

Local Administrative Systems: Analysis of Tanzania, Rwanda, Malawi, Germany and Zimbabwe

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Abstract: The study examine the local government administrative systems in Tazania, Malawi, Rwanda and Germany including their functions, policy and institutional framework in the advent of multiparty democracy signalled administrative and political affairs. Malawi's and others countries commitment towards consolidation of local democracy through District Councils also called local government authorities. The dedication and function of District Councils and their Councillors are called into doubt, nevertheless, given the fifteen-year absence of Councillors and the shifts in policy direction. Finding important structural and functional components of local government administrative systems in Tanzania, Germany, Rwanda, and Malawi, as well as how their efforts are directed toward efficient service delivery within their locales, is the specific goal of this study. The main events and elements that affect District Council performance under the multiparty system are examined in this study, which is based on documentary research and enhanced by interviews with top local authority officials and chosen members of the public. Additionally, the study gathered information from primary and secondary sources, including newspapers, journals, theses, and unpublished books. Inconclusion, It was discovered that the central argument is that enhancement of local governance largely depends on multi-dimensional strategies that will be affected particularly capacity building and financial support backed by political administrative heads of each local government. The study further recommends; that it will also be of advantage to address challenges facing District Councils and its administrative system within its defined geographical territories.

Keywords: local government, administrative system, functions, structure, Tanzania, Rwanda, Zimbabwe, Germany and analysis.

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Introduction

Administrative system of local government In Tanzania, Malawi, Rwanda, and Zimbabwe, strategic management has become more and more important for the efficient operation of Local Government Authorities (LGAs). Adopting best practices in strategy formulation and implementation is crucial to guaranteeing that resources are used effectively and efficiently for providing services to citizens. To monitor advancement, spot gaps, and guide remedial measures, a strong performance measuring system should also be put in place. Building the capacity of managers and council members will enable them to lead transformation initiatives inside the LGAs, make wise decisions, and negotiate intricate administrative procedures. The services provided by LGAs can be significantly improved by utilizing technology, data analytics, and stakeholder collaboration.

The United Republic of Tanzania's Constitution established Local Government Authorities (LGAs) in 1977. These entities served a number of purposes, including maintaining law and order, encouraging efficient administration, and improving the social and economic well-being of the populace. These duties include promoting socioeconomic development and the improvement of citizens, as stated in Article 146 of the Constitution (URT, 2018).

Tanzanian LGAs with centralized authority are administered using Unitarianism. The preservation of governmental, political, and administrative elements continues to be the major goal of the Local Government Reform Program,

notwithstanding its efforts to increase efficiency (Association of Local Government Authorities of Tanzania, 2020). Poor leadership at the village, town council, municipal, and city levels thus makes it more difficult to provide basic services to the general public (URT, 2019). Since centralization slows down the process, makes decision-making and implementation more complex, and eventually impacts service delivery, it is counterproductive to decentralization. The reform initiative aims to change the way the union is governed and shift the federal government's responsibilities from oversight to coordination, technical assistance, financial oversight, guidance, monitoring, and regulation formulation. LGAs now have more authority to manage issues pertaining to their region under this new framework (Local Government Reforms, 1998).

According to Passage and Godson (2022), progressive governments worldwide strive for efficient strategic management practices to allocate resources appropriately and enhance effective service deliverance at the grassroots level. Again, Thompson and Strickland (2014) argue that governments have adopted Strategic Management Practices (SMPs) as an alternative strategy to change and transform the public sector from bureaucratic to more responsive and innovative administration. Local Government Authorities (LGAs) provide the evidence, as they consistently carry out the Central Government's directives through decentralization to improve governance in the distribution of resources and provision of services. In order to maintain and

accomplish their desired outcomes, this has forced councils to participate in SMPs (URT, 2018).

There are a lot of findings in the literature about the performance of the firm, but there aren't many research about the SMPs on governance and the performance of LGAs. Stated differently, the SMPs and governance practices in LGAs are not well supported by empirical data, despite the abundance of studies on strategic management. It should be mentioned that research on the performance of LGAs and the use of SMPs in governance is still in its early stages. According to certain research, implementing SMPs affects an organization's performance. The application of SMPs to regulate organizational performance in attaining development has been observed in a regional setting (Bakar et al., 2011; Gideon & Georgin, 2016; Zaei et al., 2013 & Mohamud et al., 2015).

Problem of the Statement

Persistent issues with accountability and transparency impede the efficient provision of services and the distribution of resources, notwithstanding Tanzania's attempts to create a strong governance framework, which includes the implementation of Strategic Management Practices (SMPs) in Local Government Authorities (LGAs) (Grant, 2020). According to the Controller and Auditor General's most recent conclusions (CAG, 2022), implementing SMPs is still very difficult and can result in less than ideal project outcomes. Organizational performance and accountability may be enhanced by the Resource-Based View (RBV) philosophy, which stresses the strategic management of resources and capabilities (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984). It is unknown, nevertheless, how well RBV works in Tanzanian LGAs to increase accountability and transparency. By examining the degree to which the RBV theory is applied in Tanzania to enhance accountability and transparency in LGA governance, particularly in the Mufindi District Council (MDC), and by identifying the difficulties and constraints of this methodology, this study seeks to close this knowledge gap.

Objectives of Study

The main objective of the study was to investigate the effects that the absence of local councillors' functions and structural organizations has had on the local governance in Malawi, Tanzania, Germany, Rwanda and Zimbabwe. The study therefore had the following specific objectives;

- To critically analyses the key roles, functions of councilors in local governance
- To assess the impact of absence of structures of local councillors on implementation of the decentralisation policy
- To investigate the impact of absence of local councillors on citizen participation
- To investigate the impact of absence of local councillors on accountability and development
- To assess the strides made to improve the existence of councillors in local governance system in Malawi

Scope of Study

Study Scope The adoption of national decentralization in Malawi, Tanzania, Germany, Rwanda, and Zimbabwe, as well as the passage of the New Local Government Act of 1998, became a sign that power should be transferred to lower governmental levels

in order to improve efficiency and service delivery (Dulani, 2003). However, Kamanga (2002) contended that even though the first local government elections were held in 2000, the future of local government will remain unclear due to a lack of political intent and political institutionalization of local government structures. Numerous studies have been conducted to examine the shortcomings in the local government system, which motivated the researcher to look at the consequences of the lack of locally elected council members in the local government sphere.

Operational Definition/clarification of Terms

Local Government:

Local governments are made up of legally established political entities or instrumentalities that have significant authority over local affairs and, as a result, the ability to impose taxes (Nyalunga, 2006). According to Nyalunga (2006), local governments are entities that emerge from a broader political system and are tasked by the constitution with making political and economic decisions at the local level. Local government is made up of distinct and well-organized regions with specific people, ongoing organizations, and authorities that carry out operations and exercise authority at the local level.

Local Administrative System:

The Local government system is comprised of a set of institutions, mechanisms and the processes through which citizens and their groups can articulate their interests and needs, mediate the differences and exercise their rights and obligations at the local level (UNDP; 2004). The variety of interactions among various development players that mold and impact the results and efficacy of political and administrative institutions at the subnational level are a part of local government and the governance system.

