

**Civics For
Secondary
Schools**

BOOK THREE

With Practice Questions

MUTTAMWEGA B. MGAYWA

Edited by
B. MASATU

CIVICS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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**TANZANIA SCHOOL EQUIPMENT CENTRE
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PREFACE

This book is based on the recent syllabus for Secondary School Civics, prepared by Tanzania Institute of Education in 1993.

It covers adequately all the topics in the Form Three section of the syllabus. In addition some important topics such as Environmental Pollution, Environmental Degradation, Depleting the Environmental, Human Migration and the Refugees has been discussed.

Each chapter contains practice questions which are intended to assess student understanding of the content. They also aim at enabling the teacher to identify student strengths and weakness accordingly. In turn, this should enable the teacher to consider which parts of the lesson should be revised for through grasp of the subject matter.

In answering questions at the end of each chapter, both teacher and student may raise other issues for discussion and debate. As civics is a dynamic social subject of study, this approach is considered suitable for the youth. Students must be fully involved intellectually as persons responsible to play an active, informed civilian role in life.

Finally, I take this opportunity to express my gratitude to teachers, curriculum experts, examination officers and civil servants who helped in the preparation of this book. Also I am grateful to Mr. B. Masatu for his excellent work as editor of this volume.

Mgaywa B.M.
1996.

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CHAPTER 1

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

What is development? It means the improvement of the quality of life of all the people in a given nation. It is reflected or shown by positive changes in those people's living standard. This is in turn based on factors such as better science and education, technology, social services and food.

Economic development has been man's concern for a very long time. Ancient Greeks discussed it; so do the modern nations including Tanzania.

Greek ideas on economic development fall into two main periods. The first is that of Plato and Aristotle (428-322 B.C.). The second is the period called the Middle Ages. This was the period between the 15th and 16th centuries. It was dominated by the idea of philosophers such as Saint Thomas Aquinas.

These were followed by the ideas on economic development expressed during the period from 17th to the 19th centuries. This period was dominated by philosophers and economists such as Adam Smith (1723-1790), Thomas Malthus (1766-1834), David Ricardo (1772-1823) and Karl Marx (1818-1883).

Finally came the 20th century ideas on economic development. They have been expressed by men such as Mao Tse Tung; W.W. Rostow, Kwame Nkrumah and Julius Nyerere. This chapter will review the ideas expressed by some of the philosophers and economists mentioned above.

Greek Philosophers

The ideas of the Greek philosophers addressed the prevailing economic problems. At that time the economy of Greece was based on slave labour. Despite the oppressed and exploitation in Greece, it was regarded as a democratic state. Why? Because the king, rulers, traders, tax collectors and the philosophers were satisfied. They benefitted from the existing social relations; so they supported and guarded it. Plato and Aristotle, for example,

supported slavery. All that they attempted to do was to discourage violence. They also tried to point out the good and bad things in Greek society. But they regarded slavery as a natural condition.

Plato (428-348 B.C.)

This philosopher accepted social inequality. He argued that people have a variety of gifts from God. So everybody must concentrate on what nature made him best at. He thought stratification in society was a good thing. There should be soldiers, producers (slaves), philosophers, rulers and so on.

Plato advocated specialization or division of labour. He argued that if everybody did what he was best at, there would be social harmony.

He rejected commercialism because it was always in search of profit. To him both wealth and poverty were evil. Wealth produced luxury and idleness. Poverty, on the other hand, led to poor standards of conduct.

He argued, further, that the upper class should not own private property. Instead, they should live together and share common meals. This would enable them to devote their lives to ruling the people better. He supported the exchange of goods because it resulted from specialization.

Aristotle (384-322 B.C.)

Unlike Plato, Aristotle defended private property. The following are the reasons which he gave to support his position:

- i) Private property is more productive (than common property) because it receives more care or attention.
- ii) It gives pleasure to the owner.
- iii) Common property is not conducive to peace. This is because it causes complaints among the partners.

Aristotle rejected commercialism as it sought monetary gain. But he supported the exchange of commodities, that is barter system.

He argued that money was not indispensable to man's satisfaction. It does not immediately satisfy the necessities of life. In fact those rich in coins may be in need of food.

Thinkers of the Middle Ages (C.15th-C.16th)

This was the period of the emergence of Christian faith in Europe.

Communities were concerned with salvation. The church was regarded as the mediator between man and God. Economic thought was mingled with church teachings.

One of the main thinkers of this period was *Saint Thomas Aquinas*. His concerns were private property, trade and usury.

Private property

He argued that it is in accordance with the laws of nature. However, he advocated that the government must regulate it; that owners of private property should share it with others. He felt that communal property should be reserved for people who wished to lead a life of (Christian) perfection.

Trade

He defined trade as an act of exchange aimed at making a profit. He thought profit was morally neutral-neither something to blame nor praise. It became legitimate if a trader used it for self-support, charity or public service.

Usury

He opposed usury. This meant lending money on interest. It was against the teachings of Christ. It is said in the New Testament (Luke 6:35), "Lend freely hoping nothing hereby." Therefore, usury was interpreted as a violation of natural law and a sin. In the same spirit, Saint Thomas Aquinas advocated that there must be a 'just price'. In short, he was interested in the moral aspects of economic behaviour.

Economic Development Ideas of 17th-19th Centuries

This period was dominated by the development of capitalism. The economic ideas of the time centred on explaining/rationalizing of the emerging system. Economists such as Adam Smith and David Ricardo were the major opinion leaders. Their concern was the national economy: how a nation gets its wealth (money and gold). They were not concerned with whether that wealth benefitted all the people.

Adam Smith (1723-1790)

He had a university education and later became professor of Logic and Moral Philosophy. He was more interested in real economic problems than in economic theory. In 1776 he published a book,

The wealth of Nations. This book was published just before the Industrial Revolution got fully under way. It was also a time when trade and industry (in Europe) was hampered by government restrictions. The book was widely read and had enormous influence. The following are some of the economic issues he addressed:

i) *Economic action and self-interest*

His central doctrine was that man should be free to follow his inclinations. This would lead to the best results for both the society and the individual. He pointed out that always man seeks to improve his well-being by producing wealth. Therefore each person must be allowed to use his own resources. He should also be allowed to labour to enrich himself. In the process he will enrich all of the society.

ii) *Labour*

Smith argued that labour is the source of wealth; and anything having exchange value is wealth. The ability of a nation to produce commodities is the source of its wealth and development. He also viewed *land* and *capital* as major sources of economic development.

iii) *Division of Labour*

This means specialization. In early times one person performed all the tasks for producing a given commodity. Starting with the raw material, he worked until he produced a finished article. He would also make many more different commodities. Adam Smith advocated division of labour due to its advantages. The following are some of them:

- People are free to choose the work they like. They, therefore, work more effectively and willingly. Thus, their output increases and the nation becomes more prosperous.
- The specialist uses the same tools and materials. He, therefore, has time to study them closely and improve them. This leads to better tools and better working methods.
- Specialization leads to the invention of machines. Technological inventions can be made by specialists.
- Repetition of the same activity increases skills.

Division of labour is not confined to people. It also exists at regional and international levels. Different regions and nations specialize in the production of certain commodities. This promotes interregional and international trade.

iv) *Taxation*

Adam Smith listed four principles of taxation policy for governments as follows:

- . Taxation should be proportional to the income of the taxpayer.
- . Taxes should be collected as a principle or rule; not at the whims of the tax collector.
- . Taxes should be arranged in such a way that collection is convenient.
- . Taxes should be economic. That is, the yield should be greater than the cost of collection.

v) *Wages*

Adam Smith saw wages as a value or price of labour. Wages were paid after somebody had produced something. So they were an exchange for service or labour.

vi) *Usury*

He argued that in a commercial society everybody must be free to utilize his skills. The government must not interfere. Even usury, that is lending money at a rather too high interest, should be allowed. In his opinion, the interest should be set by the forces of the market depending on the supply and demand of a commodity.

vii) *Commodity*

A commodity is anything produced for the market. Adam Smith argued that the value of a commodity should be determined by the labour going into its production. But it should also be determined by the sum total of the wages, profit and rent.

In short, he advocated free capitalism. That is, each individual should do anything to earn a living within the limits of the law. There should not be government interference. The government should just maintain law and order.

David Ricardo (1772-1823)

He was an economist. In 1809 he published his pamphlet "The High Price of Bullion: A Proof of the Depreciation of Banknotes." In 1817 he published his *Principles of Political Economy and Taxation*. In his works he made the following points:

- i) Political economy is an inquiry into the distribution of the products of industry, but that it is not an inquiry into the nature and cause of wealth.
- ii) The value of gold depends on the cost of its production.
- iii) The value of a commodity depends upon the quality of labour required for its production.
- iv) Rent arises out of the differences in the fertility of land. The poorest land yields no rent. Ricardo restricted rent to land. He thus implied that there would not be rent if all land were fertile. He did not realise the possibility of alternative uses of a piece of land. For example, a piece of fertile land would cease being cultivated if the price of its products dropped drastically. It would also cease being cultivated if there was an alternative and more profitable use for it. His theory of rent was mistakenly based on the natural variation in the productivity of land only.

Like Adam Smith, he supported the free market. That is, competition should be allowed to operate without restriction. The law of supply and demand should dictate the price (the higher the supply, the lower the price; the lower the supply the higher the price).

Like Adam Smith, he also regarded the labourer as an instrument to be used by the capitalist. They did not regard that relationship as exploitation.

Reverend Thomas Malthus (1776-1834)

Advanced the theory of *Population and Development*. In 1789 he published an essay on the principles of population. He tried to show why the masses of labourers under capitalism were very poor. In his view, it was because people reproduced much faster than the increase in the production of the means of subsistence. He said the population grew geometrically (1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32 etc). But that the means of subsistence increased arithmetically (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6). He concluded that without controlling population growth, no development could be achieved.

Natural calamities

Malthus claimed that calamities like cholera, plague, famine, earthquakes and wars were blessings in disguise to man. They reduced the population, bringing it into harmony with the available means of subsistence.

There should not be too many people on earth, he argued. After all, they cannot find enough work and food. His theories were applauded by the capitalist class (bourgeoisie). They absolved the rich in any responsibility for the unemployment and starvation of the masses.

