessibility of gender and development information to rural women in the area of the study. This was measured by a series of questions directed at both the rural women and information providers. Barriers to rural women's access to information could have been caused by means used to communicate, the final product (information), or the information communication environment. Respondents could indicate more than one barrier as applicable to them. The following tables show the responses provided by them.

**Table 28a: BARRIERS TO ACCESSING INFORMATION BY RURAL WOMEN
(N=773)**

BARRIER	VERY SERIOUS		SERIOUS		NOT SERIOUS	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
lack of time	234	30.27%	298	38.55%	183	23.67%
lack of awareness	260	33.63%	230	29.75%	118	15.25%
inadequate sources	603	78.00%	139	17.98%	48	06.21%
financial position	408	52.78%	269	34.79%	27	03.49%
lack of motivation	286	36.99%	203	26.26%	82	10.61%
lack of education	143	14.61%	02	00.25%	00	00.00%
customs and trad.	137	17.72%	144	18.62%	00	00.00%
family conflict	46	05.95%	24	03.10%	32	04.13%
discrimination	65	08.41%	89	11.59%	16	02.06%
religion	16	02.06%	00	00.00%	00	00.00%
poor health	32	04.12%	15	01.94%	06	00.77%
old age	30	03.88%	15	01.94%	06	00.77%
witchcraft	10	01.29%	04	00.51%	00	00.00%

The respondents indicated that the very serious barriers to accessing information are the non-availability of sources of information 603(78.00%) followed by a weak financial position 408(52.78%), lack of motivation 286(36.99%) and awareness 260(33.63%). Lack of time has been rated very serious by 234(30.27%). This is interesting because, despite the rural women's workload, the mobilizational aspects and use of the seasonal calendar by some information providers means that women can be available for information exchange activities when required to do so. At the same time they feel that they can always spare some time for information exchange when necessary.

Other very serious problems mentioned by rural women include level of education 143(14.61%), tradition and customs 137(17.72%) as well as fear of witchcraft 10(01.29%) which is very insignificant.

Table 28b: BARRIERS EXPERIENCED BY RURAL WOMEN AS GIVEN BY INFORMATION PROVIDERS (N=64)

BARRIER	VERY SERIOUS		SERIOUS		NOT SERIOUS	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
lack of time	35	54.68%	29	45.31%	00	00.00%
lack of awareness	27	42.18%	37	57.81%	03	04.68%
inadequate sources	41	64.06%	24	37.50%	00	00.00%
financial position	41	64.06%	23	35.93%	00	00.00%
lack of motivation	27	42.18%	34	53.12%	03	04.68%
lack of education	10	15.62%	13	20.31%	03	04.08%
customs and tradition	18	28.12%	20	31.25%	10	15.62%
family conflict	02	03.12%	10	15.62%	17	26.56%
discrimination	01	01.56%	29	45.31%	36	56.25%
religion	08	12.50%	05	07.81%	00	00.00%
poor health	00	00.00%	30	46.81%	37	57.81%
old age	00	00.00%	30	46.81%	32	50.00%
witchcraft	00	00.00%	00	00.00%	00	00.00%

According to the information providers barriers women face in accessing relevant and adequate information (which are rated as very serious) are non-availability of sources of information 41(64.06%), a weak financial position 41(64.06%), lack of time 35(54.68%) lack of awareness 27(42.18%) and lack of motivation 22(42.18%). Other very serious problems include customs and traditions 18(28.12%), levels of education 10(15.62%) and religion 08(12.50%). The majority of information providers 36(56.25%) feel that discrimination is not a serious problem. Even the rural women did not rank discrimination as a serious problem (See Table 28a).

5.13 Establishing accessible information services

The last research question (question number twelve) sought to establish how information services in the rural areas can be made accessible to the majority of rural women. In planning for information services, several elements need to be taken

into consideration. Apart from adequate resources other elements are access, empowerment and participation.

Current information services were assessed in order to determine to what extent these elements are taken into consideration by information workers. The issues investigated are in the areas of access, empowerment, participation, benefits as well as the problems which information providers encounter in working with rural women. In this way deterrent factors can be identified and solved in efforts aimed at establishing and designing a model of rural information services which is gender-sensitive, relevant, adequate and accessible to the majority of women.

5.13.1 Empowerment (gender issues)

First, the study sought to examine whether gender issues are considered at all in the provision of information services by asking information providers what gender-related issues are discussed and what steps they have taken so far in solving these problems. The findings are presented as follows.

Table 29a: GENDER ISSUES CONSIDERED BY INFORMATION PROVIDERS IN THE PROVISION OF INFORMATION SERVICES TO RURAL WOMEN (N=64)

GENDER ISSUES	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
low levels of income	28	43.75%
lack of decision making power	24	37.50%
unequal opportunities	15	23.44%
lack of skills and knowledge	13	20.31%
women's heavy work load	07	10.94%

The findings in Table 29a indicate that, more often than not, information providers focus on how women's low level of income 28(43.75%) can be improved. Accordingly, information is directed at activities that will increase women's income 24(37.50%). Otherwise the major issues such as work burden (10.94%) are not

seriously considered. It should be noted that information providers could have given more than one gender issue. Furthermore, rural experts were asked what steps have been taken to solve these problems. The responses are analysed and presented as follows:

Table 29b: STEPS TAKEN BY INFORMATION PROVIDERS TO ADDRESS GENDER ISSUES IN THE PROVISION OF INFORMATION SERVICES TO RURAL WOMEN (N=64)

STEPS TAKEN	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
mobilize women to form working groups	22	34.37%
encourage women to join village development committees	12	18.75%
educate men in the importance of involving women in decision making	08	12.50%
encourage women to participate development projects	08	12.50%
encourage men to participate in family health matters and other household activities	05	07.81%
mobilise women to attend village meetings regularly	04	06.25%
try to provide women with training opportunities	04	06.25%
to ensure that there are women contact farmers	02	03.12%
make efforts to effectively reach women with information	02	03.12%

The findings in Table 29b indicate that there are no concrete plans to make sure that information is readily accessible to rural women. The main strategy undertaken to improve access to information is to encourage women to join women's working groups, 22(34.37%), so that information services can be easily accessible to them, to encourage them to participate in village development committees, 12(18.75%), in development projects, 08(12.50%), and to educate men about the importance of involving women in decision making 08(12.50%).

Those who do not consider gender problems in providing services were asked to give reasons why this was the case. The findings are presented as follows:

Table 29c: REASONS FOR NOT CONSIDERING GENDER ISSUES IN THE PROVISION OF INFORMATION SERVICES TO RURAL COMMUNITIES (N=64)

REASONS GIVEN	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
no policy directive	10	15.62%
lack of awareness	06	09.37%
lack of expertise to deal with gender issues	03	04.68%

From the findings in Table 29c it is evident that lack of policy directive 10(15.62%), lack of awareness 06(09.37%) and lack of expertise 03(04.68%) on how to deal with gender issues socio-economic conditions and subordinate position of rural women.

5.13.2 Participation in information services provision

The issue of participation in information services was also investigated by asking information providers about the extent to which rural women in the area of the study participate in the process of information communication and what benefits they have accrued in the process. The responses are analysed and presented in the next section.

Table 30: PARTICIPATION OF RURAL WOMEN IN THE PROCESS OF INFORMATION COMMUNICATION (N=64)

NATURE OF PARTICIPATION	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
participate in dev. and income generating projects	28	43.75%
participate by attending village meetings	28	43.75%
participate in home visits and outreach programmes	21	32.81%
participate as contact farmers	06	09.37%
participate in rural training programmes	04	06.25%

Table 30 shows that women participate in the process of information communication as end users. They participate as members of income-generating groups 28(43.75%), and by attending village meetings 28(43.75%) where information about community affairs is communicated. They also participate through outreach programmes 21(32.81%) where information is communicated to them through home visits. In addition, rural women become end users in the process of information communication if they get a chance to become contact farmers 06(09.37%) or to attend a training programme 04(06.25%).

5.13.3 Benefits of information services to rural women

Information providers were asked about the benefits that women have had in areas where information was successfully accessed by rural women. Their responses are presented as follows:

Table 31: ESTIMATION OF BENEFITS WOMEN HAVE HAD AS A RESULT OF INFORMATION SERVICES (N=64)

BENEFIT	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
improved sanitation and disease control	25	39.06%
improved income levels	21	32.06%
raised levels of awareness	15	23.44%
have been able to plan families	11	17.18%
gained skills/knowledge in conservation	11	17.18%
joined women groups and acquired loans	10	15.62%
more women attend clinics	07	10.94%
improved confidence levels	06	09.37%
raised education levels	06	09.37%
acquired skills in running projects	04	06.25%
improved participation levels	03	04.68%

The findings indicate that the few women who have been able to access information have in fact been able to develop themselves and their families. According to the rural information providers interviewed some rural women have been able to improve their levels of income 21(32.06%), while through awareness of the importance of environmental sanitation and the control of communicable diseases 25(39.06%), rural women have been able to improve sanitation levels and thus control the spread of communicable diseases. Also, through information communication rural women's levels of awareness 15(23.44%) have been raised.

The next section discusses problems which information workers experience in reaching out to the rest (that is the majority of women) in the area of the study. Responses of information providers are analysed through the content analysis methodology and the findings are presented in the next section.

5.13.4 Problems encountered in providing information to rural women

Information providers were asked to mention the problems they encounter in providing information and advisory services to rural women in the area of the study.

Table 32: PROBLEMS THAT INFORMATION PROVIDERS EXPERIENCE IN PROVIDING INFORMATION SERVICES TO RURAL WOMEN (N=64)

PROBLEM	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
women's heavy work load	54	84.37%
customs and tradition	38	59.37%
lack of decision making power	34	53.12%
low levels of education	25	39.06%
low levels of income	22	34.37%
lack of awareness	18	28.12%
negative attitude among rural women	15	23.44%
low confidence levels	09	14.06%
sustainability of women groups	04	06.25%
problems of sending rural women for training	04	06.25%
limited training opportunities for rural women	04	06.25%
lack of expertise on how to deal with women	04	06.25%
social relations in the household	03	04.68%
lack of child care facilities	01	01.56%
lack of property ownership	01	01.56%

According to the information providers the main problems they encounter are; workload 54(84.37%), customs and tradition 38(59.37%), and lack of decision-making power 34(53.12%). Other problems include low levels of education 25(39.06%), low levels of income 22(34.37%), lack of awareness 18(28.12%) and negative attitudes among rural women 15(23.44%). These problems can be linked directly to the information providers' estimation of barriers rural women face in accessing information was rated as follows: at least 35(54.68%) of the information providers are of the opinion that limited time as a result of heavy workload is a very serious problem and 29(45.31%) regard it as a serious problem. Other major problems mentioned include customs and traditions 38(59.37%), lack of decision-making power 34(53.12%) and the income required to implement the advice provided.

5.13.5 Strategies for establishing accessible information services

Finally, in an attempt to assess the views of the information providers about what should be done in order to make information services in the rural areas sensitive to the needs of rural women, the information providers were asked what should be done to improve accessibility of information to rural women. Their opinions are presented in table 33 below.

Table 33: STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING ACCESSIBILITY OF INFORMATION TO RURAL WOMEN AS GIVEN BY INFORMATION PROVIDERS (N=64)

STRATEGY	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
raise education levels of rural women	38	59.37%
educate women in management of income generating projects	27	42.19%
raise levels of income to eradicate poverty	27	42.19%
disseminate information on simple technology to reduce workloads	22	34.37%
information on women rights and laws that protect them	17	26.56%
mobilize women to join women development groups	13	20.31%
abolish customs and traditions that impede women's development	12	18.75%
women should participate effectively in decision making at all levels	10	15.62%
improve information communication strategies	08	09.37%
mobilise rural women to build their confidence levels	05	07.89%
raise the levels of awareness of rural women	05	07.89%

From the findings it is evident that the majority of the information providers is of the opinion that in order to improve rural women's access to gender and development information their education levels need to be improved 38(59.37%). It is also their opinion that rural women should be educated in the management of income-generating projects 27(42.19%) so that they can raise their levels of income to eradicate poverty 27(42.19%). Through these interventions, rural women could be liberated economically and thus would be able to participate more actively in information seeking, accessing and use.

5.14 Summary

This chapter presented the findings and discussed the analysis of the data. The findings indicate that:

1. a) The majority of the respondents are between the age of 26-35(31.82%), 489(63.26%) is married, and at least 320(41.40%) have completed primary school education. The main occupation of the majority of rural women, 662(85.64%), is farming and 338(43.73%) of them earn less than 100 US dollars per annum. In addition, very few have joined civic organizations or women's income-generating groups, 102(13.20%) and very few are aware of the newly-established, professional, non-governmental organizations which are very instrumental in educating and informing women and the general public on gender and development issues. However, the majority are aware of the UWT (85.76%) which has been responsible women for the past thirty years. As noted in Chapter Two, this organization has since 1992 transformed itself to become the women's wing of the ruling party, the CCM.
 - b) The majority of information providers are male (78.13%), at least half of them are between the ages of 36-45 years (50.00%) and most of them have completed secondary school and college education in their fields of specialization. The proportion of respondents in the sample were as follows: agriculture and veterinary (31.25%), adult education (21.87%), health (17.19%), forestry (15.63%) community development (14.06%).
2. In the area of the study, that is three district of the Tanga region, information and extension services are provided within the framework of different rural development projects and programmes designed and implemented by both governmental and non-government agencies in the five rural development sectors examined. These sectors are agriculture, forestry, health, community development and education. Major projects and programmes are under the umbrella of the TIRDEP. Main projects and programmes in the various sectors are as follows; agriculture (NALEP, SECAP, TIP), forestry (SECAP, TIP, EUCFRP), health (MCH, NACP, FHP, MEUSTA, FHP), education (AEP) and community development (VDP, CREW, UNIFEM and SRWS).

3. Most of these information extension programmes focus attention on all gender groups. However, there are also information services which are specifically targeted to reach women. For instance, health information is specifically targeted to reach rural women through the MCH and EIP health programmes. Other services which target the specific needs of rural women include adult education and community development which focus on home economics (nutrition, cookery, sewing) and women income-generating groups. However, within the framework of some programmes such as the SECAP and TIP gender aspects are considered. Consequently, special attention is given to women as equal members of the society whereby information on modern agricultural techniques and environmental conservation is disseminated.
4. The information needs of rural women are both practical and strategic in nature. Practical information needs are information about access to safe water, firewood, loans/ credit easing the work burden, poverty, the need for modern skills and knowledge, and improvement in decision-making power.
5. The main information providers used by rural women in the area of the study are friends and relatives, rural experts, village leaders, hospitals and clinics and traditional healers. These are used for development-related information. For gender problems, friends and relatives, religious leaders and village elders are used. This indicates that these problems are solved within the traditional social network. This is because there is a general feeling that these problems fall under the private domain. The findings of this study also show that rural women who have joined women's groups have high access to information providers (rural workers). However, in most cases friends and relatives remain the single major source of information since most of the time information is exchanged among rural women themselves. For instance, information about loans and credit have been mainly accessed from friends and relatives or village meetings where the village leaders and other information providers are the sources of information.
6. The main channels used by information workers to communicate information to rural people are village meetings, group discussions, demonstrations and face-to-face communication and posters.

7. Rural women access information mainly through face-to-face communication-group methods which are used mainly by the information providers to communicate information.
8. Face-to-face communication, demonstrations, song and dance, films, video and group discussions have been rated as the most effective means of communicating information to rural people by the information providers. On the other hand, rural women who use these sources to access information have rated demonstrations, group discussions and films as the most effective channels of communicating development information.
9. In terms of accessibility and use of printed and audio-visual sources of information by rural women the findings indicate that most of these sources are not very accessible to the rural women and hence are not frequently used as sources of information. Song, dance and theatre as media of communicating information are rarely used by information providers. Meanwhile, posters have indicated high levels of access and use in the area of the study. Serious problems have been observed as far as the accessibility of the rural library/rural resource centre is concerned.
10. The socio economic status of rural women plays a role in terms of accessibility and use of the various printed and audio-visual sources of information. The following observations have been made (i) younger women have higher access and use of these sources of information than older women, (ii) educated women have higher access and use of these sources than uneducated women and (iii) women with good incomes have higher access to modern sources of information than those with poor income levels,
11. Rural women tend to have access to health information because this type of information is specifically targeted to reach them and conscious efforts are taken by adult education, health and community development workers to ensure rural women's access to health information. The main sources of health information are the information providers and posters. As a result, information accessed from posters and information providers is rated as highly relevant to the needs of rural women.

12. The majority of information providers (51.56%) and rural women (81.24%) is of the opinion that the information delivered in rural areas is not adequate to satisfy the needs of the rural women in the area of the study. The rural women have indicated areas in which information is required, namely, agriculture (74.25%), food security (47.34%), credit/ loans (36.87%) and poultry/livestock keeping (35.70%). Other areas mentioned by very few women include education/training opportunities (7.50%), leadership and organizational skills (6.46%), legal information (4.01%) and employment opportunities (1.31%). These findings indicate different levels of needs in the hierarchy of needs reflecting differences in the socio-economic status of rural women.
13. The major barriers to accessing information given by both rural women and information providers are lack of time, (heavy workload), lack of awareness, inadequate sources of information (especially printed and audio sources), customs and traditions, the weak financial position of the majority of women which tends to lead to lack of motivation to search for information.
14. The information providers working among rural people understand the disadvantaged position of rural women. Some gender issues such as levels of income (poverty) and a lack of decision-making power have been considered in information services provision. To some extent conscious efforts have been made to reach women with information by mobilizing them to join women's groups and village development committees in order to improve levels of income and decision-making power. Some benefits have been observed especially with regard to raising income levels of women, improvement of sanitation and disease control. But the information provision services lack policy directives and information providers lack skills and training on how to solve gender differences in information services. Women's heavy workload, customs and traditions, lack of decision-making power, low levels of education and income are problems which information providers continue to encounter in their interactions with rural women. As a result very few women benefit from information services provision. It is the opinion of the information providers that these barriers need to be removed to make information equally accessible to all members of the rural communities.

CHAPTER SIX

INTERPRETATION OF THE STUDY FINDINGS

6. Introduction

This chapter discusses and interprets the findings presented in Chapter Five in terms of the research problem, objectives of the study, context of the study, and related literature reviewed in Chapter Three.

This study was designed to investigate issues of access to gender and development information by rural women in the Tanga region of Tanzania. The study was motivated by the fact that although women contribute significantly to the development processes in developing countries, the literature suggests that the majority of them lack access to information which could enable them to make qualitative changes in their own lives, that of their families and communities. Furthermore, as chief producers of food crops and reproducers of future labour power, rural women have been recognized by gender and development experts as an indispensable resource in the development process. It is therefore important that productive resources such as land, technology and information should be made accessible to them.

In this study, the extent to which information is made accessible to the rural women was examined by investigating the way the rural information delivery system operates. Factors that limit accessibility of information to the majority of rural women were ascertained. Identifying these factors has enabled this study to recommend practical and effective strategies to ensure that information becomes one of the productive resources accessible to rural women.

The following section describes the demographic characteristics of the two populations studied, that is, the rural women and the information providers and their implications for rural women's access to information.

