NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

MONTEREY, CALIFORNIA

THESIS

ENHANCING HUMAN RESOURCE CAPABILITY IN THE TANZANIA PEOPLES DEFENSE FORCE (TPDF)

by

Lilian Kingazi

June 2006

Thesis Advisor: Anna Simons
Second Reader: George Lober

Approved for public release; distribution is unlimited

THIS PAGE INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		*Form Approved OMB No. 0704-0188*
Public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average 1 hour per response, including the time for reviewing instruction, searching existing data sources, gathering and maintaining the data needed, and completing and reviewing the collection of information. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing this burden, to Washington headquarters Services, Directorate for Information Operations and Reports, 1215 Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington, VA 22202-4302, and to the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reduction Project (0704-0188) Washington DC 20503.		
1. AGENCY USE ONLY *(Leave blank)*	**2. REPORT DATE** June 2006	**3. REPORT TYPE AND DATES COVERED** Master's Thesis
4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE Enhancing Human Resource Capability in the Tanzania Peoples Defense Force		**5. FUNDING NUMBERS**
6. AUTHOR(S) Lilian Kingazi		
7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, CA 93943-5000		**8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER**
9. SPONSORING /MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) N/A		**10. SPONSORING/MONITORING AGENCY REPORT NUMBER**
11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES The views expressed in this thesis are those of the author and do not reflect the official policy or position of the Department of Defense or the U.S. Government.		
12a. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT Approved for public release, distribution is unlimited		**12b. DISTRIBUTION CODE**

13. ABSTRACT (maximum 200 words)

The Tanzania Peoples Defense Force (TPDF) was established as a people's army entrusted with the traditional roles and missions of defending the United Republic of Tanzania against external enemies. The end of the Cold War and the collapse of the Soviet Union changed the strategic environment. Refugees from conflict torn areas, poaching, small arms proliferation, political fundamentalism, drug trafficking, transnational terrorism, and environmental degradation threaten internal security. At regional level, the Tanzania Peoples Defense Force with the militaries of other countries has been deployed in conflict areas through regional bodies such as the East African Community (EAC) and South African Development Community (SADC) on issues of collective defense and security. Technological developments also call for a military with the capability to operate modern weaponry systems and to operate in a complex environment.

This thesis argues that innovative thinking has to be developed to enable the TPDF to meet conventional and unconventional military demands through the development of its human resources.

14. SUBJECT TERMS Human Resource Management, Personnel Capabilities, Peoples Militia, Manpower, Career Development			**15. NUMBER OF PAGES** 95
			16. PRICE CODE
17. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF REPORT Unclassified	**18. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE** Unclassified	**19. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT** Unclassified	**20. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT** UL

NSN 7540-01-280-5500

Standard Form 298 (Rev. 2-89)
Prescribed by ANSI Std. 239-18

THIS PAGE INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK

**ENHANCING HUMAN RESOURCE CAPABILITY IN THE TANZANIA
PEOPLES DEFENSE FORCE (TPDF)**

Lilian Kingazi
Colonel, Tanzania Army
B.A., University College of Dar es Salaam, 1983

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN DEFENSE ANALYSIS

from the

**NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
June 2006**

Author: Lilian Kingazi

Approved by: Anna Simons
                 Thesis Advisor

                 George Lober
                 Second Reader

                 Gordon McCormick
                 Chairman, Department of Defense Analysis

THIS PAGE INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK

ABSTRACT

The Tanzania Peoples Defense Force (TPDF) was established as a people's army entrusted with the traditional roles and missions of defending the United Republic of Tanzania against external enemies. The end of the Cold War and the collapse of the Soviet Union changed the strategic environment. Refugees from conflict torn areas, poaching, small arms proliferation, political and religious fundamentalism, drug trafficking, transnational terrorism, and environmental degradation threaten internal security. At regional level, the TPDF with the militaries of other countries has been deployed in conflict areas through regional bodies such as the East African Community (EAC) and South African Development Community (SADC) on issues of collective defense and security. Technological developments also call for a military with the capability to operate modern weaponry systems and to operate in a complex environment.

This thesis argues that innovative thinking has to be developed to enable the TPDF to meet conventional and unconventional military demands through the development of its human resources.

THIS PAGE INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK

TABLE OF CONTENTS

THIS PAGE INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I owe special thanks to my thesis advisor, Professor Anna Simons, and Mr. George Lober, my second reader who guided me through the thesis process. I also thank the library staff who supported me in getting the resources for my thesis.

Special thanks goes to General George Marwa Waitara, the Chief of Tanzania Peoples Defense Forces who allowed me to attend the Defense Analysis program.

The list of all who supported me during the preparation of this thesis at the Naval Postgraduate School (NPS) and in Tanzania is long and I cannot mention them one by one. To all I say thank you.

Last but not least, my special thanks to my family who supported me throughout my stay at NPS.

THIS PAGE INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK

I.   THE IMPERATIVE TO ENHANCE THE HUMAN RESOURCE CAPABILITY IN THE TANZANIA PEOPLES DEFENSE FORCE

A.   BACKGROUND

The history of the Tanzania Peoples Defense Force (TPDF) stretches back to when the Germans ruled the area known then as German East Africa, from 1884-1918. This area consisted of Tanganyika, Rwanda, and Burundi. During this time the Germans established an army consisting of local soldiers and German officers, known as the Schultztruppe (Parson, 2003). After the defeat of the Germans in WWI, German East Africa was divided between Belgium and Britain, with Britain receiving the bulk of the area which was renamed the Tanganyika Trustee Territory. The British established the King's African Rifles (KAR) based on the model of the Schultztruppe. Upon independence from the British in 1961, the Tanganyika component of the KAR became the Tanganyika Rifles (TR) with African soldiers led by British officers (Lupogo, 2001).

The Tanganyika Rifles revolted in January 1964, demanding the removal of the British officers, the promotion of Africans, and an increase in pay (Lupogo, 2001). Once the mutiny was contained, the Tanganyika Rifles were disbanded by the government. While efforts to establish a new army were carried out by the government, peace in the country was entrusted to the Nigerian army and the British Marine Commandos, who assisted in disarming the soldiers who mutinied.

Meanwhile, on the nearby island of Zanzibar, a revolution was brewing, and the ruling Omani dynasty was overthrown on January 12, 1964. The Afro-Shiraz (ASP) party took over the leadership of the island (Parson, 2003). The irregular force, which spearheaded the Zanzibar revolution, turned into a nationalist army known as the Liberation Army. Three months later Tanganyika and Zanzibar united to form the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, which later became the United Republic of Tanzania. At this point the Liberation Army was integrated into the Tanganyika Army (Omary, 2002). As a united country, Tanzania recognized its need for a new national army to cater to the defense of the Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar. The first recruits

were obtained from the youth political wings of the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) and the Afro-Shiraz-Party of the Zanzibar Revolutionary Government and the National Service (Luanda, 2004).

On September 1, 1964, the new national army, the Tanzania Peoples Defense Force (TPDF), was established under the National Defense Act for the purpose of defending the United Republic of Tanzania against external threats. The new army was a people's army, established according to socialist ideology. It was politically oriented and highly integrated with the society. Military personnel and other civil servants were not only allowed to join the ruling political party, TANU, but this was a prerequisite for enrollment into the military. Political commissars were introduced into the military. Battalion-sized units became party branches and every commander became a party chairman at his level of command (Lupogo, 2001). Party officials were trained at the Tanzania Military Academy, where they acquired military knowledge and a rank. Then they were then either posted into the military or absorbed into the public and political arena (Omary, 2002).

From its inception, the members of the TPDF were taught that they belonged to the people and were under civilian control. In this way, not only the commanders, but all troops knew exactly where they stood in relation to the party, the government, and the people (Lupogo, 2001). The TPDF performed its roles and missions based on this system up to the end of the Cold War.

The collapse of the Soviet Union led Tanzania to review it strategies and defense policies, including making the Armed forces apolitical. Since the late 1980's, Tanzania has been striving to modernize its defense forces to meet the needs of the new strategic security environment. In 1992 Tanzania restructured the defense forces and downsized the organization in accordance with recommendations from the Strategic Defense Review carried out in 1990.

The Strategic Defense Review considered the change in the political, social, and economic environment and emphasized the concept of core force capability that can execute the peacetime contingencies and form the basis for future expansion. The concept also aims to reduce defense expenditures, given the financial constraints and ensure the

available limited financial resources allow for the real and crucial social developments needed without compromising military capabilities. This concept envisaged the complex environment the TPDF is likely to encounter as a result of internal threats such as refugees influx, high levels of crime, fundamentalism, and other threats to internal security.

Today, the TPDF faces more varied and complex challenges than it did when it was established. To meet these challenges it is imperative that the TPDF enhance the current capabilities of its people to readjust to evolving strategic situations.

1.   The Strategic Environment

The distinguishing feature of the post-Cold War era is a change in the strategic environment causing a decline of wars between states and the rise of war within states, sometimes resulting in collapsed states. Moskos (2000) argues that the new strategic environment has led the military to be employed in separating belligerents, resettling refugees, delivering food and medical supplies, and providing security for humanitarian organizations. This has created demands that, if not entirely new, are of a larger scale than those with which the military has traditionally contended. Peace keeping and humanitarian missions have come to occupy a more central position in military doctrine than ever before (Moskos, 2000).

The change in the strategic environment is no different for Tanzania. The TPDF has been involved in dealing with internal problems of refugees, crime, poaching, and political and religious fundamentalism more frequently than before. The TPDF, with other countries' militaries under United Nations (UN) mandate, has been deployed for peacekeeping activities within the Southern African region and elsewhere. According to Jane's Defense Review Tanzania has contributed forces to UN and African peacekeeping operations in Liberia, Sierra Leone, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Sudan, Eritrea, and Ethiopia. Tanzania has also joined other regional states to form the SADC Standby Brigade part of the African Union's (AU) planned African Standby Force (ASF) in an effort to build a collective African Defense and Security initiative.

2.   Technological Developments

Since the last decade there has been tremendous change in how wars are fought. Technology has changed the battlefield in all aspects of command and control, firepower,

and organization. Technology has always had an influence on military organizations, processes, policy, and doctrinal issues. The way wars are fought today differs from how wars were fought in the 20th century due to the impact of technological developments in weaponry systems and equipment. In the past, large armies were a major factor in fighting and winning wars; today it is the application of firepower that matters. Modern technology has affected the battlefield as technology increasingly replaces physical strength. Technological developments and globalization call for a defense force with the capability to adapt to the new technologies required for national defense.

3. Support to Civil Authority and Civil Power

According to the Defense Forces Regulations Volume 1, (1966), one of the roles of the TPDF is to assist the civil power and civil authority. Assisting the civil power refers to the TPDF's effort to support the police and other paramilitary forces in civil defense, while assisting the civil authority refers to providing support during calamities and disasters such as floods, land, air, and water accidents and other natural calamities. As a result, the TPDF has been called to assist the civil power in dealing with refugees, drugs and small arms trafficking, poaching, and crime. During the 2005/2006 budget session the Minister of Defense and National Service Honorable Philemon Sarungi observed that over the past ten years, the TPDF, in collaboration with the Tanzania police, successfully carried out anti poaching operations against armed gangs threatened the wildlife and lives and security of the citizens in the Northeastern part of Tanzania (Sarungi, 2005). The TPDF members have also restored infrastructure by building bridges and road networks in areas hit by El Niño rains. They have also conducted search and rescue operations and refugee repatriation (Sarungi, 2005).

As the Tanzania Defense Forces continually find themselves getting more involved in internal security issues and regional and international defense and security requirements, there is a need to assess the human resource capability of the Tanzanian military, to equip TPDF members with the right set of cognitive skills, motivation, and inspiration to rise above day-to-day operational requirements.

The need to look into the human resource aspect of the TPDF is based on the understanding that people are the most important asset of any organization. It is the people who define the character of the organization, affect its capacity to perform, and

represent the knowledge base of the organization. It is only the people, compared with other organizational resources, who have the organic capacity to self-adapt (Dawen, 2003). Emphasis on the human dimension of military capability is crucial to the overall defense capability and readiness of the Tanzania Peoples' Defense Forces to perform current and future missions at the national and international level.

B.   PURPOSE

The purpose of this research is to review, analyze, and examine the roles of the Tanzania Peoples Defense Forces in relation to the new threats facing Tanzania, and the Southern Africa region. Emphasis will be on how to increase the capability of military personnel by examining the recruitment, employment, training, education, and retention strategies, and policies of the TPDF to determine whether the areas mentioned above address the changes in the social and situational environment in which the TPDF functions. The research will also examine the regional security environment in the East African Community (EAC) and South African Development Community of which Tanzania is a member, and with whom Tanzania participates in exercises, training, and peacekeeping operations and other matters in regional cooperation.

The findings of the research will identify areas the TPDF needs to address to enhance effective performance of its personnel and to ensure the effective military performance of the defense forces to meet current and future operations requirements.

C.   SCOPE AND METHODOLOGY

In order to address the topic in depth, this research covers various areas using the following methods:

- Collect data, review, and analyze books, magazines, articles, journals, and other secondary resources.

- Interview policy makers at the Defense Forces Headquarters on strategy and policies concerning the Defense Forces. Also, conduct interviews with directing staff in selected training institutions to determine how training is related to the present roles and missions of the TPDF.

- Conduct overall assessment of the missions, policies, and strategies of the Tanzania Peoples Defense Force human resource capability.

D. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The first chapter will provide a general background of the problem and describe the purpose of the research. The second chapter will offer a general overview of the strategic security environment, the national threats, the vision, roles, and missions of the TPDF and human resource management in the TPDF. This analysis will determine whether the vision, roles and missions are compatible with the current strategic environment. It will also review the challenges at the national and regional levels, and national policies regarding human resources. This chapter will also consider areas for enhancement with respect to the human resource capabilities required by the TPDF to perform its present and future roles and missions internal to Tanzania.

The third chapter will review the regional organizations, namely the AU, EAC, and the SADC, to which Tanzania belongs. It will examine what Tanzania, as an active member, is required to contribute to the overall defense and security of the African region the sub-regions.

The fourth chapter will look at the implications, challenges, and limitations the TPDF is facing or is likely to encounter in its efforts to acquire efficiency in managing its people. It will include recommendations for handling these issues. The fifth chapter will present a conclusion and areas of further research.

E. DEFINITIONS, TERMS, AND ABBREVIATIONS

AU	African Union
ACRI	African Crisis Response Initiative
ASF	African Standby Force
ASP	Afro Shiraz Party
CBC	Community Based Conservation
CDF	Chief of Defense Forces
DFR	Defense Forces Regulations
EAC	East African Community
EASBRIG	East Africa Standby Brigade
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus-Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
JKT	Jeshi la Kujenga Taifa (National Service)

MOD	Ministry of Defense
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
NDA	National Defense Act
NDSC	National Defense and Security Council
OAU	Organization of African Union
OPDS	Organ for Politics, Defense, and Security
PS	Permanent Secretary
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADCC	South Africa Development Coordination Conference
SUMA	Shirika la Uzalishaji Mali
TANU	Tanganyika African Union
TPDF	Tanzania Peoples' Defense Forces
UN	United Nations
URT	United Republic of Tanzania

Armed Forces

According to the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania, the Armed Forces include the Defense Forces, the Police Force, the Prison Guards, and the National Service (Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania, 1997, p. 5).

Civil Military Relations

Civil military relation refers to the hierarchy of authority between the Executive, the Parliament, and the Defense Forces. A cardinal principle is that the Defense Forces are subordinate to the civilian authority (Chitiyo and Rupiya, 2005, p. 348).

Human Resource Management

This is the science and the practice that deals with the nature of the employment relationship and all of the decisions, actions, and issues that relate to that relationship. In practice, it involves the organization's acquisition, development, and utilization of employees, as well as the employees' relationship to the organization (Barnum, Dulebohn, Ferries, Holleran, and Rosen, 1995, pp. 1-2).

Human Resource Development

Human resource development refers to the provision of education and training for people lacking particular competencies, or to supplement existing capabilities. It

encompasses activities and processes which are intended to have an impact on organizational and individual learning designed to enhance the effectiveness of the people with the purpose of achieving the objective of the organization (Wilson, 1999, p. 11).

Human Capital

Human capital refers to the knowledge, skills, and capabilities of individuals that have economic value to an organization. It includes knowledge, skills, ability, and other personal characteristics (Hall and Hall, 2003, pp. 45-46).

Manpower

Manpower addresses the number of military and civilian personnel required and potentially available to operate, maintain, sustain, and provide training for systems. It refers to the number of personnel spaces (required or authorized positions) and available people (operating strength). It takes into consideration requirements for peacetime, conflict, and low intensity operations including the current and projected constraints on the total size of the army/ organization/ unit (MAPRINT, 2005, p. 2).