Criticism on Malthus's theories

Malthus did not foresee:

- the possibility of opening up the vast agricultural resources of the rest of the world.
- that promoting industrial production in Britain would raise the standard of living.
- that fair trade between Britain and the vast regions of the world would raise the standard of living for all in spite of the increase in population.

Karl Marx (1818-1883)

He was a political economist who defended the interests of the working class. He tried to explain the origin of value, the relationship between social classes, and labour as the source of all value.

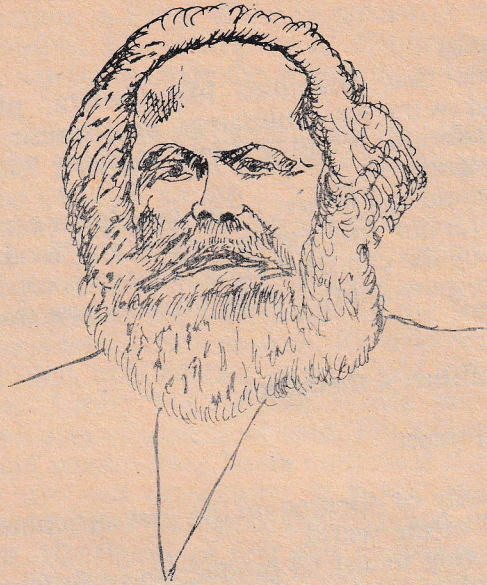


Figure 1.1: Karl Marx

Labour and exploitation
Marx identified labour as the source of value. However, he pointed out that the workers are exploited by the capitalists through wages. They are paid minimal wages; enough to keep them alive and working. The capitalists take the difference (surplus value) and enrich themselves. Because of this exploitation society develops disharmony. There is always antagonism between the exploiters and the exploited.

Value
Marx saw a commodity as having two types of values: use-value and exchange-value.

Use-value
This is the value which satisfies human need. Every commodity is produced to satisfy a certain need. Use-value is not comparable. For example, the need that a shirt satisfies is not comparable to that satisfied by shoes.

Exchange-value
This is the value used for comparing two different items

produced by different producers. It helps to determine how much of a certain commodity should be exchanged with another item.

Socialism and Communism

Marx predicted a socialist revolution in Europe. He said that the contradictions prevailing under capitalism would lead to a revolution. The latter would introduce socialism. Under it there would not be exploitation of man by man. However, socialism would be a transitional stage to communism. The latter would be characterised by the absence of: classes, private property, exploitation and the state. Each person would get from society all his needs.

Therefore, Marx predicted that socialism would cure all social problems. This is because there would be socialisation of both production and consumption as a result of which harmony would prevail in society.

Stages of Human Development

Marx argued that each society passes through five stages of social and economic development. These are:

Communalism

This is the first stage of mode of production. The level of technology is very low; and so is production. Work is done jointly. The means of production are owned communally. The products of labour are shared among the members of the community. There are no social classes.

Slavery

This was the earliest and most notorious form of exploitation of man by man. Individuals owned other people and their labour power. The slaves owned no property. The children of the slaves belonged to the master too.

Feudalism

This was the second exploitative mode of production. Agriculture was the principal means of producing wealth. But land was controlled or owned by the feudal lords. They were also the ruling class. They rented the land to the peasantry to carry out production. In return the peasants paid rent to the feudal lords and tribute to the state.

Capitalism

In this mode of production, a few individuals own the major means of production such as land and industries. They also control trade and key social services and the government. The majority of the people are employed by the capitalists in return for wages. The workers are termed labourers or the proletariat. The owners of capital are termed the capitalists or the bourgeoisie.

Socialism

This was the last mode discerned by Marx. In a socialist society there would not be any form of exploitation because all the major means of production would be owned by the state on behalf of the masses. Every able bodied person is supposed to work for the common good of the society. The latter, in turn, would provide the people with all that they need or want.

Economic Development ideas of 20th Century

W. W. Rostow

He maintained that there are key stages of economic growth. Every nation must pass through them all. Even the developed countries of his time went through those stages. Similarly, he argued, the underdeveloped nations will become developed after passing through those stages. They are:

- i) Traditional society
- ii) Creation of the pre-conditions for take-off
- iii) Take-off stage
- iv) The drive to maturity
- v) The stage of high mass consumption.

African leaders have voiced their opinion on development too. One can cite Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana and Julius Nyerere of Tanganyika as examples.

Kwame Nkrumah

Among the solutions advocated by Kwame Nkrumah for Africa's economic development was African unity. He reasoned that a united Africa would have a great reservoir of raw materials. It would also be a very big market for industrial products. The raw materials would be fed into industries. The Africans would buy and consume African industrial products. In that way, African development would be promoted.

At the international level, a united Africa would speak with one voice. Her agricultural and industrial products would compete effectively in the world market. Thus, Africa would escape the trap of imperialist exploitation.

Julius K. Nyerere

Like Nkrumah, he blamed Africa's backwardness on imperialism. In his country, Tanzania, he advocated the policy of "Ujamaa and Self-Reliance." Under this policy, the state controlled the major means of production. These included banks, major industries, import and export trade, mining and tourism. The policy aimed at promoting manufacturing. It also sought to process most of the raw materials produced in the country. In both cases the nation would sell its products at much higher prices.



Figure 1.2: Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere

In the rural areas, Nyerere established collective villages. These were supposed to become self-supporting production units. Every individual would work for the common good. The products of labour would be shared out fairly. There could not be any form of exploitation. Nyerere thought the state could provide free social services to the ujamaa villages. These would include provision of

water, education and health services. If his policy worked, he hoped, both rural and urban development would be achieved.

By the early 1980s, Nyerere was advocating the New International Economic Order (NIEO). This policy aimed at reforming the existing order which favoured the rich nations and exploited the poor nations. The rich nations determined the prices of their industrial manufactures. They also determined the prices of the raw materials from the poor nations. The ensuing terms of trade benefitted the rich nations and impoverished the third world. The rich nations controlled the major financial institutions such as the World Bank. They also dominated the processing, shipping and marketing of the commodities of the poor nations. The NIEO sought to change these inequalities. Nyerere was made the Chairman of the commission founded by the Non-Aligned Movement to coordinate the NIEO in 1987.

QUESTIONS

1. How is development determined?
2. Plato (428-348 B.C.) accepted social inequality. Explain.
3. In which ways does Plato differ with Aristotle?
4. Private property is more productive than common property. Do you agree? Give reasons.
5. What did Saint Thomas Aquinas say about: private property, trade and usury?
6. 17th-19th centuries was the period of
7. How did Adam Smith (1723-1790) argue on labour?
8. Give advantages and disadvantages of division of labour?
9. What do you understand by these terms: wages, usury and commodity?
10. Adam Smith advocated free capitalism. Explain.
11. In 1809 David Ricardo published a pamphlet known as
12. Reverend Thomas Malthus (1776-1834) claimed that natural calamities were blessings in disguise to man. Do you agree with him? Give reasons.
13. How did Karl Marx (1818-1883) argue on labour and exploitation?
14. List five stages of human development which were argued by Karl Marx.
15. In which ways does capitalism differ from socialism.
16. Name the five stages of development stated by W.W. Rostow.

CHAPTER 2

PRE-CAPITALIST MODES OF PRODUCTION

Introduction

Man's development everywhere depends on his ability to produce his needs. To do so, he struggles against his environment or surroundings. Initially, man used the crude tools which he had invented. With time he improved them, therefore, increasing his capacity to produce material wealth (his needs). The improvement of tools made man master of his environment. He was no longer a prisoner of nature.

Pre-colonial Development

The major economic activities in the traditional societies were simple and straightforward. These included the following at various levels of complexity:

- (i) raising of food crops, cereals, root-crops.
- (ii) livestock rearing, mixed farming, ranching (nomadism)
- (iii) hunting and fishing
- (iv) gathering wild-food crops, vegetables, fruits and honey.

In order to carry out these activities, some supportive services, especially industries, had to be provided. For example, farmers needed farm implements and tools (e.g. axes and hoes); fishermen required fishnets, fishtraps, fishing rods and hooks; hunters needed spears, bows and arrows, snares and knives. Food gatherers needed containers of various makes, designs and colours.

In addition to these, more items were needed in the household. These included cooking and eating utensils and items for storing foodstuffs as well as medicines. In short, there was a manufacturing sector quite distinct from the farming and gathering activities.

Karl Marx discerned three pre-capitalist modes of production: primitive communalism, slavery and feudalism.

Primitive-communalism

This was the first mode of production in which the development of society began. It existed through the stone age, the bronze age and the iron age. Initially, people were half-saved. They were powerless before their surroundings. They gathered and ate whatever nature offered. They ate roots, insects, wild fruits and nuts, etc.

Man's first tools were crude stones and sticks. The discovery of fire was a significant development. It enabled man to cook food, warm himself, clear land and live in cold areas. The invention of the bow and arrow facilitated hunting and self-defence. Hunting eventually gave rise to livestock breeding.

The crude nature of tools forced people to live and work together. For instance, killing wild animals was not easy for an individual using a stone or stick.

Characteristics of Communalism

a) Low productivity

Man's crude tools and low level of skills meant that he could not control his environment effectively. He could not produce enough of his basic needs such as food, shelter and clothing.

b) Equality

Communal societies had no exploiters. All the able-bodied people worked and shared the products of their labour. Even the youth worked while at the same time learning skills from the older members of the society.

c) Communal ownership

The means of production such as tools and animals belonged to all the members of the family unit. The community owned facilities such as water holes and the land. The system ensured the well-being of each member of the family or community.

d) Subsistence production

This refers to a situation where people can just produce enough food to keep them alive. There is hardly any surplus produce or food reserves. Normally, this is due to the low level of society and technology development. In such a condition, people were always prone to natural calamities such as hunger and droughts.

e) Lack of specialization

People were forced to do all possible jobs-making tools, hunting, cooking food, preparing shelters and clothing. There was only sex-based division of labour or specialization. Mostly, the men hunted and gathered food. The women took care of the young and sick at home. In any case, the activities that a family unit had to do were so few.

Disintegration of Communalism

In due course, man improved his tools and mastered his environment more effectively. In other words, science and technology were improved. At last some people could produce surplus and used it to get accumulated wealth. These employed others or enslaved them. Equality gave way to private ownership of the means of production and inequality.