6.1 Demographic characteristics of rural women and information providers

6.1.1 Rural women

6.1.1.1 Age and marital status

The findings of this study indicate that the majority of rural women in the area of study are between the ages of 26-35. This age group constitutes 31.82% of the total respondents. According to population trends, one would expect those belonging to the 16-25 age group to exceed those between 26-35 years. This has not been reflected in our findings due to the fact that the younger generation especially those between the ages of sixteen and twenty five (in our study they constitute 17.59% of the respondents), will normally migrate to major towns and cities in the country in pursuit of a better life. Rural women who migrate to towns and cities frequently end up working as prostitutes, bar-maids or house-maids (popularly known as house girls). This is due to their limited levels of education as most of them have either dropped out of school or completed a primary school education. It should be noted that women are more productive at a younger age. Therefore in order to limit town migration by young women, it is important that productive resources, including information, are made accessible to them to achieve and sustain a good standard of living in the rural areas.

At least 63.26% of the respondents are married while 36.74% are either single, divorced, separated or widowed. Most of these women (36.74%) live in separate households without a "male figure head" These households are generally referred to as women or female-headed households. In Tanzania, the 1988 Population Census National Profile shows that, on average, at least 42.20% of rural households in the country are headed by women. Of these, 6.20% are single women heads, 12.10% are divorced or separated and 23.90% are widowed women heads (1988 Population Census National Profile, 1990). Other studies have observed the same trend (Staudt 1976; Lewis 1990; Aarnink and Kingma 1992). In a research study conducted in two

districts of the Shinyanga region, Aarnink and Kingma (1992: 15) found that between 20.00% and 30.00% of rural households in the area of their study were headed by women whereas in Kenya, the findings of a Kakamega study indicated that 40.00% of rural households were headed by women due to extensive male migration (Staudt 1976).

The findings of this study as well as those of the studies above have implications for the accessibility of information and other productive resources such as land, credit and technology by rural women who head rural households. Women heads of rural households are invariably overlooked and thus are severely disadvantaged in terms of the benefits of development projects and programmes as observed by other researchers and development experts (Staudt 1976; Ashby 1982; Mehra 1989; Lewis 1990; Aarnink and Kingma 1992; Ngware 1996). In support of this view, there is Staudt's (1976) observation, for instance, that women heads of rural households were less likely to be visited by an extension worker, to have received training or to receive agricultural credit.

6.1.1.2 Education, occupation, income levels, membership of women groups, civic and political organizations and knowledge of women organizations

6.1.1.2.1 *Education levels*

This study found that approximately 68.53% of rural women are either literate or semi-literate. About 41.40% of the literate have completed primary school and only 1.81% have completed secondary education. Others who may either be literate or semi-literate have either attended functional literacy classes or dropped out of formal education. The drop-outs have between three and six years of formal education. These findings compare well with those reported by a National Demographic and Health Survey undertaken in 1992. According to the survey 38.30% of rural women have never attended school, 38.90% completed primary school and only 2.00% have gone beyond primary school (Tanzania. Bureau of Statistics and Planning Commission 1993: 17).

These levels of education on the part of rural women can be attributed to education campaigns such as the Universal Primary Education (UPE) and Adult Education Programmes (AEP) undertaken by the former socialist government in Tanzania from the early 1970s and which are still functioning at present. The UPE policy stipulated that all school-age children should be enrolled and this increased school enrollment levels greatly and made primary school education accessible to both girls and boys in the country. On the other hand, adult education campaigns elevated the literacy levels of women in particular. Adult education statistics indicated that women outnumbered men in functional literacy classes because the majority of them were functionally illiterate to begin with compared to their male counterparts. This reflected a gender imbalance in the education system before the introduction of the UPE.

Levels of education of rural women have implications as far as accessing of information is concerned. Low levels of education of rural women have been identified as one of the barriers to accessing information. More often than not, information providers have a tendency of ignoring illiterate, rural people especially women.

6.1.1.2.2 Occupation

The findings of this study indicate that about 85.64% of rural women undertake farming as their main occupation. Other rural women undertake business activities as their main occupation (07.12%), as well as traditional handicraft (03.23%) activities such as pottery. The latter was well pronounced in the Mkwakwa Mafleta village, for instance. Very few are employed by local and village governments as civil servants (02.59%). Women professionals (especially rural school teachers) accounted for 00.78% of the total respondents.

The fact that the majority of rural women is involved in farming has implications as far as access to agricultural information is concerned. It is not surprising that

agricultural information needs (74.24%) top the list of unsatisfied information needs of rural women in the area of the study.

Farming in the rural areas of Tanzania is highly subsistence in nature as women are mainly responsible for food crops for domestic consumption. Agricultural productivity levels, however, are poor because the majority of rural women who undertake farming as their main occupation lack access to productive resources including information as shown in this study. This leads to low-income and high-poverty levels among rural women. As such, the young educated (primary school graduate) rural women look for alternative means of supplementing agricultural activities and they are increasingly looking into ways of earning a living especially through small scale business enterprises (these represented 07.12% of the respondents).

6.1.1.2.3 *Income levels*

The levels of income of the majority of the women in the rural areas are dismally low. About 43.73% make less than 100 US dollars per annum. This is due to the fact that with limited resources, most of these women engage in subsistence farming. Labour-intensive farming means that what is produced is usually used for family consumption. In most cases this may not be sufficient to last the whole year. As a result food security is a problem among rural families. It is estimated that about 6.6 million Tanzanians face food insecurity and the most affected are the old people, women and children (Mukangara and Koda 1997: 29). In this study, 60.54% indicated that food is a serious problem, while 18.11% indicated that it is a very serious problem, thus reflecting high levels of food insecurity in the area of the study.

In addition, power relations within the households limit availability of rural women's own disposable income. In most households men still control and dominate the decision-making process in the allocation of resources, farming activities (which are predominantly performed by women) and the use of household income (Mukangara and Koda 1997: 35). Although rural women may have surplus food for selling, they

may not have the final decision in the use of surplus income accrued from it. Consequently, in terms of income levels, women are generally the poorest of the poor in both urban and rural areas (Mukangara and Koda 1997: 27-28).

Poor income levels are a barrier to rural women's access to information because most often information providers communicate information to those who have resources to implement the advice provided.

6.1.1.2.4 *Membership of women's groups, civic and political organizations*

The findings of this study indicate that the majority of rural women in the area of study do not belong to political, civic or other forms of organizations. For instance, only 13.20% have joined women's development groups. Membership of other civic and political organizations is very low. Those who are members of political parties constitute 29.62% while those who have joined women's organizations constitute only 15.01%. The higher percentage of those who have joined a political party compared to other organizations can be explained by mobilizational factors such as campaigns to urge rural people to join the sole political organization, at that time the Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM) and more recently the new emerging parties under the multiparty system. In another study, Mukangara and Koda (1997) quote Koda's 1994 study which found that only 15.00% of rural women belong to formal rural savings and credit associations through which access to formal financing can be possible. It has also been noted that despite efforts to mobilize women to join the various associations, the majority still depend on the long tradition of mutual aid among themselves and informal financial credit arrangements (Mukangara and Koda 1997: 32).

The fact that very few women belong to associations and women's groups has implications as far as access to information and other productive resources is concerned. This is because most of the NGOs as well as government departments encourage rural women to join women's groups as a prerequisite to receiving resources, including information. The main argument is that it is easier to reach out

to women if they are organised in women groups than to reach them individually in their households.

There are several factors that discourage women from joining women's groups or civic organizations. Deterrent factors may include, among other things, past performance of women's groups' economic ventures, women's workload, lack of initiatives and leadership skills among rural women themselves. The end result, however, is that the majority of rural women does not belong to these associations through which information and other resources are more often channelled by both the government and NGOs.

6.1.1.2.5 *Knowledge of women's organizations*

There are several women's organizations that are very instrumental in educating women and the general public on various issues as discussed in Chapter Two. This study shows that the majority of rural women is not aware of the existence of these organizations with the exception of the UWT and the BAWATA. UWT is known because it has a long history of mobilising women in the country. Its administrative structure corresponds with the government's administrative structure as shown in Figure 1. This has enabled the organization to spread its wings to village levels where it has branches. On the other hand the BAWATA is a new organization which was set to replace the UWT after the organization became a women's wing of the ruling party the CCM. The strategy of the new organization was to mobilize women at grassroots levels. Women teachers in rural schools have been used as linkage points. These rural teachers have assisted in popularising the new organization despite its short history. Other organizations which are very instrumental in educating and informing women in Tanzania such as the TAMWA have not yet been able to make an impact in the rural areas of the country. Therefore, rural women can not enjoy services provided by these organizations, which limits their levels of awareness of gender and women's issues.

6.1.2 Human information providers

6.1.2.1 Age and gender

At least half of the human information providers (50.00%) were between the age of 36-45 years. This is the middle age in the working life of public service employees. The retirement age in Tanzania is 55 years and no one in our sample was above this age.

This study found that male predominance among information providers has not changed significantly over the years. In this study 78.13% of the information providers interviewed were men. The women constituted only 21.87% of the total respondents. Other studies (Lupanga 1986; Newa 1989; Dulle 1997) undertaken in rural Tanzania have observed similar trends. The main factor which contributes to the observed situation is the disparity in educational opportunities available for men and women at secondary and tertiary levels of education. The National Demographic and Health Survey undertaken in 1991/1992 has shown that at the secondary and tertiary levels male students outnumber female students. Furthermore, the same trend was observed in a 1994 report by the Bureau of Statistics (in Mukangara and Koda 1997). The report indicated that 42.30% of secondary school students are girls compared to 57.70% of boys. In private secondary schools 45.10% are girls compared to 54.90% of boys. In technical education and at university levels women constitute 6.00% and 21.80% of the total enrollment respectively.

To a certain extent the predominance of male information providers working in rural areas has implications for access to information by rural women. Cultural inhibitions and attitudes of male information providers towards rural women limit the levels of interaction between the male information providers and rural women (Aarnink and Kingma 1992: 14-17) thereby providing a barrier to information exchange in situations in which a potentially useful exchange of information could occur.

6.1.2.2 Education and field of specialization

In Tanzania, the information providers (extension workers) are trained in specialised training colleges after completion of secondary education. It is not surprising therefore that all of these respondents (100%) have gone through college training. In addition, among the respondents 96.88% have secondary school education while only 03.12% have completed only primary school education. These are the ones who have been selected from within the rural community by some development projects carried by NGOs to undergo specialised college training in order to work within their own communities. While significant for increasing access to tertiary education, these constitute a very small percentage of the total.

6.2 Information exchange activities in the area of the study

Information exchange activities in the area of the study are undertaken by both governmental and non-governmental organization. On the part of the government, information exchange is carried out in the fields of health, community development, agriculture and livestock, cooperatives, adult education and agroforestry. The government's efforts are supplemented by those of non-governmental organizations such as the FHP, SECAP, TIP, EUCFR and the VDP. Most of the non-governmental organizations have embraced gender-sensitive planning in the process of information communication while the government agencies are still using top-down approaches to information dissemination activities. For instance, in the SECAP where gender issues are addressed, women have benefited greatly by the information services provided. However, support for women's agricultural activities tend to be limited both in terms of scope and coverage, hence reaching only a few women (Mukangara and Koda 1997: 75). Most of the support has also concentrated on meeting women's practical needs (welfare type) hence strengthening, firstly, the very gendered division of labour which gives women an enormous work burden, and secondly, the generally criticised gender status quo which needs to be changed (Mukangara and Koda, 1997: 75).

6.2.1 Information services targeted at rural women

Information services specifically targeted to reach the majority of women include home economics under adult education, health information specifically family planning, diseases prevention, environmental sanitation, child health and nutrition. This confirms assumptions by gender as well as development experts that most of the information disseminated to rural women is related to their roles as reproducers and nurturers of families (Williams 1981; Gianotten 1994; Lund 1998). Rural women are also targeted to receive information on loans and income-generating projects, as well as information on fruits and vegetable gardening. In most cases, this type of information, with the exception of health information, is mainly accessible to women who have joined women's groups. As data from this and other related studies suggests, very few women have joined these groups. Focussing attention on rural women's groups means that the majority of those who do not belong to these groups continue to lack access to information.

It is also noted that all the information services targeted at rural women are directed at solving the practical gender needs of rural women. To improve levels of rural women's access to productive resources including information, gender experts recommend that it is important to address both the practical and strategic gender needs of women simultaneously (Schreiner 1993; Barret 1995).

6.3 Information needs of rural women

The practical gender needs of rural women in the area of the study include the need for information on energy resources (firewood), for information to support farming activities, information on health, specifically the treatment of diseases, information on the availability of clean water, and information on how to achieve and maintain food security. These findings support those of other studies (Matengu 1992; Mchombu 1993; Kivikuru *et al* 1994) that the practical information needs of rural people in general are in the realm of basic needs such as water, transport, fuel and health, needs which Horton (in Du Plooy 1994) called "survival needs".

It has also been noted that there are differences in the prioritization of information needs between rural women and information providers. Rural women have rated as very serious the need for water, firewood and loans and as serious the need for farming and food security. Information providers think that firewood, land, water and loans are very serious whilst serious problems are food security, housing and farming. These differences can be attributed to the fact that information providers are more concerned about the conservation of forest resources, whereby the use of firewood is strictly restricted. Rural women are encouraged to plant own trees for firewood needs although the main problem of women is the lack of land on which to plant trees. Rural women are more concerned with survival issues, that is, water, firewood, farming and food security. Land and housing are not as critical because, although they do not own land they use it for household food production. Meanwhile proper housing is not a priority compared to other needs.

On the other hand, strategic gender needs include the need to ease the work burden and improve women's decision-making power at both the household and village levels. The need to acquire modern skills and knowledge as well as opportunities for training and leadership positions in the village are also reported. Gender relations at the family and village levels need to be enhanced to eliminate harassment, violence, abandonment and denial of the right of women to own land and acquire personal income.

However, rural women also experience strategic gender problems as indicated in this and other related studies (Price 1992; Mlama 1994). Therefore, as far as rural women are concerned information which will enable them to understand their position in society is equally important and this could be termed 'liberating information'. This type of information which is mainly disseminated by non-governmental organizations, such as, the TAMWA rarely reaches the rural women who suffer discrimination. Generally, rural women lack the space, time and levels of awareness to reflect on this problem and demand information.

It has been suggested that the role of the information provider is to stimulate user needs (Cronin 1983) and it is important that strategic gender needs of rural women should be stimulated through awareness-raising information. Gender problems such as poverty, work burden, denial of rights and violence experienced by rural women need to be addressed. It has been noted in this study that, to a limited extent, these problems are not only discussed by women who have joined women's groups but are also acknowledged by information providers working among rural people.

6.4 Information providers used by rural women

The data collected for this study indicates that friends and relatives, information providers (rural experts), village leaders, as well as hospitals and clinics are the major sources of information for rural women. These findings suggest that more often than not, development information from official sources is circulated among rural women by friends and relatives.

For instance, 74.32% of rural women have knowledge about the availability of the credit facility to rural women. The majority, 68.98% of the respondents was informed by friends or relatives. These findings confirm those of Aarnink and Kingma (1992) who observed that rural women have developed their own ad hoc ways of gaining information mainly from friends and relatives.

This is because information is mainly exchanged during routine communal activities such as firewood gathering, water collecting points, weddings or funerals (Raseroka, 1990; Karlsson 1994).

A village meeting is also a good source of information. At village meetings community problems such as availability of water or firewood are discussed. The research findings indicate that at least 60.28% acquire information through village meetings where the village leaders are the information providers. A good number of rural women are able to attend village meetings because it was noted during field research that in most rural areas village meetings are normally conducted at hamlet

levels (a cluster of about 25 households) to improve attendance and participation of women. In this regard, mobilizational aspects play a role in making sure that women attend village meetings despite their workloads. It is not surprising that village leaders are among the main information providers used by women and that as far as the type of information accessed by rural women is concerned, community-affairs information ranks second to health information.

An analysis of the frequency of contact between rural women and information providers indicates that village leaders (25.23%) have frequent contact with rural women followed by health extension workers (21.86%). However, only 09.05% of rural women have frequent contact with agricultural workers, followed by forestry workers (02.84%) and only 02.06% by community development workers. Rural women have less contact with cooperative officers and none with librarians or information officers due to the lack of functioning library services in their villages.

The fact that, to some extent, rural women interact with information providers (especially health workers) and village leaders for development information can be explained by how the government operates through its administrative structures as given in Figure 1 (Chapter Two). NGOs working in rural areas also take advantage of these structures in the implementation of their development projects. Village leaders with the assistance of ten cell leaders, act as a link between organizations (both governmental and non-governmental) working in rural areas and members of rural communities in their areas of jurisdiction. Village leaders are usually responsible for disseminating information originating from official sources. This information is then communicated to members of their communities. Village leaders use various channels to communicate the information. These channels range from village meetings to face-to-face communication.

The levels of contact between rural women and health workers on the other hand can be attributed to the fact that the rural health information system integrates rigorous information communication activities. Health interventions from both the governmental and non-governmental agencies make sure that the information

reaches everyone especially rural women who are specifically targeted as family health caretakers. About 60.00% of health services are provided by governmental agencies whose health strategy focuses on the delivery of primary health care services as part of the world-wide efforts to attain the social goal of "health for all" by the year 2000 (Tanzania. Bureau of Statistics and Planning Commission 1993).

This study shows that friends/relatives are used to a great extent for gender-related problems such as harassment, violence, abandonment and denial of rights, poverty and work burden, on certain occasions village elders/leaders as well as religious leaders may be consulted for advice. This study also shows that the few rural women who experience these problems seek information to solve them through social or family networks while the majority just remain silent. In her study Kassim 1993 (in Mbughuni 1994: 236) found that as far as gender problems such as domestic violence are concerned, "women prefer to seek redress in traditional reconciliatory fora such as the extended family...". This is due to the fact that these problems are viewed as private matters to be resolved within traditional networks. In comparison, women in some urban areas of Tanzania have started to take advantage of services provided by organizations such as the SUWATA, the TAMWA, or the TAWLA legal aid clinic or counselling centres.

Women working in income-generating groups are more likely to receive information from information providers and village leaders than those who have not joined these women's groups. It has been noted that most organizations argue that they can easily reach rural women with information services if they are organized in groups. This approach is used by forest conservation and community development experts to reach out to women. In fact, village leaders are asked to assist in mobilizing women to join these groups. This factor explains the levels of contact between rural women in income-generating groups and various leaders and experts as compared to those who have not joined these groups. This study shows that, although the use of women's income-generating groups is beneficial, it has serious limitations in reaching out to the majority of rural women since the majority of women who do not

belong to such groups do not benefit from such services directed at women's groups.

6.5 Communication channels used by information providers and rural women to communicate and access information

The data collected for this study indicates that more often than not rural women access information through oral media rather than any other media. Face-to-face communication (87.83%) is commonly used followed by posters (64.49%), village meetings (60.28%), group discussions (23.15%), traditional media such as song and dance (21.34%) and demonstrations (17.83%). The least used channels include films, video, audio-cassettes, radio, books and pamphlets in which direct person-to-person contact is not involved. Posters formed the only exception to this pattern.

The findings of this study confirm those of earlier studies (Nwagha 1992; Mlamba 1994) that rural women are more inclined to use oral media than any other media. This can be attributed to the three factors namely, relatively low levels of literacy among rural women, a dearth of reading materials as well as the low socio-economic position of the majority of rural women.

On the other hand, information providers use group discussions, village meetings, demonstrations, face-to-face communication and posters to communicate information to rural communities. Very few information providers use films (23.43%), video (06.25%), books (17.18%) or pamphlets/magazines (09.37%) to communicate information whilst none use audio-cassettes. The findings of this study show the predominance of oral media in the rural information communication process.