Functions

It means *what something does, but also what a person does*, whether something or someone is doing what they should, and crazily enough, a big party. "function" refers to its purpose, activity, or the role it plays. The way in which a *structure functions*, whether natural or designed by humans, depends on how key parts are shaped and the relationships between those parts. *function defines the outcomes or results produced*, process explicitly defines the sequence of activities

Structure

In general, "structure" refers to the arrangement, organization, or composition of something. also structure dictates how something functions, while in computer science, structures are used to store data and functions are used to process it. The way something is built or organized, including its parts and their relationships. Structure defines components and their relationships,

TANZANIA

A republic in E Africa, on the Indian Ocean: formed by the union of the independent states of Tanganyika and Zanzibar in 1964; a member of the Commonwealth. Exports include coffee, tea, sisal, and cotton. Official languages: Swahili and English.

The name Tanzania is a clipped compound formed by combining the names of two former states, Tanganyika and Zanzibar, when they united in 1964. It essentially means "Tanganyika and Zanzibar". Before the unification,

"Tanganyika" was derived from the Swahili words "tanga" (sail) and "nyika" (wilderness), creating the phrase "sail in the wilderness," [according to Wikipedia](#).

RWANDA

The name "Rwanda" is derived from the Kinyarwanda language and signifies "the expansion." It's believed to have originated from the verb "kwanda," meaning "to expand" or "to increase," reflecting the actions of King Gihanga who founded the Nyiginya dynasty and expanded the territory. In the context of the country, "Rwanda" also refers to a landlocked republic in Central Africa, formerly a German colony, a republic in central Africa, E of the Democratic Republic of the Congo: formerly comprising the N part of the Belgian trust territory of Ruanda-Urundi; became independent 1962. 10,169 sq. mi. (26,338 sq. km). : Kigali.

ZIMBABWE

The Great Zimbabwe Ruins, which are located close to the modern-day town of Masvingo, serve as a modern-day representation of the Shona word *dzimba dzemabwe*, which means houses of stone or stone buildings. In addition to accomplishments, creativity, collaboration, and economic success, Zimbabwe has a rich history of strife and hardships that demonstrate the resilience of its people. Through their writings, numerous academics from the past and present have improved our understanding of Zimbabwe's past. The writings of archaeologists, linguists, historians, oral traditions, and Portuguese traders who dealt with central and southern Africa in the 16th century have all been crucial to our comprehension of the pre-colonial past.

GERMANY:

During the Middle Ages, it was the center of the Holy Roman Empire. After the Franco-Prussian War, it was reunified under Prussian leadership in 1871. After losing the First World War, it became a smaller republic in 1919. From 1933 to 1945, it was ruled by Hitler as a dictator. After losing the Second World War, it was split into four zones by the Allied Powers, which were later renamed East and West Germany. In the late 1940s, it was reunited as a member of the European Union. With plateaus and uplands (such as the Black Forest and the Bavarian Alps) in the center and south, it is low-lying and level in the north. Official language: German. Religion: Christianity. Currency: euro. Capital: Berlin. Pop: 82 114 224 (2017 est). Area: 357 041 sq km (137 825 sq miles)

Analysis:

A detailed examination of anything complex in order to understand its nature or to determine its essential features: a thorough study doing a careful *analysis* of the problem a statement of such an examination. a separation of a whole into its component parts.

Review of Related Literature

Conceptual Clarification

Local Government

According to Osuagwu (2008), local government refers to a form of governance in which a body of elected or appointed local representatives manages public affairs in each locality. This body

has a significant number of duties and discretionary authority to manage the local community.

Enemuo (1999) believed that local government is the lowest level of government in a state that is legally distinct, with the authority to raise money and carry out duties under elected leadership, making the grassroots government answerable to the local populace. The United Nations (1998) stated that local government is a political division in a federal system that is constituted by law with prescribed purposes.

Furthermore, according to Augustine (2009), local government is a level of governance where citizens can participate in the selection of decision-makers as well as the decision-making process itself. The local government can take accountability for its actions within its authority while acknowledging the central government's superiority.

Local government, which is legally distinct as the third tier of government in the federation to carry out specific responsibilities that are unique to the local community, is the lowest level of government in a contemporary state, according to Oyediran (1998).

According to James (2003), local government is a political body established by state law with the mission of delivering necessary local services to the community for which it was established. There are various models of local administration as a kind of government.

Since the General Competence model of local administration encourages local governments to provide a range of services to the public at the local level in order to demonstrate latitudes towards providing basic amenities in the areas of their jurisdiction, Simeon (2014) views the Ultra Vires model of council administration as a guide for the local council authority that identifies pertinent constitutional sections in relation to the restrictions placed on the degree of local government autonomy.

Adegbolu (2003) noted that in modern administration, local council is created by law of the central government in a unitary state while in a federal state the system is created by enabling law of the state government through an instrument which defines its boundaries, structures, functions and powers. Therefore, local government is a legal entity which can sue and be sued.

According to Ugwu (2000), the goal of local government is to provide basic facilities to rural residents closest to the government. Almost all of the aforementioned definitions acknowledged that local government administration is a form of governance unique to the grassroots growth of the populace.

Olaoye (2008) claims that Nigerian public revenue mobilization has demonstrated a high degree of centralization of revenue allocation to the federal government without taking into account the local government's expenditure requirements, which are extremely high due to its close proximity to the grassroots.

According to Adeyemi (20103), there are several ways that local governments in Nigeria raise money. These include internally produced income, 20% direct funding from the federation account, 10% state government funding, and 30% value-added tax (VAT). However, according to Abba and Nwanne (2007), the aforementioned sources are still insufficient to address the unique development difficulties that exist at the local level in Nigeria.

Tonwe (2007) connected Nigeria's local government administration's subpar performance to their limited capacity to generate their own income, which makes them mostly reliant on federation account allocation.

According to a study by Nwakaire (2013), Nigeria's federal funding for local governments increased steadily between 1976 and 1997. For example, the allocation increased from N100 million in 1976 to N352.6 million in 1980, representing a nearly 29% compound growth rate. Nwafor (2006) found that the main cause of the decline in locally generated resources was the insufficient training of local government revenue collectors.

They propose a more effective method of increasing local government revenue by introducing new revenue streams, enhancing incentives for the revenue generating staff to put in more effort, and pursuing tax defaulters when necessary. Lawal and Oluwatoyin (2011) advise local government administration to establish priorities, respond to the evolving requirements of their communities in a timely and sufficient manner, and develop a better plan of action to carry out such policies in a logical manner. According to Kunle (2005), the effectiveness of the local government system is correlated with the caliber of its employees, who must possess advanced training, be highly trained, and have superior tools at their disposal. Ife-ayekwu (2014) states that in order for local government to carry out its statutory duties as best it can, the legislative and executive branches are urged to get together, exchange ideas, and establish goals and objectives that the local government will carry out since their cooperation will improve the decision-making process for the best outcome.

Girish (2014) asserts that inadequate financial management has caused local governments to perform below expectations. Without a doubt, the foundation of local government's efficient operation is finance and its careful administration.