Some societies became more powerful and conquered others' territories. Those conquered became subjects or slaves. Prisoners of war as well as the debtors were enslaved. Skilful craftsmen started producing tools for exchange. In fact, commodity production and exchange became a major feature of economic activity.

The rich used their wealth to rule others. Armies and courts were set up to suppress the poor and slaves. Thus, division of labour, expansion of trade and inequality led to the collapse of communalism. It was gradually replaced by class societies of slaves and slave owners; the rich and the poor; the haves and have-nots.

Slavery

This was the earliest and the most notorious form of exploitation and humiliation. A few people owned others and their labour power.

Exploitation of slaves

Slave labour was forced labour. Slave owners had complete control over both the means of production and slaves. The latter were bought and sold like cattle or killed freely. Slaves were provided with minimal means of subsistence just enough to keep them working. Slaves were owned by the government or individuals. In some parts of the world, they were forbidden to marry. The masters sub-divided their instruments of labour into live ones (slave, horses, cattle) and lifeless tools (hoes and ploughs).

Slave labour was used to build cities and large structures such as the pyramids of Egypt. They built roads in Rome and constructed forts. They were forced to construct dams and irrigation schemes in Egypt and Mesopotamia. Slaves were made to cultivate large plantations in the ancient world, such as in Rome. They were used to mine silver, gold and iron in ancient states. Slaves were used as domestic servants in many parts of the world.

Achievements of slavery

Slavery achieved great economic and cultural development. For example, in ancient Egypt the slaves constructed dams and canals. These facilitated the many irrigation schemes there. Through irrigation, Egypt developed agriculture. She grew cereals, vegetables and many types of fruits as well as invented many types of tools such as ploughs, wheel barrows and the shadoof. The slaves also developed architecture and arts. This is evidenced by the great pyramids of Egypt mentioned above. In Greece they constructed gymnasiums in which different sports were staged and watched.

Collapse of slavery

The contradictions within the slave mode destroyed it. Severe exploitation and humiliation hindered sustainable development. It bred frequent revolts against the slave owners. This led to the destruction of property and stagnation or decline in production.

Furthermore, the masters and free masses did not engage in production. They lived off the surplus produced by the slaves. Therefore, disturbance in the relations between the slaves and the masters led to famine and other social hardships.

The slave rebellions undermined the economic and military power of the masters. They could no longer get enough slaves through warfare. Similarly, colonial denomination and plunder ceased to be a major source of state wealth. In Rome, finally, the slaves were allowed to pay money to their masters in order to regain their freedom.

However, the freedom of slaves did not give them access to the means of production. Most could not own land. They, therefore, became wanderers seeking work and livelihood. Employment was found in agriculture. One could rent a plot of land to cultivate and pay tribute to the landlord. Alternatively, one got employed in return for a meagre pay. Thus, slavery gave way to the feudal mode of production.

Feudalism

This was the second mode of production based on the exploitation of man by man. Many societies practised it for centuries. In African kingdom it went on even after independence.

In Western Europe it emerged as a result of the interaction of two factors. The first was the disintegration of the Roman (slave owning) Empire. The second was the disintegration of the clans of conquering tribes such as the Goths, Saxons and Vandals.

Development of Feudalism

In Europe, feudalism originated in the womb of slave-owning societies. The dependent peasants and ex-slaves were given plots of land by the lords. They were obliged to till and cultivate it and hand to the lord a considerable share of the harvest. Sometimes they were required to pay a definite sum of money, and fulfil various compulsory duties for the lord.

The disintegrating clan system led to the establishment of feudal relations too. The ex-conquering tribes took large tracts of arable land. This was then divided into individual holdings and distributed to dependent peasants who paid rent in return. In yet other cases, military officials distributed their land to their favourites. The recipients were obliged to render military service.

Land plots distributed in the above manner were called *fiefs* in Europe. Those who received them were called *feudal lords*. The latter distributed 'their' land to peasants to use freely as theirs. But they were obliged to pay rent to the feudal lords. That is feudalism.

Feudal rent

There existed three forms of feudal rent: labour rent, rent in kind and money rent.

Labour rent

This was in the form of labour services to the feudal lord. A peasant was required to work for, say, three days for the lord in a week. He would work on his own plot in the remaining days of the week. Sometimes force was applied to make the peasant work well on the lord's estate. Otherwise the system was resisted by its victims.

Rent in kind

In some cases the peasant was obliged to deliver, regularly, agreed quantities of his produce. This could be grain, cattle, poultry or any other farm products.

Money rent

This form of rent became popular when money became a major medium of exchange. The peasant paid to the feudal lord not the product. He paid its market value in the form of money.

Characteristics of feudalism

- a) It was an exploitative system. The feudal lords exploited the peasants through the payment of rent.
- b) The major means of production in Europe and Asia was land, owned privately by the feudal lords. In African kingdoms it was either land or livestock, especially cattle.
- c) The peasants used land or livestock freely, but they were obliged to pay rent.
- d) The peasants were bonded to the feudal lords by law. A peasant could not abandon his *fief* freely without the consent of the lord.
- e) It achieved major progress in the development of productive forces. This was in the form of iron ploughs and other iron tools; farming, stock breeding, horticulture and market gardening.

Disintegration of Feudalism

Feudalism's disintegration was accelerated by intensive commodity production. Increasingly, agriculture produce and urban craft products were exchanged. The various national regions and neighbouring states strengthened economic ties. National and international markets evolved, facilitated by the development of reliable navigation and other transport systems. The ever expanding world market and demand for commodities reinforced technological inventions.

Gradually, some of the petty craft producers became large-scale capitalists employing hired labour. In the process, the bulk of craftsmen were crushed by the competition. They became wage workers in industry.

At the same time, the rich merchants started investing their money in industry. Merchant capital became industrial capital. It was capital accumulated through plunder and trade in foreign lands.

In the rural sector, unforeseen changes occurred too. The feudal lords increasingly demanded cash rent. Similarly, the rich lords started enclosing their land in order to secure it and work on it along capitalist lines. The poor peasants were thrown out of 'their' plots. These formed a large army of labourers in both the urban and rural sectors. They owned no property but their labour power. The emerging capitalists exploited this cheap labour to accumulate more capital. Thus, by the middle of the 18th century, in Europe, feudalism had started giving way to capitalism.

QUESTIONS

1. Name the characteristics of communalism.
2. Lack of specialization was one of characteristics of communalism. Briefly explain.
3. How were slaves used?
4. Briefly explain how the slavery system collapsed.
5. How was feudalism developed in Europe?
6. Name three forms of feudal rent.
7. What were the characteristics of feudalism?

CHAPTER 3

CAPITALISM

Capitalism is the fourth mode of production in the development of human society. It came after communalism, slavery and feudalism. It is a class mode which divides society into two main groups. The first group are capitalists (*bourgeoisie*). They own the means of production or capital. The second group are the workers (*proletariat*). These are the toilers. They are deprived of the means of production and subsistence. They sell their labour as wage workers. Capitalism is based on private ownership of the means of production. Its goal is the creation of profit.

Under capitalism, the products of labour, land and labour power become commodities. A commodity is anything produced for sale or market exchange. The worker sells his labour to the capitalist. The latter pays the worker a wage. With the wages, the worker buys his or her means of subsistence. Therefore, the relations of production between the workers and the capitalist are commodity relations. That is how capitalism operates. It is a social system under which land, factories, implements or machines belong to a small number of proprietors. The majority possess no property. They are forced to work for the capitalists. The latter supervises the workers. He also decides what should be produced in what quantities and how.

Under capitalism, the workers are free. But they are deprived of the means of production and means of subsistence. To earn a living, they must work in capitalist enterprises.

Development of Capitalism

Two major factors led to the emergence of capitalism. The first was masses of people deprived of means of production and subsistence. These, though apparently free, had to sell their labour. The second was the concentration of the means of production and much money in the hands of very few individuals.

Capitalism arose from the womb of feudalism. It passed through two main stages. The first was pre-monopoly capitalism. The second one was monopoly capitalism or imperialism. Both had

the same economic basis: private ownership of the means of production and the exploitation of wage labour.

Pre-monopoly capitalism

This phase can be divided into two parts: primitive capitalism and industrial capitalism.

a) Primitive capitalism

This phase was based on primitive accumulation of capital both within Europe and from abroad. The enclosure system enabled the few land-lords to raise capital. This was through better methods of animal and crop husbandry. It was also through mechanization of agriculture and of course the exploitation of cheap labour. The emerging bourgeoisie also appropriated state land. They plundered church property too. Masses of beggars and villains emerged. Harsh laws were passed by governments against these people. They had been robbed and were trying to stand up for themselves. They were jailed, tortured and beaten in order to serve the capitalist system.

At the same time, European merchants were trading all over the world. This was especially during the 17th and 18th centuries. Their superb knowledge of navigation made them dominant in overseas trade. They bought and sold anything from slaves, gold or tobacco to spices and animal skins. They also robbed, plundered and cheated peoples in other continents in order to accumulate wealth. This aspect of primitive capitalism was called mercantilism. Profits were re-invested in Europe. In exchange, the merchants exported industrial products from Europe. They included wine, second hand clothes, arms and domestic utensils.

This exchange was uneven. Europe increasingly exported industrial products. Thus, European industries, science and technology developed tremendously. Furthermore, European ships and merchants carried world trans-sea trade. In both cases Europe earned much profit and experience. On the other hand, the rest of the world exported, mostly, raw materials. They imported European manufactured goods. Raw material exports fetched little profit, if at all. The importation of industrial goods tended to discourage local industries, science and technology.

Therefore, in this period, Europe accumulated capital through various means. These included slave trade, plunder, exploitation of wage labour on farms and plantations, shipping and sale of some industrial products, all these enabled Europe to

accumulate much capital. It is known as the period of *primitive accumulation* of capital. This capital was invested in manufacturing industries. It was for this reason that from mid-18th century to mid-19th century an industrial revolution took place in Europe.

b) Industrial Capitalism

From mid-18th century to mid-19th century, Europe increasingly manufactured most of its products. The capital accumulated in the previous phase was invested into manufacturing industries. Mostly these were textile industries. Most of the dispossessed peasants, who had run to towns, got employed in these factories.

The capitalists exploited the workers in various ways. These included low wages, long working days, child and women labour. This enabled the capitalists to earn much profit or *surplus value*.