The use of oral media by information providers to communicate information in rural areas can be attributed to a lack of financial resources on the part of the government to purchase and maintain modern sources of information such as books, video and audio equipments. It should also be noted that the publication and distribution of

posters is financed by the FHP and MCH projects which are financed by donor agencies. Films are used mainly by forestry (EUCFRP and SECAP) and AIDS control projects which have donor-funded resources.

6.5.1 Perceived effectiveness of channels of communication as given by rural women and information providers

Information providers believe that information is successfully communicated to rural people when they use demonstrations, traditional media, films and video. These have been rated as very effective. Village meetings, books and pamphlets have been rated as effective. Information providers are divided over effectiveness of posters as media of communication. Almost half (54.68%) of them believe that posters are very effective while only 47.75% believe that they are just effective.

On the other hand the women who use these channels rate demonstrations (98.41%), group discussions (93.29%), films (89.24%) and face-to-face communication (77.17%) as highly effective.

A channel of communication becomes effective if the information it communicates is well understood by the intended user. It is therefore not surprising that demonstrations and group discussions, films and face-to-face communications are rated as highly effective by both information providers and rural women. These communication channels are orally based and some of them, such as demonstrations and films, also have a visual impact. The information communicated through these channels could easily be understood by the majority of rural women including those who lack formal education. Rosenberg (1986: 13) argues that information transfer is effective if the media used can be handled and controlled by the community and if it allows for people participation in the discussion. It can also be further argued that health information has been successfully communicated to rural women in the area of the study as shown in the findings of this study because a combination of these communication channels has been employed in information communication activities.

Although the channels above have been rated as very effective, very few women access information through them with the exception of direct face-to-face communication usually used in the communication of health information. In other sectors, such as agricultural extension, it has been noted that "village extension workers do not have much contact with individual female farmers but with male farmers instead" (Aarnink and Kingma 1992: 40). This is due to the fact that "most of the activities organized around a demonstration plot usually take place during the period when women are heavily involved in working in the fields" (Aarnink and Kingma 1992: 40). This study shows that only 16.72% of rural women gain access to information through demonstrations organized by information providers.

6.6 Accessibility and use of channels of communication

6.6.1 Radio

The findings indicate that almost half of the rural households surveyed in the area of the study have direct access to the radio. Of those who have access to the radio at least 89.93% make use of it albeit occasionally. On the other hand only 8.79% of rural women who do not have direct access to the radio make use of it. The findings indicate further that the majority of rural women who do not have radio sets in their homes, do not make use of radio sets at a neighbours' home or at other public places such as a village shop or pub where a radio set may be made accessible to the public. These findings confirm those of Kivikuru (1994: 20) that at the rural resource centres established in the nine Tanzanian villages as part of the Commedia Research Project group, radio listening at these centres was mainly a male pursuit.

Low levels of access to radio as a source of information are a feature common to most developing countries. This can be explained by the fact that the majority of rural people have low incomes and thus cannot afford to purchase radio sets. Other studies undertaken in rural areas of Malawi and Botswana (Mchombu 1993; Utah 1993) and South Africa (Karlsson 1994) support this finding. This study consequently concurs with the conclusion made by Mchombu (1993) and Mluma (1994) that radio

as a means of communicating information in rural areas has serious limitations. Although radio has been used extensively by the government and other organizations for information communication, as shown in the context of this study, the scarcity of radio and thus its inaccessibility is a problem. In the past radio fora in which discussion groups gathered to discuss issues raised in radio programmes was a way of making sure that information was made accessible to rural people. However, in most areas of Tanzania including the three districts surveyed, radio fora no longer exist. Sometimes information from radio is mis-communicated orally to other member of the rural society.

6.6.2 Films, video and audio-cassettes

This study shows that the degree of accessibility of audio-visual sources of information in rural areas is limited, thus limiting their use as a source for gender and development information. This finding confirms those of earlier studies (Mchombu 1993; Karlsson 1994; Kivikuru *et al* 1994) that these sources are rarely used as a means of communicating information despite their potential as orally-based, in the case of films and video visually-based, sources to reach the majority of people in rural areas. This is due to the fact that the rural information infrastructure lacks the resources and the capacity to use a variety of sources of information to communicate information. In most cases, videos are used by private commercial people for entertainment purposes.

6.6.3 Printed sources (books, newspapers and periodicals)

The findings of this study indicate that few women have access to printed sources of information such as books, journals and newspapers, and their limited use is to be expected. This supports the findings of studies undertaken by Nwagha (1992) and Utah (1993) who make similar observations. In this study it has been observed further that, of those who have access to books, very few make use of them frequently, because most of the books available in the area contain old stories or are religious books made accessible to them through friends or relatives. There is a

general dearth of reading materials in rural areas. Some researchers have termed this lack the “book famine”. This dearth of reading materials can be attributed to the fact that most of the rural and mobile services established in the 1970s to support functional literacy programmes are not operating. In addition, due to limited financial capacity even the rural newspapers which were published in the 1970s and 1980s have ceased to be published. This means that sustainability issues are yet to be resolved as far as availability of modern sources of information to support the rural information system is concerned. These patterns of non-accessibility of printed sources of information have led researchers like Mlama (1994) to argue strongly against the use of modern communication media as a means of communicating development information to rural communities and especially women.

6.6.4 Posters

The findings of this study indicate that posters as sources of awareness information are highly accessible in the area of the study. This is due to the rigorous health education and forestry-conservation campaigns undertaken in rural areas. Posters are used widely by health and forestry departments to create awareness of health and forest conservation issues. In addition, at the time that the researcher conducted the field research, a lot of posters had been distributed by the health department’s Mother and Child Health (MCH) unit as part of the national campaign to vaccinate children under five years against the five killer diseases. Posters have also been successfully used in political campaigns to mobilize people for presidential and parliamentary elections. Posters are displayed mainly in several public places including those which women visit frequently such as market places, village shops, places of worship, schools, village halls, passenger buses and bus stations. It is not surprising therefore that at least 64.49% of the respondents in this study have had access to posters as a source of information. Posters, although useful sources of information, are most often used in conjunction with a particular development information communication campaign or development project, after that they may disappear from the scene.

6.6.5 Traditional/indigenous media

The findings indicate that traditional media such as song, dance and poetry, although widely used for traditional functions in the rural areas, they are rarely used by information providers as a means of disseminating information to rural people. This can be explained by the fact that information providers have not been trained in the use of traditional sources of information such as theatre, song and dance in communicating development information and creating awareness among rural people generally and rural women in particular. The findings indicate further that wherever these traditional channels are used they are mainly used to communicate health, political or educational information. Health information has been disseminated successfully in the area of the study because traditional forms of communication have been used. Rosenberg (1986), Mda (1991) and Mlama (1994) strongly advocate the use of indigenous methods of communication in rural areas.

The dissemination of health, political and educational information through traditional media can be explained by the fact that health and education departments use school children (liaise with school/teachers) to disseminate health education and political messages to rural populations during village public functions.

6.6.6 Rural libraries/resource centres

Results from the study indicate that rural women have not been able to access and use the rural library as an information provider. It has been noted that, to a large extent, rural libraries which had been established in the rural areas are no longer functional. This can be attributed to two factors, firstly, a lack of resources and trained personnel to take care of libraries and, secondly, most of these rural libraries were established as part of the functional literacy programmes and were mainly geared to support these programmes. Due to severe budget cuts to government department, necessitated by the economic crisis, most of the functional literacy and adult education activities have since ceased. Predictably these rural libraries have also ceased to operate.

It has been reported in the library literature that the rural library is usually viewed as an external institution introduced to the rural community through top-down approaches and thus it has generally failed to meet the expectations of the people (Durrani 1985; Kaniki 1995).

In addition, issues regarding the sustainability of these institutions have not been adequately addressed by information professionals. However, important questions related to the establishment and sustainability of rural libraries/resource centres are discussed in detail by Samuels (1991) and Rosenberg (1993). Samuels (1991: 46-47) argues that rural resource centres need to develop strategic networks to reduce dependency, should identify their own terms of reference when dealing with donors or urban counterparts, should strive to formulate rural-sensitive programmes and approaches which address real needs of the people and above all they should use their own limited resources in collaboration with other rural support systems to effect change. On the other hand Rosenberg (1993: 34) emphasises the importance of a stable administrative structure which can support the long term sustainability of rural resources centres. She suggests that local NGOs with an interest in supporting rural information provision could be a viable option in this regard. These and other related issues require attention in the situation of the Tanga region if such service points are to play a role in information provision.

6.7 Possible relationship between socio-economic factors and degree of accessibility and use of sources of information

The findings of this study indicate that age, education and levels of income have an impact on levels of accessibility and the use of sources of information. This study shows that younger women have greater access to sources of information than older women, likewise rural women with education and a good income have higher levels of access and use of information providers than those without education and good income.

These findings imply that younger rural women are advantaged in terms of access to information because they are more educated than the older women and they have benefited greatly from the Universal Primary Education (UPE) policy implemented from the mid-1970s. These findings imply further that educated rural women have confidence in searching and using modern sources of information compared with uneducated women.

Finally, the findings also imply that rural women with higher incomes have greater mobility and resources which can facilitate greater access to a wide variety of sources of information. It should be noted that other studies have achieved similar results. For instance, the National Demographic and Health Survey conducted in 1992 in Tanzania has reported that access to media is higher among younger, educated and urban women. Its findings indicate that in Tanzania 46% of women have access to radio as a source of information and that access to media is higher among younger women (under 30 years). Furthermore, educated women have more access to media than those with less education (Tanzania. Bureau of Statistics and Planning Commission 1993: 18).

It is therefore implied by these findings that improving education and income levels of rural women may present one step in improving access to information, if other factors are equal, that is, availability of modern sources of information such as radio, printed sources and rural libraries.

6.8 Information accessed by rural women

The findings of this study indicate that the majority of rural women have limited access to different types of information. Patterns of access show variations in the levels of access between different types of information as follows: the information that is readily accessible to rural women concerns health (87.06%), community affairs (43.80%), agriculture (28.84%), environment (16.30%) and women's development issues (especially women's groups and women's projects) (14.10%).

The findings show further that health information is more accessible to rural women than any other type of information. Rural women access health information from various sources available in rural areas, for instance 87.06% get access from health workers, 64.49% from posters, 32.98% from radio, 20.31% from traditional media (song and dance), 08.79% from printed sources and 06.46% from films.

The fact that the majority of rural women get access to health information can be explained by the fact that, first, the health information is mainly targeted to reach women, secondly, a detailed health infrastructure has been developed in Tanzania and thirdly, posters displaying health information are widely accessible in the area of the study. The health infrastructure is supported by an extensive network of facilities from national to village levels. A village health network may include a village health committee, a health post and two trained volunteer village health workers (male and female). All these are responsible for village health matters including the dissemination of health information. The village health worker working under the supervision of village leaders and health information providers makes door-to-door visits to make on the spot observations and to educate and inform rural women about basic health matters. Information made accessible to them concerns AIDS awareness, family planning, child care, child immunisation and prevention of communicable diseases. Rural women are also informed about the importance of environmental sanitation, building and using of pit latrines, boiling drinking water, care of household utensils and plastering of homesteads. The objective of this communication is to prevent the spread of communicable diseases.

The accessibility of other types of information is severely limited as shown above. In a Bolivian study (Gianotten 1994) it was found that the attitudes of information workers are to blame for these patterns of access to development information. It is argued for instance that; "though development organizations say women's work is excessive, they take it for granted that women do have, or are willing to make time for health care extension programmes" (Gianotten 1994: 37). It has also been noted in this study that not only do women get access to health information but also, as part of rural training programmes, rural women are mainly trained in the health fields

than in any other field. This study indicates that of the 95 rural women who had access to training, 23(24.21%) have been trained as birth attendants and 12(12.63%) in primary health care (See Table 1g, Appendix 3).

This study has indicated that in project areas where conscious efforts are taken to involve women and in areas where women have joined women's groups, access to other types of information such as information on agriculture (including fruits and vegetable gardening), forestry and soil conservation, and loans and credit, have been made available to rural women. For instance, the findings of this study shows that in the Lushoto District where SECAP and TIP activities are undertaken, at least 18(36.00%) rural women trained have been trained in modern farming techniques compared to 03(12.00 %) in the Muheza District and 01(05.00%) in the Korogwe District (See Table 1g, Appendix 3).

It should also be noted that the Community Development Department as well as a host of NGOs encourage women to join income-generating groups so that productive resources, including information can easily be made accessible to them. This study as well as other related studies (Aarnink and Kingma 1992) have shown that very few women have joined these groups. For instance, this study indicates that only 13.20% of rural respondents have joined these groups. This implies that the majority of rural women (those who have not joined these women's groups or those who live outside the project areas) lack direct access to both gender and development information. This was also observed by Mavoneka (1991) in the case of Zimbabwe.

Generally, some gender and development experts have raised a concern about the way productive resources, including information, are made accessible in rural areas. This is due to the fact that the barriers facing women have not yet been analysed critically. Vajrathon (1976) has argued that forming women's groups in itself is not going to solve barriers women face. The neglect of gender issues in services-provision means that gender-based barriers cannot be removed to enhance access of information as well as other productive resources.

6.8.1 Relevance of information accessed

Information providers believe that the information packages they deliver to rural women are moderately related to their needs because information is directed at solving the socio-economic problems women face such as health matters, an adequate supply of firewood, child and family care as well as at income-generating projects aimed at raising the income levels of rural women. Meanwhile, women have rated information accessed from posters and information providers as very relevant because most of them are satisfied with the health information they access from these sources. Most of them demanded information from other sectors as well as is indicated in the following section.

It should be noted that even if relevant information is disseminated it does not mean that it can be used by all the rural women who have accessed it. For instance, Aarnink and Kingma (1992: 65) discovered that although relevant messages concerning crop storage and food security were accessed, there were other factors such as a lack of access to money, a lack of access to insecticides and of knowledge on the application of insecticides, which acted as obstacles to using the information for food storage in order to achieve food security.

6.8.2 Adequacy of information accessed by rural women

Furthermore, 51.56% of the information providers believe that the information services they provide to rural women are not adequate to solve their problems due to a lack of continuity in services provision, brought about by resource constraints as well as administrative bottlenecks. Meanwhile, 81.25% of the respondents (rural women) believe that they do not receive adequate information services to satisfy their needs. They have identified several areas where adequate information is required. These are agriculture and livestock, food security and loans and credit. It is noted that these areas of need reflect the desire by rural women for self-development and improvement in areas where income and living standards can be improved. It is important that adequate information is communicated to rural

people to bring about qualitative change. Lack of adequate information means that rural people can not benefit from development processes. Rosenberg (1986: 5) argues that “all too often development in rural areas falls short of their objectives because adequate information is not communicated to the communities involved and benefits of change are not fully understood”.

It is noted in this study that it is only in areas that have been designated as project areas by non-governmental organizations that relatively sufficient information is provided and follow-ups are made. This limited provision in other areas can be explained by several factors such as a lack of resources with which to support the rural information infrastructure on the part of the government as well as problems information providers encounter in working with rural women as discussed in the next section.

6.9 Barriers to accessing information by rural women

This study shows that the majority of rural women do not benefit from the information delivery system in the rural areas. It has been found, for instance, that 69.72% of rural women have never been visited by an agricultural worker, 95.46% by a cooperative worker, 84.73% by community development workers and 82.16% by forestry workers. These findings corroborate those of Nwagha (1992: 79) who reported that 70.00% of rural women she surveyed in rural Nigeria had never been visited by an agricultural extension worker. Hence the major sources of gender and development information accessed by rural women are the information providers or local leaders whose interaction with rural women is severely limited due to factors such as the workload on the part of the rural women, cultural and religious inhibitions, lack of decision making-power for women, as well as the women's low levels of education and income. These are some of the socio-economic and cultural factors which limit rural women's ability to access information.

The findings of this study are also supported by the conclusion made by Mlama's (1994) study of indigenous communication skills in five Tanzanian villages, that

factors which contribute to rural women's limited access to information are "poverty, illiteracy, cultural inhibitions and various forms of gender oppression" (Mlamba 1994: 64). With regard to the barriers which rural women face, Raseroka (1990) contends that cultural constraints are one major barrier that information professionals need to deal with in providing information services to rural women.

It has also been noted in this study that most of the time information providers are hesitant to disseminate valuable information to rural women for fear that women lack the resources or the decision-making power to put the information they access to practical use. These aspects were also observed by Aarnink and Kingma (1992: 42) in their study of rural women's access to agricultural information in two rural districts in the Shinyanga region, Tanzania where they reported that "village extension workers are not likely to work with women because their restricted access to resources constrains them in their opportunities to implement extension messages" and moreover, "women's limited time makes them ineligible as contact farmers because proper managing of a demonstration plot needs time and continuous attention" (Aarnink and Kingma 1992: 42).

Other barriers rural women face in accessing information include limited accessibility of both printed and audio visual-sources of information. Non-accessibility of modern sources of information and limited interactions between rural women and other information providers means that friends and relatives remain the main sources of both gender and development information by rural women. These findings should be viewed in the light of the other findings reported in this study that these information providers (extension workers and local leaders) form the rural communities major source of development information and these information providers are predominantly male.

Ngware (1996) points out that the barriers women face create a vicious circle which continues to impact negatively on women's development. It is therefore contended that unless the vicious circle is broken through positive interventions, the majority of

rural women will continue to be disadvantaged as far as access to information and other productive resources is concerned.

6.10 Problems in and strategies for establishing accessible information services for rural women

This study has shown that the information delivery system in rural areas exhibits the some weaknesses (discussed in the next section) which lead to the majority of rural women lacking access to information. These problems will need to be addressed in planning strategies for establishing an accessible information infrastructure.

6.10.1 Problems

- i The information delivery system lacks a policy directive on how to deal with rural women as a disadvantaged category of rural society.

It is interesting to note from the findings of this study that, in general terms information providers agree or strongly agree on the gender problems that the majority of rural women face in their daily lives. This can be attributed partly to the mobilization and conscious-raising efforts of some non-governmental and women's organizations. In the 1980s and 1990s women development and especially rural women's development has been a buzz word in political and development circles.

Although the disadvantaged position of rural women is acknowledged and some limited efforts have been directed at them by both governmental and non-governmental organizations, there are no policy directives or mechanisms to implement WID policy on the part of the government. As a result, information providers exhibit a general lack of knowledge and skills to deal with rural women in the development information communication process.

- ii The information providers lack the skills required to plan and deliver gender sensitive information services.

The findings of this study show that strategies adopted by information providers to improve levels of rural women's access to information include mobilization of women to form income-generating groups and participate in development projects, encouragement to join village development committees (as required by law that 25% of the positions should be reserved for women), and mobilization of women to attend village meetings. These strategies lead to cosmetic changes, thus maintaining the status quo. As the findings of this study show, the majority of rural women does not benefit from the development processes in rural areas as they still lack access to information and other productive resources.

Gender and development experts have emphasised the need to address practical and strategic needs simultaneously. According to Schreiner (1993), factors to be addressed in development work include, among others, access to land, credit and financial backing, education and training, safe living and working environment, equal opportunities, reproductive rights, organizational capacity, discrimination and stereotypes. In addition, Raseroka (1990) identifies the need to tackle cultural constraints as a factor which is not addressed by information providers.