Personnel Capabilities

Manpower and personnel are closely related. While manpower looks at numbers of spaces and people, the domain of personnel addresses the cognitive and physical characteristics and capabilities required to be able to train for, operate, maintain, and sustain materiel and information systems. Personnel capabilities are normally reflected as: knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics ((MAPRINT, 2005, p. 2)

Peoples Militia

Peoples Militia refers to an organized group of people of the United Republic [of Tanzania] operating with the authority of and under the aegis of the Government and which is receiving military training, or is participating in any military training, quasi-military or law enforcement exercise for the protection of the sovereignty of the United Republic or for protection of the people or the property

of the United Republic. This does not include the Police Force, any arm or branch of the Defense Force, the Prison Service, or the National Service (Peoples Militia Compensation for Death or Injuries Act, 1973, p. 1).

Career Development

Career development focuses on providing the analysis necessary to identify the individual interests, values, competencies, activities and assignments needed to develop skills for future jobs Career development includes both individual and organizational activities. Individual activities include career planning, career awareness, and utilizing career resource centers. Organizational activities include job posting systems, career resource development and maintenance, using managers as career counselors, providing career development workshops and seminars, human resource planning, performance appraisal, and career path programs (Eggland, and Gilley, 1998, p. 15).

F.   SUMMARY

The TPDF was established as a people's army entrusted with the traditional roles and missions of defense of the United Republic of Tanzania against external enemies. The end of the Cold War and the collapse of the Soviet Union changed the strategic environment. New threats emerged which confronted the military and other disciplined forces in Tanzania with new challenges. The nature and character of these threats and challenges manifest themselves in a complex interplay of globalization, regional, and domestic processes. Although some of these threats are economic in nature and character, they also threaten territorial sovereignty and international cooperation. At a regional level, the TPDF, in collaboration with the militaries of other African countries, has been deployed in conflicts and humanitarian disasters as part of the African Security Initiative under the UN mandate, and through regional bodies such as the AU, EAC, and SADC.

Global technological developments, an increase in the TPDF's role to assist the civil authority/powers in fighting organized crime, poaching, political intolerance, religious extremism, terrorism, and in assisting refugees and regional integration calls for the TPDF to consider new policies, strategies, and processes. As a result, the TPDF needs

to prepare its military to deal with these new and growing needs. This can be achieved by enhancing the TPDF's capabilities in terms of technology, processes, organization, and its people.

This thesis will focus on the human resource capability (personnel) as one of the most important pillars for overall military effectiveness. The human resources component and the readiness of the TPDF refer to more than the status of an individual. It represents the collective capability of all individuals assigned to a unit. It is through enhancing individuals' capabilities, unit by unit, that the Tanzania military is able to perform its roles and missions to the highest degree. A small professional military with an emphasis on personnel development can meet Tanzania's defense requirement in the 21st century.

II. AN OVERVIEW OF THE TANZANIA SECURITY ENVIRONMENT, THE NATIONAL SECURITY THREATS, AND THE ROLES ORGANIZATION OF THE TPDF

This chapter analyses Tanzania's strategic environment, its national security threats, the organization of the TPDF, human resource management in the TPDF, and the relationship of human resource management policies in the military and the government. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section offers an overview of Tanzania's security environment and threats to national security, Tanzania's legal and theoretical framework on defense, and the roles and organization of the TPDF. The second section analyses how the TPDF manages its human resource base, including the reserves. The third section analyses the relationship between the TPDF's policies and Tanzania's overall policies on defense, with an emphasis on human resource management as a prerequisite for enhancing the nation's overall economic, social, and political development. The last section will identify areas where the TPDF needs further enhancement to enable it to perform its roles and functions effectively.

A. TANZANIA STRATEGIC ENVIRONMENT

Since its independence, Tanzania has enjoyed peace and tranquility compared to her neighbors. Generally, Tanzania maintains cordial relationship with its neighbors. Although Tanzania does not face external threats of invasion from its neighbors, security is threatened by the instability across its borders in what is known as the Great Lakes Region. These external threats come from the disturbed state of affairs in Rwanda, Burundi, and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and the sporadic influx of large numbers of refugees, peaking at around one million in the later 1990s (Rutinwa, 2005). Recently, Tanzania has been experiencing internal problems with a rise in political and religious fundamentalism that could yet threaten what has been long-standing internal peace.

B. NATIONAL SECURITY THREATS

1. Refugees

Tanzania is one of the countries in the area known as the Great Lakes Region in Eastern Africa. This area consists of the countries of Burundi, Rwanda, Democratic

Republic of Congo (DRC), Uganda, and Tanzania. For many years this area has been the center of conflicts and intrastate wars leading to massive refugee influxes into Tanzania. Tanzania has been hosting refugees since its independence as a result of the conflicts in the area. In the 1960s, Tanzania opted for an open-door policy for refugees, allowing them socioeconomic rights to the fullest extent possible. For example, Hoyweghen (2001) observes that from 1994 to 1996 the western part of Tanzania known as the Kagera region, hosted over 700,000 refugees compared with the local population of 1.3 million. The impact of refugees on the local population was considerable as hungry refugees stole crops and cattle and destroyed fields in search of fire wood, creating alarming rates of deforestation (Hoyweghen, 2001). Jack (2001) on the other hand, argues that the problem of refugees cannot be assessed in terms of their negative impact only. Refugees contribute to the labor force and economy by providing labor and serving as a market for products, thereby boosting the local economy (Jack, 2001).

The refugee influx is complicated by ethnic dispersion, porous borders between East African states, shared blood ties, common culture, and shared values among the people straddling those borders. From the late 1990s, the Tanzanian government adopted a policy which focused on granting only temporary protection for refugees, with the intention to repatriating them as soon as possible given their negative impact on security. In justification of this policy, the government of Tanzania cited the negative impact of the presence of refuges, including the deterioration of security, environmental degradation, damage to infrastructure, and retardation of economic development in the refugee hosting regions. During a parliamentary meeting in June 2005, members of parliament observed that armed robberies and other forms of violence were rampant in the western border region and called for joint efforts to stamp out insecurity in the area instead of leaving the task to the TPDF only (The Guardian, 2005).

The greatest problem posed by refugees stems from severed diplomatic relations between Tanzania and Burundi. After the 1994 genocide in Rwanda, the presence of refugees became a source of tension in relations with Burundi, and to a certain extent, Rwanda, arising from suspicions that the refugees were grouping and training to attack their countries of origin. This tension reached its peak in the mid 1990s when Burundi persistently accused Tanzania of harboring and training Burundi rebels, charges which

Tanzania strongly refuted the allegations, this led to a rupture in relations between Tanzania, Burundi, and Rwanda. The Tanzanian government asked for international assistance to repatriate an estimated 200,000 Burundians and 250,000 Zairians to their respective countries.

Since 2001 refugee flows have largely declined and there has been considerable repatriation of refugees back to their countries of origin as peace has been substantially re-established in much of the Great Lakes region. The UNHCR estimates there are about 800,000 refugees in Tanzania, mainly from Burundi, Rwanda, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Somalia (Rutinwa, 2005).

2. Small Arms Proliferation

Associated with the problem of an influx of refugees is the problem of small arms proliferation. Findings from a study conducted by the University College of Dar-es-Salaam concluded that refugees bring with them weapons which they sell cheaply to obtain money for survival. Weapons are used for armed robbery and killing people, causing some village people to flee and seek security elsewhere Most of the illegal weapons were of a military type, suggesting that they were probably from the war-torn countries the refugees fled from.

Another factor which adds to the problem of small arms proliferation is the presence of weapons from the liberation wars in Southern Africa in the 1980s and early 1990s. Tanzania long served as the center for the liberation movements fighting for independence in the Southern African countries of Angola, Namibia, Zimbabwe, and Mozambique, and against the apartheid regime of South Africa in the 1970s and 1980s (Chachage and Chachage, 2003). Chachage and Chachage (2003) argue that the Organization of African Unity (OAU) made Tanzania the headquarters of the liberation movements. A committed pan- Africanist, President Julius Nyerere, provided homes for a number of different African liberation movements from South Africa (ANC), Mozambique (FRELIMO), Zimbabwe (ZANU), Angola (MPLA), and Namibia (SWAPO) (Chachage and Chachage, 2003). The fighters sold their weapons before returning to their home countries in order to generate spending money. Since the freedom fighters camps were located in different parts of the country, it has proved difficult for the government of Tanzania to subsequently police, and gather all the weapons.

The demand for small arms is shaped by social practices and economic motivation among the various categories that posses light weapons, including extremist political groups, criminal networks, hunters, poachers, self-defense units, the security forces, citizens, and private security firms. The extreme ease with which arms can be switched from legal to illicit use and the negative outcome of arms falling into wrong hands impact personal safety, economic prosperity, and full enjoyment of all human rights. In this respect, small arms proliferation can be viewed as a problem from both the supply and demand sides (Gamba, 2001). Certainly, the problem of small arms proliferation is a transnational problem in Southern Africa. The Southern African region faces the problem because of its history as a battleground for liberation wars and demobilization process which left small and light weapons in the hands of the population. Privatization of security and support to dissident groups are some of the reasons for the presence of small arms. To this end, the African Union has established National Focal Points to manage and implement national plans for the control of firearms, ammunition, and other related materials (Potgieter and Urquhart, 2006).

3. Political and Religious Fundamentalism

Although Tanzania does not face a serious internal paramilitary or rebel threat, small Islamic radical groups have begun to emerge in recent years, leading to the arrest of a Tanzanian connected with to the US Embassy bombings in 1998 in East Africa. A group calling itself "The Council for the Dissemination of the Koran in Tanzania" was banned in 1993. Forty members of the group were arrested in connection with various illegal activities. There were alleged attempts by the group to recruit 500 youths for its military wing in preparation for a holy war (Chachage and Chachage, 2003). The island of Zanzibar has been the center of political tension due to political divisions and has experienced acts of politically and religiously motivated violence, including high profile bombings and acts of arson, some of which have been linked to religious organizations (Country Profile, 2002). Except for a few isolated instances, the situation has now been contained.

4. Terrorism

The rise of international terrorism which culminated in the attacks against the US is another national and international problem. Tanzania became a target for international

terrorism in August 1998 when the US Embassy in Dar es Salaam was bombed (Njuguna, 2005). Smith (2000) argues that whether motivated by political ideology, nationalist separatism, or religious fanatics, terrorists of the 21st century are likely to be more determined than ever to cause massive destruction and human carnage to advance their particular cause. International terrorism is likely to be an even a greater concern in this century than during previous times (Smith, 2000).

For a country such as Tanzania, terrorist threats can affect tourism which contributes to national income. After the August terrorist attacks in Tanzania and Kenya, the area was considered to be unsafe for tourists. This attack highlighted the vulnerability of the country to terrorism and the need for Tanzania to join efforts with other countries in the global war on terror.

5. HIV/AIDS

Sub-Saharan Africa has just over 10% of the world's population, but it is the home of more than 60% of all people living with HIV/ AIDS. With the exception of Zimbabwe, countries of Southern Africa show little evidence of a decline in the infection rate (UNAIDS Report, 2005). As a result, countries in sub-Saharan Africa will continue to experience population decline as the epidemic spreads in the years to come.

Throughout the world military personnel are considered a high-risk group for HIV infection and transmission, owing to a range of factors including age, peer pressure, and the tendency of military personnel to take risks and be absent from home for lengthy periods of time (Heinecken, 2000). In his speech to the nation on September 25, 2004, the President of the United Republic of Tanzania, Honorable Benjamin Mkapa, reminded citizens that HIV/AIDS is an epidemic of unprecedented dimensions, which rightly can be considered a security risk to the nation, both in the context of the survival of the people and as it diverts considerable resources away from productive and developmental sectors of medical care. Presently, there are no official figures for HIV/AIDS prevalence in the TPDF, although elsewhere in the region, such as in Namibia, it is known that HIV/AIDS is the major killer of military personnel. In most African militaries the infection rate is thought to be two times that of the general population (Stott, 2002).

Ultimately, Tanzania's national security rests on the professionalism and integrity of the TPDF. HIV/AIDS in the TPDF affects total force readiness, as soldiers die at the height of their careers. This not only affects military career trajectories, but the capacity of the military in general. It takes time to train a soldier or an officer. Early death or illness means additional costs involved in training replacements (Heinecken, 2001). The financial aspect of the problem is also reflected in the medical bill covering the infected soldier or spouse. Heinecken (2001) observes:

> HIV/AIDS is the greatest uncontrollable threat to mankind since death slowly erodes the social fabric of society and weakens national economies, making it difficult for states to respond to social challenges, let alone the medical and financial challenges posed by the disease itself...Armed forces are a crucial part of the state's security, but are often worst affected by this disease as it impacts directly on their operational effectiveness and their budgets.

6.   Drug Trafficking

Apart from causing widespread suffering, illness, and death to the individual, drug use engenders corruption and violence, and many users resort to theft and prostitution to support their habits. Drug consumption ruins the lives of millions of families, as it is associated with spouse battering and child abuse (Baynham, 1995).

Tanzania is a trade route for drug traffickers due to its geographical position. It serves as a conduit between East and South Africa, another route for drug trafficking. In his opening address on April 28, 2003, to participants of a conference on small arms and light weapons, the Tanzania Minister of Internal Affairs, the Honorable Omar Mapuri, observed that small arms and drug trafficking are closely related. Hon. Mapuri noted that the problem is not confined to Tanzania only; it is a regional issue connecting countries in the Great Lakes Region and the south with Zambia, Malawi, and Mozambique, and eventually with South Africa and other drug destinations in Europe and probably North America (Mapuri, 2003).

Drug dealers infiltrate the government and help to corrupt politicians. The corruption of politicians and bureaucrats undermines the legitimacy of the government and subverts the political security of the state. Violence associated with narco business includes coercion, intimidation, blackmail, kidnapping, murder, and torture. Using

Colombia as an example, Cock (1998) argues that murders related to the drug business are the primary cause of death among Colombian men between the ages of 20 and 45; a whole generation of human capital in the form of educated, skilled people is being eradicated (Cock, 1998).

7. Environmental Degradation

Environmental degradation is another problem which threatens national security. In the words of Cock (1998), the degradation of natural resources will mark future sites of conflicts rather than sources of cooperation. Access to environmental resources could become a source of tension and conflict in Southern Africa. The region could be involved in the "green war factor," a vicious cycle in which environmental degradation leads to tensions and local disputes and violence, which in turn lead to civil and interstate wars, causing yet more environmental degradation" (Cock, 1998).

8. Poaching

For decades, the government of Tanzania has been the principle legal guardian of the country's wildlife population, undoubtedly one of Tanzania's as well as Africa's most valuable assets (Shauri, 1999). Wildlife is a source of government revenue from the tourism industry, the second largest foreign exchange earner in Tanzania (Reuters, 2005). Tourism not only helps to generate income, but through international awareness of conservation issues and the physical presence of tourists it also helps to deter illegal poaching activities. However, poaching remains a serious problem, especially of elephants and rhinoceros, the tusks and horns of which are in high demand in countries such as Japan, China, and Thailand (EU Commission Report, 2002). Also, according to the chief conservator of Serengeti National Park, Justin Hando, every year poachers kill between 20,000 and 30,000 wild animals for their meat (Xinhua News Agency, 2006).

Continued poaching threatens wildlife extinction which would lead to a loss of foreign exchange needed for economic development. In 1989, poaching in the Selous Game Reserve became so rampant that the government decided to employ the TPDF, Police, and the Wildlife Department in a special joint campaign for eighteen months code-named "Operation Uhai" (Operation Life) to avert the slaughter of wildlife (Hann

and Kaggi, 2004). The Selous is the largest protected area in the world and home to over half of Tanzania's elephants, thus making the Selous a big attraction to tourists (Pan-African News Agency, 1999).

The problem of poaching is not only confined to Tanzania. The Southern African region faces the problem because of its abundance of wildlife which is vital for economic development.

Summarizing the threats facing Tanzania, the President of the United Republic of Tanzania, His Excellency the Honorable Benjamin William Mkapa, during his speech on The State of the Nation on September 25, 2004, in Dar es Salaam, said:

> In regional context the continuing instability and violence in the Great Lakes region have been a source of concern for Tanzania. The conflicts in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Burundi, and the Sub-Sahara region as a whole have continued to pose challenging security concerns for Tanzania…Problems associated with a large population of refugees, such as we have in Tanzania, include the proliferation of small arms, an increase in crime, mainly armed robbery [and] murder, as well as environmental degradation, and other negative social and cultural effects and general mistrust from refugees' home countries. Small arms threaten to assume the character of weapons of mass destruction in the region (Mkapa, 2004).