Due to inadequate accounting control mechanisms and insufficient prosecution of offenders, corruption and fraud are becoming increasingly prominent as the bane of local government administration, as noted by Osuagwu (2008). The United Nations Articles of declaration, 1948 explained that Local Government is a political sub-unit or division of a nation which is constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs including the power to impose taxes or to exact labour for prescribed purposes. The New Columbia Encyclopedia (4th Ed) defines it as the "sub-political administration of the smallest sub-divisions of a country's territory and population".

Ugwu (2002) defines Local Government as "the lowest unit of administration to whose laws and regulations communities, who live in a defined geographical area with common social ties are subject. In the 1976 Local Government Reform, the Federal Government of Nigeria the presented Local Government as:

Government at local level exercised through representative councils established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. The powers should give the council substantial control over local affairs as well as the staff and institutional and financial power to initiate and direct the provision of services and to determine and implement projects so as to complement the activities of the State and Federal Government in their areas and to ensure, through devolution of functions to these councils and through the active participation of the people and their traditional

institutes, that local initiative and responses to local needs and conditions are maximized.

From the reading of the foregoing definitions, the following features peculiar to Local Governments have emerged: Local Government is government at the grass root; it has its autonomous existence and is endowed with legal status; specific powers are reserved for it; it can impose taxes and incur expenses; it exists within a defined territory; it is seen as a distinct tier of Government; it must provide authority over a given population; it must provide avenues for the promotion of the welfare of the members of the community; and it comprises elected members such as Chairman and Councilors.

Local Government Administrative System

As stated by Humes and Martin (1961). The local government system is made up of a number of organizations, procedures, and mechanisms that allow individuals and groups to express their needs and interests, resolve conflicts, and exercise their rights and responsibilities at the local level (UNDP, 2004). The variety of interactions among various development players that mold and impact the results and efficacy of political and administrative institutions at the subnational level are a part of local government and the governance system.

The UNDP (2004) states that the foundation of local government is comprised of the following principles: citizen participation, partnerships among important local actors, the ability of local actors to operate across all sectors, multiple information flows, accountability institutions, and policies that are implemented with a pro-poor orientation. Local government consist of both the council which governs the local government and its business and the councillors that apply or employ the legal frameworks of local government.

Local Authorities

These are organizations that work with the administration of the local government. Local government authorities, which may include those in the second or third tier of the government structure, are granted powers by the central government and are backed by laws (GoM, 2004).

Local Councils

The administrative and locally elected members of local councils are in charge of running the local government. The council consists of an administrative arm and an apolitical arm (Svasand, Patel, 2007). The administrative arm, commonly known as the council secretariat, is made up of well-managed, permanent council employees, whereas the political arm is made up of council members and other members who are elected to five-year terms (GoM, 2013).

Decentralisation

Decentralisation Decentralisation in general is meant to be the transfer of authority and power from higher to lower levels of government or from national to subnational levels (Collins & Green: 1994). Decentralisation is viewed as an instrument of good governance and development which by many scholars is broadly recognised as a process that is complex and potential to fail (White; 2011). Decentralisation views that, if the government can perform closer to the people it is meant to serve; the people will get 11 more out of the government because decentralisation is a system

of government which might likely result in enhanced efficiency and accountability than the centralisation of government authority (White; 2011).

Conceptual Review and Framework on the Local Administrative System, Structure, Functions of the Following Countries: Tanzania, Malawi, Rwanda and Zimbabwe

The Structure And Functions Of Local Government Administrative System In Tanzania

The setting

Although the real union occurred three years after independence, Tanzania, a union or federation of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, gained independence from British colonial power in 1961. In such a marriage, the president was generated by the senior and more powerful partner, Tanganyika, and the vice president, at least initially, was produced by Zanzibar.

Tanzania may not be wealthy, but it has produced Africa's main man—a gifted and forward-thinking leader who is ready to go but is sadly limited by both internal and external factors. Let us first review the country's political structure and administration, as well as the location of local government, before delving deeper into this.

Like its Soviet and Chinese equivalents, it was a one-party state in which the government was the party and the party was the government. As a result, party ideology either guided or informed every government action, concept, and structure.

In terms of structure, Dar es Salaam has a central government, regions, districts, divisions, and villages below it. This was the situation prior to Arusha, at least, and a lot of it persisted even after Arusha. While all of these units—possibly with the exception of the regions—are democratically constituted, the central government is a unicameral legislative legislature. The Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) is the only party and the main unifying factor in the nation, as was previously said. Politically, Tanzania has gone through three phases in its post-colonial history viz pre-Arusha, Arusha and post Arusha. These come with different ideological phases namely capitalist and socialist. The model local government system is discussed under the first era while changes to these are discussed under the other experiments.

Local Administration Before and During Arusha (i.e the 1970s)

The following is a diagram of the structure of local government before being restructured in 1972.

- central government
- regions
- district/urban councils
- divisions
- sub-division
- villages

The district is actually the functional center of local governance. There are 17 regions above the districts. Although they lack elected representatives, regions serve more as planning and coordination entities with some degree of authority. They are led by regional commissioners, who are typically TANU's regional secretary (does this sound like municipal government in France?).

Tanzania was divided into 60 districts, with two to six districts each region. Despite being within the jurisdiction of the regional government, this served as the actual headquarters of local government administration. There are fifteen urban councils. Different sets of laws based on English local government models serve as the foundation for the administrative styles of Tanga and Dar es Salaam.

For the purposes of planning, welfare, and other fundamental operations, divisions, subdivisions, and villages function beneath districts. Of these, the villages are, of course, the most natural; the others were either constructed artificially or for administrative reasons. The structure's appearance may also be somewhat similar to that of some traditional native authority, but following independence and particularly under TANU's leadership, these structures were either eliminated, disregarded, or kept and updated to reflect the postcolonial push for progress.

Election and Composition of Councils

Both urban and rural local governments are separated into wards, from which council members are chosen. However, the local TANU creates the list of candidates, and the president has the authority to name 10 members of the council, primarily public workers or members of the TANU district executive committee. The local council chairman is appointed *ex officio* by the local TANU leader. At the other subordinate levels, these exercises are repeated. At the regional level however, the picture is much different. Because its major function is administrative i.e. development planning, its composition is that of a combination of party secretary, members, districts chairman and experts. Local governments can therefore be said to experience little democratic experience under an arrangement where list of candidates is pre-prepared and imposed. This of course is typical of one-party states. What is the composition of a typical planning committee for local government? Administration and Functions

Typically, the council is the highest authority at the local level, but each subordinate authority is completely controlled by the TANU party at that level and subservient to the power above it; this is known as "dual subordination," as in the socialist state.

The head of administration, sometimes known as the executive officer, is directly in charge of administration and personnel and leads the local government bureaucracy at the district level. The town clerk, like in Britain, is the name of his equivalent in the metropolitan center. The remaining department heads, on the other hand, represent the many ministries of the central government that operate in the district. Although this personnel structure may save overhead costs, it may also cause issues for the local unit.

At the divisional level, an assistant divisional officer oversees the subdivision, while the executive officer is chosen by the district council with the regional commissioner's consent. To oversee village governance, the district also appoints village executive officers.