- iii The information delivery system is not sensitive to the socio-economic position of rural women which is largely responsible for their lack of access to information.

This study and other related studies (Rosenberg 1986; Mchombu 1993) have shown that socio-economic environment of users is important in information services. However, as far as rural women are concerned, their social and economic positions act as barriers to accessing information because the information providers have a tendency to skew information services in favour of upper and middle class rural people. Women's heavy workload, customs and traditions and a lack of decision-making power in terms of implementing technical advice, are social barriers which have not been addressed adequately by information services. This study shows that, on the other hand low levels of income are addressed by mobilising women to join women's income-generating groups. This however, has not had a

positive impact because factors which prevent the majority of women from joining these groups are not addressed.

- iv The end users (including rural women) are not part and parcel of the process of information communication. They are at the end of the spectrum of information communication activities.

The findings of this study show that top-bottom approaches are mainly employed in information work. Information providers indicated that rural women participate in the information communication process as members of women's groups, by attending village meetings and as contact farmers, and this suggests that they are at the receiving end of pre-packaged messages. Information professionals and other development experts (Durrani 1985; Rosenberg 1986; Mlana 1994) have emphasized the need to involve users in the whole process of information communication, from identifying needs to accessing information in order to make information relevant and accessible. As Price (1992) points out, the implication of top-bottom approaches is predetermined information delivery which limits the capacity of users to prioritise their own needs.

- v The predominance of male information providers as part of the information delivery system militates against rural women's access to information.

This study has also shown the predominance of male information providers in the provision of information services. Cultural inhibition and other factors related to women's roles and responsibilities limit the interaction between male information providers and women act a barriers to rural women's access to information. For instance, information providers have identified women's heavy workloads, customs and traditions and a lack of decision-making power as problems they face in providing information services to rural women. The implication is that, more often than not, these information providers limit their interactions with women because women lack the decision-making power to implement advice. It was noted, for instance, during field research that some women could not make a decision to plant trees for firewood because they do not own land. Information providers should therefore encourage the participation of rural women in decision-making processes.

However, decision making as a barrier was also identified in Aarnink and Kingma's (1992) study of "Women and agriculture in Tanzania: female farmers and male extension workers".

- vi The system lacks the resources required to sustain some of the services such as rural libraries and functional literacy programmes.

This study has also shown that due to lack of resources, some rural information services such as rural library services are not delivered to rural people. For instance, a lack of adequate financial resources has led to an almost indefinite suspension of the TLS provision to rural people. In addition, the rural information centres with modern communication media and equipment established in nine Tanzanian villages as part of Commedia Action Oriented Research Project, have ceased to operate after the donor-funded project was completed. Rural libraries and rural newspapers have virtually ceased to exist in some rural areas for lack of financial resources. The objective of any rural information service should be to strive to build local capacities to sustain the services. Sustainability issues should be central to any rural development project.

On the other hand, the predominance of oral channels of communication as opposed to printed and audio-visual channels of communication can also be attributed to a lack of adequate resources. This has implications in terms of levels of access to information because rural women who wish to use these sources such as books, newspapers and magazines are denied the opportunity to do so. This should be viewed in terms of the fact that approximately 68.53% of respondents in the area of the study are either literate or semi-literate. However, only 26.26% of respondents use printed material which is mainly of a religious nature. The rest lack access to reading materials. The implication is that new literates or semi-literates may relapse into illiteracy due to a lack of reading materials.

6.10.2 Strategies

The findings indicate that the majority of information providers (rural experts) are of the opinion that any strategy aimed at increasing the levels of accessibility of gender and development information among rural women should remove the barriers which are responsible for the limited access. These include raising the income levels to eradicate poverty, introducing simple technology to ease the work burden, raising educational levels of women, discouraging customs which impede women's development, facilitating the participation of women in decision-making at all levels of the information communication process. It is implied by these opinions that rural women need to be liberated economically and socially for them to be able to participate and benefit from any rural information delivery system.

Strategies directed at removing barriers which limit rural women's access to information, need skills and knowledge in addressing gender issues for the planning and implementation of information services.

The next chapter makes specific recommendations for action and research.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study, gives the main conclusions drawn from the study, and makes recommendations for action and suggestions for further research.

7.1 Summary of the study

7.1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the accessibility of gender and development information by rural women in the Lushoto, Korogwe and Muheza districts of the Tanga region. In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the study examined sources of information which are made accessible to and are used by rural women, as well as the type of the information that is made available by these sources to rural communities as part of the rural information delivery system.

The following research questions were set to guide the study:

1. What information services are operating in the area of the study?
2. What information services are specifically targeted at rural women in the area of the study?
3. What are the information needs of rural women in the area of the study?
4. What information providers are used by rural women to access information?
5. What information providers (communication channels) are used by information workers to communicate information to rural people and by rural women to access information in the area of the study?

6. How accessible are the various information providers to rural women?
7. How effective are the various information providers as perceived by rural women and information providers?
8. What is the relationship between rural women's socio-economic status and the degree of accessibility of the various information providers?
9. How do women in the area of study perceive the relevance of information communicated by the various information providers?
10. Is the information communicated by the information providers adequate in satisfying the information needs of rural women in the area of the study?
11. What are the barriers to rural women's access to information?
12. How can information services be made readily accessible to rural women?

7.1.2 Research design and methodology

The three districts of the Tanga region were randomly selected from the five rural districts of the region as the area of the study. The data for the study was collected from two samples, namely a sample of rural adult women and a sample of information providers working in the area of the study, as well as from secondary sources and through informal discussions with leaders at various levels of the rural administrative structure. The first sample of 773 rural households was drawn from a total of 914,472 households in the area of the study. The sample was divided as follows: 321 households from the Lushoto District, 228 from the Muheza District and 224 from the Korogwe District. A multistage sampling technique was employed to draw the sample while a proportional sampling technique was used to determine the number of respondents to be interviewed in each ward.

The second sample was drawn from information providers working in the area of the study using a purposive sampling technique. The objective was to contact six professionals from the fifteen wards selected from the area of the study. This gave

us a sample of 90 human information providers. The respondents were selected from five rural development sectors, namely, community development, agriculture, health, forestry, adult education including library and information services.

At the end of the data collection exercise only 64 out of the targeted 90 respondents were contacted and interviewed. This represents 71.11% of the sample. The original plan to distribute questionnaires to the personnel was abandoned due to the limited time available to make follow-up visits, distance (remoteness of their work stations), as well as a low work morale of information workers due to impending retrenchments.

The data collection instruments for the study consisted of the following:

1. A structured interview protocol administered to the rural women.
2. A structured interview protocol administered to the information providers.
3. Informal discussions with leaders at village, ward, division and district levels.
4. A review of secondary sources of information such as the reports and pamphlets of organizations.

The two research instruments were translated into Kiswahili, the national language of Tanzania, by a Kiswahili expert from the Institute of Kiswahili Research (IKR) at the University of Dar es Salaam. A pilot study was conducted in June/July 1996 to pretest the interview schedules for rural women and the questionnaire for information providers. A total of thirty rural women in three villages of the Muheza District were interviewed during the pretesting exercise. The questionnaire (the questionnaire was latter changed to an interview schedule as discussed in Chapter Four for information providers was distributed to ten information providers stationed in Muheza district offices. Both research instruments were slightly revised to take into account problems encountered in the pretesting.

7.1.3 The data collection process

The actual field research was carried out between August 1996 and February 1997. Two research assistants were recruited and trained to assist in the interviewing of the respondents.

7.1.4 Data analysis and presentation

The data collected from the field was first coded using MCQ coding sheets from the University of Natal's Computer Services division and the computer scanning of the coded sheets and initial computer analysis of the data was done by the Computer Services division's technician. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. The resulting data was presented in the form of frequency distributions, cross-tabulations and percentages. The content analysis methodology was used to analyse the data from the open-ended questions.

7.2 Conclusions

The following conclusions are based on the major findings of the study, issues discussed in the context of the study, the review of related literature, discussions of the findings in Chapter Six, interviews with key informants and personal observations during field research.

7.2.1 Demographic characteristics of rural women and information providers

This study noted that at least 32.47% of rural women in the area of the study are still functionally illiterate. The majority of them has low incomes and limited access to both gender and development information disseminated in rural areas by both governmental and non-governmental organizations. In addition, the majority of rural women are not organized in working groups which is a prerequisite to receiving

productive resources such as information, technology and credit as required by most non-governmental organizations.

The above characteristics of rural women imply that women in rural areas are not a homogeneous group. Therefore, in planning information services for rural people it is important to understand and acknowledge differences among rural women in terms of income levels, levels of education, marital status, property ownership, mobility levels as well as decision-making powers. Women have differing needs and aspirations. The young, educated and those with moderate incomes are more likely to be motivated to go out and seek information than those who lack such means. On the other hand, uneducated women with low incomes lack awareness and motivation because usually they lack the power to make use of the information. As a result, only a few women take advantage of and benefit from the information infrastructure as well as the resources made available in the rural areas.

It has also been noted that information providers working in rural areas are still predominantly male. Most of them lack the skills and policy directives required to develop and manage equitable information services which would effectively reach the majority of rural women who lack access to information. Although most of the village information providers live within the rural communities and understand the general nature of problems women face in their communities, most of them claim to lack the skills needed to undertake positive interventions. They worry about being accused of disturbing the "natural and traditional" societal relations. As a result the levels of interaction possible between rural women and these potential providers of information are severely limited due to cultural inhibitions as well as negative attitudes towards women.

Any strategy designed to ensure greater access to information by rural women should not only recruit more female information providers to achieve a balance but should be coupled with proper training mechanisms to enable information providers to acquire the necessary skills required to make an impact on both male and female members of rural communities.

To a limited extent, NGOs working in rural areas are trying to devise strategies for educating the masses of the rural people about the need for women to have access to development strategies for the benefit of the whole society. From personal observations it was evident that in some areas, where the SECAP and TIP activities are operating, visible changes that benefit women and communities have been registered.

7.2.2 Information exchange in rural areas

It is concluded that information-exchange activities are undertaken by both governmental and non-governmental organizations on various socio-economic sectors of the economy. These are mainly development communication interventions which originate from outside the control of the community or the target groups. It has been observed that most of the government's development communications strategies and their underlying policies have neglected the barriers faced by women in accessing development information and therefore have failed to benefit the majority of rural women. Governmental organizations' development communication strategies lack the necessary policy directives, mechanisms, skilled human resources and a financial base to implement participatory approaches and they therefore lag behind the NGOs in embracing new ideas and policies in their information work.

However, it has also been observed that some NGOs (such as SECAP, TIP and EUCRP) are slowly embracing alternative development communication strategies in order to deliver development messages to rural communities. These new programmes have integrated gender-sensitive planning modules which integrate women's participation and are specifically targeted at rural women as farmers, mothers, wives and agents of environment protection and managers of households and communities. Through participatory rural appraisal approaches, these programmes make sure that communities are active participants in development projects and that women are encouraged to participate and benefit from the programmes. In addition, through a holistic approach, barriers women face such as

lack of access to land and time are addressed in collaboration with members of the communities. The ultimate objective is empowerment of rural communities in general and women in particular. It should be noted that these projects are few in number and operate in specific areas within a specific time frame, after which a vacuum is created. Therefore the wider distribution and long-term sustainability of these interventions require attention.

7.2.3 Information needs of rural women

Although the information needs of rural women are both practical and strategic in nature, the information systems developed in rural areas do not take into consideration the strategic needs of women and this factor is, to a certain extent, responsible for the lack of access to information. The provision of information is directed at satisfying practical needs, mainly health information needs. The neglect of the strategic gender needs of rural women means that relevant information delivered cannot be used to change the quality of their lives. For instance, communicating development information related to the sustainable use of forest resources and conserving of the environment through the planting of trees is useless unless strategic information on how rural women can acquire land for such purposes is also provided. The information needs of rural women do not only lie in the realm of survival information but go beyond survival to embrace the need for liberating information.

7.2.4 Accessibility of information by rural women

Empowering rural communities for self development is the essence of information communication strategies in rural areas. As noted in this study, the way the information delivery system works in rural areas is disadvantageous to the majority of women. In order for information communication strategies to benefit women, accessibility issues should go hand in hand with empowering women psychologically, socially and economically. Without women's empowerment, information made accessible to rural communities through interventions by

government and development agencies, firstly cannot be accessed by the majority of rural women, and secondly even if accessed, can not be put into effective use to achieve the desired changes. Empowerment entails, among other things, the removal of the barriers that mitigate against women's lack of productive resources. These remedies include satisfying rural women's strategic gender information needs.

It has been observed, for instance, that campaigns to plant trees as part of environmental conservation drive by a forest reserve project was impeded by the lack of land ownership rights by women. On the other hand forest reserve campaigns coupled with the strict use of available forest resources have exacerbated the problem of obtaining firewood for rural women. Forest conservation information would make more sense if women had the land on which to grow trees for energy (firewood) and this could have been reinforced by information, skills and knowledge concerning the use of energy-saving cooking stoves. Environmental conservation information would make sense if information about alternative sources of energy was also made available as part of the campaign. Hence, what emerges is a complex picture of inter-related survival, liberating and information needs, in which a systematic and sequential order for provision requires addressing.

7.2.5 Information providers used by rural women

It can be concluded that rural women tend to use human information providers as opposed to printed, audio-visual or institutional sources. The main information providers used are the rural health workers, village leaders as well as friends and relatives. The communication process is mainly oral in nature using face-to-face communication, village meetings, discussion groups conducted at the local health clinic or by outreach rural health personnel. The nature of information flow is mainly one-way with the experts providing the information and the recipients being mainly passive receivers. This type of development communication intervention renders rural women passive seekers of development information consuming information conceived and planned at the top and delivered at the bottom.

Printed sources of information such as books, newspapers and other periodicals are scarce in rural areas and hence very few women access them. Although this study indicates that the literacy level of women is at least 60.00%, very few of the literate women have direct access to publications. Through the researcher's own observation it is evident that there is a suppressed demand for reading materials. The young primary and secondary school graduates are the most affected. They normally seize whatever printed materials become available to them including pieces of newspapers. They do occasionally get access to publications from visiting relatives from towns, from long distance country buses or through the local intelligentsia. Local village business people normally use old newspapers to wrap consumer items such as soap, doughnuts and sugar. It was interesting to note that in fact women who get access to these pieces of paper make use of them as information sources.

Posters have proved to be useful in communicating awareness information to the majority of rural women. On the other hand, audio visual-sources such as radio, audio and video cassettes, although available to a certain extent, are not readily accessible to rural women. Rural women use radio only occasionally because most of them do not own radios, and secondly, they can not afford to maintain them because of the need to purchase batteries. Even if a radio is owned by a household, it is used infrequently. Audio and video cassettes are mainly used at public places for entertainment and for the dissemination of religious information. It can be concluded that although videos are popular with young women, the type of programmes which are commonly available does not appeal to the majority of them. In addition, it is really difficult for rural women with limited time to go out and watch entertainment videos or listen to music on a video or audio cassettes at a public place.

7.2.6 Adequacy and relevance of information made accessible to rural women

Although rural women are to a certain extent satisfied with what is made accessible to them through the external development communications interventions, it can be concluded that the adequacy and relevance issues are directly related to the socio-economic background of end users. The gender problems encountered by rural women act as a barrier to accessing and using information, even in situations where the information provision is comprehensive. As a result the information provided is not adequately accessed to meet the needs of end users.

On the other hand information providers are frustrated by the fact that they do deliver information which cannot, however, be put into effective use. For instance, it is difficult for information providers to provide information on the use of fertilizers or a new breed of seeds if the users are not able to purchase seeds or make decisions about whether to try the new breed or not. It is noted, for instance, that agricultural information provided to rural women is basic in nature and limited to the prediction of the weather, time to prepare plots and use of modern planting methods. The majority of rural women is aware of this type of agricultural information delivered by agricultural information providers through traditional social networks (friends and relatives). However, due to the labour intensity of the planting method recommended which is time consuming it is not used by the majority of rural women. This is an instance of information being delivered without due regard for the existing social conditions that women endure.

7.2.7 Barriers to accessing information by rural women

Despite the various interventions from governmental and non-governmental organizations to educate and inform the rural people, the information delivery system in rural areas does not benefit the majority of rural women. The main factor which is responsible for this state of affairs is first and foremost, the fact that information provision does not take into account the subordinate position of women

in rural areas. The information providers, for instance, lack policy directives on how to deal with women as a neglected dimension in development communication. The information system is predominantly operated and managed by male information providers who lack the necessary skills on how to deal with women. As such the system lacks sensitivity on issues such as levels of education of women, their limited lack of productive resources such as land, their lack of decision making power, lack of time and awareness on issues related to accessing information, as well as their low levels of income. As a result, the information providers' attitudes, reinforced by their general maleness and the lack of guiding policy directives and accompanying gender-sensitive skills and training on the nature and conditions of rural women, coupled with the lack of a supportive and sensitive information system, are largely responsible for the lack of access to information by the majority of rural women.

7.2.8 The nature of information systems and services in rural areas

Although at the village level information providers work together, there is a lack of coherence and coordination in information and communication work. There is also a lack of resources on the part of the government to plan an effective information and extension system and a lack of gender-sensitive policy guidelines which will guide the planning and organization of an information service delivery in rural areas.

Top-down approaches to information services delivery mean that rural communities rarely participate effectively in the whole process of information communication except in areas where NGO development projects are operating.

Another important factor worth noting is the role of the rural library/community resource centre in the rural delivery information system. This study has shown that the rural library has become a marginalised institution in the rural development process. Rural libraries are not seen as independent institutions which could play a pivotal and central role in rural information communication strategies but rather as institutions brought from above to support functional literacy programmes and

prevent new literates from relapsing into illiteracy for lack of reading materials. With limited resources with which to conduct adult education activities these rural libraries are dying a natural death. Although rural libraries have been criticised for stocking irrelevant materials which make information generally inaccessible to the majority of rural people, the dearth of reading materials in rural areas can partly be attributed to the collapse of these institutions. This study argues that the re-establishment of community resource centres as part of community-based organizations' efforts could be an important step in the long-term provision of information (reading materials) to rural people including rural women.

This study has also shown that the information delivery system in rural areas does not benefit the majority of rural women because it is not sensitive to the nature of information needs of women. As a result factors that hinder rural women's access to productive resources, including information have not been addressed by the system. It is evident that development strategies in rural areas still pay lip-service to the problem of women's development. Issues such as access to land, access to credit and financial backing, education and training, equal opportunities, discrimination and stereotypes have not been considered strongly in information communication strategies in rural areas. It has been noted in this study that gender issues are identified superficially and strategies adopted and implemented without due regard to barriers caused by unequal social relations in rural communities. The neglect of these crucial factors means that women's access to information remains limited, their earning potential low and the threat of poverty persists because empowerment issues have not been given due attention.

7.3 Recommendations

The following are the general recommendations that the researcher believes should be considered by both development workers and information personnel in the country. These recommendations are based on the findings of the study. They are directed to policy makers, information and development workers, as well as rural planners. All these personnel, are to a great extent, instrumental in the rural

transformation and development process in ensuring a conducive environment for improving access, flow and exchange of information among rural populations.

The recommendations are grouped under the following headings: the information delivery system, sources of information and access to information as a productive resource.