Security threats can undermine political institutions in the country and foster mistrust in the legitimacy of the government. For example, increased crime levels may lead the society to not trust the government to provide minimum security. In such cases, people turn to private security companies for their safety. (Smith, 2000, p. 77)

C.   MISSION, ROLES, AND FUNCTIONS OF THE TANZANIA PEOPLES' DEFENSE FORCES

The organization, roles, and functions of the TPDF have been influenced by the geographical position of the country. Tanzania shares borders with Kenya and Uganda to the north, Rwanda, Burundi, and the Democratic Republic of Congo to the west; and Zambia, Malawi, and Mozambique to the south. To the east is Tanzania has 800 kilometers of a coastline with the Indian Ocean. The country has a total area of 942,000 square kilometers.

Tanzania is a secular democratic state with a pluralistic political system and a liberalized market economy. According to the constitution, every citizen has the duty to protect, preserve, and maintain the independence, sovereignty, territory, and unity of the nation. In this regard, defense as part of national security is achieved primarily through efforts intended to meet the political, economic, social, and cultural rights and needs of Tanzania and through efforts to promote and maintain domestic security (National Defense Policy, 2004). The Defense Forces operate strictly within the bounds of the constitution, domestic legislation, and international humanitarian law (Luanda, 2004).

The roles of the TPDF reflect the national objectives and national policies on Defense. At the strategic level, the TPDF complements the economic, political, and diplomatic elements of national power, reflecting the nation's aspirations and policies over time (National Defense Policy, 2004).

The Tanzania Peoples Defense Force has gone through three distinct phases since its inception. According to Luanda (2004), the first phase from 1964 to 1969 was a formative period which laid the foundation for the national army. During this period, emphasis was on recruitment, training, and building the administrative infrastructure of the TPDF. The government of Canada assisted the TPDF to establish an air transport unit and provided training for pilots and aircraft technicians. At its inception the TPDF had three battalions and heavy mortar and anti-aircraft units. At that time the TPDF was largely an infantry army. The army was politicized and became highly integrated with the society (Lupogo, 2001). According to Luanda (2004), President Nyerere was serious and quite emphatic about integrating the military to be ideological machinery associated with the sole ruling party, TANU and Afro-Shiraz and later Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM). The Tanzania military academy became the Party's Cadre Military School (PCMS) which offered training for military officers and political leaders. The school provided the opportunity to fulfill Nyerere's vision of subsuming the military under the political ideology of the ruling party (Luanda, 2004). Graduates from the school were posted either to the military, the party, or the government. From the beginning, Nyerere's aim was to have a small well-trained, highly professional, and disciplined regular army, politicized and supported by a large reserve of people's militia. To date the TPDF operate based on this concept.

Compulsory National Service was introduced in 1964 to create a sense of national unity among Tanzanian youth (Lupogo, 2001).All recruits, including the former officers and troops of Tanganyika Rifles (TR), had to pass through National Service as a prerequisite for enrollment into the TPDF and into public service (Luanda, 2004). In 1975, the National Service, originally an autonomous organization, became part of the TPDF. The National Service was responsible for all affairs of nation building and production while the TPDF took care of military operations. Apart from the defense of the nation, the TPDF was also the liberation army supporting the liberation struggle in Southern Africa. Emphasizing the role of the TPDF in liberation, the first President of Tanzania, the late Mwalimu Nyerere, addressing the TPDF members on the 20th anniversary of the Defense Force said:

> In cooperation with other progressive forces (TPDF) will continue to be the bulwark in the struggle for justice and [the] liberation of Africa. Apart from its task of defense [the TPDF] is a liberation army (Luanda, 2004, pp. 303-304).

Apart from the above roles, the TPDF was also charged with the task of becoming an institution of higher learning responsible for disseminating Ujamaa (Socialism). To this end the President directed the soldiers to be patriotic and understand the politics of the country. He also insisted that the military accept the principle of equality. He said the army should be the highest institution of learning in matters of defense and socialism. This meant that the TPDF was recognized as being a part of the ruling party (Luanda, 2004). Luanda argues, however, that the politicization of the military at this juncture eroded professionalism, affecting discipline, leadership, and corporate responsibility. Since there has been no authoritative study of the TPDF, it is difficult to determine how much the military suffered in the areas mentioned by Luanda.

The second phase in the evolution of the TPDF was a consolidation phase from 1969 to 1980. In 1970, a naval company was established with assistance from the Chinese. In addition, an Air Defense regiment was established with assistance from the Soviet Union (Luanda, 2004). The first President, Mwalimu JK Nyerere, strove to remain unaligned by maintaining relations with both the East and West. Again, once the country

opted for a socialist ideology it was the Eastern countries-China and the Soviet Union-that were eager to support Tanzania on defense matters, although other countries, such as Canada continued to support Tanzania on military issues.

Generally speaking, during the first two phases the TPDF's evolution, the TPDF was a conventional force and a liberation force (Luanda, 2004). In October 1978, Ugandan President Amin Dada invaded Tanzania by sending troops after mutineers, some of whom fled to Tanzania. He then accused President Nyerere of being the root cause of Uganda's internal problems. Amin formally annexed a section across the Kagera River boundary, claiming that the area was part of Uganda. The Tanzania military was mobilized for counter-attack, and in April 1979, Tanzania took Kampala. Amin fled Uganda to Libya and eventually ended up in Saudi Arabia after falling out of favor with President Gaddafi (Lupogo, 2001).

Tanzania defense forces have also been deployed for combat outside the country outside the country. During the liberation wars in Southern Africa, TPDF members were deployed in Mozambique in the 1980s to support the liberation struggle. Rupiyah (2002) observes that Tanzania, Botswana, Zambia, and Zimbabwe became involved in the war in Mozambique when RENAMO, supported by apartheid South Africa, intensified its increasingly sophisticated operations against the freedom fighters (Rupiyah, 2002). The TPDF has trained various forces from pre-independence Mozambique and Zimbabwe, personnel from the Seychelles and Comoros, and the African People's Liberation Army, the armed wing of the Pan African Congress. From 1994, the TPDF trained the African National Congress (ANC) forces in preparation for their integration into the South African Forces. From 1997 to 1998 the TPDF trained former guerrillas of the Alliance Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Congo/ Zaire (AFDL) as the new Congolese Armed Forces in the DRC. The TPDF troops were later withdrawn because of the war in the Congo. (Jane's Sentinel Security Assessment, 2005).

Global changes the early 1990s led to a shift in Tanzania's foreign and domestic policies, marking the third phase of the TPDF's evolution. The collapse of the Soviet Union, the consequent end of the Cold War, and the end of liberation struggles in Southern Africa, prompted drastic changes in Tanzania. Various global pressures, the

declining economy, and various internal dynamics also had an effect. New parameters had to be set in Tanzania in almost all spheres; social, political, and economic. The constitution was amended. A single-party system was replaced by a multi-party system. Likewise, there were changes in the TPDF's structure and design. Professional military training and training for peacekeeping were emphasized (Omary, 2002).

Since the 1990s, the TPDF has concentrated its efforts on modernizing its forces to meet technological developments, increased threats and regional and international responsibilities. The TPDF was restructured in 1992 to respond to these changes, which included de-politicization. TPDF members now enjoy the same fundamental rights as other citizens; they vote in national civic elections but are not members of any political party and are not allowed to attend political rallies in uniform (Luanda, 2005).

The TPDF stands at 25,550 strong comprised of 21,000 Army, 3,500 Air Force, and 1,050 Navy, along with an 80,000 person Peoples Militia (The Military Balance, 2005).

1.   **The Mission and Roles of the TPDF**

The primary responsibility of the TPDF is to protect the integrity of the country's borders and to assist in the maintenance of internal security. These roles are elaborated in the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania as both defenses of the United Republic and rescue operations to save life and property in times of emergency. The National Defense Policy (2004), elaborates the above mentioned roles of the TPDF to include to participation in economic development and to participate in peacekeeping activities under the auspices of the UN and AU and the regional bodies, the EAC and the SADC (National Defense Policy, 2004).The Defense Policy includes other roles of the TPDF as participation in national economic development activities in peacetime, provided such participation does not impede the ability of the TPDF to carry out its core missions.

The National Service, which is also part of the TPDF, is likewise empowered by the Constitution to carry out economic activities via its commercial corporation, SUMA

JKT. The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania (1997) also provides for the TPDF to be employed for a number of other functions, but only in support of the line functions of other departments.

Over the years the TPDF has lived up to expectations regarding its missions and roles. It has defended Tanzania during the war with Uganda in 1978 to 1979. In 1998, during the El Niño rains, the TPDF was employed to restore communications and infrastructure by building roads and bridges in the affected areas. The TPDF has also been used to support the police force in anti- poaching operations targeting armed poachers. In sum, the TPDF has been the last alternative when other resources fail or are insufficient. It is precisely because the TPDF would only be used as a last resort that it has maintained its stature in civilian eyes (Groenewald, 2003).

2. The Organization of the TPDF

The TPDF is a unified force consisting of the Army or infantry brigades, Air Force, Navy, and National Service (National Defense Policy, 2004). The army does not operate in its command, but consists of infantry brigades directly under the command of the Chief of Defense Forces (CDF). Although the TPDF has been fully depoliticized since the end of single party rule in 1992, it still remains a major political force, with strong links between senior officers and the ruling party, CCM.

3. Higher Defense Organization

a. *The Commander in Chief (C in C)*

The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania, Act No 15 of 1984 S. 49, empowers the President of the United Republic of Tanzania to be the Commander of the Armed Forces. As the Commander in Chief he is empowered to declare war and commit the Defense Forces or part of it to active operations in or outside Tanzania.

b. *The National Defense and Security Council (NDSC)*

The NDSC is the highest decision-making authority in defense and security matters. It formulates defense and security strategies to meet the objectives of national defense. It is comprised of the President of the United Republic, the President of the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar, ministers responsible for defense and security, and the chiefs of the defense and security organs.

c.   ***The Ministry of Defense***

The Tanzanian Ministry of Defense is designed to support Tanzania's foreign policy and security policy objectives. It guides the contributions of the Defense Forces to meet defense and security goals, and shapes their structure and capabilities. The Ministry of Defense has the responsibility to ensure consistency in training and maintaining the Armed Forces in accordance with the defense doctrine (NDP, 2004).

d.   ***The Defense Forces Committee (DFC)***

According to the National Defense Act of 1966, the DFC is a committee at the Ministry of Defense level responsible for policy review and formulation on all matters relating to the administration and running of the TPDF. It consists of the Minister of Defense, the Chief of Defense Forces, the Permanent Secretary, the Chief of Personnel, and any other officer who may be appointed by the Minister of Defense (NDA, 1966).

4.   **The Components of the TPDF**

The components of the TPDF as stipulated in the National Defense Act, of 1966 are elaborated in the following paragraphs:

a.   ***Regular Force***

The Regular Force is comprised of the active members of the TPDF organized in established units of the TPDF. It includes the Army, Navy, Air Defense, and the National Service.

b.   ***Regular Reserve***

The Regular Reserve component consists of the former officers and men of the Regular Force who, on discharge, are liable for call-up when the need arises within a period of three years.

c.   ***Volunteer Reserve***

The Volunteer Reserve consists of those officers and men who have enrolled for other than continuing full-time service such as the Peoples Militia.

d.   ***Other Forces***

This includes such other disciplined forces as the police, prison guards, and National Service when mobilized for active service.

5.   National Defense Policy

The national defense policy is the subset of government policy concerned with countering military threats and with development, maintenance, preparation, and employment of the armed forces. The defense policy cannot be considered in isolation, but needs to be formulated in harmony with all other aspects of government policy, especially foreign policy. Defense policy requires the provision of forces with a high degree of military effectiveness, sufficient readiness, and a clear sense of purpose for conflict prevention, crisis management, and combat operations. The defense force's capability is intended to act as an effective deterrent to a potential aggressor, both in peacetime and in crisis. The country's defense policy, in turn, should reflect national values and interests (Groenewald, 2005).

The overall objective of the national defense policy focuses on the protection of Tanzania's national interests and core values, which include the following:

- Preservation of national independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity
- Preservation of the Union
- Maintenance of peace and tranquility
- Promotion of democracy and good governance
- Promotion of economic prosperity and social economic development
- Maintenance of regional peace and stability
- Maintenance of social justice
- Protection of natural resources

The Tanzania Defense Policy also emphasizes important issues on which human resource management has a direct impact, such as force readiness, organizational transformation, civilian personnel, reserves, veterans and retirees, and forces of the future.

6.   The Role of the Reserves in National Defense

Tanzania raises and maintains a volunteer reserve in the form of the Peoples Militia and the National Service. These reserve forces are integral components of TPDF because they provide support across crisis and capability warning times, in addition to complimentary or supplementary skills as individuals, small groups, and units to sustain the defense and security of Tanzania.

a.   *The National Service*

The National Service was established in 1964 by the National Service Act to bring together the youths of Tanzania for the following purpose:

- Work together in order to build the sense of nationalism.

- Develop cultural and sociological awareness.

- Provide skills, build economic independency, and reduce unemployment.

- Train and develop the youth for national service and assist the government during natural disasters and calamities.

- Build and develop the national economy.

- Provide military training for national defense.

According to Omary (2002), at first national service was meant for individuals leaving primary schools. They were taught skills that would be useful to them on returning home. Omari (2002) observes such individuals could volunteer for two years, at the end of which some remained in the establishment, joined the army, and were employed in the public and private sectors, while the majority went back to their places of domicile with the skills taught while in the NS (Omary, 2002).

In 1966, the National Service Act was amended to include graduates from high schools and higher learning institutions on a compulsory basis while remaining voluntary for people leaving primary and secondary schools. The National Service aimed to make graduates from high schools and higher education institutions repay the nation for providing them with education. It was designed to take educated young men and women from various walks of life and unite them to build a sense of national unity (Lupogo, 2001).

Another amendment in 1975 put the National Service, which had been operating under the Ministry of Defense, directly under the control of the TPDF.

The National Service draws its youth from all of the regions of the United Republic of Tanzania without discrimination based on gender, religion, or ethnicity. Its aim is to reflect the entire composition of the society of Tanzania. Zanzibar has its own version of National Service known as Jeshi la Kujenga Uchumi designed to meet the requirements of the islands.

The National Service breaks down into three distinct groups. The TPDF officers and men serve as administrators, trainers, and instructors. Civilian experts assist in the training of technical skills and economic activities. Then there is the voluntary force which consists of the youth who join the National Service to obtain military training and skills. After the completion of this training, some individuals are absorbed into the workforce while the majority return to their villages and use the skills imparted to them to make a living. These, people in turn, join the Peoples Militia force in their respective areas.

b.   Roles and Functions of the National Service

According to the National Service Act No 22 Amendment 1975 the functions of the National Service shall be:

- To train young citizens of the United Republic of Tanzania to serve the Nation in spheres of social, economic development and defense of their country.

- To impart military training to its members with a view to enable such members to qualify for recruitment or engagement as soldiers for the infantry battalions of the TPDF.

- To participate in national defense.

The National Service also pursues a wide range of commercial, industrial and other production activities, which are calculated to facilitate the proper and efficient fulfillment of its mercantile roles and functions. The aim is to conduct these enterprises and activities in a sustainable and profitable way in order to make a significant contribution to the national income (National Defense Policy, 2004).

Prior to 1992, all graduates from high schools and colleges that offered diplomas or degrees for two years or more were mandated to attend 24 months of national service, during which time they served for six months in the National Service camps and the remaining time at their work places, where they remained subject to the code of service discipline. National Service training was suspended in 1992 and was later revived in 2002. The National Service has been restructured to meet the needs of the strategic, political, social, and economic environment of the 21st century.

Up to 1992, the military was under the direct control of the political party, CCM, and training was based on socialist concepts of defense. With a multi - party

political system, and the military removed from politics, now more than ever, there is a need to instill a sense of nationalism in the Tanzania youth. Presently the national service is based on voluntary enrolment.

c. National Service Training

As noted earlier, training of the National Service youth is the responsibility of the TPDF. Apart from military and vocational training, National Service youth are taught civic education, an important element in cultivating nationalism. At its peak in the mid-1970s the National Service produced about 10,000 recruits annually. From its inception, this large number of paramilitary trained people constituted a considerable reserve army (Omary, 2002).

Requirements for enrollment in national service are the following:

- 18 years and above
- Tanzania citizen
- Basic primary education and above
- Physically and mentally sound.