Planning is the primary duty of these levels of local government, ranging from the region to the village. Planning committees are therefore duplicated at every level, with a hierarchy of power and responsibility in this regard. In rural places, planning and development committees become all too significant. The main duty is to create annual development estimates or budgets that need council approval. However, these planning committees oversee

projects through a variety of local committees, ranging from the village level to the regional level. In the first instance, these plans need to go through the anticipated chain of command, which involves extensive screening at the district planning committee level and "a lot of politicking" in the regional and even national levels of government.

The chairman of the regional commissioner, every member of the finance committee, all departmental and technical officers in the district, representatives from cooperative societies, the area chairman of TANU, and the council's executive officer, who serves as secretary, could all be included in a standard planning committee. Such composition depicts politics, administration, and expertise at work but showing, of course, the overriding dominance of the political with both regional chairman and secretary (both TANU official) at the core.

Local governments also carry out social and educational duties, particularly in rural areas where resources and manpower are severely limited. With the exception of trunk roads, which are funded by grants, district governments manage roadways. This is separate from the lower-level development and planning committees' approval of plans.

Committees handle a large portion of the councils' operations and management. One of them has already been brought up. The finance committee is one example. Officers of the central government working in various fields might be recruited to serve on these standing committees. They typically occasionally submit recommendations to the council.

Post-arusha Local Government: Major Changes (I.e. The Seventies And After)

The decentralization of government Act of 1972, in particular, marked the beginning of the actualization of the political reorganization blueprint on the ground. While many of the tasks previously carried out by national ministries were moved to regions and districts, where former local officials and technical officials continued to work as members of the national civil service, the old local government was disbanded. As a result, administration was divided into four levels, with the president and his ministers handling matters of national and global importance and regions, districts, wards, and villages handling local administration. A commissioner led the regional and district levels, with development directors providing assistance (to promote Ujama). Party secretaries headed or served wards and villages.

The new arrangements were intended to decentralize power to the people, as was previously mentioned. They were placed solely under party leadership and control, and a sort of fused structure developed in place of the customary administrative and bureaucratic structure interlocking with the party structure, which was sometimes at odds. Because this stage of socialism was combined to form the new "Illagization or Ujama," this was required. Such an activity was intended to enable villages to combine their resources in order to acquire funding and become more viable and productive. Through such an endeavor, human resources would also be accessible to convert resources into services.

As would be experienced, such radical changes would move hamlets from their natural habitat to join more viable ones. Literature abounds on the Ujama programme and its successes and

failures. Apart from organizational issues, the program's primary failure was caused by the government's insufficient funding. In order for Nyerere's complex plan from the 1970s to be successful, it needed to be village-centered and a local democracy with some degree of local autonomy. In accordance with the previously stated organization, the party secretary chairs the 25-member village development committee. Following this, the decision was approved by the TANU executive committee, the ward development committee, and the district development committee (to be received). It then proceeded to the prime minister's office via the regional development committee. District and regional development directors then carry out the approved plans.

The 1970s system was not all that different from the current one. As previously said, there is a difference in terms of boosting the degree of involvement at the village, ward, and district levels, particularly the first one. However, it seems that the impact of the rural village man ends there. It is clear that both the party and the service exhibit the same level of bureaucracy and control. Giving the people more voice is not enough. It is not a goal unto itself, particularly if their input cannot be unmutilated through political and bureaucratic processes. We do not get as far as the Arusha stage even with the introduction of Ujamaa in 1973, with the demarcation of 250 households, and its voluntary and subsequently forceful results, which cannot register themselves where power is not located and where these results are meant to be revealed. It indicated that there was still a serious flaw in society. There was still room for some reform in the local government structure.

After a few decades of reflection, a second reform in 1982 made it clear that the ideology system, the structure it established, and the governmental system were all ineffective.

The major functions are as follows:

All major existing laws on local government were replaced by new legislation (including the 1975 Law on villages) showing the admission that accelerated development via Ujama had failed

Urban and district councils resurfaced

- Regional development committee survived and was to be "coordinative" and "consultative" in role • urban councils were to become more democratic, thus terminating some ex-officio and regional nominees and even the power of the regional commissioners on these councils
- Rural district became multi-tier districts, wards and villages. Wards were for planning purpose so also were villages and their activities responsible to districts
- Districts could establish town authority while three of its members must be part of the town executive
- Districts council became the only local government or body with sufficient finances to employ its own fully qualified staff
- The composition and administration of these various councils are laid out
- On staffing, experienced staffs were recalled while others were seconded to the new councils. A unified local government service like one of the 60s was adopted
- Note also that the president retained the power of appointment of chief executive officers of urban councils while districts councils could exercise this under the advice of the local government service commission.

Conclusion

The Tanzanian experience has been intriguing not because of the many changes but rather because the socialist system and a supposedly charismatic leader caused the ideological solution that was meant to fix the system to fail. Nonetheless, the party and ideological frameworks were mirrored in the local government structure. Party and ideological control is evident all the way down to the village governments in the district. These restrictions were so onerous that they prevented the discharge of local energy for growth.

However, ideology has had a significant mobilizing effect on these structures and the growth process, particularly on political education and participation. The ideas and the party organization were widely known, which helped to mobilize the populace. The problem has been that such mobilisation did not translate into much of concrete development. Other variables outside the subject under study like finance may be able to explain this better.

Summary

Having gone through this unit, the following should occur to you as some of the main highlights.

- Tanzania operates a unitary system and therefore the experience here is more of deconcentration than devolution
- Ideology and the single party system impacted heavily on the structure and functions of local government in Tanzania.
- Tanzania operated a multi-tier system of local government/district/urban council division and villages with changes after 1972
- Councils were elected with local TANU leaders taking charge of the local council as chairmen.
- Major functions of Council includes planning, drawing up budgets, social services and education, roads and rural development.
- Greater decentralisation was attempted as from 1972 since more functions were transferred to them while transforming local governments into 4-tier structure with the addition of Regions. Such decentralisation was an evidence that the Ujamaa programme has failed.

Local Government Administrative System in Zimbabwe

Population: 15.092 million (WB) Urban population: 32% (WB) Urban population growth (annual): 1.7% (WB) Access to water: 63% (WHO-UNICEF) Access to electricity: 52.7% (WB) Mortality rate, under-5 (per 1,000 births): 54 (WB) GDP (current US\$): 26.218 billion (WB) GDP per capita, PPP (current Int\$): 2,445 (WB) Presence of Violence: None (UCDP) Global Freedom Status: Not free, score 28 (FH) Corruption Perception Index: Score 23, rank 157/180 (TI) Human Development Index: Medium (0.593), rank 146/191 (UNDP) Local Government Association: Zimbabwe Local Government Association (ZILGA) merged the Urban Councils Association of Zimbabwe (UCAZ) and the Association of Rural District Councils of Zimbabwe (ARDCZ)

Zimbabwe is a unitary state with two levels of local government. The 2013 Constitution recognizes provinces as new layers of government between the national and local levels. The Constitution further acknowledges urban and rural authorities as local authorities in place to manage the affairs of urban and rural

areas, respectively. Prior to this, local government functioned as a decentralised level of government that derived its authority from Acts of Parliament and not from the Constitution (SNG-WOFI Zimbabwe, 2019). This constitutionalisation of the local government system was a major milestone for decentralisation in Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe is divided into 8 provinces¹ and 2 metropolitan councils², which are divided into 92 local councils at the municipal level. There are two types of councils: Urban Councils (32) and Rural District Councils (60). The councils are in turn divided into 1200 wards for administrative purposes. Additionally, the 32 Urban Councils are distinguished as one of four different types: Municipal Councils (9), Town Councils (13), City Councils (73), or Local Boards (3) (SNG-WOFI Zimbabwe, 2019).