Profits were reinvested to expand the factories or establish new ones. They were also invested in overseas plantations and mines. For example, tobacco and cotton plantations were set up or expanded in Britain's American colonies (now U.S.A.). Sugar cane plantations were set up or expanded in the West Indies and South America. Most of these were Spanish and Portuguese colonies. The French capitalists set up or expanded coffee and sugar cane plantations in Re-Union and Mauritius. The capitalists also exploited silver and gold from several mines in the Americas.

Most of these were worked by slaves. Initially, the slaves were acquired from Europe. By the mid-18th century most of the slaves were acquired from Africa. They were shipped across the Atlantic in European merchant ships. From America these ships carried cotton, tobacco, sugar cane and minerals to European factories. Manufactured goods were sold all over Europe. The rest were shipped to overseas markets in Africa, Asia and America. This system of trade is known as the *Triangular trade*.

By the beginning of the 19th century, slave trade was no longer very important for Europe. Most of the production was done by machines in factories. Plantations and farms were also substantially mechanized. Already there were very many slaves in the American and Indian Ocean colonies. These, in turn, were reproducing and increasing. Furthermore, logic was against shipping the African across the seas to produce raw materials. It was more advantageous to make them produce the same within Africa. At the same time they would go on buying European manufactured goods. For all these reasons, Europe gradually abolished slave trade.

In other words, industrial capitalism did not need slave trade. It was based on industrial production. It had about four main needs. The first were reliable sources of raw materials. The second were secure markets for industrial products. The third were places for investing surplus capital. The fourth were places to settle excess population. Thus, European capitalists and governments (Britain, Germany, France, Belgium, Portugal, Spain and Italy) started grabbing colonies, especially in Africa. Capitalism had reached the stage called *monopoly capitalism* or *imperialism*.

Monopoly Capitalism

What is a monopoly? It is an association of capitalists. They control the production and sale of most of particular goods. They are of different forms. But they all seek to maximize profit.

Capitalism reached this stage first in Britain in mid-19th century. The other industrial nations reached the stage during the second half of the 19th century. Competition for sources of raw materials and markets led to protectionism. Commercial laws were imposed by each of these nations. Companies were formed to operate in the colonies or *spheres of influence*. These worked on behalf of groups of capitalists of a given nation. Some served both the capitalists and home governments. Examples of these were the *German East Africa Company* and the *British East Africa Company*. They were financed by the industrial capitalists. They also got finance from banks and insurance companies at home. This is what is known as finance capital. In short, industrial and finance capital combined to promote monopoly interests of imperialism.

Forms of monopolies

There are four types or forms of monopolies: cartels, syndicates, trusts and concerns.

- a) *Cartel*: This is an association of capitalists who agree to divide markets among themselves. They also agree on sale prices and the quantity of commodities to be produced. But each business (or undertaking) in the cartel produces and sells its commodities independently.
- b) *Syndicate*: In a syndicate, the members produce independently. But they do not sell their commodities independently. They do not buy raw materials

independently either. The members set up joint trading apparatus to buy raw materials and sell products for them all.

- c) *Trust*: In a trust, all the enterprises or undertakings are owned jointly. Their former owners become shareholders. The profit of each depends on the number of shares he or she holds.
- d) *Concern*: This is an association of big trust. They could be dealing with various enterprises such as banks, trading firms, insurance and transport companies. They function on the basis of dependence on a group of big financial capitalists. Trusts and concerns are mainly widespread in U.S.A., Japan, Britain, France, Germany and Italy.

Features of monopoly capitalism

Firstly, the monopolies dominated the economies, political life and governments of their countries. Next, the biggest monopolies divided the undivided parts of the world among themselves. Each part was called a "sphere of influence." Always the monopolies had home governments behind them in their bid to seize foreign lands. These features meant that capitalism had entered a new stage. It was the highest stage of its development which is monopoly capitalism or imperialism.

QUESTIONS

1. What is capitalism mode of production?
2. The relation of production between the workers and the capitalist are commodity relations. Explain.
3. What factors led to the emergence of capitalism?
4. What methods were used to accumulate wealth during primitive accumulation period in Europe?
5. During industrial capitalism, capitalists exploited the workers in various ways. Name them.
6. Explain how industrial capitalism helped to stop the slave trade.
7. Would you agree with the statement that capitalism destroys itself?

CHAPTER 4

SOCIALISM

What is socialism? It is a classless mode of production. The peasants and workers are supposed to control the means of production. Normally, this is achieved through a revolution. There is not supposed to be exploitation of man by man. Everybody is supposed to work for the good of the society. The latter is supposed to provide for each individual according to his or her contribution.

Rise of socialism

There have been different views on socialism. Similarly, different methods of attaining it have been proposed. In any case, the socialists assume that the prevailing system is wrong. The following are the main versions of socialism.

- a) *Utopian socialism*: There have been various utopian views. Generally, however, they all oppose class struggle and revolution in order to attain socialism.
- b) *Fabian socialism*: It was aired by the Fabian Society of England. It believed that socialism is an attitude of the mind. Therefore they believed that persuasion could change people into socialists. It sought to build socialism on the basis of communalism. In Africa the examples of Fabian socialism were the *Ujamaa* of Tanzania and *Humanism* in Zambia.
- c) *Social democracy*: The social democrats are found in capitalist countries. They argued that they shall bring about fairness and equality through parliament.
- d) *Scientific socialism*: These believe that socialism can be attained through class struggle. This should be a struggle between the workers and the capitalists. Ultimately there should be a revolution against the capitalists. Then the workers would control the state and the means of production.

Development of Socialism

The socialists agree that capitalism achieved much in technology and science. This was reflected by the factories, machines, mills, steam and electric power. All these largely replaced human muscle in production.

However, they argue that capitalism did not ease the workers life. They say that exploitation went on as ruthless and as inhuman as it was during slavery or feudalism. This led to dissatisfaction among the masses. It perpetuated the class struggle. Hence the various socialist theories and views expressed so far.

Utopian Socialism

Socialism started as *utopian* ideas. Utopia means "nowhere"; meaning that is the first socialist ideas were unheard of or strange. The following are some of the famous utopian socialists:

Thomas More (1478-1535): He was an English statesman and philosopher. He saw capitalism (though it was still young) as an exploitative system. He concluded that equality and happiness were not possible for the workers. He advanced the idea that private ownership of the means of production be abolished. Instead, he proposed that society be reorganized so that there is collective ownership and collective labour.

In More's utopian society, people were slaves to capital. They had to labour collectively. Idlers would not be tolerated. Everybody had to work and receive whatever he needed free of charge.

Thomaso Campanella (1568-1639): He named his imaginary society "*The City of Sun*". There was no exploitation. People were not slaves to, but owners of capital. Social progress would be based on science. The rulers of the city had to be scientists too.

Garbriel Bonnet de Mabby (1709-1785): He advocated the abolition of private property. He said that would ensure to each citizen a happy life. He discouraged the division of property as it would cause a sense of personal gain. He suggested that there should be reformation to bring social change. The question remained whether the new society would come through a revolution or reform.

Grachus Babeuf (1760-1797): His supporters were called Babouvists. Together they contended that the solution lay in a

revolution. He attempted to set up a commune (a 'Republic of Equal'). They advocated the idea of seizing power. They participated in the French Revolution (1789-1793). However, they soon realised that it was a bourgeois revolution. It had not stopped exploitation and private property. They therefore kept hoping that a people's revolution would follow. After seizing power, they argued, they would organise a society of equals. No one would be rich or poor; no one would have private property. Each would work for the common good and to the best of his ability.

The Utopian Socialists of the 19th Century

During the 19th century capitalism grew stronger. The suffering of the workers was reflected in the socialist theories of the time.

Claude-Henri Saint-Simon de Rouvroy: He was an aristocrat (of a ruling family). However, he defended the exploited. He had in mind an ideal society. One in which the majority had a happy life and could satisfy their needs. It had to be a socialist society. Every member would develop his or her abilities. All would be free and working for the common good. Each would work according to his ability and be rewarded accordingly. There would not be exploitation. The government would supervise all the work in society.

Moreover, he preached of peaceful cooperation between the oppressed and their oppressors. He feared class struggle and rejected a revolution. He advocated that those in power should carry out reforms. He thought the capitalists would stop exploitation and cooperate with the workers, after being preached.

Franco Marie Charles Fourier (1772-1837). He imagined a harmonious society. It would consist of production associations. He named these "phalanges". Each would consist of 1,600 to 1,700 members. Each group would live in communal buildings called "phalanstery". They would mainly be farming units. But there would also be small industries. Every member would choose his vocation.

Robert Owen (1771-1858): He was the first utopian socialist to participate in the working class movement. He was a manager of a large textile factory. He tried to uplift the working conditions of his workers.

He reduced the working day. He organised the first nursery and kindergarten for the workers' children. He opened a model school and set up a hospital fund. Furthermore, he mounted a campaign to defend workers' rights.

He believed social contradictions were due to lack of education. With education, harmony would prevail. He thought, in vain, that the other capitalists would follow his examples.

Contributions of Utopian Socialists

- a) They criticized capitalism. They also proposed more humane economic set ups. Mostly, they liked a society characterised by collective ownership. They grappled with ways and means of demolishing the exploiting society.
- b) They expressed the features of the ideal society of the future.
- c) Some linked the new society with public ownership and a planned economy.
- d) They pointed out many basic social problems. At the early stage of capitalism, they could not provide the right answers. However, these were provided by the scientific socialists: F. Engels; K. Marx and V.I. Lenin.

Scientific Socialism

This was propounded by Frederick Engels, Karl Marx and V.I. Lenin. They concluded that socialism could come about through class struggle and revolution. The workers would be led by their party to overthrow capitalism. They would replace it with socialism. They argued that socialism was inevitable; that the contradictions in capitalism would destroy it (capitalism). They saw socialism as a transitional stage to communism. Under communism, society would be classless and stateless. There would not be private property. Society would provide all the needs of each individual. Each individual would contribute according to his ability. Ideally, there would not be exploitation of man by man. Workers' labour power would stop being a commodity. This is because he would be working for himself and his society. The products of labour would be distributed among all working people.

Private property under scientific socialism

After the proletariat revolution, there follows nationalization of the means of production. These include the big industries, the banks,

railway transport, merchant marine, means of communication, large-scale import-export systems and land.