7.3.1 The information delivery system

- i There is a need to integrate gender-sensitive planning systems in the planning of information services in the rural areas in order to take into consideration both the practical and strategic gender needs of rural women. The needs and barriers women face in rural areas should be considered to make information accessible to rural women. It has been noted that the majority of rural women lack access to information because previous attempts at informing rural people have failed to reach women due to the systems' neglect of gender issues in the planning and implementation of information services.
- ii Planning and implementation of information services should be guided by government policy directives, mechanisms for implementation and adequate financial and skilled human resources.
- iii Issues such as empowerment, participation, benefits to be accrued and strategies for information services' sustainability should be addressed in the planning and implementation of information services.
To plan gender-sensitive, sustainable and accessible information services, the areas identified herein require attention. These are the socio-economic profile of rural communities, needs assessment, the information provision staff, and access to information and finances.

7.3.1.1 Socio-economic profile of rural communities

- i It is important to compile socio-economic profiles of rural communities in order to identify class disparities among rural people and to plan services accordingly, to ensure that low income people also benefit from information services.

- ii Socio-economic factors play a significant role in ensuring access to and the use of sources of information. It is hereby recommended that it is important to adopt strategies which will improve the socio-economic status of women specifically through improving education and income levels of rural women.

7.3.1.2 Needs assessment

- i There is an urgent need to conduct regular surveys of user and potential user needs in order to understand the nature of community needs and how they inter-relate, and to plan information activities accordingly. Participatory approaches should be adopted to make information services responsive to the needs of all members of a rural community.

7.3.1.3 Human information providers

- i In the long term the objective of information services should be to achieve a gender balance in information work by increasing the presence of female information providers.
- ii However, in the short term information providers should be offered gender-sensitive planning modules in training to ensure improvement in the flow, exchange and accessibility of information between information providers and rural women.

7.3.1.4 Other information providers

- i There is an urgent need to adopt a multi-dimensional information delivery system to ensure that information is presented in a variety of formats to cater for the heterogenous needs of rural users. This means that information transfer activities should employ both modern and traditional forms of information delivery. This will improve access to information by both men and women in the rural areas. The medium used should suit the nature of the message conveyed and be tailored to the working day of rural women.

7.3.1.5 Access to information as a productive resource

- i The majority of rural women with low levels of education and limited mobility is either not aware of information exchange activities directed to them by development and information workers or, even if they are aware, they do not understand how these activities can benefit them. There is therefore a need to create awareness and stimulate user needs and demand for information among rural people, especially women.
- ii Information made available to rural women should be linked to both their practical and strategic gender information needs. According to the results of this study there is a tendency among development and information workers to concentrate on the provision of health and agricultural information for rural women without due attention to their gendered position in society. This is partly attributed to societal attitudes that women are the main producers and reproducers of society.
- iii Information providers should collect, package and disseminate strategic gender information in order to empower women to be aware that unequal social relations have been constructed by society and that they are their own agents of change towards more equitable social relations which will, among other things, contribute to ensuring equitable access to information.
- iv There is a need to institute gender-sensitive structures, in the rural information delivery system, which will ensure that barriers to rural women's access to information are removed. Gender-awareness information should be made accessible to all members of the rural community to make them aware of, and sensitive to, the problems and specific needs of women.
- v There is a need to re-examine the potential role of the rural library/rural resource centre as a provider of information to rural communities. By learning from past mistakes, alternative strategies should be adopted which will consider issues of community initiatives, community needs (including differences in gender roles and responsibilities), resources and sustainability and pro-activity in terms of stimulating user needs and creating awareness. This will make the rural library/resource centre a viable institution and will improve accessibility to sources of information which are scarce in rural areas. Communities are not static, therefore a dynamic rural resource centre could ensure relevant and adequate services to rural communities.

- vi The rural library/rural resource centre should act as a linkage point communicating information from women and other NGOs which have been instrumental in educating and informing women in Tanzania. Most of these organizations have extensive information resources on women, gender and other development issues in the form of newsletters, magazines, pamphlets, and video cassettes which could be made accessible to rural people through such a centre. In this way, the information dissemination activities of these organizations will also benefit rural women and other members of the rural communities.

7.3.1.6 Finances

- i Information is an important resource in development. In the new emerging development partnership between governmental and non-governmental organizations it is important that all those involved in the rural community development initiative should commit sufficient financial resources and create a conducive information infrastructure to facilitate information exchange activities in the rural areas on a long term sustainable basis.

It is important that these recommendations should be viewed within the context of the re-orientation of government policies with regard to provision of services. This means that the communities (community-based organizations), the private sector, non-governmental and international organizations have to take a more active role in community services, including the provision of information services (such as rural resource centres). The government needs to facilitate the process by creating an enabling environment. The role of the information professional in this new emerging environment is to stimulate user needs.

Information remains a crucial component of all community development activities ranging from a housing project, a school project, a water supply programme, to energy or conservation issues which form part of the major development needs of rural communities. As we move towards the 21st century, information professionals trained in gender development planning and implementation skills will be required to create gender awareness among rural populations in order to make sure that all gender groups participate and benefit from development projects and programmes. By signing the SADC gender and development declaration, the Tanzanian

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Appendix 1A

ACCESS TO GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION BY RURAL WOMEN IN THE TANGA REGION OF TANZANIA

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR RURAL WOMEN IN THE TANGA REGION

NAME OF VILLAGE:

WARD:

DISTRICT:

DATE OF THE INTERVIEW:

1. As a rural women what development problems do you encounter in your daily activities? Please rate seriousness of the problems identified using the following codes:
(1) very serious (2) serious (3) not serious

(i)	farming	1	2	3
(ii)	health	1	2	3
(iii)	water	1	2	3
(iv)	housing	1	2	3
(v)	firewood	1	2	3
(vi)	marketing	1	2	3
(vii)	land	1	2	3
(viii)	food	1	2	3
(ix)	access to credit	1	2	3
(x)	literacy	1	2	3
(xi)	other, please specify			
			
			
			
			

2. From whom where do you get assistance and advice when you encounter the problems identified above? How often do you use the identified source in problem solving? Please indicate the appropriate section using the following codes:
 (1) frequently (2) sometimes (3) never

(i)	village leaders	1	2	3
(ii)	village elders	1	2	3
(iii)	religious leaders	1	2	3
(iv)	women leaders	1	2	3
(v)	extension workers/rural experts	1	2	3
(vi)	traditional healers	1	2	3
(vii)	friends/ relatives	1	2	3
(viii)	books/newspapers/magazines	1	2	3
(ix)	educational radio programmes	1	2	3
(x)	films/TV/Video	1	2	3
(xi)	rural resource centre/rural library	1	2	3
(xii)	school/adult education centre	1	2	3
(xiii)	political party office	1	2	3
(xiv)	local government office	1	2	3
(xv)	health centre/dispensary	1	2	3
(xvi)	other, please specify			
			

3. As a rural woman what specific problems related to gender relations in your community do you encounter in your daily life? Please rate the seriousness of the problems using the following codes:
 (1) very serious (2) serious (3) not serious

(i)	poverty	1	2	3
(ii)	unequal opportunities	1	2	3
(iii)	lack of skills/knowledge	1	2	3
(iv)	work overburden	1	2	3
(v)	lack of decision-making power	1	2	3
(vi)	sexual harassment	1	2	3
(vii)	domestic violence	1	2	3
(viii)	abandonment	1	2	3
(ix)	other, please specify			
			

4. From whom/where do you usually get information or advice in attempts to solve problems identified above? How often do you use the identified source in problem solving? Please indicate the appropriate section using the following codes:
 (1) frequently (2) sometimes (3) never

(i)	village leaders	1	2	3
(ii)	village elders	1	2	3
(iii)	religious leaders	1	2	3
(iv)	women leaders	1	2	3
(v)	extension workers/rural experts	1	2	3
(vi)	traditional healers	1	2	3
(vii)	friends/relatives	1	2	3
(viii)	books/newspapers/magazines	1	2	3
(ix)	educational radio programmes	1	2	3
(x)	films/ tv/video	1	2	3
(xi)	rural resource centre/rural library	1	2	3
(xii)	school/adult education centre	1	2	3
(xiii)	political party office	1	2	3
(xiv)	local government office	1	2	3
(xv)	health centre/dispensary	1	2	3
(xvi)	other, please specify			
			

5. Are you a member of a village women's group/s?

- (i) Yes -----
 (ii) No -----

If the answer is no please ask question no. 11 (eleven)

6. If yes, what activities does the group/s engage in?

	YES	NO
(i) farming	-----	-----
(ii) income generating projects	-----	-----
(iii) credit and savings societies	-----	-----
(iv) women's cooperatives	-----	-----
(v) other, please specify		
.....		

7. Does your group discuss women specific problems related to gender relations

- (i) Yes -----
 (ii) No -----

If the answer is no please ask question no. 9 (nine) below.

8. If yes which among the following do you discuss? Please tick the appropriate section

- (i) property ownership -----
- (ii) unequal opportunities -----
- (iii) lack of skills/information -----
- (iv) how to access bank loans/credits -----
- (v) ways to ease work overburden -----
- (vi) the need to acquire decision making -----
- (vii) sexual harassment -----
- (viii) domestic violence -----
- (ix) abandonment -----
- (x) other, please specify

9. If not, why?

- (i) our primary concern is income generation -----
- (ii) it is a taboo to question gender relations -----
- (iii) we do not think it is a problem (lack of awareness) -----
- (iv) any other, please specify

10. From whom/where do you get assistance/advice in your efforts to solve problems you discuss and how often do you use the sources you consult for problems solving? Please indicate the appropriate section using the following codes: (1) frequently (2) occasionally (3) never

- | | | | | |
|--------|-------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| (i) | village leaders | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ii) | village elders | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iii) | religious leaders | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iv) | women leaders | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (v) | extension workers/rural experts | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vi) | traditional healers | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vii) | friends/relatives | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (viii) | books/newspapers/magazines | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ix) | educational radio programmes | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (x) | films/TV/Video | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xi) | rural resource centre/rural library | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xii) | school/adult education centre | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xiii) | political party office | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xiv) | local government office | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xv) | health centre/dispensary | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xvi) | other, please specify | | | |

11. Is there a rural library/rural resource centre in your village?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

If the answer is no, please ask question number 16 (sixteen).

12. If yes how often do you visit the centre? Please tick the appropriate section.

- (i) frequently -----
- (ii) sometimes -----
- (iii) never -----

If the answer is never, please ask question number 15 (fifteen).

13. What kind of information do you get from the rural resource centre/rural library?

- (i) educational (please specify)
- (ii) political
- (iii) agricultural
- (iv) health and nutrition
- (v) trade and marketing
- (vi) environment conservation
- (vii) women/gender and development
- (viii) religion
- (ix) entertainment
- (x) other, please specify

14. Do you find the information available at the rural resource centre related to your needs/problems? Please tick the appropriate section

- (i) very related -----
- (ii) related -----
- (iii) not related -----

15. If you do not visit the centre, give reasons why?

- (i) lack of time -----
- (ii) lack of awareness -----
- (iii) problem of distance -----
- (iv) other, please specify

16. Do you currently have a radio set in working condition at home?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

If the answer is no, please ask question number 18 (eighteen)

17. Do you listen to the radio?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

If the answer is no, please ask question number 23 (twenty-three).

18. If you do not have a radio set at home, where do you listen to the radio?

- (i) do not listen to the radio -----
- (ii) neighbours home -----
- (iii) village hall/square -----
- (iv) village shop -----
- (v) village pub -----
- (vi) women's radio fora -----
- (vii) adult education classes -----
- (viii) rural library/rural resource centre -----
- (ix) other, please specify

If the answer is (i) above, please ask question number 23 (twenty-three).

19. If yes, how often do you listen to the radio?

- (i) daily -----
- (ii) four to six times a week -----
- (iii) two to three times a week -----
- (iv) once a week -----

20. What time do you listen to the radio?

- (i) morning -----
- (ii) afternoon -----
- (iii) evening -----

21. Which radio programmes do you normally listen to? How often do you tune in the programmes. Please indicate frequency of listening by using the following codes: (1) frequently (2) occasionally (3) never

(i)	political programmes	1	2	3
(ii)	health and nutrition	1	2	3
(iii)	adult education	1	2	3
(iv)	modern farming	1	2	3
(v)	women and development	1	2	3
(vi)	religion	1	2	3
(vii)	news bulletins/current affairs	1	2	3
(viii)	entertainment	1	2	3
(ix)	other, please specify			
			

22. Do you find the information you access through the radio related to your needs/problems? Please tick the appropriate section.

- (i) very related -----
- (ii) related -----
- (iii) not related -----

23. If you do not listen to the radio, please give reasons why?

- (i) lack of time -----
- (ii) lack of awareness -----
- (iii) problem of availability -----
- (iv) financial constraints -----
- (v) other, please specify
-

24. Do you read various publications (books/magazines/newspapers)?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

If the answer is no, please ask question number 30 (thirty)

25. Which of the following do you read? Please tick the appropriate section.

- (i) books -----
- (ii) newspapers -----
- (iii) magazines/pamphlets -----

26. If you said to any of the above, how often do you read each of the publication mentioned above? Please use the following code to determine reading frequency: (1) frequently (2) occasionally (3) never

(i)	books	1	2	3
(ii)	newspapers	1	2	3
(iii)	magazines/pamphlets	1	2	3

27. How do you acquire the reading materials? Please tick the appropriate section.

- (i) buying -----
- (ii) borrowing from family and friends -----
- (iii) extension workers/rural experts -----
- (iv) rural resource centre/rural library -----
- (v) school/adult education centre -----
- (vi) other, please specify

28. What kind of information do you access from these reading materials?

- (i) educational (please specify)
- (ii) political
- (iii) agriculture
- (iv) health and nutrition
- (v) trade and marketing
- (vi) environment and conservation
- (vii) gender/women and development
- (viii) religion
- (ix) entertainment
- (x) other, please specify

29. Do you find the information you access through the publications you read related to your problems/needs? Please tick the appropriate section

- (i) very related -----
- (ii) related -----
- (iii) not related -----

30. How would you rate accessibility of the following reading materials? Please indicate the appropriate section by using the following codes: (1) readily accessible (2) accessible (3) not accessible

(i)	books	1	2	3
(ii)	newspapers	1	2	3
(iii)	magazines/pamphlets	1	2	3

31. If you do not read any books, newspapers, magazines/pamphlets, please give reasons why?

- (i) do not know how to read -----
- (ii) lack of time -----
- (iii) problems of availability -----
- (iv) financial constraints (inability to purchase) -----
- (v) other, please specify

32. Have you seen any posters displayed at a public place? (health centre, market place, local pub, church/mosque, school etc.)

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

If the answer is no, please ask question number 35 (thirty-five)

33. If yes, what type of messages were the posters carrying?

- (i) educational (please specify)
- (ii) political
- (iii) agricultural
- (iv) health and nutrition
- (v) trade and marketing
- (vi) environmental conservation
- (vii) gender/women and development
- (viii) religion
- (ix) entertainment
- (x) other, please specify

34. Was the information communicated by the posters related to your needs/problems? Please tick the appropriate section.

- (i) very related -----
- (ii) related -----
- (iii) not related -----

35. Do you have access to any of the following in your village? .

- | | YES | NO |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|
| (i) films | ----- | ----- |
| (ii) TV/Video | ----- | ----- |
| (iii) audio-cassettes | ----- | ----- |

If the answer is no to all of the above, please ask question number 40 (forty).

36. If you said yes to any of the above, which one /of them do you use frequently?
Please indicate the appropriate section by using the following codes:
(1) frequently(2) occasionally (3) never

(i)	films	1	2	3
(ii)	TV/Videos	1	2	3
(iii)	audio-cassettes	1	2	3

37. Where do you view or listen to the above materials? Please tick the appropriate section.

- (i) at home -----
- (ii) at neighbours home -----
- (iii) village square -----
- (iv) village shop -----
- (v) village pub -----
- (vi) women radio fora -----
- (vii) school/adult education classes -----
- (viii) rural resource centre/rural library -----
- (ix) other, please specify

38. What information do you access from these audio-visual sources?

- (i) educational (please specify)
- (ii) political
- (iii) agricultural
- (iv) health and nutrition
- (v) trade and marketing
- (vi) environmental conservation
- (vii) gender/women and development
- (viii) religion
- (ix) entertainment
- (x) other, please specify

39. If yes is the information you get from the above sources of information related to your needs/problems?

- (i) very related -----
- (ii) related -----
- (iii) not related -----

40. How would you rate accessibility of the following sources of information?
Please use the following codes to determine the degree of accessibility:
(1) very accessible (2) accessible (3) not accessible

(i)	films	1	2	3
(ii)	TV/Videos	1	2	3
(iii)	audio cassettes	1	2	3

41. Have you participated in community development or information dissemination programmes which involved the use of the following traditional media?

	YES	NO	
(i)	dance/song	----	----
(ii)	theatre	----	----
(iii)	poetry	----	----

If the answer is no to all of the above, please ask question number 54 (fifty-four)

42. If yes, how often have the traditional media been used in your village? Use the following codes to determine the frequency of use:
(1) frequently (2) sometimes (3) never

(i)	dance/song	1	2	3
(ii)	theatre	1	2	3
(iii)	poetry	1	2	3

43. What information was communicated to you through the traditional media?

- (i) educational (please specify)
- (ii) political
- (iii) agricultural
- (iv) health and nutrition
- (v) trade and marketing
- (vi) environmental conservation
- (vii) gender/women and development
- (viii) religion
- (ix) entertainment
- (x) other, please specify

44. Did you find the information communicated by these traditional media related to your needs/problems?

- (i) very related -----
- (ii) related -----
- (iii) not related -----

45. Which of the following do you come into contact with regularly? Please use the following codes to determine frequency of contact:
 (1) frequently (2) sometimes (3) never

(i)	political leaders	1	2	3
(ii)	village leaders	1	2	3
(iii)	community development workers	1	2	3
(iv)	health extension workers	1	2	3
(v)	agricultural extension workers	1	2	3
(vi)	cooperative workers	1	2	3
(vii)	teachers/adult educators	1	2	3
(viii)	rural librarian/information workers	1	2	3
(ix)	forestry extension workers	1	2	3
(x)	other, please specify			

If there is no contact with any of the above, please ask question number 50 (fifty).

46. What kind of information is communicated by these rural information personnel/rural experts?

- (i) educational (please specify)
- (ii) political
- (iii) agricultural
- (iv) health and nutrition
- (v) trade and marketing
- (vi) environmental conservation
- (vii) gender/ women and development
- (viii) religion
- (ix) entertainment
- (x) other, please specify

47. Do you find the information communicated by these rural information personnel/rural experts related to your problems/needs? Please tick the appropriate section

- (i) very related -----
- (ii) related -----
- (iii) not related -----

48. What channels of communication are used by the above to communicate information to the rural community?

- (i) demonstrations -----
- (ii) group discussions -----
- (iii) village meetings -----
- (iv) films -----
- (v) TV/Video -----
- (vi) audio cassettes -----
- (vii) radio fora -----
- (viii) books, newspapers, magazines -----
- (ix) pamphlets/leaflets -----
- (x) posters -----
- (xi) dance/song/theatre/poetry -----
- (xii) other, please specify

49. Do you find the methods used to disseminate information enables you to participate effectively in the process of information communication and enables you to access useful messages? Please use the following codes to indicate effectiveness of channels used
 (1) very effective (2) effective (3) not effective

- | | | | | |
|--------|-----------------------------|---|---|---|
| (i) | demonstrations | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ii) | group discussions | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iii) | village meetings | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iv) | films | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (v) | TV/Video | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vi) | audio cassettes | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vii) | radio fora | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (viii) | books/newspapers/magazines | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ix) | pamphlets/leaflets | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (x) | posters | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xi) | dance/song/theatre/poetry | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xii) | other, please specify | | | |

50. Have you ever been selected for rural skills training programmes?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

If the answer is no, please ask question number 52 (fifty-two).