The National Service is especially focused now to absorb the huge number of youths leaving primary and secondary schools and providing them with skills, thereby reducing unemployment, and building national unity.

d. Peoples Militia

The Peoples Militia was established by the Militia Act of 1963 to provide the military with Tanzanian citizens; the peasants and workers who were ready to defend their country as one of the components of the TPDF (The National Defense Act, 1966). The Portuguese invasion of Guinea in 1971, the Uganda coup in 1971, and the continuing wave of coups in Africa in the 1960s and 1970s, in which many legitimate governments were toppled to be replaced by new ones, provided Tanzania with an opportunity to assess its policies regarding its defense. President Nyerere feared the events in Guinea could be replicated in Tanzania (Lupogo, 2001). There were also frequent border incidents with Uganda and in southern Tanzania as the Portuguese pursued insurgents crossing the border in response to their attacking the Portuguese in Mozambique. It was difficult to rely on the TPDF alone to defend these borders. As a consequence, the

government decided to involve the people in defending their villages. The establishment of the militia was also in accordance with President Nyerere's concept of having a small professional army supported by a majority in the militia.

According to Lupogo (2001), paragraph 21 of the ruling party TANU Guidelines stressed that the basis of the defense and security of Tanzania was the people themselves. This idea was easily understood by Tanzanians because it was not new to them. In traditional societies, every able-bodied man was also a fighter when the need arose. The defense system therefore satisfied the need for defense and security at the village level (Lupogo, 2001).

Omary, (2003) observes that the President directed the registration of militia and the army to be scrutinized carefully and supervised by the party, ensuring cooperation between the army and militia, and providing for political education to both the military and militia as outlined in the TANU Guidelines of 1971 emphasizing that:

> In order to be able to counter our enemies, the people must know that it is they, who are the shield of the nation…, we are not able to create, large permanent armies to guard the country. Our army must be the people's army used to teach the people on how to defend themselves and their localities, and enable them to report on matters of national security (Omary, 2002, p. 99).

e.   *Roles of the Militia*

The roles of the Militia are stipulated in Article 19 (11b) of the National Defense Act of 1966 as follows:

- Peacetime Roles
  - Train and work with civil authorities in maintaining security, law and order in their respective areas
  - Aid to civil power in national emergencies.
- War time Roles
  - Work as volunteer reserve of the Armed Forces
  - Guard sensitive installations in their respective areas.

f.   Militia Training

According to Article 13 of the National Defense Act of 1966, a militiaman or woman is liable for military training for a period not exceeding 30 days per year in his or her location and in a military unit for a period not exceeding 30 days per year (National Defense Act, 1966).

Militia training is the responsibility of the TPDF. Army units provide instructors who train militia in the brigade's area of operation from the regional level down to the village level. Militia Advisors at the regional and district commissioner's offices supervise training and coordinate any administration required for training. Apart from military training, civic education is also taught to create a sense of nationalism and patriotism, especially now that the country uses a multi-party political system,, having been under a single party political system for over 30 years.

The office of the Prime Minister is responsible for the administration of militia during training (National Defense Act, 1966).

D.   HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (HRM) IN THE TPDF

Human resources are the most important assets an organization can have. This is particularly true for the TPDF. Human resources refer not only to the number of people in an organization, or a country, but the quality of the people and their potential to become resourceful, thereby benefiting themselves, the organization they work for, and the country they belong to. The role of the government and organizations such as the TPDF is to ensure that the population itself is a resource, which also means appreciating the significance of human resources in the implementation of Tanzania's national development plans. Kamoche (1996) observes that without a committed and competent workforce, successful implementation of the nation's plans for social and economic development can not take place (Kamoche, 1996).

Human resources in the TPDF are managed by the Chief of Personnel (CP) branch. This branch has the overall responsibility of managing military personnel and civilians by performing the essential functions of planning, organizing, directing, and supervising effective procedures necessary for the administration and operation of human resource management. The branch coordinates training of officers, soldiers, and civilians.

It also presides over recruitment, ceremonies and awards, discipline and welfare, terms and conditions of service, promotion and commissioning, career development, leave, provost, women's affairs, personnel records, personnel legal services, medical services, and pensions and gratuities.

Unlike other organizations, The TPDF cannot go outside the military organization to find suitable qualified candidates for positions above those of the entry. Civilian organizations use pay and other benefits to attract qualified candidates at all levels. The TPDF is the only place for an individual to learn military craft and develop the leadership skills needed to induce others to persist under fire in the face of combat losses. As a result, the TPDF cannot look to civilian organizations for someone qualified to lead soldiers into battle. It is the responsibility of the TPDF to train and develop its people and make them good soldiers and leaders. With career horizons that span up to a maximum of 37.5 years, and no opportunity to meet operational needs from outside the military organization, the requirement for effective human resource management planning is crucial to the TPDF.

1   Recruitment

The Defense Forces Regulation, Volume I of 1966 lays out the basic requirements for recruitment into the TPDF. Recruitment and selection process in the TPDF are traditional in the sense that human resource management follows formal procedures. People are recruited into the TPDF based on objective criteria such as citizenship, marital status, education, age, physical fitness, and good conduct.

During the first few years after the establishment of the TPDF, recruitment was based on political loyalty and membership in the ruling party, TANU (Parson, 2003 p. 167). Factors such as education were given low priority especially among the rank and file since the main issue was allegiance to the ruling TANU party (Lupogo, 2001). Over the years, the policies and strategies for recruitment have been reviewed and improved as new roles, missions, and responsibilities have evolved. The recruitment method currently used is to send recruitment teams to all regions to interview and test applicants for the military. The system of sending out recruitment teams was also used during the early years when TPDF was established (Parsons, 2003, p. 165).

Recruitment is conducted through the Defense and Security Committees in the Regions and Districts Commissioner's office. Defense and Security Committees test applicants from the villages and wards who have been scrutinized already by the village Executive Defense and Security Committees. Giving the mandate to scrutinize applicants at the village level to the Village Defense and Security Committee ensures quality and background checks because applicants who do not meet the stated criteria are dropped at this level. This process is repeated at the district and regional levels by the Defense and Security Committees up to the national level where the applicants undergo final tests including medical examinations. The selection procedures attempt to ensure that those who are enrolled are suited for both the military and the occupation to which they will be assigned at the end of the recruit training. To ensure the representation of people throughout the country, the TPDF uses a regional quota system.

Recruitment for applicants with professional knowledge and skills follows the same procedures outlined above. Having passed all of the tests, all applicants, regardless of their professions, undergo a six month-long basic training before being posted to different units. The TPDF uses the media such as radio, television, and newspapers to inform the public about recruitment centers, procedures, and requirements.

The recruitment policy was reviewed in 2002 to raise the minimum education entry levels to secondary school certificate for the enlisted and high school certificate or above for officers. This change was a response to the strategic environment, technological developments, and the national education policy which emphasizes education as a cornerstone of national development, especially in the areas of science and technology (National Education Policy, 1995). This is also in line with the TPDF 15-year plan, 2002 to 2017 emphasizing the need to have a well-educated military to meet the challenges of the 21st century technological development and the increased involvement of the TPDF in regional and international cooperation (15-year Plan, 2002).

The TPDF faces a challenge of having an overwhelming number of applicants for the military. This is partly due to the fact that the government has ceased to provide employment for students leaving secondary and high school except those going on to higher education and those who graduate from higher level learning institutions. This has

led to a pool of individuals who left secondary and high schools and graduates who have no jobs. Employment in the private sector is likewise very limited and competitive, leading to few people gaining employment. Although this provides a wide source for recruitment it also leads to problems in determining which people have the most suitable qualifications for the TPDF. To ensure quality, the recruits have to undergo a succession of physical and mental tests as well as authentication of their education level. Selection for officer cadets is carried out by the Officer Selection Board for applicants from recruit training schools and units.

2. Training and Education

The Ministry of Education (1997) distinguishes between training and education as follows:

> While there is a significant overlap between education and training, there is often a distinction between these two highly related processes. While education remains highly organized, with great emphasis on thinking and broad analytical skills, training emphasizes the acquisition and perfection of skills for a particular job; the changing of job attitudes with the ever-changing environment and job ecologies (Ministry of Education, 1997).

Just as human resources are an important factor in an organization; training in the TPDF is likewise a very high priority. Ramano (1999) argues that training provides the means to practice, develop, and validate, within a certain constraint, the practical application of common doctrine. Training also provides the basis for schooling commanders and staffs in exercising command and control (Romano, 1999).

The TPDF offers education and training opportunities for human capital development through technical training, professional military education, and academic education. Participation in courses is based on the needs of the TPDF and is mandatory. Academic education, however, is selective, but should be related to the needs of the TPDF. Selection for training may be conducted by commanders and human resource managers in collaboration with the training office.

For more competitive programs, selection may be conducted by central boards such as officer cadet training, promotion, or other centralized training. Training is a continuous process starting from recruit school and should carry on throughout the career path. In 2000, Berman and Sams (2000) observed that the TPDF has a well-trained and

educated officer corps, and the military training facilities, including the Command and Staff College are good. However, compared with countries like South Africa, Kenya, and Botswana, this is a threshold capability which requires augmentation (Berman and Sams, 2000). This assessment was made as part of an overall look at the ACRI.

3. Schools and Colleges

An extensive network of schools and colleges provide the TPDF with the training and education of personnel required for peacetime and wartime. Apart from this network, individual training and collective training is carried out in units, brigades, and commands. This training may involve anything from a few individual to thousands of people in major exercise. The entire system is designed to provide TPDF members with the necessary knowledge and skills to perform their duties effectively.

The number of individuals who must be trained by the TPDF is determined by the design of the occupational structure and how people flow through it. Effective planning is essential to avoid overburdening or underutilizing the schools for fewer trained personnel than are needed at any particular time. The Chief of Operations and Training is responsible for coordination of the running and maintaining the schools and colleges in the TPDF.

The training targets are set on a yearly basis according to the budget, while the planning cycle is three years. This means that it is easy to lose track of individual training needs, resulting in some skills being receiving low priority as new demands arise over the three-year period. Based on the attrition rate, officer training is organized according to seniority rather than actual needs which leads to some services to have more trained officers than others.

Recently the training program has been revised to include peacekeeping, riot control, counterinsurgency, and terrorism courses in the Tanzania Military Academy. The Command and Staff College (CSC) offers courses in peacekeeping at the senior and junior divisions. Peacekeeping training for units and selected officers targeted for peacekeeping missions is the responsibility of the Peacekeeping Training Center. However, these subjects are not taught in intermediate courses. This means that training

is provided to only a limited number of personnel, despite the fact that peacekeeping is the one of the secondary roles of the TPDF. With the establishment of the SADC Standby Brigade, the TPDF has started peacekeeping training in some infantry battalions.

4. Career Development

Career development is one of the human resource development strategies in the TPDF. Career development refers to specific human resource activities such as job placement, performance appraisal, counseling, and training and education. The Career Development Policy provides the directives for managing the different occupational classifications in the TPDF.

5. Leadership Training

In times of war, members of the TPDF are expected to perform their duties in an extremely hostile environment, where the possibility of injury or death is real. The military personnel will not accept these risks and fight successfully without morale, commitment, discipline, and unit cohesion that are derived from good leadership. The TPDF emphasizes leadership training at all levels. All officers and enlisted members are subject to leadership training regardless of their skills or profession.

6. Promotion

Promotion in the TPDF is based on merit and follows a clear procedure based on performance in courses; time served in rank, grade level, leadership courses, and proficiency examinations for junior officers. Other criteria are good conduct based on annual confidential reports and cumulative assessment by supervisors and an individual's day-to-day performance (Defense Forces Regulations, Volume 1, 1966).

7. Performance Appraisal

Almost all TPDF members receive periodic performance appraisals by supervisors using standardized forms based on behaviorally anchored ratings with narrative supplements.

8. Motivation and Incentives

Organizations rely on people with appropriate skills, knowledge, and motivation to perform their duties effectively. Besides promotions, the TPDF employs incentives in terms of pay; pensions; and allowances; professional, housing, skills, and instructors' allowances; recognition, awards; and a range of other personnel services meant to

improve personnel conditions of service (Defense Forces Regulations, Volume 1, 1966). The TPDF reviews the conditions of service from time to time to ensure that the monetary and non-monetary conditions of employment are up to date.

9. Awards and Decorations

TPDF members are nominated for uniquely military forms of recognition by commanders or supervisors upon meeting the requirements. The TPDF headquarters approve the nominations from units and commands. In some cases, decorations are awarded automatically based on service during certain periods or events (Defense Forces Regulations, Volume 1, 1966).

10. Retention

TPDF members who wish to stay in the military are not automatically afforded the opportunity to do so. TPDF personnel are continuously assessed to ensure that they meet the required standards or they are discharged via administrative or judicial processes. Enlisted members are screened at each re-enlistment point to ensure that they are fit for retention. The enlisted personnel are considered for re-enlistment every three years (Defense Forces Regulations, Volume 1, 1966).

Officers may be considered for retention upon recommendation of their commanding officers and approval by the DFHQ. Officers up to the rank of captain are subject to up-or-out rules which require retirement for those not progressing as a result of failure to pass the proficiency examinations.

11. Release and Retirement

According to the Defense Forces Regulations, Volume 1 (1966), members of the TPDF may be released from the military due to the following reasons

- Misconduct
- Unsatisfactory Services
- Medical
- Voluntary
- Service completed

Retirement, according to Defense Forces Regulations Volume 1 (1966), is based on age and the national retirement policy, though normally military personnel retire

earlier than civil servants. Retirement pay in the form of a pension is paid as an incentive for individuals to remain in service until TPDF members reach the vesting point and leave the military workforce to return to civilian life.

An examination of the policies at the Defense Forces Headquarters reveals that each occupation or profession has prepared its own career development policy (engineers, doctors, librarians, career development officers etc) in an effort to ensure proper management of the military personnel.

12.   Relationship between TPDF Human Resource Policies and National Policies

The United Republic of Tanzania realizes that quality education is the pillar of national development, for it is through education that the nation obtains skilled manpower to serve in various sectors in the nation's economy. It is through quality education that Tanzania will be able to create a strong and competitive economy which can effectively cope with the challenges of development and which can also easily and confidently adapt to changing market and technological conditions in the region and in the global economy.

In 1995, the government embarked on reforms in the education sector to ensure growing and equitable access to high-quality formal education and adult literacy through facilities expansion, efficiency gains, and quality improvement, accompanied by efficient supply and use of resources (Ministry of Education, 2004). The following national policies lay the foundation for human resource management policies in the TPDF.

a.   *Vision 2025*

Vision 2025 is Tanzania's development vision and outlines the necessary course for its realization. The main objective of this vision is to awaken, coordinate, and direct people's efforts, minds, and national resources towards those core sectors that will enable Tanzania to achieve its development goals (Vision 2025).

b.   *Human Resource Development*

Tanzania does not have a comprehensive multi-sector policy on human resource development. However, there are fragmented policies in different sectors which touch on issues of human resource development. From the fragmented policies, one can deduce the following human resource development objectives.

- To increase the rate of employment

- To increase the quantity and quality of the educated and trade labor force

- To restructure employment via education and training. This will re-orient the labor force toward skilled and high-tech employment.

Tanzania's major policies in human resource development include the following.

c. *Education and Training Policy (1995)*

This is a framework for guiding formal, non-formal, vocational tertiary, and higher education, as well as promoting science and technology and training so as to ensure Tanzania achieves equitable and sustainable development. This policy is administered by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

d. *National Higher Education Policy (1999)*

The policy provides guidelines for the provision of higher education, particularly with regard to delineation of missions, levels of institution, curricula orientation and concentration, financing, governance, coordination, and linkage with international education. This policy is administered by the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education.

e. *The National Employment Policy (2000)*

This policy provides a framework for guiding long-term employment and human resource activities with a goal to attaining full, and gender-balanced, sustainable, and productive employment, leading to poverty eradication. This policy is administered by the Ministry of Labor and Youth Development.

f. *Management and Employment Policy in the Public Service (2002)*

This policy provides the guidelines for the vision, objectives, ethics, and management of the public service sector with the view to improving service delivery through result-oriented performance. This policy is administered by the Civil Service Department.

g. *Science and Technology Policy (1995)*

The aim of this policy is to establish relative priorities for generating new knowledge and to determine strategies for the application of science and technology

development in Tanzania. Science and technology, represent a tool for developing and managing the economy consistent with the physical and human endowments of the country.