Urban & Rural District Councils The urban councils and rural district councils are divided into wards, each represented by a Councillor elected for a 5-year term. Mayors (urban) and Chairpersons (rural) are the political leaders of a council, elected by the Councillors. Urban councils are also divided into municipal councils, town councils, city councils and local boards. These local authorities are ranked and granted status according to their “status, power, authority and resources”. Local boards are established in settlements with a very small population, or in areas that are not able to sustain themselves without central government assistance. Town councils on the other hand have a sufficient size to stand alone. City councils have the highest status in the country and constitute the large cities. Municipal and city councils have a Mayor democratically elected every five years, while local boards and town councils are headed by a chairperson elected by councillors. In addition, all cities and municipalities are served by an administration headed by appointed Chief Executive Officers or Town clerks. (SNG-WOFI Zimbabwe, 2019).

Provinces At the regional level, there are provincial councils and metropolitan councils. The provinces are governed by provincial councils whose members are drawn from local councils, parliamentarians and party leaders within the province, and democratically elected members. The Chair of the provincial council is elected by its members and must be a representative of the political party which gained the highest number of National Assembly seats in the province concerned, while an Act of Parliament provides for the election of the Mayor of the metropolitan council. The provincial and metropolitan councils have greater independence from the central government and broader powers than local governments. At the provincial level (excluding metropolitan) there is also a Provincial Assembly of Chiefs. These Provincial Assemblies of Chiefs in turn appoint representatives to the National Council of Chiefs in Parliament. The participation of traditional leaders in provincial and 3 (Harare & Bulawayo), Gweru, Masvingo, Kadoma, Kwekwe, Mutare, Victoria Falls Regional Level Provinces (8) Cities (Metropolitan Councils) (2) Municipal Level Urban Councils (32): City Councils (7) + Town Councils (13) + Municipal Councils (9) + Local Boards (3) Rural District Councils (60) Sub-municipal Level Wards (1,200) 3 national governance is enshrined in the Constitution and the Traditional Leader Act (SNG-WOFI Zimbabwe, 2019).

Local Autonomy Mandates According to the Constitution, provincial and metropolitan governments are responsible for social and economic development, the coordination and implementation of government programs, environmental protection and the promotion of tourism. Urban councils' competencies include water supply, healthcare, maternity and child welfare, housing, transport, schools, libraries, sanitation, environment protection, fire brigades and municipal police, street lighting, public spaces and parks, among others. Rural district councils' competences include the provision of social services such as health and education, construction and maintenance of sewage works, roads and dams, among others (SNG-WOFI Zimbabwe, 2019). Local governments also share responsibilities with the national level, including in road traffic control, public transport, environmental protection, water distribution, housing, public healthcare services, education and social welfare. The Constitution states that the national government will endeavour, whenever appropriate, to devolve its powers to provincial councils, metropolitan councils and local authorities which are competent to carry out those responsibilities efficiently and effectively.

Main Sectors Urban and Rural Council Responsibilities

1. General public services public buildings and facilities (e.g. town houses)
2. Public order and safety Traffic Police; Firefighting; Road traffic control; Traffic signs and lights
3. Economic affairs/transport Road networks and facilities (regional, local); Public transport
4. Environmental protection Parks and green areas; Environment protection; Waste management (collection, treatment and disposal of waste); Sewerage (waste water management); Street cleaning
5. Housing and community amenities Drinking water distribution; Public lighting; Housing (subsidies, construction and renovation and management)
6. Health Primary healthcare (medical centres); Hospital services (general and specialist); Preventative healthcare; Public health services
7. Recreation, culture & religion Libraries; Museums; Cultural activities
8. Education Pre-primary education; Primary and Secondary education
9. Social protection social care for children and youth; Support services for families; Social welfare centres; Housing subsidies and benefits Source: SNG-WOFI Zimbabwe (2019) Local Government Finances The 2013 Constitution introduced the fiscal transfer to provinces and local authorities of five percent of national revenue raised, but this is not yet the case in practice.

Urban and Rural Councils Acts provide a regulatory framework, which include financial provisions, auditing, borrowing and the types of levies and taxes the urban and rural councils can charge. Local authorities are permitted to raise revenue from income generating projects, such as beer halls and farming activities. In 2015, about 69 percent of urban local authorities had income generating projects in their books. However, most projects are poorly managed and not profitable and some have not received ministerial approval (SNG-WOFI Zimbabwe, 2019).

Revenues collected across local authorities are insufficient to cover service delivery, resulting in local authorities incurring debt, and barely being able to provide adequate services. The main reasons for low revenues include excessive central government control over raising fees or rates, very low central government grants and subsidies, adverse macroeconomic conditions and poor financial management (SNG-WOFI Zimbabwe, 2019).

Budgets Local governments plan and formulate their budgets annually before submitting to the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works for approval.

Local Democracy State of Elections Municipal and city council mayors are democratically elected directly every five years, while chairpersons for town councils and land boards are indirectly elected by members of the council. The next general election is set for 2023. Democracy in Zimbabwe is not faring well. While the 2017 coup and removal of Robert Mugabe did spark some optimism, the level of democracy remains low scores Zimbabwe in the lower end, partly because elections tend to be marred by violence. Following the 2018 general election, the European Union Election Observation Mission reported that "while political rights were largely respected, there were concerns regarding the environment for the polls and the failure to achieve a level playing field. Observers widely reported on efforts to undermine the free expression of the will of electors, through inducements, intimidation and coercion against prospective voters to try to ensure a vote in favour of the ruling party" (EUEOM, 2018). Observers also noted that Zimbabwe's history of abuse and autocratic government has led to a low level of trust in the democratic process and institutions (ibid.).