Property is divided into public and personal property. Public property includes all nationalised properties. Personal property means products of labour intended for personal consumption. Its source is labour in social production.

QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by socialism mode of production.
2. In which ways does primitive communalism differ with socialism?
3. Why was socialism more acceptable in Tanzania than capitalism?
4. Do you think socialism is still acceptable in Tanzania? Why?
5. Which other African countries accepted socialism?

COLONIAL ECONOMY IN TANZANIA

Objectives

The objective of colonialism was to exploit African's natural and human resources for the benefit of Europe. Very little was done to develop the colonies. The colonial economy was based on the production of agricultural and mineral raw materials. These were needed in the capitalist industries. Also it was dominated by the commercial sector. This specialized in the exportation of raw materials and the importation of manufactured goods from the industrialized countries or the colonial powers.

Social and Economic Services

The exploitation of resources in colonies required some basic facilities, institutions and systems. Consequently, the colonial powers had to provide some basic social services, economic institutions and infrastructural facilities. The latter included transport and communication facilities such as roads and railways. The economic institutions included insurance and banks. The social services included educational and health facilities and institutions.

Colonial social, economic and transport facilities were most developed in the areas occupied by the Europeans. The next section were the urban centres. This tendency created an imbalance. The areas occupied by the Europeans and urban centres were much more developed than the rural areas. These were occupied by the Africans.

The transportation system was not laid down to facilitate internal trade in Africa. There were hardly any roads or railways connecting different colonies or different parts of the same colony. The system made no sense with regard to African's needs and development. All roads and railways led down to the sea. They ferried raw materials to the harbours or ports for export. In return they carried industrial manufactures inland.

Colonial Economy in Tanganyika

The German period 1880s-1918

Initially, the Germans promoted settler and plantation agriculture. The settlers failed at the beginning due to lack of knowledge of climate, soil and shortage of labour. The Maji Maji war was the result of harsh and forced labour by the German companies and settlers. After that war they changed the system and encouraged peasant agriculture which was comparatively cheaper. The main crops which were produced in peasant agriculture were cotton and coffee.

Between 1906 and 1914 peasant crop production, mainly of coffee and cotton, was encouraged. Plantation farming was also encouraged. The most important plantation crop was sisal. They opened plantations in Kilimanjaro, Morogoro and Tanga. Transportation in these regions was strengthened.

Plantation agriculture was large scale farming which needed a large labour force. The Germans introduced the system of labour recruitment. In this system, the labourers for the plantations came from distant places and not around the plantations. The colony, Tanganyika, was practically divided into two parts: the production areas and the labour reserve areas. Production areas were the parts in which the production of sisal and other export crops was established.

The Labour reserves were areas where labourers came from. These included Ruvuma, Mtwara, Kigoma and Tabora. Export crops were not allowed in these areas. Economic and social services were either not provided in these areas, or were extremely poor.

The British Period 1919-1960

The British colonial administration also encouraged the expansion of plantations and the opening of the new ones. They formed an organisation to recruit and direct labour to the sisal production areas. This was known as the Sisal Labour Bureau (SILABU). Labour migration was preferred by colonial government because it was cheap and safe.

From 1919 Tanganyika became a mandate territory under the League of Nations. Britain was appointed its overseer. The British colonialists emphasized peasant export crop production too. They encouraged cotton growing in Shinyanga and Mwanza; Arabica coffee grown in Kilimanjaro and Arusha; and Robusta

coffee in the region now known as Kagera. Tobacco was encouraged in parts of Ruvuma. These were intended to feed the growing manufacturing industries in Britain and in the other industrialized countries of Europe.



Figure 5.1: Grading tobacco for export.



Figure 5.2: Tobacco curing.

A few factories were set up, especially in the capital of the colony. They consisted of breweries and cigarettes, shoes, sweets and soft drinks plants. Factories for construction materials, farm implements and machine tools were never built.

Economic Dependence

The colonial economy was entirely dependent. This feature could be seen in various aspects. Firstly, it depended on the markets of the colonial power to sell its raw materials. Secondly, it depended on the importation of consumer and capital goods from the industrialized countries. Thirdly, it depended on aid of various types to survive. These came in the form of finance, capital goods, technical assistance and experts. Fourthly, it depended on the industrialized nations for technology.

Colonial Economy in Zanzibar

From the 1840s Production of cloves and coconuts on plantations was encouraged in the islands of Pemba and Zanzibar. This was stimulated after Sultan Said shifted the capital of Oman to

Zanzibar. It became the sultanate's commercial and political (administrative) capital.

The cloves acted as a major raw material in pharmaceutical industries. At the same time cloves were used in Europe and Asia as an ingredient for food.

The production of coconuts was encouraged in order to supply copra for oil and soap producing industries in Europe and India.

Social and economic consequences

1. To meet capitalist demands, the Sultan and fellow Arabs expropriated most of the arable land. Thus they became feudal lords. Previously this land had been under the ownership of the indigenous people: the Hadimu, Tumbatu and Pemba. These were pushed far away onto rocky and less fertile soils. Most of them became squatters and Arab and capitalist plantations and land. They provided cheap labour to the plantations. A few led the life of peasants and fishermen.
2. Most of the labour that worked on the plantations was supplied by slaves. Most slaves came from the mainland in what is now Tanganyika, Zaire, Angola, Zambia and Malawi.
3. Thus, by the beginning of the 20th century, Zanzibar society was clearly fragmented, the dominant class were the European colonial administrators, plantation managers, businessmen and missionaries. The second were Arab feudal lords headed by the Sultan of Indian shopkeepers. The exploited and oppressed class were the African peasants, squatters and labourers.

The latter class lived on the least fertile soil. They lived by growing their own food, fishing, handicrafts and providing part time labour in plantations. The peasants were not allowed to grow cash crops, particularly cloves and coconuts. The administrators imposed tax which was paid in form of money. This strategy provided the necessary labour for the plantations. The impoverished Zanzibaris had to earn money to pay taxes. The plantations were the major employment centres. Of course this class included the slaves as well.

QUESTIONS

1. There was social and economic imbalance during colonial rule. Explain.
2. What was the main crops grown in Tanganyika during the German rule?
3. The Germans divided Tanganyika into two parts; the production areas and the labour reserve areas. Name the areas.
4. Why did the British colonial administration prefer labour migration?
5. The colonial economy was entirely dependent. Explain.
6. What was the major cash crops grown in Zanzibar during the colonial rule?

POST-COLONIAL ECONOMY IN TANZANIA

Rehabilitation of the economy, 1962-1967

Independent Tanganyika inherited the economic dependence left behind by the colonialists. Therefore, its social and economic development in the first few years was insignificant.

The independent government had three major tasks to do immediately. These were: Africanization, socialization of the economy, and changing the social and economic attitudes of the people.

A good number of colonial administrators and colonial officials left the country after independence. The independent government had to fill the administrative and technical posts with local personnel. Measures were, therefore, taken by the government to train the local people under crash programmes. Some were trained in local institutions. The others secured overseas scholarships. However, in the early years of independence, the basic social and economic character of Tanganyika did not change. It remained almost the same as it was during colonialism. For example, the dependent economy went on. Moreover, the production relations, ownership of the means of production, internal commerce, import and export, were still oriented towards the former colonizers.

The Arusha Declaration (1967)

This was TANU's declaration of intent. Its leaders undertook to make Tanzania a socialist nation. It also undertook to make Tanzania non-dependent. For sometime the declaration promised to bring positive change socially, politically and economically.

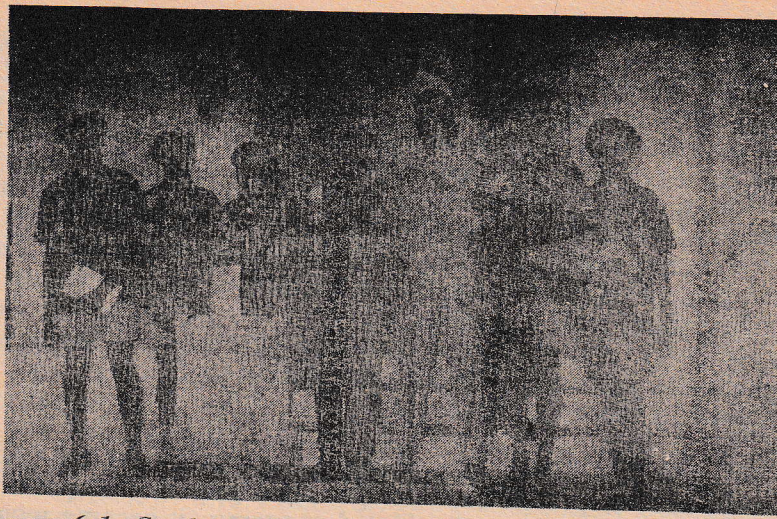


Figure 6.1: Students demonstrating in support of the Arusha Declaration.

The economic aspect of the Arusha Declaration emphasised the following:

- a) Development was to shift from urban to rural areas. This was intended to balance development between the urban and rural areas.
- b) The peasants and workers had to take over the major means of production and distribution. The first step to implement this was to nationalise the major industries; import and export firms; whole-sale trade and estates. Also nationalised were forests, mineral resources, water, oil and electricity, communications, transport, banks, insurance, cement factories, the textile industries and any other big industries. These were the means of production upon which a large section of the population depend for their living. Some of them provided essential components or inputs for other industries. Examples of these were farm implements factories and ginneries. Large plantations, especially those which produce essential raw materials, were nationalised as well.
- c) Self-reliance was made the basis for development. It implied, first and foremost, that the nation must count on its own resources for development. Tanzania had to earn

- enough by its people's work and resources to produce or pay for all its needs.
- d) Local resources were to be devoted to the production of national demands first. Food crop production was encouraged rather than export crops. Industries were to produce more farm inputs and necessities and less luxury goods. Production was geared to needs of the people.
 - e) Local technology was to be reviewed and encouraged. This would entail the expansion of, and increased, investment in the small scale industries.