E.   SUMMARY

From its inception, the TPDF's role has been to defend the territorial integrity and sovereignty of Tanzania. The TPDF successfully defended the nation against invasion by Uganda in the northwestern parts of Tanzania. In support of civil authority/power, the TPDF has been employed in a variety of activities that have helped build the confidence of the people in their military, thereby enhancing civil-military relations. This has been reflected in several instances when the people of Tanzania have asked the government to use the military to respond to crisis after civilian institutions failed. Prior to 1992, the TPDF was also a political army integrated into the political system, entrusted with teaching socialist ideology to the populace and training the militia and the national service. Some authors, such as Luanda (2004) and Omary (2002), have voiced concerns that integrating the military into the political system compromises military professionalism, although there has been no research done to prove these assertions.

Militia training was introduced to support the concept of having a small professional military supported by a large reserve force. Militia training also aimed to involve the people in defense of the nation.

The TPDF supported the liberation struggles in Southern Africa in terms of personnel and training. The TPDF has also trained military personnel from other African countries.

The end of the cold war presented the TPDF with new challenges in the form of a variety of threats in Tanzania and Africa. Although the primary role of national defense remains important, the secondary roles have increased in magnitude and require increased involvement. Technological developments have also impacted on how the military should be structured. In response, the National Defense Policy was adopted to provide direction for the TPDF in performing its roles and missions given the new strategic environment. In light of this, the TPDF reviewed its policies on human resource management, and

decided to put more emphasis on modernization of forces, education, training and participation, and quality of life. It is through these efforts that the TPDF will be able to meet increasingly varied national and international requirements.

III. REGIONAL COOPERATION

This chapter analyzes the challenges to peace and security in Africa after the end of the Cold War and the role of regional and sub-regional organizations to ensure peace and security on the continent. It will assess the role of the TPDF in supporting the efforts of regional initiatives to maintain peace and security in Africa. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section discusses the challenges to peace and security in Africa after the end of the Cold War. The second section analyses the imperative for regional cooperation to ensure peace and security in Africa. The third section analyzes the TPDF's contribution to the regional and sub regional organizations' initiatives to ensure peace and security in Africa.

A. CHALLENGES TO AFRICA'S PEACE AND SECURITY

The end of the Cold War introduced changes to the traditional views of global and national security and the likelihood and potential nature of armed conflict (Groenewald, 2005). With the end of the Cold War, Africa saw a proliferation of rebel movements, and experienced problems involving small arms and refugees. Intra-state conflicts spilled over national borders with greater frequency and assumed regional dimensions. Vast quantities of weapons, especially small arms used to fight wars of independence, remain in circulation and help fuel present conflicts. Poor governance and the inability of states to support their citizens have likewise created internal conflicts threatening peace and security (Berman and Sams, 2000).

The peace dividend that was expected to follow the end of superpower rivalry in Africa never arrived. People, arms, and insecurity can easily move across borders and destabilize otherwise stable situations or countries, such as Tanzania. Nonetheless, Groenewald (2005) argues that the collapse of the ideological barrier between the East and West and the consequent improvement in relations has afforded new possibilities for cooperation in search of common security. The problems that have emerged since the end of the Cold War make regional and sub-regional cooperation a pressing concern (Groenewald, 2005).

The Great Lakes Region has presented Africa with new and more complicated conflict scenarios. Interstate conflicts increasingly represent the continuation or manifestation of intrastate conflicts or civil wars. These conflicts, therefore, constitute a form of transnational warfare involving states as well as armed groups with cross-border ties as well as links to social movements, markets, criminal cartels and even corporations outside the area. Because people in the neighboring countries are closely interlinked ethnically, culturally, socially, and politically, conflict or instability in one country can send shock waves throughout an entire area. Conflicts in one core state of the region no longer remain self-contained. The ramifications of these conflicts thus develop strong regional dimensions affecting economic, social, and political stability in multiple countries at once (Concept Paper on Armed Conflicts, 2001).

B. THE IMPERATIVE FOR REGIONAL COOPERATION

The African regional and sub-regional organizations have an important role to play in the promotion of peace and security on the continent. In the past the concerns of industrialized nations regarding defense, security, and stability tended to be reduced to military strategic terms. These traditional approaches to security tended to focus mainly on the political and military security of nation-states, on external rather than internal threats to security, and on political-military measures such as arms control, deterrence, and forward deployments. The concept of security has shifted, locally and internationally, to include the full spectrum of political, social, military, economic and technological factors that can cause instability and impede development. Conflict, migration, disease, terrorism, and unemployment are examples of such factors. Groenewald (2004) argues that massive population growth in the developing world, global warming, deforestation, and lack of water and environmental degradation command attention that is equal to that being paid to armed, interstate threats (Groenewald, 2004).

In Southern Africa and elsewhere, concepts of security and stability have been deepened and broadened to include economic crises, ethnic conflict, mass migration, international terrorism, and trans-border pollution. The United Nations Security Council has relied on regional organizations excessively, because the UN has been reluctant to authorize UN peacekeeping. African states are aware of the UN Security Council's reluctance to become meaningfully involved in conflicts on their continent and are

striving to become more self-reliant in response to armed conflict and complex humanitarian emergencies in their midst. As a result, they have shown a greater willingness to prepare for and undertake diplomatic and military actions jointly with other African states (Holt and Shanahan, 2005). In response, too, African leaders have also sought ways to deal with the wide range of challenges they face by forming regional and sub-regional organizations some of which are described below. According to Jones (2005), the Center on International Cooperation reports that more than 80 percent of all UN peacekeepers are stationed in Africa and that UN efforts to prevent conflict have grown from 12,700 to 60,700 in the period from 1999 to 2005 (Jones, 2006). Yet this is hardly enough. Rubin (2001) supports the view that if global actors are not willing to get involved directly with the conflicts, regional and sub-regional organizations with their superior local knowledge and links should take the lead and build the capacity to deal with problems in the region. Because most of the conflicts have the potential to spread to other countries and cause problems, regional cooperation offers the logical solutions for dealing with regionalized conflicts (Rubin, 2001).

1.   **The African Union (AU)**

The African Union was established in July 2002 as an African initiative to further the goals and vision of its predecessor, the Organization of African Union (OAU). The AU replaced the OAU and reflects a fundamental shift in thinking for African leaders. The AU is structured and better designed to respond to conflicts on the continent than has its predecessor. The OAU emphasized the principle of national sovereignty and non interference and consequently lacked both the statutory authority and capacity to intervene in matters related to peace and security. The AU, which embraces international cooperation and recognizes the primacy of the UN Charter in peace and security, has in contrast, adopted a wider field of engagement options, from mediation to using force to intervene in specific circumstances. Article 4 of the AU Constitution Act specifies:

> The right of the Union to intervene in Member States pursuant to a decision of the Assembly in respect to grave circumstances, namely: war crimes, genocide and crimes against humanity…the right of Member States to request intervention from the Union in order to restore peace and security (Holt and Shanahan, 2005).

43

The OAU was created to protect the independence of member states not only from the West, but from one another as well. The purpose and the principles enumerated in Articles II and III of the OAU Charter placed a premium on sovereignty, territorial integrity, and non-interference in member states' internal affairs (OAU Charter, 1963). At the time the OAU was founded, the African member states did not see the need for common security; they looked elsewhere for security assurance. Typically, the OAU relied on ad hoc committees of member states and eminent personalities to mediate disputes or turned to those outside the continent for their security needs (Berman and Sams, 2000).

More than 30 years later, Africa's heads of state finally recognized the need for common security inherent in the objective of the AU Constitutive Act, particularly in Article 3(a) to (h), as well as in Article 4(d) of the Act, which provides for the establishment of a common Defense Policy for the African Continent (AU Constitutive Act, 2000). Common defense and security are based on an understanding among African leaders and functionaries of what is required to de done collectively by African states to ensure that Africa's common defense and security interests are met. Goals are safeguarded thanks to the recognition of common threats to the continent as a whole (Neethling, 2005).

In 2003, the African Chief of Defense Staff agreed on modalities for an African Standby Force (ASF) which aims to provide the AU with combined standby arrangements, each up to a brigade size (3,000-4,000 troops), which will provide the AU with a combined standby capacity of 15,000 to 20,000 peacekeepers The development of an African standby system is a significant achievement because it provides Africa with a common policy framework for peacekeeping. Capacity-building initiatives and programs can be directed to support this common objective, regardless of whether such initiatives are undertaken at the regional, sub-regional, or national level (de Coning, 2004).

2. The East African Community (EAC)

The EAC is a regional inter-governmental organization consisting of the East African countries of Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda. These three countries share a common history, language, culture, and infrastructure which provide the partner states with a unique framework for regional cooperation. However, despite these advantages the

original East African Community, established on December 1, 1967, broke apart in 1977 following foreign policy and ideological disagreements mainly between Kenya and Tanzania. Cooperation was re-established on November 30, 1999, when the leaders of the three states met to sign a treaty to re- launch the EAC with its secretariat in Arusha, Tanzania. The EAC was formally launched on January 15, 2001 (Ford, 2002).

Today's EAC builds on the already established tradition of undertaking joint maneuvers and military exercises among the three countries. By providing for cooperation in military training, joint operations technical assistance, visits, and information exchange (Declaration of Africa Common Security, 2004), the EAC strives to achieve the following:

- Promote peace, security, and stability within, and good neighborliness among the partner states.
- Resolve disputes peacefully.
- Ensure close defense cooperation.
- Establish a framework for cooperation.
- Establish a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) in defense.

The EAC Treaty makes provision for institutional arrangements for its implementation, including a Council on Cooperation in Defense Affairs, a Consultative Committee on Cooperation in Defense Affairs, a Sectoral Committee in Defense Affairs, and Defense Experts Working Groups. The MOU also makes provision for financial arrangements relating to expenses arising from all joint training, as well as operational and technical cooperation. The EAC states are moving toward the harmonization of refugee and migration policies. The MOU on Cooperation in Defense in the EAC (2001) identifies the following areas for cooperation in defense.

a. Military Training

The Armed Forces of the partner states will do the following:

- Offer vacancies at each other's military training institutions and facilities for the training of personnel and for other military duties as may be jointly agreed upon.
- Endeavor to have joint conferences and training seminars.
- Exchange directing staff and students at military training institutions.

- Undertake training in joint peacekeeping operations and endeavor to harmonize syllabi and guidelines in regard to peace support operations.

- Conduct joint training exercises, disaster management and search and rescue operations.

b. Joint Operations

In this area, the partner states will:

- Provide mutual assistance in handling disaster management and search and rescue operations and support to civil authorities and such other matters as will be mutually agreed upon.

- Undertake joint formulation of mechanisms for the carrying out of peace support operations within the contexts of the Charter of the UN and the Constitutive Act of the AU.

c. Technical Assistance

In this area the partner states will:

- Assist each other with the supply and acquisition of spares, repair, and maintenance of military equipment.

- Endeavor to cooperate in military research and development, and offer each other research facilities.

- Establish reliable and secure communication between the Chiefs of Defense of their Armed Forces, and encourage general communication at different levels.

- Support the joint utilization of each other's military industries and facilities.

d. Visits and Exchange of Information

Visits and exchange of information, cultural exchanges, use of rifle ranges, and sports competitions will be encouraged to enhance cooperation and a spirit of camaraderie between the Armed Forces of the member countries.

In recognition of the challenges posed by international terrorism, the EAC member states amended the MOU in November 2004 to include cooperation on terrorism issues.

e. EAC Achievements

The EAC has achieved the following towards integrating the Partner States Armed Forces:

- Student exchanges in the partner states' military colleges at the National Defense University and the Defense Staff College in Kenya, the Tanzania Military Academy and the Command and Staff College in Tanzania, and the Senior and Junior Command and Staff Colleges in Uganda.

- Harmonization of training cycles in the colleges in the member countries so that they begin at the same time in January.

- Directing Staff exchanges.

- Joint exercises.

- Harmonization of peace support operation syllabus and Standard Operating Procedures.

- Establishment of national focal points for disaster management.

- Establishment of national focal points for counter-terrorism.

3.   South African Development Community (SADC)

The Southern Africa region has a long history of cooperation. The SADC was founded in August 1992 to succeed the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) which, grew out of cooperation among the Front Line States (FLS) during the liberation struggle in Southern Africa. According to Cawthra (1997), the transition from apartheid in South Africa had profound effects on Southern Africa's strategic environment. The formation of the SADC came at a time of change in African politics precipitated largely by the end of the Cold War. The SADC Treaty emphasizes human and state security, committing member states to uphold human rights, democracy, and the rule of the law, as well as setting objectives which include economic integration, and promotion of peace and security (Cawthra, 1997).

In June 1996, at the SADC summit, heads of state endorsed and established the SADC Organ on Politics, Security, and Defense (OPSD) which incorporates the Inter-State Defense and Security Committee (ISDSC). The creation of such a security-focused mechanism within the SADC was obviously essential since the SADC is, as its name implies, much more focused on economic development. However, an expanded concept of sub-regional security has to include an economic imperative at least as strong as its military dimension (McCoubrey and Morris, 2000) According to Boulden (2003), the fact that the SADC member states agreed to establish the OPSD signifies an important shift in

the thinking among SADC states that any military action must be based on collective SADC decisions and not on those of individual members or a select group of countries (Boulden, 2003).

The ISDSC was established on the realization that the Southern African region has been developing and strengthening regional cooperation in the defense sector. The ISDSC played a crucial role in the liberation struggles in Southern Africa. With the end of liberation wars and apartheid in South Africa, the ISDSC became a forum for defense and security cooperation (Strategic Indicative Plan for the Organ, 2004). The advent of relative peace in the region has expanded the focus of the military to secondary roles such as peace support operations, humanitarian assistance, and support to civil authority.

The OPSD functions at the summit level, independent of other SADC structures, and performs the following objectives which are stipulated in Article 2 of the Protocol on Politics, Defense, and Security cooperation (SIPO, 2004). These objectives are:

- Protect the people and safeguard the development of the region against instability arising from the breakdown of law and order, intra-state and inter-state conflicts and aggression.

- Promote regional coordination and cooperation on matters related to security and defense and establish appropriate mechanisms to this end.

- Consider enforcement action in accordance with international law, as a matter of last resort, where peaceful means have failed.

- Consider development of a collective security capacity and conclude a mutual defense pact to respond to external military threats.

- Observe and encourage state parties to implement UN, AU and other international conventions and treaties on arms control, disarmament, and peaceful relations between states.

- Develop the peacekeeping capacity of national defense forces and co-ordinate the participation of states parties in international and regional peacekeeping operations.

- Enhance regional capacity in respect to disaster management and coordination of international humanitarian assistance.

a.   SADC Achievements

To build capacity in the SADC region, each Ministry of Defense is connected by a satellite communication system linking the various SADC governments (Berman and Sams, 2000). Under the ISDSC, the region has created the SADC Standby

Brigade consisting of units from the SADC member countries which will be trained and maintained by the countries. The ISDSC has also been involved in training and other preparatory initiatives by putting in place a syllabus for peace support training based on the UN training syllabus which the SADC defense forces will use.

The Regional Peacekeeping Training Center in Zimbabwe coordinates and harmonizes peacekeeping education training in the region. The RPTC was inaugurated in November 1995. Rather than relying on the RPTC, other SADC members have begun to offer peacekeeping-related courses in other countries in the sub region. The RPTC has also established a "clearing house" that will, among other things, monitor peacekeeping training activities, identify new regional training requirements, and keep a record of trained peacekeeping practitioners and instructors.

The SADC Defense Forces have played a critical role in saving lives and in the restoration of communication links before civilian authorities could resume reconstructive activities in Mozambique in 1995 when the country was hit by floods.

Other achievements of the SADC, according to Ngoma and Fisher (2003), include the signing of protocols by member states which cover the entire spectrum of human security to include illicit drug trafficking, the control of firearms, ammunition and other related materials, mutual legal assistance in criminal matters, shared watercourses systems, tribunals, and politics, defense and security cooperation (Ngoma, and Fisher, 2003).

The SADC member states have demonstrated the political will to cooperate in political, defense, and security matters and this has created an enabling environment for peace, security, and stability in the sub-region through the prevention, management, and resolution of conflicts within and between states. However, the region faces a number of potential and actual security threats, such as armed conflicts, terrorism, small arms and light weapons proliferation, and prevalence of landmines.

b.   Challenges to SADC

Despite the achievements of the SADC, the region still faces a number of broader challenges, which impact on the defense sector, namely, the transnational nature of crime, terrorism, HIV/AIDS, limited resources, protection of maritime resources, and.

food security. The SADC understands that these challenges can not be dealt with by individual states, and efforts have made to deal with these challenges at the sub-regional level by the Gaborone Draft which calls for a collaborative approach (Ngoma, 2003). There is also the problem of different levels of development of SADC member states. Other potential challenges include the following:

- Armed conflicts within member states.

- Development of policies and capabilities to ensure that the region maintains trained units ready to be deployed in peace support operations in the region or under the auspices of the AU or the UN.