The 2023 general election was criticized by most observers, including the missions from Southern African Development Community (SADC), the African Union and the European Union. The observers noted unfairly drawn constituencies, bans on opposition rallies, unknown final voters roll and polling stations, controlled voting in rural areas and urban voter suppression. But despite these circumstances, the voter turnout was high. The official result in the presidential election put the incumbent candidate, Emmerson D. Mnangagwa (ZANUPF), at 53 percent, and the opposition candidate, Nelson Chamisa (CCC), at 44 percent. Electoral Outcomes. Elections 2008 2013 2018 2023 Voter turnout N/A N/A N/A National Assembly Female Councillors 19% 16% 14% Female Mayors/Chairpersons N/A N/A 13% Source: UN Women (2021) and local sources from Gender Links 5 Women's representation Women remain severely underrepresented in the political arena. The 2023 election saw an all-time low of female candidates, which is likely a result of the 'risky climate'. Only 11% of candidates that ran for seats in the national assembly were female, down from 14% in the 2018 election. Only 21 out of the 210 elected seats (10%) in the national assembly were won by women

Functions of Local Government in Zimbabwe

- Formulate, regulate and monitor policies that promote sound local governance
- Facilitate devolution
- Formulate, review and implement Spatial Planning and State land management policiesManage and coordinate orderly spatial development

- Co-ordinate disaster mitigation and preparedness planning to promote efficient response and resilience to disasters
- Initiate, promote and implement Urban and Rural development projects and programmes
- Co-ordinate Central and Local government programmes and develop
- Promote and facilitate an efficient urban public transport management system
- Facilitate effective operations of traditional leaders
- Coordinate, administer and manage all disasters
- Manage and account for the National Civil Protection Fund
- Formulate and coordinate policies in estate management, valuation services, construction and maintenance of infrastructure
- Formulate and monitor implementation of sound national housing and social amenities policies at the household, business centre and growth point levels
- Develop and implement strategies that ensure rural and urban development in consultation with the relevant Ministries and other stakeholders
- Provide housing and social amenities infrastructure
- Mobilize resources for the implementation of housing and social amenities in rural and urban areas
- Coordinate and implement the Rural Housing Delivery Programmes
- Administer Government Real Estate
- Provide office accommodation to Government
- Manage and account for the National Housing Fund, Housing and Guarantee Fund, Rural Housing Fund, Civil Services Housing Loan Fund and Social Amenities
- Development Fund and Government Pool Properties Fund
- Administer rent control regulations for residential accommodation
- Develop and monitor housing allocation criteria for all Local Authorities
- Purchase land for urban housing development
- Formulate and coordinate policies in estate management, valuation services, construction and maintenance of infrastructure
- Plan, implement and supervise the State Building and Maintenance Programme
- Provide professional and technical advice to the smaller local authorities on building construction and engineering services
- Provide professional and technical guidance
- Prepare and execute agreements of lease for public facilities in Government complexes such as hotels, hospitals etc.
- Value land and buildings in and outside the country for Government purposes
- Supervise and monitor the work of consultants appointed to undertake works by the Ministry
- Manage Stadia Revolving Fund Coordinate State Occasions

Local Government Administrative System In Malawi

There are two levels of government in Malawi, a democratic republic: national and local. The Minister of Local

Government and Rural Development is in charge of administering local government, which is established under Chapter XIV of the constitution. There are 35 single-tier authorities in the local government system: one town council, two municipal councils, four city councils, and 28 district councils. After the 2014 local election, women made up 12.1% of the council, and in 2013–14, local government spending accounted for 3.1% of all government spending. The councils are responsible for raising and collecting local taxes and user fees and charges; however, the majority of their revenue comes from national government grants, both conditional (sectoral funds) and unconditional (general resource funds). All councils have the same responsibilities including primary education, primary health, forestry, natural resources and community services.

National Government

Malawi has a unicameral parliament and is a democratic republic. The president is the head of state and administration and is directly elected by all adults starting at age 18 to serve a maximum of two five-year terms. To run for president, a candidate must be at least 35. The president and vice president are elected simultaneously, with their names appearing on the same ballot. A second vice president, who must belong to a different party, may be appointed by the president in the interest of the country. The elected vice president is named the first vice president in these situations. The 193 members of Malawi's national assembly, or parliament, are chosen by the general public from single-member constituencies and serve five-year terms. After the national election in 2014, women made up 16.7% of MPs. The president appoints a cabinet, whose members need not necessarily be MPs. Malawi has three administrative regions: the Northern region (seven councils), the National region (11 councils) and the Southern region (17 councils). 32/192

Legal Basis for Local Government

Constitutional provisions Local government is enshrined in Chapter XIV of the Constitution. Article 146(3) states that 'parliament shall, where possible, provide those issues of local policy and administration be decided on at the local level under the supervision of local government authorities'.

Section 146 of the Constitution of the Republic of Malawi and the Local Government Act of 1998 provide the legal foundation for Malawi's Local Government System (LGS). The Act's implementation experience demonstrated that it was ineffective as a tool for fostering grassroots growth, particularly during the years 2000–2005 when the nation had elected council members. Local governments are expressly required by the Act and the Constitution to encourage economic and infrastructure development in their communities. To help local governments fulfill their constitutional obligations, the Local Government Act has undergone two amendments and ongoing revision. In February 2010, the National Assembly passed the final modifications. The new Act has addressed these fundamental flaws which should result in more effective and efficient local governments in this country.

Structure of Local Government

State-level local governance Four city councils, twenty-eight district councils, two municipal councils, and one town council make up Malawi's one level of local government. There is no supervisory or subsidiary structure, and they are all at the same

level. As stipulated by the constitution, the lone town council was the consequence of a presidential decree in 2012, while the original 34 councils—four cities, 28 districts, and two municipal councils—were established following the 2010 Local Government Act modification.

Structure and Elements of the Local Government System:

The single-tier structure of Malawi's LGS suggests that no local authority has supervisory authority over another and that all local authorities are independent of one another. Notwithstanding this, council cooperation is permitted under the Local Government Act.

The district-level local governments and their committees make up our LGS's institutional structure. The Neighbourhood Committees (NC) for town, municipal, and city councils, the Area Development Committees (ADC), and the Village Development Committees (VDC) for district councils are all part of the local administration. The creation of Village Action Plans (VAPs) or Neighbourhood Action Plans (NAPs) marks the beginning of the planning process at the VDC/NC level. VAPs and NAPs are a list of the village's or neighborhood's top priorities. These are then forwarded to the council where they are consolidated into a local development plan (District Development Plans in district councils or Urban Development Plans in town, municipal or city councils). The local development plan therefore, represents the priorities of the entire district. In the formulation of the local development plan the issues are aligned to the national priorities as outlined in the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS).

Another element of the LGS in Malawi is the Council Secretariat. The Council Secretariat provides technical guidance on the formulation of local development plans, whereafter the council approves the respective plan.

Local government financing is another key element of the system. The Local Government Act and the Decentralisation Policy outline three main sources of funding namely: central government transfers, locally generated revenues and ceded revenue. These will be discussed in more detail in a later chapter of this document.

Currently there is a lively discourse to introduce Ward Committees within the LGS. Activities of Ward Committees would be guided by the elected councillor of a particular ward.

1. Local Government Areas are there in Malawi? Malawi currently has a total of 35 Local Government Areas in which local government authorities called councils have been established. Specific names and number of Local Government Areas are found in the First Schedule of the Local Government Act. Local Government Areas, also known as planning areas, are sub-divided into smaller areas called wards where councillors, who are members of the council, represent the electorate.

Councils categorised

Types of councils There are 35 councils, which represent one level of local government. The former administrative districts are coterminous with the 28 district councils, the majority of which are in rural areas. There were forty single-tier local authorities prior to the 2010 amendment to the Local Government Act, which combined six of the previous town assemblies with six district assemblies to form six new district councils and promoted two towns to the status of municipalities. A presidential decree then

elevated an urban center to the status of a town. Although the townships that were formerly governed by town assemblies are still towns in and of themselves, they are now governed as designated urban centers by their respective district councils. Town management committees are in charge of running these centers. The 2010 amendment also granted Members of Parliament the ability to vote in the council chamber. Urban and rural councils and their functions are not differentiated in the law. In reality, their roles depend on whether they are urban or rural, and councils have the ability to ask to be excluded from duties outlined in the law. Within the boundaries of its assigned local government region, each council is independent. This includes the authority to form joint committees and carry out tasks collaboratively.