The economy after the Arusha Declaration

The following were the main changes:

- a) Up to mid-1980's, the pattern of ownership of the major means of production changed. Instead of the previous foreign and private dominated economy, it became mostly state owned economy.
- b) The pre-Arusha Declaration economies concentrated on the production of raw materials for export. But the post-Arusha Declaration efforts were made to produce raw materials for national needs first and for export second.
- c) Priorities in industry and the manufacturing sector also changed. Emphasis shifted from luxury goods such as beer, cigarettes and soft drinks. It was focused on more basic needs for the rural and urban areas such as construction materials (cement and steel mills); farm inputs (farm implements and fertilizers) and textile industries.
- d) The government put great emphasis on the development of the infrastructure. This was especially in the construction of feeder roads and the improvement of trunk roads. The completion of the TAZARA in 1975 is a remarkable example. Storage facilities were constructed to handle both perishable and non-perishable commodities.
- e) Small scale industries, which harness both indigenous and modern imported technologies, were emphasized.
- f) Secondary and technical education was expanded. It lay emphasis on the development of high level manpower right up to university level. The national priority of having a literate nation was expanded. This was done through free education and a strong national campaign in adult literacy and national education.

Setbacks by mid-1980s

By the mid-1980s, the Tanzania economy had suffered many setbacks. These included a severe drought in 1973-75, excessive rain (1978/79) and floods in some areas. In 1978-79, Tanzania fought a costly war against Uganda. The war cost Tanzania an estimated 4,000 million shillings which by then was about 500,000,000 dollars. The East African Community collapsed in 1977. Tanzania had to establish and run on her own some of the essential services which were formerly under the community. It had to establish its own airways, railway system, harbours corporation, and postal and telecommunications organizations.

Agricultural production and prices for raw materials declined continuously. At the same time the prices of imports such as oil had escalated. World-wide inflation also accounted for the growing need for foreign assistance.

Thus, by mid-1980's the national economy was in shambles. Tanzania's external debt had become unmanageable. This was mainly due to the poor performance of the economy in the rural areas and in the industrial sector. It was also partly because of the rising prices for imports and worsening terms of trade.

After 1985, the government began to take cautious steps towards limited privatisation in agriculture, commerce and industry. Initially, this was in an effort to rid the economy of the inefficiencies associated with public sector enterprises. By 1995 trade liberalization and privatization were in full gear. They were the main conditions set by the donors for continued financial aid.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the economic aspect of the Arusha Declaration?
2. Explain the main features of the Tanzania economy after the Arusha Declaration.
3. Briefly explain the economic setbacks by the mid-1980s in Tanzania.
4. Is the Arusha Declaration, in your opinion, still relevant to Tanzania to-day? Why?

ENVIRONMENTAL POLLUTION

Environment is the part of the world which surrounds us. It is a resource and platform for human activities. The environment shapes out lives. We must pay a great deal of attention to it so that we continue living. The environment includes the earth (that is land and water) and the atmosphere (air).

The land accounts for 30% of the earth's surface. Water covers the remaining 70%. Air, water, and land are the fundamental components of the environment.

The atmosphere is composed of pure dry air, water vapour and solid particles (e.g. dust). It is found in three main layers. The first is the *troposphere*. This is the lowest layer. It is about 10 kilometres thick. It contains about 90% of the total mass of atmosphere. Our daily life depends on this layer. All weather is produced within this layer. The second layer is the *stratosphere*. This is a less dense stratum or layer. It extends from approximately 10 to 50 kilometres altitude and contains the Ozone layer. Atmospheric Ozone is constantly being created and destroyed through natural chemical cycles. Ozone layer is critical to life on earth. It filters out ultra-violet radiation from the sun which causes skin cancer. After the stratosphere one gets into space.

Effects of change of components

The reduction of the components of the atmosphere affects the environment. For example, decrease in water vapour leads to low condensation and low precipitation. Also it affects the rate of cooling of human bodies since it affects the temperature.

Dust particles in the atmosphere provide surfaces around which condensation takes place. These absorb, reflect and scatter the radiation. In the process they balance the heat in the atmosphere.

Environmental Pollution

Environmental pollution means adding excess waste substance in the environment. This could be caused by industrial, agricultural

and other human activities. They are called pollutants. They include noise, heat, radiation, many chemical elements and excretory products. These pollute the air, water or land. They cause ecological effects and harm living organisms including man. They affect the products we use.

In this chapter, we shall discuss types of environmental pollution, namely air pollution, water pollution, hazardous waste and soil pollution.

Air Pollution

a) Breathing

Every day a person breathes in and out about 16 kg of air. This is about six tons of air per person per year. Multiply this by the number of people and animals in Tanzania. Then one can realise how much we pollute the air by breathing out alone.

b) Burning

Burning takes place in combustion engines. It is also common in forests and bushes when man lights fire. Sometimes such fires are caused by lightening. The following are the main pollutants that result from burning:

- i) Carbon Monoxide
- ii) Sulphur Oxides
- iii) Nitrogen Oxides
- iv) Acid Rain
- v) Particulates

Carbon Monoxide

Most of the Carbon Monoxide gas is produced by automobiles - exhaust and garages. Exposure to large doses of this substance may cause headaches, impair hearing or destroy the respiratory system.

Sulphur Oxides

These are gases from burning fossil fuels such as natural gas, coal and oil. Sulphur forms acids which cause metals to corrode and buildings to erode. Sulphur oxides may damage field crops during their growth period.

Nitrogen Oxides

These are the harmful by-products from automobile and jet exhaust. The gases impair the function of the lungs. They also affect the capacity of the blood cells to carry oxygen.

Acid rain

This is rain that results from the mixture of moisture in the air, nitrogen oxides and sulphur oxides. The mixture results in nitric and sulphuric acids which finally fall as rain or snow. Acid rain causes plant morbidity and erosion to buildings. Other air pollutants are: smog, ozone, flouro-carbons and greenhouse gases.

Particulates

These are dust, fumes and ash. They may settle on the ground or be suspended in the air. They irritate the eyes, throat and lungs.

Burning in houses/buildings also causes much pollution. It is the pollution that occurs in our homes, offices, halls, factory buildings, etc. It comes from tobacco smoke, chemicals used for cleaning, gases from cooking stoves, candles and burning firewood. The effect of such pollution can be reduced by ventilating the homes and other buildings adequately.

Other effects of air pollution

a) *Ozone depletion*

Air pollution affects the ozone layer. Ozone is an important gas in the atmosphere. It is a very poisonous gas. However, there is very little of it. Ozone protects us from the harmful ultra-violet (UV) rays of the sun in the upper atmosphere.

Ozone is mainly destroyed by two substances. The first is nitrogen oxide. It is emitted by jet exhaust pipe. The second is carbon dioxide which is increasing in the atmosphere by burning.

Thinning the ozone layer allows more UV rays to reach the earth's surface. This increases global warming and reduces world food production. Moreover, the UV rays have got a burning effect on the human skin. This causes skin cancer and eye cataracts.

b) **Increasing greenhouse effect**

As gases accumulate in the atmosphere, they act as a blanket. This traps too much heat from the earth and the sun. Thus, the earth is getting warmer. The greenhouse gases are caused by burning of fossil fuels, deforestation and burning of biomass (wood, charcoal, dung, crop residue). Methane is another gas. It is emitted from animal excreta, termites, swamps, leaking natural gas pipes and coal mines.

Water pollution

Water pollution results from two main causes namely chemical and thermal pollution.

- a) Chemical pollution is due to the pouring of industrial wastes into rivers and lakes. Similarly, it occurs when ground water has a high percentage of chemicals. Furthermore, it is caused by adding chemicals detergents, bleaches and fertilizers into water sources.

These chemicals destroy the tiny plants called algae. These are important food for fish. The destroyed algae is decomposed by bacteria. The latter multiplies and uses up a lot of oxygen. When this happens fish and other creatures in the water may die due to shortage of oxygen.

- b) Thermal pollution is excessive heat added to the natural water supply. This is possible if water from an industrial plant, which is used to cool the machines, is poured into a river or a lake. The temperatures of the lake/river water increases and hence fish and plants die due to increased temperatures.

Hazardous wastes

Hazardous wastes are by-products that are difficult to dispose of safely. Many kinds of hazardous wastes don't easily decompose through biological process into harmless materials. Some chemicals that were once thought to be harmless are becoming a threat to health nowadays. They cause diseases such as cancer, depression, liver damage and miscarriages.

Soil pollution

This form of pollution occurs when chemicals or nuclear wastes are dumped in the soil. Dumping reduces soil fertility and thus affects crop yields.

The nuclear and chemical wastes also cause underground water pollution. In this process salts and other chemicals creep into the soil and into wells.

Measures against environmental pollution

Preventing air pollution is expensive. For example, we cannot trap polluted air, purify it and re-use it like water. We can only reduce the intensity of environmental pollution by doing the following:

- a) Use low-sulphur coal in cement factories. Alternatively, use other energy sources such as hydroelectricity, wind power and solar energy.
- b) Discourage deforestation; encourage afforestation and the planting of green plants. Trees will reduce soil erosion, act as wind breakers and attract rain.
- c) Cut down pollution by cars and factories. This can be done by using gadgets that convert car smoke into carbon dioxide and water vapour. Alternatively, hydrogen fuel may be used. It does not pollute; it is friendly to the environment. However, it is difficult to store and distribute.
- d) People should be encouraged to maintain cleanliness in their surroundings.
- e) People should not cultivate crops near water sources. This will prevent soil erosion and water pollution.
- f) People should use clean and reliable toilets.
- g) Littering should be discouraged. People should use dust bins and bury refuse.
- h) Anti-pollution laws should be enacted and enforced.
- i) Whenever possible, alternative sources of energy should be used. They should replace petroleum and its by-products. The latter emit oxides which pollute the environment.
- j) Stop smoking and control nuclear waste-disposal.

QUESTIONS

1. What is an environment?
2. Define environmental pollution.

3. How does carbon dioxide, sulphur oxides, Nitrogen Oxides affect our daily life?
4. Outline the advantages of Ozone layer.
5. Water pollution results from two main causes:
(a).....(b).....
6. How does soil pollution occur?
7. Name six ways of reducing the intensity of environmental pollution.

CHAPTER 8

DEGRADING THE ENVIRONMENT: AGRICULTURE AND DEFORESTATION

Degrading the environment means destroying it through daily human activities. The most common of these are agriculture, forest exploitation, industrialization and urbanization. This chapter shows how agriculture and deforestation can degrade or deplete the environment.