- Development of a regional capacity on defense technology.

- Clearance of landmines and Unexploded Ordinances (UXOs).

- Response to external aggression.

- Reintegration of ex-combatants and rehabilitation of child soldiers.

- Development of a doctrine that will enable the interoperability of the Defense Forces.

At the operational level, a well-functioning common SADC peacekeeping system would be able to plan, deploy, manage, and sustain, civilian, police and military peacekeepers within a reasonable period. At the tactical level, a well-functioning common SADC peacekeeping system would imply that once a peacekeeping force has been deployed it will be well-trained, disciplined, and prepared for its mission. The development of a common southern African peacekeeping system will require a considerable concentration of effort, resources, and political will (de Coning, 2004).

When it comes to regional integration, regimes must be held together by certain shared principles, norms, values, and practices. Baregu and Landsberg (2003) argue that Southern African states depend on each other for their security and economic development (Baregu and Landsberg, 2003). Khumalo (1996) supports this view and further argues that as the world becomes increasingly regionalized it will be difficult to get troops from other regions to undertake peacekeeping in Southern Africa. A concept of a regional force for Southern Africa should be an essential step towards a more peaceful future (Khumalo, 1996). These efforts, however, cannot be considered in isolation. The

SADC has been active in the establishment and consolidation of the AU, its institutions and programs such as the Peace and Security Council and the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD).

The AU recognizes the importance of regional cooperation as a solution to Africa's defense and security problems, as stipulated in the Solemn Declaration of Heads of States as mandated by Chapter VIII of the UN Charter Article 52 and 53(1), which lays the foundation for a framework for a collective security community (Solemn Declaration of AU Heads of States, 2004).

C.   TANZANIA'S INVOLVEMENT IN REGIONAL COOPERATION

When considering Tanzania's involvement in regional and international defense and security arrangements, it is necessary to consider the changing context within which the international community finds itself. Tanzania's national interests are connected to international and regional peace and prosperity, without which Tanzania cannot attain internal peace and prosperity. The government of Tanzania recognizes its responsibility to ensure the safety, security, welfare, and well-being of its citizens, as well as that of Tanzania as a whole within the international community. These dual responsibilities are not separate entities, but are interdependent. Safety and security in Tanzania are the keys to increased economic growth and development and, therefore, also to national stability. Similarly, Tanzania recognizes that the building block for both greater regional security in Southern Africa and East Africa is progress toward a shared system of democratic values amongst the various states of both regions, coupled with rapid and sustainable economic growth.

Maintaining stability is essential for development, while development will enhance stability. It is against this background that Tanzania has joined other African nations in regional organizations to ensure that peace and stability are maintained in Africa and the world in general by prudent employment of the TPDF. Tanzania's first contribution to UN peacekeeping was the dispatch of 600 troops to Liberia in response to a UN appeal in 1993 for peacekeeping in Liberia (Jane's Sentinel Security Assessment-Central Africa, 2005). This is the first time the TPDF participated in regional

peacekeeping. Since then, Tanzania has not sent any troops for peacekeeping, but it has deployed military observers in Liberia, Ethiopia and Eritrea, Sierra Leone, DRC, and Sudan.

TPDF participation in the SADC sub-region peacekeeping training includes sending officers to the Zimbabwe-based SADC Regional Peacekeeping Training Centre (RPTC). The RPTC has been tasked to coordinate and harmonize peacekeeping education training in the sub-region with advisory and financial assistance from donor countries, especially Denmark (Berman and Sams, 2000). By 2001, the center had improved its training facilities and its courses, but was closed due to election irregularities during the 2001 elections in Zimbabwe, which led to the re-election of President Mugabe. The RPTC resumed its operations in 2005 with emphasis on funding from member states rather than donors. Time will tell whether member countries will honor this requirement.

The TPDF established its own Peacekeeping Training Center to continue training its military personnel locally to lessen the costs of sending them abroad and to be able to train a large number of officers. Tanzania also continues to send officers to attend peacekeeping related courses abroad.

The TPDF's efforts in peacekeeping operations should be seen as a part of a wider regional cooperation policy that is co-coordinated by the Ministry of International Cooperation and Foreign Affairs. The TPDF's contribution to this wider effort focuses on cooperation with the armed forces of Southern and Eastern Africa to include the following activities:

- Participate in a multilateral coordination mechanism.
- Conduct combined exercises whenever possible.
- Establish of confidence building measures such as attachment of military personnel, defense cooperation, and assistance in training. This enables appropriate transparency between armed forces and thus reduces threat perceptions.
- Cooperate in the development of common doctrine and operational procedures.

The TPDF has participated in a number of EAC and SADC regional peacekeeping exercises designed to achieve the interoperability needed for collaborative missions in the sub-regions in an effort to contribute and harmonize the security needs of the AU and the sub-regional organizations.

Tanzania has participated in peacekeeping exercises with the EAC namely Exercise Natural Fire I in Kenya 1998; Exercise Natural Fire II in Kenya 2000; Exercise Ongoza Njia-a peace support operations exercise held in February 2005 in Arusha, Tanzania. Other exercises include Exercise Trend Marker-a counter-terrorism exercise held from August to September 2005 in Nairobi, Kenya; Exercise Dumisha Amani-a disarmament exercise held in Karamoja, Kenya; and Exercise Hot Springs-a disaster and crisis management exercise to be held in Uganda in August 2006.

With the SADC, Tanzania has participated in peacekeeping exercises, such as Exercise Blue Hungwe in Zimbabwe in 1997. Being the first exercise to be conducted by SADC member countries, it proved to be a useful initiative as it was instrumental in highlighting areas where progress still needed to be made. Exercise Blue Crane was hosted by South Africa in April, 1999. This exercise included the civilian component of peacekeeping. Exercise Tulipe was conducted in Madagascar in May 1999. Other exercises include Exercise Geranium conducted in the Re-Union in 2000; Exercise Tanzanite Recamp 3 held in Tanzania in February, 2002, Exercise Angel conducted in Zambia in 2003, Exercise Airborne Africa conducted in South Africa in 2004; and Exercise Nicusy conducted in Mozambique in 2005 (Berman and Sams, 2000).

Apart from enhancing the TPDF's peacekeeping capability, these exercises enhanced the effectiveness of the EAC and SADC Defense Forces in the conduct of peace support operations.

D. SUMMARY

Territorial disputes, armed ethnic conflicts, and the collapse of governmental authority in some states threaten African peace and stability. Often such threats require a rapid response from a group of well-trained, well-equipped military, police, and civilian experts. The AU has recognized its role in maintaining peace and security in Africa by establishing the African Standby Force comprising of five brigades in each of the five

sub-regions of the African continent. This is an initiative to develop a common security policy to deal with the security and defense problems facing Africa. In response, Tanzania has indicated its willingness to accept its share of responsibility for ensuring stability and development in Africa. As a member of AU, EAC, and SADC, Tanzania is at the forefront in supporting security and defense initiatives taken at the regional and sub-regional level.

IV. IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter focuses on the implications of the post-Cold War strategic environment for the roles and missions of the TPDF. The first section will discuss the implications of the national security threats and regional cooperation on the organization, mission, and roles of the TPDF. The second section will discuss the limitations of the TPDF's effort to build a capable and effective military. The third section will outline a series of recommendations.

A. IMPLICATIONS

Williams (2000) observes that the military is more affected by both national and international factors compared to the other government institutions. Threats and opportunities presented by international situations shape military forces, missions, and the relationship of the military to society. Military professionalism is shaped in a context provided by the state and its relationships with the outside world (William, 2000). Since 1992, the operational requirements of the TPDF have increasingly shifted more toward aid to the civil authority and civil power as threats to internal security intensified. The external requirements have come to include peacekeeping, although the TPDF has maintained the primary role of defending the nation. Supporting this argument, Moskos (2000) also observes that these actions are not so much new, as they have moved to the forefront and require serious capability for their success. Armed forces have increasingly democratized, liberalized, and civilianized as they continually find themselves involved in this new environment, where the lines have increasingly blurred between the military and civilian cultures (Moskos, 2000).

The changes mentioned above, have affected the doctrines and strategies of many military forces and, as with other countries, there has been pressure on Tanzania to conceptualize defense and security and define strategies in such a way as to satisfy internal security needs and reinforce Tanzania's ability to participate in regional initiatives and alliances. This means that the TPDF has to be prepared to meet, at short notice, a range of possible security challenges and commitments inside and outside the country. The TPDF should also aim to develop capabilities that will meet short-term

requirements and, at the same time, provide for long-term contingencies. This situation has several implications for Tanzania's ability to provide its forces with the capability to deal with complex situations. These implications can be summarized as:

- The ability to respond to conventional military threats and meet internal challenges.

- The ability to build a well-educated military with critical skills to cope effectively in a complex environment and with emerging technologies.

- The ability to build a peacekeeping capability.

Another challenge for the TPDF is how to address the issue of aligning its primary functions with events occurring outside Tanzania while maintaining a budget and improving its skills base at the same time.

Despite Tanzania's willingness to build a capable military, efforts to do so have been hampered by several factors which are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

1. Financial Resources Constraints

With a GDP purchasing power parity of $23.71 billion (2004 estimates) according to the CIA Fact Book (2004) Tanzania is facing problems with squeezing resources from its already shrinking economy. There is competition for funds from all the sectors of the country. The government introduced cash budgets in the Ministries to improve budget controls and reduce deficit financing from the central bank (Bigsten and Danielson, 2001). Bigsten and Danielson, (2001) argue that although the Tanzania government has been successful in achieving macroeconomic stability, this move has increased difficulties for institutions when it comes to planning and implementing projects. Projects which extend for many years sometimes lose their importance as new and pressing ones emerge (Bigsten and Danielson, 2001). Additionally, Tanzania does not have an industrial capacity to support its defense forces requirements and has to buy its equipment and weapons from abroad, which means spending the hard earned foreign currency. Financial resource constraints affect all aspects of force development in terms of personnel, materiel, and equipment.

2. Diseases: HIV/AIDS, TB, and Malaria

HIV/AIDS continues to be a threat to military personnel. Debrah, Horwitz, and Kamoche (1998) observe that HIV/AIDS is by far the greatest challenge facing the

military in Sub-Saharan Africa at the moment. There is a vicious circle in which, the productive segments of the military are sick and dying, which threatens the defense and security of countries. Debrah et al., (1998) observe that the magnitude of the HIV/AIDS crisis can be evaluated in terms of increased absenteeism of soldiers and spouses who have to take time off to attend to sick family members or to attend funerals. Sick soldiers are less productive at work and may not be able to carry out more demanding physical jobs. Replacements for AIDS victims may be less skilled and experienced and may require additional training. There are also significant AIDS-related costs including the purchase of coffins, transport for mourners using military means of transportation, provision of benefits to survivors, and man-hours spent at funerals. The effects of HIV/AIDS likewise affect military hospitals which are experiencing an increased demand of their services as AIDS patients occupy an increasing number of beds.

Since AIDS is a late consequence of the HIV infection, the long incubation period and the absence of significant symptoms at the early stage of infection make it impossible to know the exact number of infections in the military, and this lack of knowledge affects planning and provisions of services.

Malaria and TB also affect personnel capability. In research conducted by Wolf, McCarthy and Wu (1999) on the growth cost of malaria, they observe that malaria ranks among the foremost health issues facing tropical countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, claiming the life of one out every 20 children under the age of five. For adults, mortality is lower, but frequent debilitating attacks reduce the quality of life for chronic sufferers. In the labor force, four or more working days are lost per week due to illness, followed by additional days with reduced work capability (Wolf, McCarthy, and Wu, 1999). Recognizing the effects of these diseases in the Tanzania military, in his budget speech (2005/2006), the Minister of Defense and National Service, Honorable Philemon Sarungi, said that the Ministry of Defense is working hand-in-hand with the Ministry of Health, the Tanzania Commission for AIDS (TACAIDS), international organizations, and non-governmental organizations to fight against HIV/AIDS, TB, and malaria (Sarungi, 2005). Despite the limitations and challenges mentioned above, the TPDF has the responsibility to ensure its military personnel are healthy and fully functional.

B.   RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are not exhaustive since the field of human resource management is wide and varied, but are relevant to points raised and covered in this thesis.

1.   Diversify Recruitment Sources

The ability of the TPDF to perform its missions depends on the quality of its personnel, which begins with the quality of recruits joining the military. The TPDF should diversify sources of recruits to include graduates from colleges and universities and other tertiary education institutions. Recruiting graduates and professionals will shorten the time needed for training, enabling the TPDF to use the money allocated for this training for other purposes.

2.   Train Human Resource Managers at All Levels

Human resource managers have the responsibility of evaluating and adopting modern methods of managing people in their organizations. The TPDF should provide civilian training for human resource managers at all levels to enable them to acquire the latest information about practices in the field of human resource management. Training provides the means to practice, develop, and validate within certain constraints the practical application of knowledge. To do this, the TPDF can tap the skills of academic institutions which can help with and contribute to the shaping of military policies.

3.   Enhance Instructors Training

Instructors in training institutions should be well-trained in military colleges and civilian institutions to enhance their teaching.

4.   Use of Civilian Training Institutions

The TPDF should make use of civilian training institutions to provide education for its personnel in selected fields. The Open University of Tanzania is one of the newest additions in a list of autonomous, degree-granting, distance-teaching universities around the world (Harry, 1999, p. 93). Other universities and colleges and vocational training schools nation-wide can also provide skills and technical education according to the requirements of the TPDF.

5.   **Establish Full Status Military Universities or Affiliate with Other Military Schools to Provide Education to Military Officers**

According to Malan (1995), institutions of higher education provide military officers an environment in which individuals are exposed to a variety of ideas, analyses, and perceptions which are not likely to be encountered in a more specialized environment, such as that of a military school or college. Tertiary education plays an important role in developing the capacity for independent thought, unlike military education which encourages a high degree of conformity. He argues that it is through broader tertiary education that officers will acquire the necessary background to understand both the domestic and international political environments and the necessary insight to comprehend the nature and limits of military policy and military operations in a complex environment (Malan, 1995).

6.   **Introduce Distance Learning Programs**

Distance learning provides flexible opportunities to people who, for a variety of reasons, cannot, or prefer not to attend classes at contact institutions. Distance learning also provides opportunities for those to whom such an education may have been systematically denied in the past. Dodds, Nyonyongo and Glennie (1999) observe that in both University of South Africa (UNISA) and Technikon South Africa (TSA), over 75 per cent of students are working and 74 per cent are over 25 years old. A trend observed at the UNISA and TSA indicates there is a growing number probably around 30,000 in 1999 of full-time young students who are enrolled because they could not gain access to contact institutions (Dodds, Gleenie, and Nonyongo 1999, p. 104). At a regional level the SADC protocol on education calls for member states to open their educational institutions to student mobility within the community. Dodds, Gleenie, and Nonyongo (1999), observe that while SADC does not have explicitly mentioned distance education program, clearly collaborative efforts of sharing through distance education are in the spirit of the SADC education protocol (Dodds, Gleenie, and Nonyongo, 1999, p. 109).

The TPDF should identify courses and ways to make use of a variety of opportunities in Tanzania. The Global Distance Learning Network (DGLN) facility at the Institute of Finance Management (IFM) could be used to expose TPDF members to global issues and developments. This facility connects Tanzanians to the rest of the world

and offers courses designed by the World Bank Institute. The facility is a breakthrough in distance learning and is one of nine such facilities in the world (Kamoche et al, 2003, p. 78).

The TPDF might also establish its own distance learning program should this be deemed useful for those who do not get the opportunity to enroll in the TPDF training institutions such as the Command and Staff College and others.

7.   Improve Conditions of Service

The TPDF should ensure the improvement and deliverance of conditions of service. The unique nature of the military implies that pay and other conditions of service should be designed and applied in a manner that encourages leadership, loyalty, and commitment. The delivery of these services should be assessed to produce an overall benefit to military personnel. Although pay provides a basic standard of living, it alone cannot inspire the kind of commitment that is needed by military personnel.

However, pay raises are usually offset by the high cost of living, education expenses, housing costs, and other necessary expenses which, in the long run, do not contribute to the well-being of soldiers. Alternatives such as access to duty free goods and services can have more net effects than monetary considerations. Other approaches emphasize loyalty to the country and to the unit, by providing a system of care for members and their families and dependents. Periodically reviewing awards, ensuring professional recognition, and emphasizing leadership based on example serve to help foster a sense of two way commitment and espirit de corps Ash, Romley, and Totten, 2005).