The number of councils in this country is determined from time to time through the First Schedule of the Local Government Act. Currently Local Government Areas in Malawi are categorised into four as follows:

Cities: there are four (4) of them namely,

- Blantyre,
- Lilongwe,
- Mzuzu, and
- Zomba;
- Town: there is only one (1), namely
- Mangochi;

iii. Districts: There are twenty eight (28) of them, namely Balaka, Blantyre, Chikhwawa, Chiradzulu, Chitipa, Dedza, Dowa, Karonga, Kasungu, Likoma, Lilongwe, Machinga, Mangochi, Mchinji, Mulanje, Mwanza, M'mbelwa, Neno, Nkhata Bay, Nkhotakota, Nsanje, Ntcheu, Ntchisi, Phalombe, Rumphi, Salima, Thyolo, Zomba

Each one of the Local Government Areas is a district in its own right, meaning that it cannot be under the supervision of another Local Government Area. With guidance from the central government, districts have full responsibility over their development and administrative matters in line with national objectives as stipulated in the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS II). Local authorities therefore receive policy guidance from the centre because they are also part of the public service in the country.

District councils: Committees for finance, development, education, works, health and the environment, and human resources must be appointed by these. Other committees and subcommittees may be formed at any time, and non-voting members may be co-opted. A full-time chairperson is chosen by the council members to serve as the council's head for a one-year term, with the possibility of reelection for a single term. Committees are used for decision-making. Neither executive committees, cabinets, or sub-district governing institutions are specified in the statute. In actuality, the structure is usually a district executive committee (DEC), headed by a district commissioner, that handles executive duties with assistance from village committees (VCs), district consultative committees (DCCs), and area development committees (ADCs). Although the latter do not fully mirror the ward representation of council members, councils have the option to create new structures or make use of pre-existing ones. District development plans must be created by councils in their capacity as planning authorities. The Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS), the

decentralization policy, and the national development framework as described in the national government's Vision 2020 planning framework must all be specifically included in these plans. In addition, councils are required by the Environmental Management Act of 1996 to create five-year environmental action plans and plans for disaster preparedness.

City councils: The title of mayor is bestowed upon the chairperson. At the council's inaugural meeting, the elected council members indirectly elect the non-executive mayors. A mayor may run for reelection once throughout their two-and-a-half-year tenure.

Municipal councils: Two town assemblies were promoted to municipal councils, while six of the eight town assemblies were combined with district assemblies to create district councils. Municipal council chairs are also known as mayors; they are elected to office and serve two-and-a-half-year terms with the option to run for office again once. Town council leadership is modeled after those of municipal and city councils.

Traditional leadership: A group village headman, chosen by the village headmen and in charge of five or more villages, is assigned to each village under the traditional leadership structure. The traditional leader is chosen by the chieftaincy clan, and the traditional authority (TA) posts are inherited. A sub-chief oversees many TAs at the highest level, whereas the senior chief has control over every sub-chief in the district. Within each local government region, TAs and sub-TAs have the position of non-voting members of the councils *ex officio*.

ELECTIONS: Recent local elections With a 14.2% turnout, November 2000 saw the first multi-party local government elections. Following that, the councils were suspended from 2004 until the most recent election, which was held as part of tripartite elections on May 20, 2014, and had a turnout of 69.0%.²²

Voting system: Under the first past the post system, council members are chosen, with one representative from each ward in the nation serving a five-year term. Every council has the same democratic system. 860 council members were chosen in the most recent elections. Since the Local Government Act was amended in 2010, elected officials are required to represent 461 wards.

Elected representatives: The chairpersons of the councils are indirectly elected by the councillors during the first meeting, which is chaired by the chief executive officer.

Finance, Staffing and Resources:

Local government expenditure In 2012/13 local government expenditure was 3.1% of total government expenditure

Locally generated revenue: The Local Government Act and the national decentralization policy specify the conditions under which councils are permitted to impose rates and charge or collect fees. However, the MLGRD offers guidelines on how these can be decided based on the type of services, in conjunction with the appropriate government sectors to ensure a seamless process.

Transfers The government must make sure that sufficient resources are available for the efficient local execution of delegated functions in accordance with the constitution. MWK19.6 billion was the total amount of money collected and spent by local government in 2013–14. Grant payments from the federal

government to local governments come in two varieties. These transactions are carried out in compliance with authorized formulas that are periodically evaluated. Utilizing the formulas is the recommended method since it promotes equality, accountability, openness, and justice among the many regions. The first transfer is an unconditional grant that is based on the constitutional requirement that local authorities receive 5% of national net revenue (NNR) in order to address under-collections of local revenue and guarantee that sufficient resources are available for the efficient local performance of devolved functions. The second transfer results from a parliamentary decision that, in order to support the development of these responsibilities, 9% and 15% of NNR, respectively, should be set aside for health and education expenses. Thus in principle a total of 29% of NNR will be devolved to local government. Loans No information is available.

Employees of the local government In order to lead the paid service, councils must hire a chief executive. Apart from the need to create an internal audit department, the law makes no mention of any additional senior positions or departmental arrangements. According to the Local Government Act of 1998, councils would be in charge of hiring, promoting, disciplining, and firing all staff members in addition to deciding on their pay, benefits, and terms of employment. In January 2001, however, a change to the law transferred authority for hiring senior management personnel from councils to the Local Government Service Commission (LGSC). The appointment of the chief executive/district commissioner, the directors of finance, administration, public works, management information systems, and internal audit, as well as two financial officers in charge of ongoing income and development issues, are all included in the LGSC's mandate. Originally established in 1984 as an independent body, the LGSC was created to assist local government. After being disbanded, it has recently been temporarily restored until councils are able to take on full responsibility for hiring. For all other staffing issues, councils are still in charge. The council secretariat is in charge of forming the appointments and disciplinary committee. Additionally, they are free to arrange officer exchanges or secondments with other councils in Malawi or abroad. To help them, councils might ask for the secondment of other public servants, such as employees of the national government. On the LGFC's suggestion, the Minister of Local Government and Rural Development decides on the allowances for chairpersons. Additionally, because councils—particularly districts—tend to rely too heavily on transfers from the center, the ministry sets allowances for each ward council member. The rates that cities establish for councillor allowances and other incentives are typically different than those that districts and municipalities set.

Functions and Relationship between Local Governments and Central Government:

The Malawi Local Government System is very closely connected to the central government. Local governments' role is to re-enforce national policies through local programmes and activities thereby ensuring their subsidiarity and complementarity to the central government. This is particularly important for a country such as Malawi, where transfers from the central government contribute to more than 80% of the local governments' annual budgets.