Agriculture

Agriculture depends on the suitability of the soil. This is the fragile layer of fertility covering the earth's crust. It is a mixture of eroded rock, minerals, organic materials and minute creatures such as worms. Soil is formed slowly through weathering of rock and the rotting of organic matter. A single centimetre of soil may take twenty or more years to form. However, that centimetre can be lost or destroyed by a single down-pour of rain.

Agriculture is necessary for feeding the world's expanding population. However, it is an economic activity that can degrade the environment. This can come about through: overgrazing, overcultivation, bush fires, desertification and intensive cultivation.

Overgrazing

The increase in livestock may create high pressure on pasture lands. This causes overgrazing. The effect of overgrazing of pasture by cattle or goats is to remove the grass cover and expose the soil. As the animals become more hungry, they pull up the plant roots making the soil less stable. Overgrazing exposes the soil to erosion by wind and water. Examples of overgrazed areas are in Kondo, Singida, Arusha and Shinyanga in Tanzania.

Overcultivation

Overcultivation occurs when there is limited suitable land for agriculture while its demand is high. Examples are on the slopes of Kilimanjaro and in Ukara island. People keep growing crops on the same piece of land every year. Overcultivation usually causes

gully erosion. Moreover, if the cultivators do not add manure to the soil, it gets exhausted quickly.

Bush fires

The burning of bushland and forests is common in many parts of the Third World, including Tanzania. People light bush fires to clear land for agriculture. Pastoralists burn bush so that fresh grass for their livestock may sprout.

These fires are another way of degrading the environment. They destroy not only the vegetation and thick forests but also their natural inhabitants. The burnt areas always face soil erosion from heavy rain storms and wind.

Desertification

In some areas, poor agricultural practices cause desertification. Such practices may include excessive clearance of vegetation, overgrazing and overstocking. Too many animals deplete the vegetation. Moreover, they trample the soil to dust. Thus, land dries up and hardens. Rain runs off not in. Erosion sets in and desertification may occur.

Desertification means irreversible decline in the land's productivity. It is a particular problem in dry land used for grazing. Today, in Africa and Asia, human made deserts are common. Several million hectares of land become desert annually.

In Tanzania, parts of Mwanza, Shinyanga and Dodoma are experiencing this process.



Figure 8.1: Desertification in Dodoma

Intensive agriculture

Today, intensive agriculture has largely replaced the traditional mixed cropping and fallowing. The former method entails continuous intensive cultivation of a single crop—such as cotton, tobacco or maize. It relies on mechanization, the application of artificial fertilizers and chemicals. What are the side effects of these innovations?

- a) The run-off of the agriculture chemicals pollutes water. Ultimately people using that water are affected. So are the other creatures depending on that water.
- b) The nitrogenous fertilizers emit nitrous oxide. This is a greenhouse gas that contributes to excessive earth warming.
- c) Pesticides and artificial fertilizers have caused chemical pollution and the destruction of wild animals and useful insects.
- d) The clearing of forest for large-scale agriculture destroys the habitat. It also kills various species of creatures or organisms.
- e) Irrigation exposes people to water-borne and vector-borne diseases.

- f) During tractor or plane spray, part of the chemicals does not land on the ground or crop. It remains suspended in the air and drifts away to other areas.
- g) The application of fertilizers causes changes in soil fertility. This affects plant communities and the people or animals using those plants or their grains.

Land degradation accelerates as population expands. This leads to more intensive and more mechanised agricultural practices. Since 1945, one fifth of agricultural and postoral land has suffered moderate to extreme degradation. These are UNO estimates. It is estimated, further, that erosion and desertification threaten 40% of Africa's non-desert land and 30% of Asia's. About 20% of Latin America's non-desert land, 4% of North America's and 17% of Europe's is threatened by erosion and desertification. World-wide, 1% (25 billion tons) of the top-soil is lost through wind and water erosion annually.

Forest Exploitation

Forests are very useful to man. Our livelihood depends upon a wide range of forest products and services. The following are the main advantages:

Domestic uses

From the earliest times man has used fodder, fuel-wood, fibres and timber. He has also lived on the meat and used the skins of wild animals living in forests.

Indigenous people in general use forests productively and sustainably. Their farming methods improve soil fertility. Also, they use thousands of plant species as sources of medicines, food, building and craftwork materials.

Soil protection

The tree canopy and leaves in forests protect the soil from the impact of heavy rain. Tree roots hold the soil particles together. This reduces run off and erosion. It also helps to prevent floods and land slides. Moreover, the rotting leaves and wood help to build up the fertility of the soil.

Regulation of climate

Forest play a major part in regulating the world's climate. Furthermore through the carbon and oxygen cycles, they influence

the rate of Global warming. When forests are burnt, much carbon dioxide is released in the air. Carbon dioxide is the main greenhouse gas. The forests act as "Carbon Sinks." They trap carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. It is stored in the form of carbohydrates in the tree tissues. The forests also conserve moisture and regulate rainfall.

Home for various creatures

Tropical forests are a rich home for many types of living things. The rain forests cover only 7% of the earth's surface. But they are home for at least 50% of all species of plants and animals.

Other benefits

A whole range of economic benefits come from forests. For example, they provide commercial wood products such as (logs, pulp paper and medicines). Forests are the source of many fruits, honey gum, latex, meat and dyes.

Loss of Forests

Tropical forests are being destroyed faster than ever. About 20 million hectares are destroyed every year. It is estimated that forest areas are being cleared 30 times faster than they are being planted. This section will show the reasons for the fast destruction of forests.

Agricultural purpose

In Africa, Latin America and Asia forests are destroyed through burning the felling. This is done to create small farms and cattle ranches. Lack of land and rapid population growth have necessitated both intensive and large scale agriculture. The aims are to produce ample food and crops for export to earn foreign exchange.

Energy and Mining

In many parts of the third world, forests are destroyed to open up land for hydroelectricity dams. Major mining projects have also contributed to forest degradation.

Logging

Vast tracts of forest are cleared for the roads which logging companies build. This initial clearance is followed by yet more clearance by those who settle in the forest land for logging purposes.



Figure 8.2: Forest degradation for agriculture purposes

The logging itself is highly destructive. For every green cut many more trees are destroyed. Moreover, the soil is sufficiently disturbed to prevent regeneration. This leaves a badly degraded environment. Worse still, cleared areas dry out quickly; and easily catch fire.

Fuel Wood

Fuel wood is one of the threats to tropical dry forests. The fuel wood requirements of urban people are ever increasing. The

tropical forests that are close to urban areas are under the threat not only for wood but also for the land.

Charcoal burning is a major cause of degradation in the poor nations. But it is also an attractive source of income in towns and cities.

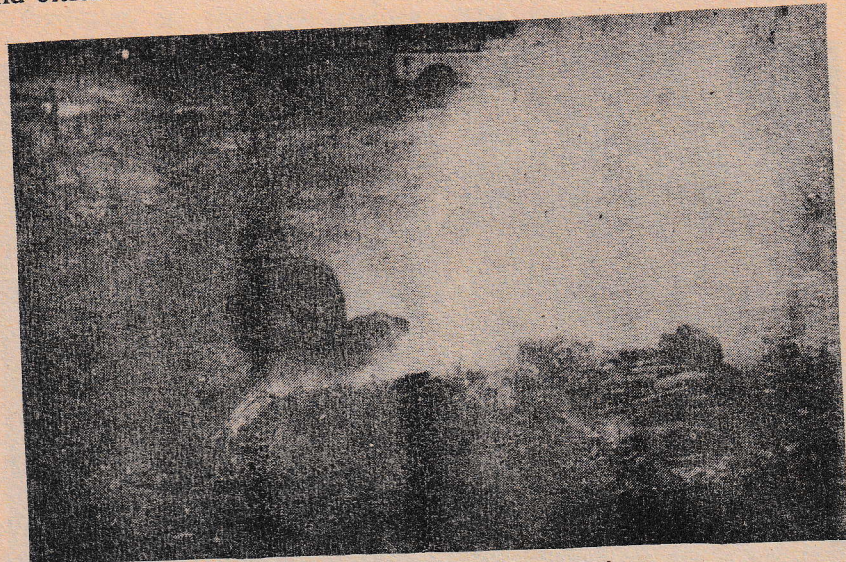


Figure 8.3: Charcoal burning

About 2 billion people are short of fuel wood to cook their food. This problem is acute in the arid and semi-arid areas of Sub-Saharan Africa. For the poor households there is no substitute to fuel wood. Any other fuel is too expensive. Therefore, more and more forests in rural area are cleared for wood and for charcoal to serve the urban market.

Because of the shortage of fuel wood poor families often burn dung and crop residues. Otherwise, these would be returned to the soil to restore fertility.

The problem can be solved in several ways. Firstly, more trees should be planted. Secondly, alternative sources of energy should be used. These include coal, solar energy, electricity and biogas. Thirdly, more efficient stoves should be used in cooking. These may cut down wood consumption tremendously. This may in turn save much time and the energy of the women who walk long distances to fetch fuel wood.

Consequences

What, then, are the consequences of the destruction of forests?

- a) The valuable resources found in forests are destroyed or lost.
- b) The potential of soil erosion, flood and destructive winds is increased.
- c) Global warming, desertification and frequent droughts are accelerated.
- d) The needs of the poor people are not met. This applies to those who depend on the forest for necessities such as medicine and food items.

QUESTIONS

- 1. Briefly explain the effect of overgrazing.
- 2. What is overcultivation?
- 3. Human made deserts are common in Africa and Asia. Outline some steps to solve this problem.
- 4. What are the effects of intensive agriculture?
- 5. Briefly explain the importance of forests.

DEPLETING THE ENVIRONMENT: INDUSTRIALIZATION AND URBANIZATION

In Chapter Eight, we say how agriculture and deforestation affect the environment. This chapter will show how industrialization and urbanization can affect the environment.

Industrialization

Industrialization and economic development require much energy. Fossil fuels (coal, oil and gas) have been the dominant source of energy. Of all the energy consumed commercially in today's world, 88% comes from fossil fuel, 7% from hydropower and 5% from nuclear power and other sources.

Households in rich countries use both electricity and fossil fuels (especially gas and coal). Most of the people in the poor countries rely on the dwindling supplies of biomass fuels (wood, crop residues and animal dung). These are thus diverted from soil fertilisation.

Therefore, fossil fuels are the basis of man's development. However, as shown below, these sources of energy deplete the environment. This is one of the reasons why alternative sources should be sought.