The TPDF should consider providing allowances to compensate for factors such as isolation or hardship encountered during military service. Due to the nature of missions, some members of the TPDF cannot move with their families to their work stations. Providing other incentives in these cases will raise morale and create a sense of service recognition. Also, as the TPDF trains its personnel, competition between private and public sector is inevitable. To compete with these institutions the TPDF should conduct research on practices that will provide it with leverage over civilian institutions. Several studies have been done on the relationship of quality of life and force readiness.

In one study, a task force from the RAND Corporation researched quality of life in the US military. The study concluded that spending to modernize force structure should be appropriately balanced with spending to enhance quality of life in the military. Well-equipped forces may have the instruments to win war, but forces satisfied with their quality of life are motivated to fight-this is the "iron logic" of readiness. Quality of life is a means to this end, not the end in itself (Ash, Romley, and Totten, 2005, p. 5). Although this report involves the US military it is applicable to the TPDF.

Assuring military members access to quality of life programs will promote high morale and readiness for combat, along with other military contingencies. It will enhance military objectives, personal responsibility, initiative, teamwork, cooperation, socialization, and community support- and will contribute to retention (Ash, Romley, and Totten 2005). His Excellence the President of the United Republic of Tanzania Honorable Jakaya Kikwete recognizes the importance of these attributes as reflected in his speech during the inauguration of the new parliament in 2005. The President pointed out that his government will improve the working environment for the defense and security organs to ensure that the armed forces are disciplined, loyal, capable, and well-equipped (Kikwete, 2005). As he pointed out, present conditions of global turbulence will require the maintenance of a strong professional military which is able to perform its roles and missions now and into the future. Ash, Romley, and Totten (2005) argue that military personnel must be provided a quality of life that encourages the skilled and disciplined to stay, and attracts promising young people to join the forces (Ash, Romley, and Totten., 2005, p. 2).

To ensure the delivery of quality of life the TPDF should establish a regular feedback mechanism to assess the impact of its provision and delivery of services to military personnel. This will allow it to identify deficient areas which can be addressed in future plans.

8. Review Pay and Allowances Regularly

According to Chung (2003), an incentive structure that enhances commitment and motivation includes such practices as supervisor support, pay satisfaction, and support for achieving work-family balance. Research has shown that social support increases job satisfaction and commitment. A number of studies have reported that pay satisfaction has

an important influence on employee attitudinal behavior outcomes, although sometimes high cost of living can offset the effect of a pay raise Chung, 2003). Periodic reviews will minimize this effect.

9. **Establish Comprehensive Exit Plans**

Military personnel spend most of their youthful years in the military where they receive a system of training, assignments, and responsibilities in situations markedly different from those in civilian life. After retirement military members return to civilian society with skills often unique to military life. Some of these skills cannot be employed in the civilian workforce. The TPDF should have a human resource conversion program which will provide the help necessary to convert military skills to gainful use in the civilian sector whenever possible. This contributes to reduction in levels of uncertainty and insecurity about retirement. According to Williams (1999), conversion programs guarantee retiring military personnel relatively stable employment and ensure that resources invested in defense will, ultimately, have a developmental spin-off.

Conversion and accreditation of military experience and qualifications represent a practical use of skills that would normally have social utility (Williams, 1999). A conversion program would also reduce misconceptions about retired military personnel and fears of their becoming unlawful citizens due to their military background and knowledge of weapons handling. Without work or means of earning a life, retired personnel can easily turn to the skills they are good at, e.g. the use of weapons. This can lead to increased crime which in turn exacerbates security problems in the country. The TPDF should consider using Tanzania's extensive network of vocational training schools in the country to provide the civilian skills for military members before they exit into civilian life.

10. **Use Retired Military Personnel after Retirement**

Military personnel retire much earlier than most civil servants. During their service, the military personnel acquire vast experience and knowledge which can be utilized by the TPDF by employing retired military personnel as civilians in areas of the TPDF which are not combat-oriented.

11.   Enhance Peoples Militia Capability

The Peoples Militia provides a credible and effective part of the total force package. A well -trained, competent, and skilled militia makes the national defense and security strategy work effectively. Judicious use of these forces would be one way to smooth out the personnel tempo more evenly across the total force. This reserve component can contribute by providing information to support internal security programs in fighting crime, terrorism, and other related threats to peace and security in Tanzania.

The TPDF's design is based on the concept of a relatively small regular core force and a significantly larger reserve which represents the backbone of defense in Tanzania. Militia training should be restructured to include courses in counter-terrorism, and counter insurgency, as well to provide the militia with skills to support the TPDF and the police force in information collection to help curb crime, terrorism, poaching small arms proliferation, and other security related problems.

Enhancing the quality of the militia will lead to a smoother integration with regular components during operations. Leadership training for the militia will likewise provide a leadership component that can be used in peacetime and wartime.

12.   Increase Participation in Peacekeeping Operations

Tanzania should increase troop participation in peacekeeping operations. According to Rupiya (2005), a country can gain a lot when it participates in peacekeeping operations. Rupiya correctly observes that participation in peacekeeping will greatly enhance military skills and serve as a testing ground for operational planning, intelligence, logistics support, and management of deployed personnel (Rupiya, 2005).

The TPDF should consider making UN peacekeeping training part of its career development. This would mean integrating it into the military training program. Doing this will provide basic peacekeeping knowledge to military personnel to prepare them for mission deployment. This would allow Tanzania to deploy peacekeepers whenever it is called upon to do so. The Peacekeeping Training Center should concentrate on refresher courses and contingent pre-deployment training.

Peacekeeping, counter-terrorism, counterinsurgency, and civic education courses should be taught in all training institutions rather than selected schools to ensure that all military personnel have the knowledge of how to deal with the new security threats facing the country. Civic education will help build a sense of nationalism.

13.   Establish Special Forces Capability

Establishing Special Forces capability would enable the TPDF to perform a variety of roles which cannot be performed by the conventional forces, such as counter-terrorism, counterinsurgency, or direct action. Their ability to be deployed discreetly at long range, with secure communication, makes Special Forces capable of short-notice liaison, reconnaissance, and other specialized tasks which require small groups of personnel. The Manual for Peace Support Operations for military practitioners published by the South African Institute for Security Studies in February 2000, notes that Special Forces are ideally suited for civil military cooperation tasks, community relations and community information activities such as the raising, training and reform of local irregular armed groups and local security forces in conflict areas. This means that establishing a Special Forces capability in the TPDF would not only be useful for internal security crises, but could also provide extended capabilities for peacekeeping operations.

14.   Involve Civil Servants in Command and Staff College Courses

The TPDF should consider including civil servants from the defense and security state organs and officials from the Ministry of Defense in its schools to increase attention paid to internal security and aid to civil authority. Such mutual exposure would increase confidence building between the state organs charged with defense and security. Again, the nature of current conflicts demands interagency cooperation and involves the military and civilian security organizations even in such roles as disaster management and rescue operation. Some African countries with similar programs include Nigeria and South Africa. Nigeria's Command and Staff College enrolls students and instructors from the Police Staff College, Prison Service, and senior civil servants in the Ministry of Defense.

C.   SUMMARY

The end of the Cold War ushered in a new political environment. The principle feature of this environment has been the employment of the TPDF to deal with national security threats which have intensified over the years. It has also increased the need for

regional cooperation on security issues as a means of promoting peace. This means that the TPDF has to train and prepare its military to work in a complex environment different from what they were initially trained; hence the new shifts in educating, training, and resourcing. Financial constraints and other challenges like those presented by HIV/AIDS, TB, or malaria, represent realities that cannot be ignored. Nonetheless, recommendations can still be made about how to improve the quality of the TPDF military.

THIS PAGE INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK

V.   CONCLUSION

The United Republic of Tanzania provides the framework for the Tanzania military structure. Within the framework, the Ministry of Defense and National Service is responsible for ensuring the TPDF supports and defends the country against all external enemies and assists the civil authority and civil power. The TPDF was established more than 40 years ago after a mutiny which led to the disbanding of the colonial-oriented army, the Tanganyika Rifles (TR). President Nyerere decided to integrate the TPDF into the political system and into the society it served. Military officers and political leaders interchanged positions in the military, the party, and the government. The TPDF was a defense force and one of the national armies which supported the liberation struggle. The TPDF has supported the Tanzania foreign and defense policies by participating in the liberation struggles in Southern Africa and training of the liberation forces and supported the new militaries after gaining independence.

The global change in the 1990s, marked by the end of the Cold War and the liberation struggles, led to a review of the policies and strategies in defense. Amending the constitution, depoliticizing of the military, and modernizing the military are some of the steps taken.

The Peoples Militia was introduced to involve the civilian population in the defense of the country due to insecurity at the borders with Uganda and the Southern border with Mozambique. The intent of the Peoples Militia was to create a sense of responsibility and national pride in the civilian population by welcoming the citizens to play a role in the defense of the country. The National Service was introduced to enable the Tanzania youth with the ability to build national unity, and serve the country. The NS provides the youth with military training and with skills for self reliance. The Militia and the National Service provide the TPDF with a reserve force to augment the military capability. From the beginning, President Nyerere has envisioned a small professional army supported by a large reserve which gives the people of Tanzania personal stakes in

the defense of their country. To this day, the TPDF functions around this concept. At the regional level, liberation wars led to regional cooperation and the need for peacekeeping operations in conflict areas.

While Tanzania does not face any direct military threat from its neighbors, a growing number of security challenges, some transnational, have created a complex and an uncertain strategic environment. Refugees from conflict-torn areas, poaching, small arms proliferation, political fundamentalism, terrorism, drug trafficking, transnational terrorism, and environmental degradation threaten internal security.

Technological development also calls for a military with the capability to operate modern weaponry systems and to operate in a complex environment. To meet these emerging requirements, it is imperative to transform the human capability in the TPDF to successfully operate in the full spectrum of the contemporary strategic and operational environments. As a result, new innovative thinking has to be developed to enable the military to meet conventional and unconventional military demands through the development of their human resources.

Management of human resources in the TPDF is a key factor in ensuring that the TPDF performs its duties. Human resource management in the TPDF is guided by the national policies on human resource development, which aims toward building a well-educated and capable manpower.

In post-Cold War Africa, the traditional threats to security have been replaced by new conflicts. Effects of intrastate wars spreading to neighboring states, poor governance, corruption, and ethnic conflicts and collapsed states called for African states to intervene to solve these problems in terms of peacekeeping under the mandate of the UN. The imperative for regional cooperation in defense is based on the fact that each African country's defense is inextricably linked to that of other African countries and to the African continent as a whole.

Economic development in Africa will be possible only if peace and stability prevail, and it is the duty of the African states to support the efforts made by the AU toward peace and security in Africa through peacekeeping and other regional cooperation mechanisms.

At the sub-regional level, the SADC has made great progress on issues of collective defense and security. The progress is manifested through the Organ for Politics Defense and Security and its substructure, the Inter-State Defense and Security. Through these structures all SADC countries have agreed to a mutual defense pact and are working on the modalities of the SADC regional brigade as an element of the ASF.

Likewise, the East African Community, though a recent creation has made progress through the East African Community Treaty which emphasizes regional cooperation in military training, joint operations, technical assistance, visits, and exchange of information between the militaries of the East African States.

Strengthening these sub-regional mechanisms will undoubtedly contribute greatly towards providing the collectively required capabilities needed to combat the threats to African security.

Regional cooperation continues to be the key focus for the TPDF. Tanzania's geographical location causes it to straddle lines between the Southern African and the East African regions thereby making it necessary to balance resources to meet the demands of the two sub-regional organizations. This could be costly in the immediate future but over the long period of time it could be an advantage to the Tanzania military because the TPDF will gain experience and opportunities from the two sub-regions.

Tanzania is a member of the AU, EAC, SADC, and the Indian Ocean Rim. Tanzania is an active participant in measures to ensure regional cooperation as a means to enhance the defense and security of the continent. In support of regional cooperation, the TPDF has been participating in regional peacekeeping efforts by contributing troops and military observers to conflict areas in collaboration with militaries of other countries, and by training and exercises with sub-regional organizations such as the EAC and SADC. In this way the TPDF's interaction with other countries has increased cooperation in regional defense and security to support the goals of AU, EAC and the SADC. To increase troop contributions to peacekeeping, the TPDF is training some infantry battalions to prepare for peacekeeping operations.

The demands on the TPDF are likely to intensify as Tanzania continues to support regional efforts to ensure peace and security in Africa and the rest of the world. The

establishment of the standby brigades based on the sub-regional arrangement means that the TPDF should endeavor to meet requirements. TPDF must entail efforts to attract, retain, motivate and effectively utilize various cadres of skilled and professional workers to be able to respond to these new responsibilities.

The greatest challenge for the TPDF is how to balance the resources between the traditional and the secondary roles of defense with the need to maintain current and future defense requirements. The government's ability to balance the needs of the military with the domestic, social and economic requirements has a direct impact on the TPDF's ability to carry out its roles and missions at the national and international levels.

There is no doubt that there is political will in making the TPDF a force that can meet the national and international requirements of the 21st century. Working towards this end has not been easy for the TPDF as it finds itself in competition for financial resources with other government institutions. Tanzania does not have an industrial base to cater for defense, equipment, weapons, and technology, all of which have to be imported from abroad using the nation's meager foreign currency. The government is faced with a difficult choice between spending on the military or spending on social services and other national needs. Likewise, the TPDF has to make a choice between maintenance of the present force or for development, between national or international obligations, and between the need to meet the short-term or long-term capabilities. Financial resource constraints will continue to be a problem as the government strives to meet a host of needs amidst limited resources.

Diseases such as malaria, TB, and AIDS threaten the ability of the TPDF to perform its roles effectively, as soldiers die at the prime of their military career. The government of Tanzania has responded to the HIV/AIDS epidemic by declaring it a national threat which needs a multi-sectoral effort to combat the disease. The Tanzania Commission for AIDS coordinates the efforts of managing HIV/AIDS programs. In the TPDF, AIDS preventive measures include education, provision of retroviral drugs, and early treatment of AIDS-related diseases including AIDS awareness programs.

Regardless of these challenges, the TPDF is set to build a military capability which can be employed to deal with the complex environment of this century. This thesis

has offered some recommendations which may help to enhance effectiveness of the military personnel. However, building the required human resource capability in the TPDF is not an immediate process and requires commitment from both the government and military leaders.

A.   AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This is the first document that evaluates human resource management in the TPDF. Further research is recommended on the achievement of the TPDF in the different operations it has conducted inside and outside the country.

THIS PAGE INTENTIONALLY LEFT BLANK

LIST OF REFERENCES

Abrahams, D., Cawthra, G. and Rocky, W. (2002). *Ourselves to Know: Civil Military Relations and Defense Transformation in Southern Africa.* Pretoria: ISS Publications.

African Union. African Chiefs of Defense Staff Policy Frame Work for the Establishment of the African Standby Force and the Military Staff Committee, 15-16 May 2003.

Ash, B., Romley, J. snf Totten, M., (2005). The Quality of Personnel in the Enlisted Ranks. Santa Monica. RAND Corporation. Retrieved May 13, 2006 from http://www.rand.org.

Bagha, H. (1990). Human Resource Development in Kenya. In C. G. Johnson (Ed.).The Employment Crisis in Africa: Issues in Human Resource Management Policy, Mount Pleasant. Harare: African Association for Public Administration and management. Retrieved April 12, 2006 from http://www.iss.org.za.

Baregu, M. and Landsberg, C. (Eds), (2003). *From Cape to Congo: Southern Africa's Evolving Security Challenges*, Colorado: Lynne Rienner.

Barnum, D. T., Dulebohn, J. H., Ferries, G. R., Holleran, L. P., and Rosen, S. D., (1995). Handbook of Human Resource Management, pp. 1-2. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell Publishers. Retrieved April 29, 2006 from http://www.google.com/books.

Baynham, S. (1995). Narco-Trafficking in Africa: Security, Social and Economic Implications. Published in African Security Review Vol. 4 No. 6, 1995. Retrieved April 12, 2005 from http://www.iss.org.za/pubs/ARS/4No6Baynham.html.

Bigsten, A. and Danielson, A. (2001). Tanzania: Is the Ugly Duckling Finally Growing up? Uppsala: Nordic African Institute. Retrieved May 6, 2006 from www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=oandd=102854453.

Boulden, J. (2003*) Dealing with Conflicts in Africa: The United Nations and the Regional Organizations*. New York: N.Y. Palgrave Macmillan.

Budget Speech, Ministry of Defense 2005/2006. Dodoma: Tanzania. Retrieved April 26, 2006 from http://www.tanzania.go.tz/speeches/mod.

Chachage, S. and Chachage, S. L. (2003) Nyerere: Nationalism and Post Colonial Developmentalism. A paper presented for the celebration of the 30th Anniversary of the Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa. (CODESRIA}, Dakar Senegal, 08-11 December, 2003. Retrieved April 27, 2005 from http://www.codesria.org/Links/conference/papers/Chachage_Seithy_L_Chachage.pdf.