51. If yes in which skills were you trained? Please tick the appropriate section

- (i) simple technology -----
- (ii) rural midwifery -----
- (iii) modern farming -----
- (iv) poultry/livestock keeping -----
- (v) trade and marketing skills -----
- (vi) community development -----
- (vii) gender/women and development -----
- (viii) other, please specify

52. Have you ever heard about rural women credit fund?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

If the answer is no, please ask question number 55 (fifty-five)

53. If yes how did you get the information on availability of the credit fund?

- (i) radio -----
- (ii) newspapers -----
- (iii) friends/relatives -----
- (iv) women groups -----
- (v) village meeting -----
- (vi) other, please specify

54. Was the information accessed sufficient to understand the process of applying for a loan if you so wished?

- (i) very sufficient -----
- (ii) sufficient -----
- (iii) not sufficient -----

55. Are there information services/programmes targeted at women in your village?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----
- (iii) I do not know -----

If the answer above is (ii) No or (iii) I do not know, please ask question number 57(fifty-seven)

56. If yes what kinds of services/programmes operate? Please indicate the appropriate section.

	YES	NO
(i) women income generating groups	----	----
(ii) women's small scale industry projects	----	----
(iii) women's radio fora	----	----
(iv) mother and child health (MCH)	----	----
(v) women's credit and savings societies	----	----
(vi) other, please specify		

57. Do you know any of the following women organizations?

	YES	NO
(i) UWT (Union of Tanzania Women)	----	----
(ii) BAWATA (National Women's Council)	----	----
(iii) TAMWA (Tanzania Media women Association)	----	----
(iv) TAWLA (Tanzania Women Lawyers Association)	----	----
(v) TGNP (Tanzania Gender Networking Programme)	----	----

58. In general, is the information and advice you access from various sources of information sufficient to solve problems you encounter in your daily life?

(i) very sufficient	----
(ii) sufficient	----
(iii) not sufficient	----

59. What type of information would you like to get in order to assist you solve problems you encounter daily and thus make changes in your life? Please tick the appropriate section.

(i) better farming techniques	----
(ii) food storage/security	----
(iii) trade and marketing skills	----
(iv) poultry/livestock keeping	----
(v) handicraft and artisan skills	----
(vi) gender awareness information	----
(vii) disease prevention/health information	----
(viii) access to loans and credit	----
(ix) other, please specify	

60. What problems (obstacles) do you encounter in your efforts to get access to problem solving information from the various information providers? Please rate seriousness of the problem using the following codes:
 (1) very serious (2) serious (3) not serious

(i)	lack of time	1	2	3
(ii)	lack of awareness	1	2	3
(iii)	limited sources of information	1	2	3
(iv)	financial constraints	1	2	3
(v)	lack of motivation	1	2	3
(vi)	family conflict	1	2	3
(vii)	gender discrimination	1	2	3
(viii)	old age	1	2	3
(ix)	health problems	1	2	3
(x)	other please specify			
			

61. Age

(i)	16-25 years	----
(ii)	26-35 years	----
(iii)	36-45 years	----
(iv)	46-55 years	----
(v)	56-65 years	----
(vi)	over 65 years	----

62. Marital Status

(i)	single	----
(ii)	married	----
(iii)	divorced	----
(iv)	widowed	----
(v)	separated	----

63. Occupation

(i)	farmer	----
(ii)	business	----
(iii)	handicraft	----
(iv)	civil servant	----
(v)	professional	----
(vi)	student	----
(vii)	other, please specify	
	

64. Education

- (i) no formal education -----
- (ii) adult education -----
- (iii) primary education -----
- (iv) secondary education -----
- (v) vocational education -----
- (vi) college/university education -----
- (vii) other, please specify

65. Income Levels

What is your average annual income? Please indicate the appropriate section.

- (i) 0 - 50 000 Tshs -----
- (ii) 50 001- 100 000 Tshs -----
- (iii) 100 001- 200 000 Tshs -----
- (iv) 200 001- 400 000 Tshs -----
- (v) more than 400 001 Tshs -----

66. Are you a member of the following organizations? Please indicate the appropriate section.

- | | YES | NO |
|----------------------------------|-------|-------|
| (i) political party | ----- | ----- |
| (ii) women organization | ----- | ----- |
| (iii) youth organization | ----- | ----- |
| (iv) cooperative society | ----- | ----- |
| (v) religious organization | ----- | ----- |
| (vi) other, please specify | | |

Appendix 1B

UPATAJI WA HABARI ZA KIJINSIA NA ZA KIMAENDELEO KWA WANAWAKE VIJIJINI KATIKA MKOA WA TANGA, TANZANIA

HOJAJI YA WANAWAKE VIJIJINI, MKOA WA TANGA

JINA LA KIJIKI:

KATA:

WILAYA:

TAREHE YA MAHOJIANO:

1. Je ni matatizo gani unayoyapata katika maisha yako ya kila siku kama mwanamke wa kijijini? Tafadhali kadiria uzito wa matatizo yako kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo (1) makubwa sana (2) makubwa kiasi (3) siyo makubwa

(i)	kilimo	1	2	3
(ii)	afya na matibabu	1	2	3
(iii)	upatikanaji wa maji safi	1	2	3
(iv)	nyumba bora	1	2	3
(v)	kuni za kupikia	1	2	3
(vi)	uuzaji wa mazao	1	2	3
(vii)	ardhi	1	2	3
(viii)	upatikanaji na uhifadhi wa chakula	1	2	3
(ix)	upatikanaji wa mikopo	1	2	3
(x)	elimu (kukosa elimu)	1	2	3
(xi)	matatizo mengine (tafadhali yataje)			
			
			
			
			

2. Kutoka kwa nani/wapi unapata msaada na ushauri unapopata matatizo uliyoyataja hapo juu? Mara ngapi unakitumia chanzo ulichokitaja katika kutatua matatizo? Tafadhali weka alama kwenye sehemu inayostahili kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo (1) mara kwa mara (2) mara chache (3) situmii kamwe

(i)	viongozi wa kijiji	1	2	3
(ii)	wazee wa kijiji	1	2	3
(iii)	viongozi wa dini	1	2	3
(iv)	viongozi wa vyama vya wanawake	1	2	3
(v)	Wafanyakazi wa ugani/wataalam wa vijinini	1	2	3
(vi)	waganga wa kienyeji	1	2	3
(vii)	marafiki/ndugu	1	2	3
(viii)	vitabu/magazeti/majarida	1	2	3
(ix)	vipindi vya elimu vya redio	1	2	3
(x)	sinema, TV/Video	1	2	3
(xi)	kituo cha habari/ maktaba ya kijiji	1	2	3
(xii)	shule/kituo cha elimu ya watu wazima	1	2	3
(xiii)	ofisi ya chama cha siasa	1	2	3
(xiv)	ofisi ya serikali za mitaa	1	2	3
(xv)	kituo cha afya/zahanati	1	2	3
(iv)	nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje			

3. Kama mwanamke wa kijijini ni matatizo gani mahsusi yanayohusiana na mahusiano ya kijinsia katika jamii yako yanayokukabili katika maisha ya kila siku? Tafadhali kadiria uzito wa tatizo kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo (1) kubwa sana (2) kubwa kiasi (3) siyo kubwa

(i)	umaskini	1	2	3
(ii)	nafasi zisizo sawa	1	2	3
(iii)	ukosefu wa ujuzi maarifa	1	2	3
(iv)	Kuzidiwa na kazi nyingi	1	2	3
(v)	kutokuwa na uwez wa kufanya maamuzi	1	2	3
(vi)	unyanyasaji wa kijinsia	1	2	3
(vii)	vurugu majumbani	1	2	3
(viii)	uutelekezaji	1	2	3
(x)	matatizo mengine, tafadhali yataje			

4. Katika jitihada za kutatua matatizo uliyoyataja hapo juu kwa kawaida unapata wapi habari au ushauri? Mara ngapi huwa unatumia chanzo ulichokitaja katika kutatua matatizo? Tafadhali, onyesha sehemu inayostahili kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo?
(1) mara kwa mara (2) mara chache (3) situmii kamwe

(i)	viongozi wa kijiji	1	2	3
(ii)	wazee wa kijiji	1	2	3
(iii)	viongozi wa dini	1	2	3
(iv)	viongozi wa vyama vya wanawake	1	2	3
(v)	wataalam wa vijijini	1	2	3
(vi)	waganga wa kienyeji	1	2	3
(vii)	marafiki/ndugu	1	2	3
(viii)	vitabu, magazeti na majarida	1	2	3
(ix)	vipindi vya redio vya kuelimisha	1	2	3
(x)	sinema, TV/Video	1	2	3
(xi)	kituo cha habari/maktaba ya kijiji	1	2	3
(xii)	shule/kituo cha elimu ya watu wazima	1	2	3
(xiii)	ofisi ya chama cha siasa	1	2	3
(xiv)	ofisi ya serikali ya mitaa	1	2	3
(xv)	kituo cha afya/zahanati	1	2	3
(xvi)	nyinginezo, tafadhali vitaje			

5. Je, wewe ni mwanachama wa kikundi/vikundi chochote/vyovyote vha wanawake kijijini?

- (i) ndiyo -----
(ii) hapana -----

Kama hapana uliza swali namba kumi na moja (11)

6. Kama ndiyo ni shughuli zipi hufanywa na kikundi/vikundi hicho/hivyo?

	NDIYO	HAPANA
(i) kilimo	-----	-----
(ii) miradi ya kuongeza kipato	-----	-----
(iii) ushirika wa kuweka na kukopa	-----	-----
(iv) ushirika wa wanawake	-----	-----
(v) shughuli nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje		

7. Je, kikundi chako huzungumzia matatizo maalumu ya wanawake yahasuyo mahusiano ya kijinsia katika jamii?

- (i) ndiyo -----
(ii) hapana -----

Kama hapana uliza swali namba 9 (tisa)

8. Kama ndiyo ni yapi kati ya haya yafuatayo mnayoyazungumzia? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- | | | |
|--------|---|------|
| (i) | umilikaji wa mali | ---- |
| (ii) | uwiano mbaya wa nafasi za wanawake katika jamii | ---- |
| (iii) | ukosefu wa ujuzi /habari | ---- |
| (iv) | jinsi ya kupata mikopo ya benki | ---- |
| (v) | njia za kupunguza uzito wa kazi | ---- |
| (vi) | kuwa na uwezo wa kufanya maamuzi | ---- |
| (vii) | uonevu wa kijinsia | ---- |
| (viii) | vurugu majumbani | ---- |
| (ix) | kutekelezwa | ---- |
| (x) | matatizo mengine, tafadhali yataje | |

9. Kama hapana kwanini hamzungumzi matatizo hayo? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- | | | |
|-------|--|------|
| (i) | jambo la muhimu ni kuongeza kipato | ---- |
| (ii) | ni wiko kuhoji mahusiano ya kijinsia | ---- |
| (iii) | hatudhani kwamba ni matatizo makubwa (kukosa mwelekeo) | ---- |
| (iv) | sababu nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje | |

10. Mnapata wapi ushauri/habari katika juhudi senu za kutatua matatizo mnayoyazungumzia. Na mara ngapi huwa mnavitumia vyanzo hivyo ulivyovitaja? Tafadhali weka alama katika kifungu kinachostahili kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo: (1) mara kwa mara (2) mara chache (3) situmii kamwe

- | | | | | |
|--------|---|---|---|---|
| (i) | viongozi wa kijiji | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ii) | wazee wa vijiji | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iii) | viongozi wa dini | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iv) | viongozi wa vyama vya wanawake | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (v) | Wafanyakazi wa ugani/wataalam wa vijijini | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vi) | waganga wa kienyeji | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vii) | marafiki/ndugu | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (viii) | vitabu/magazeti/majarida | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ix) | vipindi vya elimu vyaredio | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (x) | sinema, TV/Video | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xi) | kituo cha habari/maktaba ya kijiji | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xii) | shule/kituo cha elimu ya watu wazima | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xiii) | ofisi ya chama cha siasa | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xiv) | ofisi ya serikali za mitaa | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xv) | kituo cha afya/zahanati | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xvi) | sehemu nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje | | | |

11. Je kuna maktaba ya kijiji/ kituo cha habari hapa kijijini kwako?

- (i) ndiyo -----
- (ii) hapana -----

Kama hapana uliza swali namba kumi na sita (16)

12. Kama kipo, je unakwenda kituoni hapo mara ngapi kupata habari/ushauri? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- (i) mara kwa mara -----
- (ii) mara chache -----
- (iii) siendi kabisa -----

Kama hujapata kufika kituoni hapo nenda swali namba kumi na tano (15).

13. Je huwa unapata habari za aina gani kutoka kweye kituo cha habari/maktaba ya kijiji?

- (i) kielimu (tafadhali bainisha)
- (ii) kisiasa
- (iii) kilimo
- (iv) afya na lische
- (v) biashara na masoko
- (vi) hifadhi ya mazingira
- (vii) maswala ya kijinsia/wanawake na maendeleo
- (viii) dini
- (ix) burudani
- (x) taarifa nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje

14. Je habari zinazopatikana kituoni zinahusiana kwa kiwango gani na mahitaji/matatizo yako?
Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- (i) zinahusiana sana -----
- (ii) zinahusiana -----
- (iii) hazihusiani -----

15. Kama hufiki kwenye kituo cha habari/maktaba ya kijiji, eleza kwanini?

- (i) kukosa muda -----
- (ii) kutokuelewa -----
- (iii) tatizo la umbali -----
- (iv) matatizo mengine, tafadhali yataje

16. Je, kwa wakati huu una redio inayofanya kazi nyumbani kwako?

- (i) ndiyo -----
- (ii) hapana -----

Kama jibu ni hapana uliza swali namba 18 (kumi na nane)

17. Je, huwa unaisikiliza hiyo redio?

- (i) ndiyo -----
- (ii) hapana -----

Kama jibu ni hapana uliza swali namba 23 (ishirini na tatu)

18. Kama huna redio nyumbani kwako kwa kawaida wewe husikiliza wapi redio?

- (i) sisikilizi redio -----
- (ii) nyumbani kwa jirani -----
- (iii) uwanja wa kijiji -----
- (iv) dukani -----
- (v) kilabu cha pombe -----
- (vi) mabaraza ya wanawake kusikiliza redio -----
- (vii) madarasa ya kisomo cha watu wazima -----
- (viii) maktaba ya kijiji/kituo cha habari -----
- (ix) sehemu nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje

Kama jibu ni namba (i) hapo juu nenda swali namba ishirini na tatu (23).

19. Kama ndiyo, Je, kwa wastani wewe husikiliza redio mara ngapi kwa juma?

- (i) kila siku -----
- (ii) mara nne hadi sita kwa juma -----
- (iii) mara mbili hadi nne kwa juma -----
- (iv) mara moja kwa juma -----

20. Wakati gani husikiliza redio?

- (i) asubuhi -----
- (ii) mchana -----
- (iii) jioni/usiku -----

21. Kwa kawaida wewe husikiliza vipindi gani? Vipindi hivyo huvifungua mara ngapi? Tafadhali onyesha kiwango cha usikilizaji kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo
(1) mara kwa mara (2) mara chache (3) sisikilizi kamwe

(i)	vipindi vya siasa	1	2	3
(ii)	afya na lishe	1	2	3
(iii)	kisomo cha watu wazima	1	2	3
(iv)	ukulima wa kisasa	1	2	3
(v)	wanawake na maendeleo	1	2	3
(vi)	dini	1	2	3
(vii)	taarifa za habari/matukio	1	2	3
(viii)	burudani	1	2	3
(ix)	vinginevyo, tafadhali vitaje			

22. Je habari au taarifa unazozipata kutoka kwenye redio zinahusiana kwa na mahitaji / matatizo yako? Tafadhali weka alama ya tiki mahali panapostahili.

(i)	zinahusiana sana	----
(ii)	zinahusiana	----
(iii)	hazihusiani	----

23. Kwanini husikilizi redio, toa sababu?

(i)	kukosa muda	----
(ii)	kutokuelewa	----
(iii)	kukosekanma redio	----
(iv)	uwezo wa kifedha (kununua redio)	----
(v)	sababu nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje	

24. Je, huwa unasoma machapisho mbalimbali?(vitabu magazeti majarida)

(i)	ndiyo	----
(ii)	hapana	----

Kama jibu ni hapana uliza swali namba thelathini (30)

25. Je huwa unasoma yapi kati ya haya machapisho yafuatayo? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

(i)	vitabu	----
(ii)	magazeti	----
(iii)	majarida	----

26. Kama umesema ndiyo kwa chapisho lolote hapo juu mara ngapi huwa unasoma kila chapisho ulilolitaja. Tafadhali tumia alama ifuatayo kuonyesha kiwango cha usomaji.