Global Warming

Coal fired power plants contribute greatly to the emission of carbon dioxide, a major greenhouse gas. So do the millions of petroleum fueled vehicles and factories.

One of the effects of global warming is to raise global temperatures. The gravest effect is the melting of the ice at the poles of the earth. This increases the volume of ocean waters. Thousands of hectares of useful lowlands are flooded. Populations are forced to shift to higher land. Immovable properties, towns and villages are lost under water.

Acid rain

Acid precipitation (rain, hail or snow) results from the accumulation of certain air pollutants. Normally these are the oxides of sulphur and nitrogen. Coal fuel and oil fired power plants have long been the major source of these pollutants. They are usually emitted through high factory chimneys. This assists their dispersal into the atmosphere. Acid rain is a trans-boundary problem. What are the effects of acid rains?

Firstly, about one third of Europe's forests have been damaged by acid precipitation. This has meant the loss of about one-sixth of the potential timber harvest. Secondly, acid rain may leach certain nutrients (e.g. magnesium) out of the forest soil. This causes nutritional deficiencies to the vegetation.

Thirdly, large quantities of acid may fall on lakes. This can exhaust their capacity to absorb and neutralize. In that case, acidification and ecological deterioration may occur. Fourthly, acid rain may cause the mobilization of toxic metals from surrounding soils into the water. Toxic metals include aluminium, copper, lead and mercury. Plants, bacteria, invertebrates, amphibians and fish are all affected by these metals. Fifthly, acidification may destroy the algae in the lakes. Fish feed on these tiny plants. Therefore, their destruction may cause a decline in fish supplies.

Furthermore, acid rain can affect human life by contaminating drinking water. This may result from the leaking of toxic metals. Acid rain may also impair food production. Exposure to mists of sulphuric acid may increase the risk of lung cancer. Mercury accumulation in fish may present a health problem. Exposure to lead causes impaired intellectual development in young children. Finally, acid precipitation has a direct chemical damage to crops. It acidifies the soil and reduces fertility.

The effects of industrial development

Industrialization, like all things, has both negative and positive aspects.

Negative aspects

- a) Industrialization can cause air and water pollution
- b) Industries tend to be located in urban areas. Therefore, a lot of people arrive in towns, only to find that there are not enough jobs to go round. These end up unemployed and unable to find a place to live. This movement into towns also leads to the breakdown of traditional societies.

- c) Chemicals are usually used in industrial production. Therefore, a lot of industrially - produced foods and drinks may contain substances which cause serious diseases, particularly cancer.
- d) Some industries are using up man's non-renewable natural resources such as the fossil fuels.
- e) New technology introduces machines to do work instead of people, when this happens, unemployment is increased.

Positive aspects of industrialization

- a) Industrialization had made it possible to produce more goods more cheaply.
- b) Transport and communications have been improved. The production of bicycles, cars etc. has made transport cheaper, quicker, more comfortable and reliable. We now receive news through radios, televisions, telephones, telexes and telefaxes.
- c) Industrialization has greatly improved the quality of life. This is attributable to such industrial products as clean water, food, medicine, soap, clothes and shoes.

Urbanization

Urbanization is the situation in which the percentage of the population living in towns (urban areas) increases. The third world countries are experiencing urbanization currently. It is estimated that by the year 2025 more people will be living in cities than in rural areas. This will occur mostly in the third world. In the developed countries, many people already live in towns and cities. However, their urban growth rate has decreased to less than 1% a year while in the third world, towns and cities are growing at an average of 3.6%.

Factors of urbanization

There are many factors which promote urbanization in the third world.

- a) These countries have a high population growth rate.
- b) Urban areas are expected to offer employment and better living standards.
- c) There is increasing poverty in the rural areas.

- d) In other countries rural people are experiencing landlessness and soil conflicts. These force them to migrate to towns.

Thus, urban populations in developing nations grow over three times faster than rural populations.

Problems of urbanization in developing nations

The third world countries are severely strained by the growth of population in urban areas. They cannot manage urban growth or provide the basic needs of their people. Urbanization has led to many problems:

- a) Many city dwellers are squatters. It has been impossible to plan the growth of the building areas.
- b) Large section of the cities are without basic public services such as clean water supply, main drainage, electricity or refuse collection.
- c) The poorest people suffer the worst living conditions. They can just afford to live in areas unfit for housing or in crowded slums. Houses are constructed on unstable hillsides, on land subjected to flooding or in contaminated areas close to industries. Millions sleep in make-shift paper structure, or road sides or in gutters.
- d) Transport facilities are poor. Medical care is inadequate. There are too few schools, even these are not adequately provided for.
- e) Air and water pollution levels are high.
- f) Employment is limited. Few have jobs in the formal sector; 70% live on income from activities in the informal economy.
- g) A high proportion of people are employed in such services as domestic servants, cleaners, nightwatchmen, repairmen and guards. Jobs are frequently broken down into very small portions so that a larger number of people can be employed.
- h) The main problem is the gap between the rich minority and the vast majority who have little or nothing. The former dominate the wealth of these poor nations.

Depletion of Environment

The urban and rural environments are interdependent. Cities are the main centres of production, consumption and communication.

But they depend on the rural areas for labour, resources, energy, foodstuffs and fuel. Cities also produce great quantities of domestic and industrial waste. They cause much air and water pollution.

Supplying the needs of the cities is a major cause of environmental change. As the towns and cities grow, farmlands, forest and water sources can all be degraded.

Most third world cities do not have effective water and air pollution regulations. Their standards of handling waste are poor or absent. As a result, bad health is a major environmental hazard of living in the cities.



Figure 9.1: Waste dumps inside Dar es Salaam.

The third world urban areas are pervaded by infectious disease and malnutrition, especially among women and children. Their chronic disease include respiratory disorders caused by air pollution, malaria, cholera and dysentery. In the crowded slums, individuals have less than one square metre of space each. Thus, the transmission of tuberculosis (TB), influenza and meningitis occurs easily.

Problems of urbanization in developed nations

Cities in the rich countries also have their share of urbanization problems. Most urban centres are experiencing a crisis of disinterest in industrial or urban living. In this case, the urban elites are moving from the inner cities. They are living behind underfunded social infrastructures. It is as if they are running away from demoralised civil administration; escaping the grudges of the socially disadvantaged population. The cities are beset by unemployment, family break-down, loneliness, violence, drug abuse and other forms of criminality.

The environment in, and around, the cities is strained. This is caused by the spread of cities and industrialization. It is also due to the concentration of human, domestic and commercial wastes. Waste lands and swamps are filled in with refuse and chemical wastes. Fresh water supplies get interrupted by local agricultural needs. Furthermore, coastal and river fisheries get polluted with various chemicals. Air pollution, especially smog, damages the surrounding vegetation.

QUESTIONS

1. Briefly explain the effect of global warming.
2. What are the effects of acid rain?
3. What are the factors which has promoted urbanization in the third world?
4. What are the problems of urbanization in developing nations?
5. How does urbanization affect environment?

HUMAN MIGRATION AND THE REFUGEES

Migration means a permanent change of home. But it can also apply to temporary movements such as those of nomads or people who move in search for work. The movement may be voluntary or a forced one. Voluntary or 'free' migration is more common than forced movements. They are generally prompted by a desire for better living standards or greater personal freedom.

Forced migrations can occur for both natural and man-made reasons. For example, environmental disasters like floods or drought lead to migrations. This happens especially when they cause crop failure and famine. Similarly, the problems associated with overpopulation in small poor countries cause emigration. Moreover, political pressure can cause large-scale migration. War or persecution inevitably create refugees. The Rwanda and Burundi refugees in Tanzania, Zaire, and Uganda are the closest illustrations.

Migration in Tanzania

Migration during colonial period

Large scale rural-urban migration started during colonialism. The colonialists regarded their colonies as sources of raw materials. They also regarded them as markets for industrial manufactures from Europe.

Consequently, a few towns were established. These served as administrative and commercial centres. Ports and harbours were also set up. They served as outlets for raw materials and inlets for industrial manufactures.

It was towards these centres that the rural-urban migrants rushed. They were in search of work. They were attracted by European social and economic modernization. They were seeking the means to acquire European industrial goods such as watches, shoes, gramophones, bicycles and sewing machines.

Post-colonial period migration

The end of colonialism did not spell the end of rural-urban migration. If anything accelerated. This has mainly been due to the nature of the post-colonial economy.

From the 1960's there have been transfers of some industries to third world countries. These served the local markets. They also processed raw materials for exports to the older industrial nations.

The transfer of industries to the third world was due to the cheaper cost of labour there. They are located in the urban centres. This adds to the inequalities between the rural areas and the towns or cities. Consequently, people tend to migrate increasingly from the less accessible and poor villages to the attractive and more developed towns.

Impact of money

Money has been another vital attraction in the rural-urban pull. Transfers of money to the rural areas by migrants can encourage further migration both directly and indirectly.

Migrants do influence economic changes in the rural economies in other ways. They encourage the production of the food and other supplies needed in towns.

International labour migration

From the 1960's international labour migration became increasingly significant. This flow of migrants across international boundaries occurs in many parts of the world: from third world countries to developed countries; from several African countries to southern African countries; from Mexico to USA; from North Africa to Europe; from the Caribbean to Britain and so on. The oil-rich countries of the Middle East have also become significant importer of labour.

International labour migration does not affect the size of the population significantly. Normally the migrants do not move with their families. At the end of the contract the migrants are forced to return to their home countries. However, it has a significant impact on the development of the areas of origin. The migrants send home foreign earnings. They also transmit some of the technological and cultural features of foreign societies.

QUESTIONS

1. What is migration?
2. What are the main causes of migration?
3. Name the countries which have been greatly affected by migration in recent years.
4. Name the effects of migration that you know.



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Mr. Mgaywa is interested in Political, Social and Economic affairs with special emphasis on Human rights and International Relations.

He is well travelled as demonstrated by a private study he undertook in Kenya, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland, Mozambique, Malawi and South Africa. He found this tour stimulating and educative. He met and spoke to a number of Heads of Secondary Schools, Colleges and Curriculum development experts in these parts of Africa. This enabled him to make an informed assessment of educational problems facing Eastern, Central and the Southern Africa region in comparison and contrast to those facing Tanzania.