Chitiyo, K. and Rupiya, M. (2005).Tracking Zimbabwe's Political History: The Zimbabwe Defense Forces from 1980-2005. In M. Rupiya (Ed.), *Evolutions and revolutions: A contemporary history of militaries in Southern Africa* (pp. 295-310). Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies.

Chung, L. C. (2003). Organizational Downsizing High Commitment Human Resource Practices and Attitudes of Army Officers. Retrieved May 08, 2006 from http://proquest.umi.com.

CIA Fact Book, Retrieved September 12, 2005 from http://www.cia.govv/cia/publications/factbook/goes/tz.html.

Clarifications on a number of allegations and accusations made by Burundi against Tanzania, posted by the Tanzania high Commission in London on Tanzanet on Friday, September, 26, 1997 at 00:24:15 GMT. Retrieved April 25, 2006.

Cock, J. and Mckenzie P. (Eds) (1998) *From Defense to Development: Redirecting Military Resources in South Africa,* Goodwood, Western Cape: National Book Printers.

Cock, J. (1996). The Link between Security and Development: The Problem of Light Weapons Proliferation in Southern Africa. Published in the African Security Review Vol. 5 No. 5, 1996, Pretoria: Institute of Security Studies. Retrieved April 26, 2005 from http://www.iss.org.za/pubs/ARS/5No5Cock.html.

Constitutive Act of the African Union. Retrieved April 26, 2005 from http://www.dfa.gov.za/au.nepad/constitutive.htm.

Country Report (July 2005). *Tanzania at a Glance*: The Economist Intelligence Unit. London. Retrieved September 12, 2005 from http://www.eiu.com.

Dawen, C., Ju-Hon K., Han, L. L., Hiang, L. S., Leong, J., Ng, R. and Teo, F. (2003). Creating Capacity to Change: Defense Entrepreneurship for the 21st Century, Journal of Singapore Armed Forces. Singapore.

de Coning, C. (2004). Towards a Common Southern African Peacekeeping System, Electronic Briefing Paper No. 16/2004 Centre for International Political Studies.

Debrah, Y. A., Horwitz, F. M., Kamoche K. N., and Muuka, G. N. (2003). Managing Human Resources in Africa. Routledge: New York. Retrieved April 26, 2006 from http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?=aandd=104242281.

Defense Forces Regulations Volume I Administration (1966). Dar es Salaam: Government Printers.

Defense Forces Regulations Volume III Financial (1966) Dar es Salaam: Government Printers.

Economic Intelligence Unit, (2002) Country Profile, Tanzania, 2002. Retrieved September 26, 2005 from http://store.eiu.com.index.

Eggland, S., Gilley, J.W.(1998). Principles of human resources development. Perseus Publishers Retrieved April 26, 2006 from http://www.questia.com.

EU Commission Report (2002). Briefing Prepared for EU Commission Meeting to Discuss Proposal Put Forward for COP12 in Brussels July, 2002. Retrieved March 26, 2006 from http://www.salvenet.com/eia/cgi/reports/report-files/media51-1.pdf.

Fisher, L. M. and Ngoma, N. (2003). SADC: Challenges in the New Millennium. Occasional Paper 114, August 2005. Retrieved May 30, 2006 from http://www.iss.org.za/Pubs/Paper114.htm.

_____. (2005). The SADC Organ: Challenges in the New Millennium. Occasional Paper 114, August 2005. Retrieved May 5, 2006 from http://www.iss.org.za/Pubs/papers/114/paper114.htm.

Ford, Neil, (2002) "East African Community: Will the Unity hold? African Business, February, 2002. IC Publications Ltd., p. 20. Retrieved March 20, 2006 from http://www.allbusiness.com/periodicals/article/895272-1.html.

Gamba, V. (2001). Controlling the proliferation of weapons, Published in the African Security Review Vol. 5 No. 4, 2001. Retrieved May 5, 2006 from http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/ASR/5No4/ControllingWeapons.html.

Greg, M. and Robert, I. (Eds.). (1998) *War and Peace in Southern Africa: Crime Drugs, Arms Trade.* Washington, D.C. Brookings Institute Press.

Hall, M. L., and Hall, C. A. (2003). *Human Resource Management in the Knowledge Economy: New challenges, New Roles New Capabilities,* San Francisco: Berrett–Koehler Publishers.

Hann, R. and Kaggi, D. (2006) Selous Game Reserve Development of CBC in the Buffer Zone: Facts and Figures. Retrieved April 15, 2006 from http://www.wildlife-program.gtz.de/wildlife/download/nr_29_3.pdf.

Harris, G. (2004*). Achieving Security in Sub- Saharan Africa: Cost Effective Alternatives to the Military*. Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies.

Harry, K. (Ed). (1999). Higher Education through Open and Distance Learning. London: Routledge. Retrieved May 6, 2006 from http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=oandd=102854531.

Heinecken, L. (2001). The Looming Security Threats to Southern Africa, Published in African Security Review Vol. 10 No. 4, 2001. Retrieved March 13, 2005 from http://www.iss.org.za/Pubs/ASR/10No4/Heinecken.html.

Holt, V. K., and Moira, S. (2005). *African Capacity Building for Peace Operation: UN Collaboration with the African Union and ECOWAS*. Washington, DC: Henry L Stimson Center.

Hoyweghen, S. (2001). Mobility, Territoriality and Sovereignty in Post-Colonial Tanzania: New Issues in Refugee Research. Working Paper No. 49, October 2001. Brussels Center of African Studies. Retrieved September 6, 2005 from http://www.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home?id=search.

International Conference Report on Global Principles for Arms Transfers, Golden Tulip Hotel, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania 20-22 February, 2005) Retrieved May 4, 2006 from http://www.saferafrica.org/DocumentsCentre/Conferences/SaferAfrica.

Jane's Sentinel Security Assessment- Central Africa: Executive Summary, Tanzania, Posted on 31 March, 2004. Retrieved January 5, 2006 from http://www8.janes.com.libproxy.nps.navy.mil.

Jones, B. (2006). *Annual review of global peace operations*. Lynne Rienner: Boulder. Colorado.

Kamoche, K. (1996). Strategic Human Resource Management within a Resource Capability View of the Firm. Journal of Management Studies Vol. 33, pp. 213-223. Retrieved January 5, 2006 from http://www.Questia.com.

Kamoche, K. N., Debrah. F. M., Horwitz, and F. M., Muuka, G. N., (Eds.). (2003). Managing Human Resources in Africa. New York: Routledge. Retrieved January 5, 2006 from http://www.Questia.com.

Khumalo, S. (1996). Forging a Regional Peacekeeping Partnership in Southern Africa: New Partners in Peace. Published in Monograph No 5, New Peace Partners, July 1996. Retrieved March 30, 2006 from http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No5/Khumalo.html.

Luanda, N. (2005). A Changing Conception of Defense: A Historical Perceptive of the Military in Tanzania. In N. Rupiya (Ed.), *Evolutions and Revolutions: A Contemporary History of Militaries in Southern Africa* (pp. 295-310). Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies.

Lupogo, H. (2001). Tanzania: Civil Military Relations and Political Stability. Published in African Security Review Vol. 10 No. 1, 2001. Retrieved January 13 from http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/ASR/10No1/Lupogo.html.

Malan, M. (1995). Officer Education: The Democratic Imperative. Published in African Security Review Volume No. 2 1995. Retrieved March 26, 2006 from http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/ASR/14No2/OfficerEducation.html.

MANPRINT Directorate, Office of the Chief of Staff, (2005) Pentagon: Washington Retrieved October 9, 2005 from http://www.manprint.army.mil.

Mapuri, O. (2004). Opening Address on the Conference on Small Arms and Light Weapons in Berlin, on September 24, 2004. Retrieved September 26, 2005 from http://www.inwent.org/ef-tente/arms/pap.htm.

McCarthy, F. D., Wolf, J., and Wu, Y. (1999). The Growth Cost of Malaria. Retrieved April 26, 2006 from http://www.malaria.org/wolf_Wu_McCarthy.pdf.

McCoubrey H, and Morris, J., (2000). *Regional Peacekeeping in the Post- Cold War Era*. Massachusetts: Kluwer-Law International.

Military Balance. (2006). Sub Saharan Africa. Routledge. Volume 105 Number 1/2005. pp. 359-410. Retrieved March 10, 2006 from http://www.metapress.com.

Mkapa, W. (2004, September 25).The State of the Nation: Statement by His Excellence Benjamin W. President of the United Republic of Tanzania delivered at the Diamond Jubilee Hall. Dar es Salaam. Retrieved January 3, 2006 from http://www.tanzania.go.tz/html.

Moskos, C., Segal, D. and Williams, J. A. (Eds.). (2000). *The Postmodern Military: Armed Forces after the Cold War.* New York: NY. Oxford University Press, Inc.

National Defense Policy (2004) Ministry of Defense and National Service. Dar es Salaam.

Neethling, T. Realizing the African Standby force as a Pan-African ideal: Progress prospects and challenges, Journal of Military and strategic Studies. Fall 2005, Vol. 8, Issue 1, p. 1 Retrieved January 5, 2006 from http://www.jmss.org/2005/fall/articles/neethling.pdf.

Ngoma, N. (2003). SADC: Towards A Security Community? Published in African Security Review Vol. 12 No. 3, 2003. Retrieved May 30, 2006 from http://www.iss.org.za/Pubs/ASR/12/No3/F2.html.

Njuguna, J. T. (2005). Evaluating the threat of Biological Weapons in Eastern Africa. Published in African Security Review, Vol. 14 No. 1, 2005. Retrieved January 20, 2006 from http://www.iss.org.za/Pubs/ASR/14No1/FJnuguna.htm.

Nyerere, J. K. Hotuba ya Rais wakati akifungua mafunzo ya miezi tisa ya viongozi wa Jeshi. Monduli, Arusha, 13 Desemba 1975 (unpublished).

Omary, A. H. (2002). Civil Military Relations in Tanzania. In W. Rocky; G. Cawthra and D. Abrahams (Eds). *Ourselves to Know: Civil Military Relations and Defense Transformation in Southern Africa* (pp. 89-106). Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies.

Organization of African Union Charter. Retrieved February 26, 2006 from http://sahistory.org.za/pages/specalprojects/afrcan-union/charter.html.

Ostergard, R. (2004). HIV/AIDS: The Military and the Future of Africa's Security. Paper presented at the Annual Convention Montreal, Quebec, Canada, March 17-20, 2004. Retrieved April 26, 2006 from http://media-cyber.law.harvard.edu/blogs/gems/politicshiv/ostergard.pdf.

Panafrican News Agency, (1999) Tanzanian Authorities Crackdown on Poachers. Retrieved April 16, 2006 from http://www.ntz.info/gen/n00502.html.

Parsons, T. H. (2003). The 1964 *Army Mutinies and the Making of Modern East Africa.* Westport, Connecticut: Praeger Publishers.

Peace Support Operations: A working Manual for the African Military Practitioners. Published in the Peace Support Operations DWM 1-2000 February 2000. Retrieved April 26, 2006 from http://www.iss.org.za/Pubs/Other/PeaceSupportManualMM/Contents.html.

Potgieter, J., and Urquhart, A. (2006). Resolving Small Arms Proliferation: The Development and Implementation of National Action Plans on Arms Management and Disarmament. Pretoria: SaferAfrica. Retrieved January 10, 2006 from http://saferafriac.org/DocumentCenter/Monographs/RSAP/Index.asp.

Report of Auditor General of Canada, (1990). Human Resource Management-Planning and Personnel Management, Retrieved October 26, 2005 from http://www.oag-bvg.gc.domino/reports.nsf/html/9020ce.html.

Reuters, April 27, 2005.Tourism Trumps Poaching in Tanzania. Bell Globe Media, 2005. Retrieved April 13, 2006 from http://www.theglobeandmail.com.

Rubin, B. R. (2001). Talk on an IPA- Sponsored Meeting for the UN Security Council on Regional Approaches to Conflict Management in Africa. Retrieved April 13, 2006 from http://www.cic,nyu/archive/pdf.

Rutinwa, B. (2005). Identifying Gaps in Protection Capacity for Refugees. Convention and Protocol, Paper Presented to UN Refugee Agency: March 25, 2005. Retrieved September 6, 2005 from http://www.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/home?id=search.

Sarungi, P. (2005). Budget Speech, Ministry of Defense 2005/2006. Dodoma: Tanzania. Retrieved April 26, 2006 from http://www.tanzania.go.tz/speeches/mod.

Shauri, V. (April, 1999). The New Wildlife Policy in Tanzania: Old Wine in a New Bottle? Retrieved April 2, 2006 from http://tanzaniagateway.org/docs/The%20new_policy_in_Tanzania.pdf.

Smith, P. J. (2000). Transnational Security Threats and State Survival: A Role for the Military? *Parameters* Volume 30 Issue 3, 2000, p. 77. Retrieved March 2, 2006 from http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=oandd=5002372421.

Solemn Declaration on Common African Defense and Security Policy, February 28, 2004. Retrieved January 10, 2006 from http://www.africa-union.org/News_Events.

Southern African Development Community (2004). Strategic Indicative Plan for the Organ on Politics Defense and Security. Retrieved May 30, 2006 from http://www.sadc.int/english/document/sipo/sipo_en_pdf.

Southern African Development Community. Retrieved April 26, 2006 from http://www.itcilo.it/english/actrav/telearn/global/ilo/blokit/sadc.htm.

Stott, N. (2002) *From SADF to the SANDF: Safeguarding South Africa for a better life for all*. Violence and Transition Series, Vol. 7, 2002, retrieved October 16, 2005 from http://www.wits.ac.za/csvr/papers/papvtp7.html.

Tanzania Government. Peoples Militia Compensation for Death or Injuries Act, 1973. Retrieved April 13, 2006 from http://www.bunge.go.tz/Policy/PAMS/Docs/27-1973.pdf.

_____. The National Service (Amendment) Act, 1966. Retrieved April 13, 2006 from http://www.bunge.go.tz/Polis/PAMS/Docs/64-1966.pdf.

_____. The National Service Act, 1964. Retrieved April 13, 2006 from http://www.bunge.go.tz/Polis/PAMS/Docs/16-1964.pdf.

The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania. Retrieved September 11, 2005 from http://www.tanzania.go.tz/constitution.html.

The East African Community. (2001) Memorandum of Understanding on Cooperation in Defense in the East African Community. Arusha: EAC Secretariat.

The Guardian July 23, 2005. Refugees, Illegal Aliens: A Security Threat. Retrieved July 23, 2005 from http://www.ippmedia.com.

The Impact of the Presence of Refugees in Northwestern Tanzania. The Centre for Study of Forced Migration: Dar es Salaam. September 2003. Retrieved November 6, 2005 from http://www.refugees.org/data/warehousing/tanzania/docs/refugee_Impact_Study_Sep_2003.pdf.

The State of the Nation: Statement by His Excellence Benjamin William Mkapa President of the United Republic of Tanzania Speech delivered to the nation on September 25, 2004. Retrieved January 9, 2006 from http://www.bu.edu/aparc/report/2004/tanzania.pdf.

The State of the Nation: Statement by His Excellency Benjamin William Mkapa, President of the United Republic of Tanzania on September 25, 2004. Retrieved January 9, 2006 from http://www.bu.edu/aparc/report/2004/tanzania.pdf.

The United Republic of Tanzania, (2006). Human Resource Management in Tanzania. Retrieved May 2, 2006 from http://www.tanzania.go.tz/humanf.html.

UNAIDS/WHO, (2005). Special Report on HIV Prevention. Joint United Nations Program on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS/WHO) AIDS Epidemic. Retrieved March 26, 2006 from http://data.unaids.org/publications/IRC-pub06/ep_update2005_en.pdf.

UNHCR, (2005). Refugees in Numbers (2005 Edition). Retrieved March 13, 2005 from http://www.unhcr.org/cgibin/texis/vtx/basics/opndoc.htm?tbl=BASICSandD=3b028097c.

United Republic of Tanzania. Peoples Militia Compensation for Death or Injuries Act, No. 27, 1973. Retrieved April 13, 2006 from http://www.bunge.go.tz/Polis/PAMS/Docs/27-1973.pdf.

Wilson, J. P. (1999). Resource Development: Learning and Training for Individuals and Organization. London: Kogan Page.

INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST

1. Defense Technical Information Center
   Ft. Belvoir, Virginia

2. Dudley Knox Library
   Naval Postgraduate School
   Monterey, California

3. Tanzania Peoples Defense Force Headquarters
   Dar es Salaam
   Tanzania