(1) mara kwa mara (2) mara chache (3) situmii kamwe

(i)	vitabu	1	2	3
(ii)	magazeti	1	2	3
(iii)	majarida	1	2	3

27. Unayapataje hayo machapisho unayoyasoma? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili

(i)	huyanunua	-----
(ii)	huazima kutoka kwa ndugu jamaa na marafiki	-----
(iii)	huyapata kutoka kwa wataalamu wa vijijini	-----
(iv)	huazima kutoka kituo cha habari/maktaba ya kijiji	-----
(v)	huazima kutoka madarasa ya elimu ya watu wazima	-----
(vi)	njia nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje

28. Je, ni mambo gani unayoyapata kutoka katika machapisho hayo?

(i)	kielimu (tafadhali bainisha)
(ii)	kisiasa
(iii)	kilimo
(iv)	afya na lisho
(v)	biashara na masoko
(vi)	hifadhi ya mazingira
(vii)	maswala ya kijinsia/wanawake na maendeleo
(viii)	dini
(ix)	burudani
(x)	habari nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje

29. Je, habari au ushauri unaopatatapatazo kupitia kwenye machapisho mbalimbali zinahusiana na matatizo/mahitaji yako? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

(i)	zinahusiana sana	-----
(ii)	zinahusiana	-----
(iii)	hazihusiani	-----

30. Je, unakadiriya upatikanaji wa machapisho yafuatayo? Tafadhali onyesha sehemu inayostahili kwa kutumia alama ifuatayo

(1) hupatikana kwa urahisi (2) hupatikana kiasi (3) havipatikani

(i)	vitabu	1	2	3
(ii)	magazeti	1	2	3
(iii)	majarida	1	2	3

31. Kama husomi vitabu, magazeti au majarida tafadhali, eleza kwanini?

- (i) sijui kusoma -----
- (ii) kukosa muda -----
- (iii) machapisho hayapatikani -----
- (iv) tatizo la uwezo wa kuyanunua -----
- (v) sababu nyinginezo, tafadhali eleza

32. Je, umepata kuona mabango yoyote yamewekwa kwenye sehemu za umma? (kituo cha afya, sokoni, kilabuni, kanisani/misikitini, shuleni na kadhalika)

- (i) ndiyo -----
- (ii) hapana -----

Kama hapana uliza swali namba 35 (thelathini na tano)

33. Kama ndiyo, je, mabango yalikuwa na ujumbe wa aina gani?

- (i) kielimu (tafadhali bainisha)
- (ii) kisiasa
- (iii) kilimo
- (iv) afya na lishe
- (v) biashara na masoko
- (vi) hifadhi ya mazingira
- (vii) maswala ya kijinsia/ wanawake na maendeleo
- (viii) dini
- (ix) burudani
- (x) habari/taarifa nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje

34. Je habari ujumbe iliyotolewa kwenye mabango hayo ilihusiana na mahitaji/matatizo yako? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- (i) zilihusiana sana -----
- (ii) zilihusiana -----
- (iii) hazihuziani -----

35. Je, hapa kijijini huwa unapata habari/ taarifa kupitia vyombo vifuatavyo?

- | | NDIYO | HAPANA |
|------------------------|-------|--------|
| (i) sinema | ----- | ----- |
| (ii) televisheni/video | ----- | ----- |
| (iii) kanda za radio | ----- | ----- |

Kama jibu ni hapana kwa yote hapo juu uliza swali namba 40 (arobaini)

36. Kama umesema ndiyo kwa lolote lile hapo juu, ni yapi kati ya hayo huyatumia mara kwa mara? Tafadhali weka alama katika sehemu inayostahili kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo
 (1) mara kwa mara (2) mara chache (3) sivitumi kamwe

(i)	sinema	1	2	3
(ii)	televisheni/video	1	2	3
(iii)	kanda za redio	1	2	3

37. Je, ni wapi unatazama au kusikiliza vyombo hivyo hapo juu? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili

(i)	nyumbani kwangu	----
(ii)	nyumbani kwa jirani	----
(iii)	uwanja wa kijiji/ukumbi wa maendeleo	----
(iv)	kilabu ya pombe	----
(v)	dukani	----
(vi)	mabaraza ya wanawake yakusikiliza redio	----
(vii)	shule/madarasa ya elimu ya watu wazima	----
(viii)	kituo cha habari/ makataba ya kijiji	----
(ix)	mahali pengine, tafadhali taja

38. Unapata habari gani kupitia sinema, TV/video au kanda za redio?

(i)	kielimu (tafadhali bainisha)
(ii)	kisiasa
(iii)	kilimo
(iv)	afya na lishe
(v)	biashara na masoko
(vi)	hifadhi ya mazingira
(vii)	maswala ya kijinsia/ wanawake na maendeleo
(viii)	dini
(ix)	burudani
(x)	habari nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje

39. Kama ndiyo, Je, habari unazozipata kupitia vyombo hivyo zinahusiana na mahitaji/matatizo yako?

(i)	zinahusiana sana	----
(ii)	zinahusiana	----
(iii)	hazihusiani	----

40. Unakadiriaje upatikanaji wa vyanzo vya habari vifuatavyo? Tafadhali tumia alama zifuatazo kuonyesha kiwango cha upatikanaji
(1) hupatikana kwa urahisi (2) hupatikana kiasi (3) havipatikani kabisa

(i)	sinema	1	2	3
(ii)	TV/video	1	2	3
(iii)	kanda za redio	1	2	3

41. Je umewahi kushiriki katika shughuli za maendeleo ya jamii au mipango ya uenezi wa habari kupitia njia za jadi zifuatazo za kueneza habari?

	NDIYO	HAPANA
(i)	ngoma/nyimbo	-----
(ii)	sanaa za maonyesho	-----
(iii)	ngonjera/mashairi	-----

Kama jibu ni hapana kwa yote hapo juu uliza swali namba arobaini na tano (45)

42. Kama ndiyo ni mara ngapi vyombo hivyo vya jadi vimetumika kijiji kwako? Tumia alama zifuatazo kuonyesha kiwango cha matumizi
(1) mara kwa mara (2) mara chache (3) havijatumika kamwe

(i)	ngoma/nyimbo	1	2	3
(ii)	sanaa za maonyesho	1	2	3
(iii)	ngonjera/mashairi	1	2	3

43. Ulipashwa habari gani kupitia vyombo hivyo vya jadi?

- (i) kielimu(tafadhali bainisha)
- (ii) kisiasa
- (iii) kilimo
- (iv) afya na lische
- (v) biashara na masoko
- (vi) hifadhi ya mazingira
- (vii) maswala ya kijinsia /wanawake na maendeleo
- (viii) dini
- (ix) burudani
- (x) habari nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje

44. Je habari hizo ulizozipata kupitia njia hizi za kijadi zilihusiana na mahitaji/matatizo yako?

(i)	zinahusiana sana	-----
(ii)	zinahusiana	-----
(iii)	hazihusiani	-----

45. Kati ya hawa wapashaji habari weafuatao ni wepi unakutana nao mara kwa mara? Tafadhali tumia alama zifuatazo kuonyesha kiwango cha kukutana nao kwa kila mmoja wao

(1) mara kwa mara (2) mara chache (3) sikutani nao kamwe

(i)	viongozi wa kisiasa	1	2	3
(ii)	viongozi wa kijiji	1	2	3
(iii)	maafisa wa maendeleo ya jamii	1	2	3
(iv)	maafisa wa afya vijijini	1	2	3
(v)	maafisa wa kilimo na ufugaji	1	2	3
(vi)	maafisa wa ushirika	1	2	3
(vii)	waalimu	1	2	3
(viii)	wakutubi wa kijiji/ maafisa habari	1	2	3
(ix)	Maafisa misitu	1	2	3
(x)	wengineo, tafadhali wataje			

Kama hakutani na yeyote kati ya hao hapo juu uliza swali namba 50 (hamsini).

46. Je ni habari za aina gani ulizozipata kutoka kwawafanyakazi hawa wa habari au wataalamu wa vijijini hawa mbalimbali wa vijijini.

(i)	kielimu(tafadhali bainisha)
(ii)	kisiasa
(iii)	kilimo
(iv)	afya na lishe
(v)	biashara na masoko
(vi)	hifadhi ya mazingira
(vii)	maswala ya kijinsia/maendeleo ya wanawake
(viii)	dini
(ix)	burudani
(x)	taarifa nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje

47. Je habari zinazosambazwa na hawa wataalam wa habari vijijini zinahusiana kwa kiwango gani na mahitaji/matatizo yako? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

(i)	zinahusiana sana	----
(ii)	zinahusiana	----
(iii)	hazihusiani	----

48. Je, ni njia gani za upashaji habari zinatumiwa na watajwa hapo juu kuwasilisha habari katika jumuiya ? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- | | | |
|--------|---|-------|
| (i) | maonyesho kwa vitendo | ----- |
| (ii) | majadiliano katika vikundi | ----- |
| (iii) | mikutano ya kijiji | ----- |
| (iv) | sinema | ----- |
| (v) | TV/Video | ----- |
| (vi) | kanda za redio | ----- |
| (vii) | mabaraza ya kusikiliza redio | ----- |
| (viii) | vitabu magazeti majarida | ----- |
| (ix) | machapisho ya maarifa ya maendeleo | ----- |
| (x) | mabango | ----- |
| (xi) | ngoma/nyimbo/sanaa za maonyesho | ----- |
| (xii) | njia nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje | |

49. Je unadahani njia zinazotumika kupasha habari zinakuwezesha kushiriki kikamilifu katika utaratibu wa upashaji habari na kukuwaezesha kuelewa ujumbe? Tafadhali tumia alama zifuatazo kuonyesha ubora wa njia zilizotumika (1) zinafaa sana (2) zinafaa (3) hazifai

- | | | | | |
|--------|------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| (i) | maonyesho kwa vitendo | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ii) | majadiliano katika vikundi | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iii) | mikutano ya kijiji | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iv) | sinema | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (v) | TV/video | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vi) | kanda za redio | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vii) | mabaraza ya kusikiliza redio | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (viii) | vitabu/magazeti/majarida | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ix) | machapisho ya maarifa ya maendeleo | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (x) | mabango | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xi) | ngoma/nyimbo/michezo ya kuigiza | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xii) | njia nyinginezo, zitaje | | | |

50. Je umepata kuchaguliwa kuhudhuria mafunzo y akupata ujuzi a maarifa katika fani mbalimbali vijijini?

- | | | |
|------|--------|-------|
| (i) | ndiyo | ----- |
| (ii) | hapana | ----- |

Kama jibu ni hapana uliza swali namba 52 (hamsini na mbili).

51. Kama ndiyo ulipata mafunzo gani? Tafadhali weka alama kwenye sehemu inayostahili.

- | | | |
|--------|---|------|
| (i) | teknolojia rahisi | ---- |
| (ii) | ukunga wa jadi | ---- |
| (iii) | mbinu wa kilimo bora | ---- |
| (iv) | ufugaji wa kuku/mifugo | ---- |
| (v) | stadi za biashara na masoko | ---- |
| (vi) | maendeleo ya jamii | ---- |
| (vii) | maswala ya kijinsia/wanawake na maendeleo | ---- |
| (viii) | mafunzo mengineyo, tafadhali yataje | |

52. Je umepata kusikia kuhusu mfuko wa mikopo ya wanawake vijijini?

- | | | |
|------|--------|------|
| (i) | ndiyo | ---- |
| (ii) | hapana | ---- |

Kama jibu ni hapana nenda kwenye swali namba hamsini na tano (55) .

53. Kama ndiyo umepataje habari/taarifa kuhusu mfuko huo hizo? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- | | | |
|-------|---|------|
| (i) | redio | ---- |
| (ii) | magazeti/majarida | ---- |
| (iii) | marafiki/ndugu | ---- |
| (iv) | vikundi vya wanawake | ---- |
| (v) | mkutano wa kijiji | ---- |
| (vi) | njia nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje | |

54. Je habari au maelezo uliyoyapata kuhusu mikopo ya wanawake vijijini zilikuwa zinakutosha kiasi cha kukuwezesha kupata mikopo kama ungependa?

- | | | |
|-------|-----------------|------|
| (i) | zilitosha sana | ---- |
| (ii) | zilitosha kiasi | ---- |
| (iii) | hazikutosha | ---- |

55. Je kuna huduma/mipango maalumu yakina mama nayoendeshwa hapa kijijini kwako?

- | | | |
|-------|----------|------|
| (i) | ndiyo | ---- |
| (ii) | hapana | ---- |
| (iii) | sifahamu | ---- |

Kama jibu ni hapana au sifahamu nenda kwenye swali namba hamsini na saba (57).

56. Kama ndiyo ni huduma au mipango gani huendeshwa hapa kijijini kwako? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

		NDIYO	HAPANA
(i)	vikundo vya wanawake vya kiuchumi	----	----
(ii)	miradi ya viwanda vidogo kwa wanawake vijiji	----	----
(iii)	mabaraza ya wanawake ya kusikiliza redio	----	----
(iv)	mpango wa afya ya mama na mtoto	----	----
(v)	vyama vya wanawake vya kuweka na kukopa	----	----
(vi)	mipango mingine, tafadhali itaje		

57. Je unazifahamu jumua au vyama vya kitaalamu vya wanawake vifuatavyo?

		NDIYO	HAPANA
(i)	UWT (Umoja wa Wanawake Tanzania)	----	----
(ii)	BAWATA (Baraza la Wanawake Tanzania)	----	----
(iii)	TAMWA (Chama cha Waandishi wa Habari Wanawake Tanzania)	----	----
(iv)	TAWLA (Chama cha Wanasheria Wanawake Tanzania)	----	----
(v)	TGNP (Mtandao wa Jinsia Tanzania)	----	----

58. Kwa ujumla habari na ushauri unaokufikia kupitia vyanzo mbalimbali za upashaji habari zinatoshwa kutatua matatizo yako yanayokukabili kila siku?

(i)	zinatosha sana	----
(ii)	zinatosha	----
(iii)	hazitoshi	----

59. Je ungependa upate habari za aina gani ili ziweze kukusaidia kutatua matatizo yanayokukabili katika maisha ya kila siku na kuleta mabadiliko katika maisha yako? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

(i)	njia bora za kilimo	----
(ii)	upatikanaji/njia bora za kuhifadhi chakula	----
(iii)	biashara na masoko	----
(iv)	ufugaji	----
(v)	ujuzi wa kazi za mikono	----
(vi)	maswala ya mahusiano ya kijinsia	----
(vii)	mafunzo ya afya	----
(viii)	upatikanaji wa mikopo	----
(ix)	nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje	

60. Je, unafikiri ni matatizo gani yanayokukabili katika juhudi zako za kupata habari za kutatua matatizo kutoka kwa wapasha habari na vyombo vya upashaji habari? Tafadhali onyesha ukubwa wa matatizo hayo kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo (1) makubwa sana (2) makubwa kiasi (3) si makubwa

(i)	kukosa muda	1	2	3
(ii)	kutokuelewa	1	2	3
(iii)	kukosekana kwa vyanzo vya habari vya kutosha	1	2	3
(iv)	ukosefu wa pesa	1	2	3
(v)	kukosa motisha	1	2	3
(vi)	migogoro ya kifamilia	1	2	3
(vii)	ubaguzi wa kijinsia	1	2	3
(viii)	umri mkubwa	1	2	3
(ix)	matatizo ya afya	1	2	3
(x)	matatizo mengine, tafadhali yataje			

61. Umri

(i)	miaka 16-25	----
(ii)	miaka 26-35	----
(iii)	miaka 36-45	----
(iv)	miaka 46-55	----
(v)	miaka 56-65	----
(vi)	zaidi ya miaka 66	----

62. Hali ya ndoa

(i)	hakuolewa	----
(ii)	ameolewa	----
(iii)	ameachika	----
(iv)	mjane	----
(v)	ametengana	----

63. Kazi

(i)	mkulima	----
(ii)	mfanyabiashara	----
(iii)	kazi za mikono/ufundi	----
(iv)	mtumishi wa umma/serikali	----
(v)	mtaalam	----
(vi)	mwanafunzi	----
(vii)	kazi nyingine, tafadhali taja	

64. Kiwango cha elimu

- | | | |
|-------|--------------------------------------|-------|
| (i) | hakusoma | ----- |
| (ii) | elimu ya watu wazima | ----- |
| (iii) | elimu ya msingi | ----- |
| (iv) | elimu ya sekondari | ----- |
| (v) | elimu ya ufundi | ----- |
| (vi) | elimu ya juu | ----- |
| (vii) | kisomo kingine, tafadhali taja | |
| | | |

65. Kiwango cha mapato binafsi

Nini wastani wa mapato yako kwa mwaka? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- | | | | |
|-------|-------------------|------------------|-------|
| (i) | shilingi | 0 - 50,000 | ----- |
| (ii) | shilingi | 50,001 -100,000 | ----- |
| (iii) | shilingi | 100,001- 200,000 | ----- |
| (iv) | shilingi. | 200,001- 400,000 | ----- |
| (v) | Zaidi ya shilingi | 400,001 | ----- |

66. Je, wewe ni mwanachama wa chama/vyama vifuatavyo? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- | | NDIYO | HAPANA | |
|-------|---------------------------------------|--------|-------|
| (i) | chama cha siasa | ----- | ----- |
| (ii) | chama cha wanawake | ----- | ----- |
| (iii) | chama cha vijana | ----- | ----- |
| (iv) | chama cha ushirika | ----- | ----- |
| (v) | chama cha dini | ----- | ----- |
| (vi) | vyama vingine, tafadhali vitaje | | |
| | | | |

Appendix 2A

ACCESS TO GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION BY RURAL WOMEN IN THE TANGA REGION OF TANZANIA

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR INFORMATION PROVIDERS

DISTRICT:

DIVISION:

WARD:

DATE:

1. What extension/information services are you involved in?

- (i) health -----
- (ii) agriculture -----
- (iii) community development -----
- (iv) environment/forestry -----
- (iv) adult education -----
- (vi) rural library and information services -----
- (vi) other, please specify
-

2. On which specific areas do you impart information, knowledge and skills?

- (i) AIDS education -----
- (ii) family planning -----
- (iii) mother and child health -----
- (iv) environmental sanitation and disease prevention -----
- (v) better farming techniques -----
- (vi) forestry and environment conservation -----
- (vii) use of simple and appropriate technology -----
- (viii) rural cooperative skill -----
- (ix) functional literacy -----
- (x) home economics -----
- (xi) gender/ women and development -----
- (xii) trade and marketing -----
- (xiii) income generating projects -----
- (xiv) access to credit and loans -----
- (xv) other, please specify

3. Has your department made any attempts to reach rural women with specific information/extension services in the villages?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

4. If yes, please mention the services?

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5. If no why, please explain?

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6. In your experience, what problems do rural women face in their daily lives in the area where you work? Please rate the seriousness of the problems by using the following codes (1) very serious (2) serious (3) not serious

(i)	farming	1	2	3
(ii)	health	1	2	3
(iii)	water	1	2	3
(iv)	housing	1	2	3
(v)	firewood	1	2	3
(vi)	marketing	1	2	3
(vii)	land	1	2	3
(viii)	food	1	2	3
(ix)	access to credit/loans	1	2	3
(x)	literacy	1	2	3
(xi)	other, please specify			
			
			
			

7. Do you think rural women suffer from the following problems. Please stick the appropriate section using the following codes:
 (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) uncertain (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree.

(i)	poverty	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	unequal opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	lack of skills/knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	work overburden	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	lack of decision making power	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	sexual harassment	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	domestic violence	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	abandonment	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	other, please specify					
					
					

8. If you agree or strongly agree to any of the above have any of the above have these problems/issues addressed in your information/extension services operation?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

9. If yes, what issues were discussed and how did you integrate these problems/issues in your plans to disseminate information and impart skills and knowledge to rural women?

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10. If no, why? please explain.

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11. What communication channels do you use in disseminating information to rural communities? Please indicate the appropriate section.

- (i) demonstration -----
- (ii) group discussion -----
- (iii) village meeting -----
- (iv) films -----
- (v) TV/Video -----
- (vi) audio cassettes -----
- (vii) radio fora -----
- (viii) books, newspapers, magazines -----
- (ix) pamphlets/leaflets -----
- (x) posters -----
- (xi) dance/song, theatre, poetry -----
- (xii) other, please specify
-
-

12. Of the following information providers which ones do you think are the most effective in disseminating information to rural women? Please tick the appropriate section using the following codes:
 (1) very effective (2) effective (3) not effective

- (i) demonstration 1 2 3
- (ii) group discussions 1 2 3
- (iii) public meeting 1 2 3
- (iv) films 1 2 3
- (v) TV/Video 1 2 3
- (vi) audio cassettes 1 2 3
- (vii) radio fora 1 2 3
- (viii) books/newspapers/magazines 1 2 3
- (ix) leaflets/pamphlets 1 2 3
- (x) posters 1 2 3
- (xi) dance/song, theatre, poetry 1 2 3
- (xii) other, please specify
-
-

13. Which of the following communication media /source of information do you think are accessible in the area where you work? Please tick the appropriate section using the following codes:
 (1) very accessible (2) accessible (3) not accessible

(i)	books	1	2	3
(ii)	newspapers	1	2	3
(iii)	magazines	1	2	3
(iv)	posters	1	2	3
(v)	films	1	2	3
(vi)	TV/Video	1	2	3
(vii)	audio- cassettes	1	2	3
(viii)	radio	1	2	3
(ix)	rural resource centre/rural library	1	2	3

14. In your information/extension work how do you make sure that rural communities and especially women participate in the process of information communication?
 Please explain.

.....

15. Do you think the information/extension services are related to the specific problems needs of rural women in the area where you work? Please tick the appropriate section.

- (i) very related -----
- (ii) related -----
- (iii) not related -----

16. If, they are very related or related, please explain.

.....

17. If, they are not related, please explain.

.....

18. Do you think the current/information extension services operating in the area are adequate to solve problems encountered by rural women? Please indicate the appropriate section.

- (i) very sufficient -----
- (ii) sufficient -----
- (iii) not sufficient -----

19. If the services are very sufficient or sufficient, please explain.

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.....
.....

20. If not sufficient, please explain.

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.....

21. Have you been able to evaluate effectiveness of your services to the community in general and rural women in particular?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

22. If yes in which ways have women benefited from your services? Please explain.

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

23. Do you encounter problems in your professional contact with rural women?

- (i) Yes -----
- (ii) No -----

24. If yes, please mention the problem.

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

25. What problems (obstacles) do you think rural women face in their attempts to access from information from various sources of information. Please rate the seriousness of the problem using the following codes:

(1) very serious (2) serious (3) not serious

(i)	lack of time	1	2	3
(ii)	lack of awareness	1	2	3
(iii)	non availability of information sources	1	2	3
(iv)	financial constraints	1	2	3
(v)	lack of motivation	1	2	3
(vi)	family conflict	1	2	3
(vii)	discrimination	1	2	3
(viii)	old age	1	2	3
(ix)	health problems	1	2	3
(x)	other, please specify			

26. To accelerate development in general and women development in particular in which areas do you think rural women should be informed/educated empower them for self development and to challenge gender inequalities?

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

27. Profession

(i)	librarian	----
(ii)	community development officer	----
(iii)	adult educator	----
(iv)	agriculture/livestock officer	----
(v)	health extension officer	----
(vi)	forestry officer	----
(vii)	other, please specify	

28. Educational/Professional Qualification

- (i) primary education -----
- (ii) secondary education -----
- (iii) college education -----
- (iv) university education -----
- (v) other, please specify
.....

29. Age

- (i) 16-25 -----
- (ii) 26-35 -----
- (iii) 36-45 -----
- (iv) 46-55 -----
- (v) over 55 years -----

30. Gender

- (i) male -----
- (ii) female -----

Appendix 2B

UPATAJI WA HUDUMA ZA KIJINSIA NA ZA KIMAENDELEO KWA WANAWAKE WA VIJIJINI KATIKA MKOA WA TANGA

HOJAJI YA WATAALAM MBALIMBALI VIJIJINI

WILAYA:

TARAFU:

KATA:

TAREHE:

1. Je unahusika na mpango gani wa uenezaji habari ujuzi na maarifa vijijini?

- | | | |
|-------|---|-------|
| (i) | elimu ya afya | ---- |
| (ii) | elimu ya kilimo na ufugaji bora | ---- |
| (iii) | maendeleo ya jamii | ---- |
| (iv) | elimu ya hifadhi ya mazingira | ---- |
| (v) | elimu ya watu wazima | ---- |
| (vi) | huduma za makataba/habari kwa jumua za vijijini | ---- |
| (vii) | mipango mingine, tafadhali itaje | |

2. Unatoa habari, ujuzi na maarifa katika maeneo gani maalumu?

- | | | |
|--------|--|-------|
| (i) | elimu ya ukimwi | ---- |
| (ii) | elimu ya uzazi wa mpango | ---- |
| (iii) | elimu ya afya ya mama na mtoto | ---- |
| (iv) | kinga dhidi ya magonjwa na usafi wa mazingira | ---- |
| (v) | Ukulima wa kisasa | ---- |
| (vi) | hifadhi ya mazingira na upandaji wa miti | ---- |
| (vii) | utumiaji wa teknolojia rahisi na inayofaa vijijini | ---- |
| (viii) | maarifa ya ushirika vijijini | ---- |
| (ix) | elimu ya watu wazima | ---- |
| (x) | maarifa ya nyumbani | ---- |
| (xi) | wanawake na maendeleo | ---- |
| (xii) | biashara na masoko | ---- |
| (xiii) | miradi ya kuongeza kipato | ---- |
| (xiv) | upatikanaji wa mikopo | ---- |
| (xv) | ushauri mwingine, tafadhali taja | |

3. Je idara yako ina mipango maalum ya kusambaza huduma maalum za habari ujuzi na maarifa kwa wanawake vijijini?

- (i) ndiyo -----
- (ii) hapana -----

4. Kama ndiyo, tafadhali taja huduma hizo:

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

5. Kama hapana, toa sababu kwanini?

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

6. Kwa uzoefu wako unafikiri ni matatizo gani yanayowakabili wanawake wa vijijini katika shughuli zao za kila siku katika sehemu yako unayotoa huma? Tafadhali onyesha ukubwa wa matatizo hayo kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo:

(1) makubwa sana (2) makubwa kiasi (3) si makubwa

(i)	kilimo	1	2	3
(ii)	afya na matibabu	1	2	3
(iii)	upatikanaji wa maji safi	1	2	3
(iv)	nyumba bora	1	2	3
(v)	kuni za kupikia	1	2	3
(vi)	uuzaji wa mazao	1	2	3
(vii)	ardhi	1	2	3
(viii)	upatikanaji na uhifadhi wa chakula	1	2	3
(ix)	upatikanaji wa mikopo	1	2	3
(x)	kukosa elimu/kisomo	1	2	3
(xi)	mengineyo, tafadhali yataje			
			

7. Je unafikiri wanawake vijijini wanakabiliwa na matatizo yafuatayo? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu ifaayo kwa kutumia vigezo vifuatavyo
 (1) nakubali sana (2) nakubali (3) sina hakika (4) sikubali (5) sikubali kabisa

(i)	umaskini	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	nafasi zisizo sawa	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	ukosefu wa ujuzi na maarifa	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	kuzidiwa na kazi nyingi	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	kutokuwa na uwezo wa kufanya uamuzi	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	unyanyasaji wa kijinsia	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	vurugu majumbani	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	utelekezaji	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	matatizo mengine, tafadhali yataje					

8. Kama unakubaliana na lolote hapo juu, je masuala hayo yamejadiliwa na kuingizwa katika mipango ya utoaji huduma za ushauri na maarifa kwa wanawake vijijini?

- (i) ndiyo -----
- (ii) hapana -----

9. Kama ndiyo mljadili maswala gani na mlihusishaje matatizo haya katika mipango ya kutoa huduma za habari, ujuzi na maarifa kwa wanawake vijijini?

.....

10. Kama hapana, tafadhali eleza kwanini?

.....

11. Unatumia njia gani za upashaji habari katika utoaji huduma kwa wanajumuia wa vijijini? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- | | | |
|--------|---|-------|
| (i) | maonyesho kwa vitendo | ---- |
| (ii) | majadiliano katika vikundi | ---- |
| (iii) | mikutano ya kijiji | ---- |
| (iv) | sinema | ---- |
| (v) | TV/video | ---- |
| (vi) | kanda za redio | ---- |
| (vii) | mabaraza ya kusikiliza redio | ---- |
| (viii) | vitabu, magazeti, majarida | ---- |
| (ix) | machapisho ya maarifa ya maendeleo | ---- |
| (x) | mabango | ---- |
| (xi) | Ngoma/nyimbo, sanaa za maonyesho/ngonjera | ---- |
| (xii) | njia nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje | |

12. Katika njia zifuatazo za upashaji habari ni zipi unafikiri ni madhubuti katika kutoa ushauri na kupasha habari wanawake vijijini? Tafadhali weka alama kwenye sehemu imayostahili kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo
(1) zinafaa sana (2) zinafaa kiasi (3) hazifai

- | | | | | |
|--------|---|-------|-------|-------|
| (i) | maonyesho kwa vitendo | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ii) | majadiliano katika vikundi | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iii) | mikutano ya vijiji | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iv) | sinema | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (v) | TV/Video | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vi) | kanda za redio | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vii) | mabaraza ya kusikiliza redio | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (viii) | vitabu/ magazeti/ majarida | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ix) | machapisho ya maarifa ya maendeleo | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (x) | mabango | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xi) | ngoma/ nyimbo/ sanaa za maonyesho, ngonjera | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (xii) | njia nyinginezo, tafadhali zitaje | | | |

13. Kati ya vyanzo vya habari vifuatavyo ni vipi unafikiri vinapatikana katika sehemu yako ya utoaji huduma? Tafadhali weka alama sehemu inayostahili kwa kutumia alama zifuatazo
(1) hupatikana kwa urahisi (2) hupatikana (3) havipatikani

- | | | | | |
|--------|------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| (i) | vitabu | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ii) | magazeti | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iii) | majarida | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (iv) | mabango | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (v) | sinema | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vi) | TV/video | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (vii) | kanda za redio | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (viii) | redio | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| (ix) | kituo cha habari/maktaba ya kijiji | 1 | 2 | 3 |

14. Katika utoaji wa huduma za habari, ujuzi maarifa mnawashirikisahaje walengwa na hasa wanawake wa vijijini? Tafadhali eleza;

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15. Unafikiri mipango ya usambazaji habari, maarifa na ujuzi vijijini inahusiana kwa kiwango gani na matatizo/mahitaji ya wanawake vijijini kwa kiwango gani? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili

- (i) inahusiana sana -----
- (ii) inahusiana kiasi -----
- (ii) haihusiani -----

16. Kama inahusiana sana au kiasi, tafadhali eleza kwa vipi?

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

17. Kama haihusiani, tafadhali eleza kwa vipi?

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

18. Je unafikiri huduma za usambazaji habari, ujuzi na maarifa vijijini zinatoshia kutatua matatizo yanayowakabili wanawake vijijini kwa kiwango gani? Weka alama sehemu inayostahili.

- (i) zinatoshia sana -----
- (ii) zinatoshia kiasi -----
- (iii) hazitoshi -----

19. Kama huduma zinatoshia sana au zinatoshia kiasi, tafadhali eleza zinatoshieleza kwa vipi?

.....
.....

20. Kama hazitoshi, tafadhali eleza?

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

21. Je umeweza kutathmini ukamilifu wa huduma kwa wanawake vijijini?

- (i) ndiyo -----
- (ii) hapana -----

22. Kama ndiyo, wanawake wamefaidika vipi na huduma za ushauri habari zitolewazo?
Tafadhali eleza.

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

23. Je unakabiliwa na matatizo yeyote katika usambazaji habari au ushauri wa kitaalam kwa wanawake vijijini?

- (i) ndiyo -----
- (ii) hapana -----

24. Kama ndiyo, ni matatizo gani, tafadhali yataje.

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.....
.....

25. Je unafikiri ni matatizo gani yanawakabili wanawake wa vijijini katika jitihada zao za kupata habari kutoka vyombo mbalimbali vya upashaji habari? Tafadhali onyesha ukubwa wa matatizo hayo kwa kutumia vigezo vifuatavyo
(1) makubwa sana (2) makubwa kiasi (3) si makubwa

(i)	kukosa muda	1	2	3
(ii)	kutokuelewa	1	2	3
(iii)	kukosekana kwa vyanzo vya habari vya kutosha	1	2	3
(iv)	ukosefu wa pesa	1	2	3
(v)	kukosa motisha	1	2	3
(vi)	migogoro ya kifamilia	1	2	3
(vii)	ubaguzi wa kijinsia	1	2	3
(viii)	umri mkubwa	1	2	3
(ix)	matatizo ya afya	1	2	3
(x)	matatizo mengine, tafadhali yataje			

26. Kuharakisha maendeleo kwa ujumla na hasa maendeleoya wanawake vijijini, unafikiri ni maeneo yapi ambayo wanawake wanahitaji kuelimishwa au kupashwa habari ilikuwawezesha au kupashwa habari ili kuwawezesha kuleta maendeleo na kupambana na tofauti za kijinsia katika jamii?

.....

27. Kazi ufanyayo

(i)	mkutubi	-----
(ii)	maendeleo ya jamii	-----
(iii)	elimu ya watu wazima	-----
(iv)	bwana shamba/ bibi shamba	-----
(v)	bwana afya/bibi afya	-----
(vi)	bwana misitu/bibi misitu	-----
(vii)	kazi nyingine, tafadhali zitaje	

28. Elimu

(i)	elimu ya msingi	-----
(ii)	elimu ya sekondari	-----
(iii)	elimu ufundi	-----
(iv)	elimu ya chuo	-----
(v)	elimu ya chuo kikuu	-----
(vi)	elimu nyingine, tafadhali taja	

29. Umri

- (i) miaka 16-25 -----
- (ii) miaka 26-35 -----
- (iii) miaka 36-45 -----
- (iv) miaka 46-55 -----
- (v) zaidi ya miaka 56 -----

30. Jinsia

- (i) mwanamke -----
- (ii) mwanamume -----

Appendix 3 TABLES

Table 1a: MEMBERSHIP TO RURAL WOMEN INCOME GENERATING GROUPS BY DISTRICT (N=773)

MEMBERSHIP	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
YES	29	12.72	28	12.50	45	14.01	102	13.20
NO	199	87.28	196	87.50	277	86.09	671	86.80
TOTAL	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

Table 1b: RURAL WOMEN'S KNOWLEDGE OF AVAILABILITY OF CREDIT BY DISTRICT

KNOWLEDGE	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
YES	166	72.81	179	79.91	229	71.34	574	74.26
NO	62	27.79	45	20.09	92	28.66	199	25.74
TOTAL	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

Table 1c: INCIDENCE OF READING AMONG RESPONDENTS (N=773)

INCIDENCE OF READING	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
YES	203	26.26
NO	570	73.74
TOTAL	773	100.00

Table 1d: TYPE OF PUBLICATION READ BY RESPONDENTS (N=773)

READ	BOOKS		NEWSPAPERS		OTHER PERIODICALS	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
YES	187	24.19	131	16.95	34	04.40
NO	586	75.81	642	83.05	739	95.60
TOTAL	773	100.00	773	100.00	773	100.00

Table 1e: THE USE OF FILMS, VIDEO AND AUDIO SOURCES OF INFORMATION (N=773)

USE	FILMS		VIDEO		AUDIO	
YES	97	12.55	190	24.58	46	05.96
NO	676	87.45	583	75.42	727	94.04
TOTAL	773	100.00	773	100.00	773	100.00

Table 1f: ACCESS TO POSTERS BY RESPONDENTS BY DISTRICT (N=773)

ACCESS	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
YES	150	65.79	153	68.30	211	65.73	514	66.49
NO	78	34.21	71	31.70	110	34.37	259	33.51
TOTAL	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

Table 1g: ACCESS TO TRADITIONAL MEDIA AS A SOURCE OF DEVELOPMENT INFORMATION (N=773)

ACCESS	SONG/DANCE		THEATRE		POETRY	
YES	158	20.44	77	09.96	55	07.12
NO	615	79.56	696	90.04	718	92.88
TOTAL	773	100.00	773	100.00	773	100.00

Table 1h: RESPONDENT'S PARTICIPATION IN TRAINING PROGRAMMES BY DISTRICT (N=773)

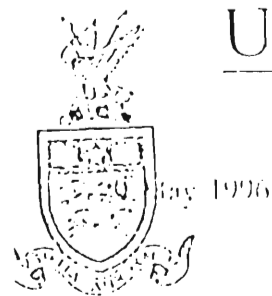
PARTICIPATION	MUHEZA N=228		KOROGWE N=224		LUSHOTO N=321		TOTAL N=773	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
YES	25	08.93	20	08.93	50	15.58	95	12.29
NO	203	91.07	204	91.07	271	84.42	678	87.71
TOTAL	228	100.00	224	100.00	321	100.00	773	100.00

Table 1i: FIELD OF TRAINING FOR RURAL WOMEN WHO HAVE PARTICIPATED IN THE TRAINING PROGRAMMES BY DISTRICT (N=95)

FIELD OF TRAINING	MUHEZA N=25		KOROGWE N=20		LUSHOTO N=50		TOTAL N=95	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
simple technology	01	04.00	00	00.00	01	02.00	02	02.10
traditional birth attendants	07	28.00	06	30.00	10	20.00	23	24.21
modern agriculture	03	12.00	01	05.00	18	36.00	22	23.15
business/marketing	00	00.00	04	20.00	00	00.00	04	04.21
community development	00	00.00	03	12.00	02	04.00	05	05.26
women development	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00	00	00.00
livestock/poultry keeping	02	08.00	00	00.00	03	06.00	05	05.26
environment/agroforestry	03	12.00	00	00.00	11	22.00	14	14.74
primary health care	06	24.00	02	10.00	04	08.00	12	12.63
nursery school teacher	02	08.00	02	10.00	01	02.00	05	05.26
village accounting	01	04.00	02	10.00	00	00.00	03	03.15

Appendix 4A

LETTER FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF NATAL



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E-Mail Holtz @ info.unp.ac.za

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Elizabeth Kumbo is a doctoral student at the University of Natal. She is on study leave from the University of Dar es Salaam Library. She is currently engaged with her research and any assistance to her would be greatly appreciated.

Christine Skwell

DR CHRISTINE SKWELL,
THESIS SUPERVISOR

Appendix 4B

LETTER FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM

UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM

OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR

P.O. BOX 35091 ☉ DAR ES SALAAM ☉ TANZANIA

Telephone: 43507/9 Ext. 2601, Direct 46211
Telex:
41561 UHICZP
41327 UHICIC
41354 UHICIG 17



E-Mail: vc@uds.mce.go.tz
Telefax: 4307843023
Telegrams:
UNIVERSITY DAR ES SALAAM

Ref: AB3/3 (B)

12th June, 1996

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you Mrs. E. Kiondo who is a bonafide academic member of staff of the University of Dar es Salaam. Mrs. Kiondo is at the moment conducting her doctoral research titled "Access to gender and development information by rural women in Tanga Region, Tanzania".

In accordance with a government circular letter Ref. No. MPEC/R/10/1 dated 4th July, 1980 the Vice Chancellor was empowered to issue research clearances to the staff and students of the University of Dar es Salaam on behalf of the Government and the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology.

I therefore request you to grant the above mentioned member of our University community any help that may facilitate her to achieve research objectives. What is required is your permission for her to see and talk to the leaders and members of your institutions in connection with her research.

The period for which this permission has been granted is from July, 1996 to January, 1997.

In case you may require further information please contact the Research and Publications Office, Tel. 43500 Ext. 2021.

Prof. M.H. Lubanga
VICE-CHANCELLOR

Appendix 4C

LETTER FROM THE TANGA REGIONAL OFFICE

REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

PRIME MINISTER'S OFFICE

TANGA REGION:

REGIONAL COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE,
P.O. BOX 5095,
TANGA.

REF. NO. RL/E.10/58/175.

Date: 21st August, 1996.

To: ~~Director of Education~~,
~~Ministry of Education & Sports~~.
.....
.....

RE: RESEARCH PERMIT

1. I wish to introduce to you Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Ms.....
..... from the University of
.....


2. The permit is hereby granted to Mrs. E. Kiondo.....
to do a research on: "Access to Gender and development
information by rural women in Tanga Region, Tanzania".
.....

3. The permit is valid from July, 1996.....
..... to June, 1997.....

4. You are kindly requested to extend to him/her any
necessary assistance he/she may require to make his/her
research successful.

5. Your cooperation will be appreciated.

Yours sincerely,


.....

for: REGIONAL COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE
TANGA REGION

RE/TK.

Copy to:- Mrs. E. Kiondo,
On Safari, TANGA.