National policies serve as a guidance for local authorities as part of the public service. They are therefore not expected to develop projects that conflict with national policies. For example, a local government cannot implement a universal fertilizer subsidy program because it might conflict with the central government's targeted Farm Input Subsidy Program (FISP); a council cannot implement fee-paying in public primary schools when the national policy is free primary education. The minister in charge of local government will be held accountable for any council measures that deviate from national policies.

In order to strengthen the relationship between central government and local governments, central government supports local governments with policy guidance, financial and technical assistance among others.

- education, science and technology
- health, population and water development
- transport and public works
- land surveying and physical planning
- agriculture and irrigation
- gender, youth and community affairs
- natural resources and environment
- commerce and industry
- home affairs and internal security.

Under the legislation most decentralised functions are mandatory. Decentralisation implementation is phased.

ICT use in service delivery No information is available

How local governments might help achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the UN. In order to match the priorities of rural and urban councils with the SDGs, the MLGRD hosted orientation workshops for local councils in the regions in August 2017 to evaluate local development plans. The Malawian government has also been asked by the UN to translate the SDGs into regional tongues.

Local Administrative Structure In Rwanda

There are two levels of governance in Rwanda, a democratic republic: national and municipal. Chapter 1 of the constitution establishes local government, while the Organic Law of 2005 serves as the primary piece of legislation. The local authorities are organized into four levels: 30 districts (akarere), 416 sectors (imerenge), 2,148 cells (utugari), and 14,837 villages (imudungu). They are supervised by the Ministry of Local Government (MINALOC). About 40% of all council members were female after the 2016 municipal elections. In addition to receiving grants for specialized services and one-time development projects, local governments are also able to generate income through property taxes and user fees. Many locally provided services are implemented in partnership with other government and non-governmental agencies, including rural electrification, environmental management, primary health, water and sanitation services, local economic development and tourism, municipal planning and transport, and social protection.

National Government

Rwanda is a democratic republic with a bicameral parliament.

The president is the head of state and administration and is chosen by universal adult suffrage to serve a seven-year term with a maximum of two terms. The Senate and the Chamber of

Deputies are the two houses that make up the parliament. There are 80 members of the chamber of deputies, each of whom is appointed to a five-year term. Fifty-three of the 80 members are chosen by the general public using proportional representation. 24 seats are set aside for women, who are indirectly elected by local governments, and two members are chosen to represent the interests of youth and disability organizations. The 26 members of the senate are elected to eight-year terms. Twelve seats are indirectly elected by the provincial councils, eight are appointed by the president, four are designated by the Forum of Political Organizations, and one is chosen from among academics at public and private universities. At least eight of these seats must be occupied by women. Women made up 38.5% of senators and 61.3% of deputies in the chamber after the 2013 national elections. 33.1b In addition, the president appoints four governors who serve as a bridge between the highest level of local government and the national government, overseeing and coordinating administration in the capital city and the four provinces (intara). None of these are ladies at the moment. In each province the governor chairs the Provincial Coordination Committee (PCC), which is made up of the chairpersons of the district councils within each province, the coordinators of provincial departments, and the heads of denationalised provincial services.

Legal Basis For Local Government

1 Constitutional provisions Local government is enshrined in Chapter 1, Article 167 of the constitution33.2a (Amendment No. 2 of 2005)

2 Main legislative texts The Organic Law No. 29 of 200533.2b determines the administrative entities for local government and establishes their number, boundaries and structure. Other recent laws relating to local government:

- law No. 87/2013 of 30/09/2013 determining the organisation and functioning of denationalised administrative entities
- law No. 62/2013 of 27/08/2013 establishing the Local Administrative Entities Development Agency's mandate
- law No. 12/2013 of 12/09/2013 on state finances and property as amended to date
- presidential order No. 25/01 of 9 July 2012 on fees charged by denationalised entities. A National Denationalisation Policy was approved by parliament in May 2001 and revised in 2013. Proposed legislative changes No information is available regarding proposed legislative changes.

Urban policy at the national level The Rwandan government approved a National Urbanization Policy (NUP) in December 2015 as a tool to encourage effective urban development that boosts regional and national economic growth and guarantees a high standard of living for everyone. The four pillars of the NUP—coordination, density, conviviality, and economic growth—reflect the interdisciplinary nature of urbanization.

Structure of Local Government

Local government within the state There are two spheres of government in Rwanda, national and local. The national government includes the provincial administrative regions. The local government consists of four tiers: districts, sectors, cells and villages.

Ministerial oversight

The Ministry of Local Government33.3b (MINALOC) oversees local governance in Rwanda. The main mission of MINALOC is to 'promote the wellbeing of the population by ensuring good governance, community development and social affairs. MINALOC is responsible for establishing democratic, denationalised administrative structures and for ensuring synergy, collaboration and coordination between all government institutions in their support for local government. It also works to:

- Build the human, material and financial capacities of local government, so that councils can fulfil their roles and responsibilities
- Establish help and self-help mechanisms for vulnerable groups such as genocide survivors, people with disabilities and older citizens
- Strengthen planning, coordination and mobilisation mechanisms to deliver the resources necessary for good governance, community development and social protection.

Council types

Local government in Rwanda has four tiers. There are 30 districts (akarere) which constitute the primary local authorities, as well as sectors (imerenge), cells (utugari) and villages (imudungu).

The district (akarere) council is the policy-making and legislative body at district level. It is the authority through which the people, via their representatives, can exercise their decision-making and planning powers to determine the development of the district. For transparency and inclusivity the district council chairperson must be a different person from the district mayor. The size of each council is determined by the number of sectors (imerenge) within its boundaries. Each sector provides a representative to the council. In addition, four seats are reserved for the representation of marginalised groups: three for the National Youth Council and one for the district coordinator of the National Council of Women. The district executive committee (DEC) manages the day-to-day affairs of the district and is the contact point between district residents and their elected council members on matters of service delivery and development.

The sector (imerenge) council is a political organ for policy-making decisions; it is elected by all sector residents over the age of 18. The number of council members is determined by the number of cells (utugari) within its boundaries. The council's functions include approval of sector plans and action programmes and ensuring their implementation. There is a sector executive committee, which is composed of 12 members drawn from the council and is responsible for day-to-day administration and the implementation of the decisions and plans of the council. Technical support to the council is provided by two subcommittees, namely the sector political and administrative committee (SPAC) and the sector community development committee (SCDC).

Cell (utugari) councils are elected for a five-year term to identify, discuss and prioritise issues, and take decisions on behalf of their electorate. The cell executive committee is composed of the executive secretary and a secretary in charge of coordinating social developments. Staff are responsible for administration and community development, including the day-to-day administration of the cell and the implementation of decisions taken by the cell council. The cell executive works through its technical committee,

the cell community development committee (CCDC), to identify and prioritise needs, draw up development plans and mobilise development resources.

Village (imudungu) authorities are committees elected for a five-year term to identify, discuss and prioritise issues, and take decisions on behalf of their electorate. The village is the lowest administrative entity in Rwanda and village authority members are elected by all adult residents of the village. The village authority consists of a five-member committee which includes the village chief, a member for development and social affairs, a member in charge of security, a member in charge of youth and a member for gender. Village authority staff are responsible for administration and community development, including the day-to-day administration of the village and the implementation of decisions taken by the village council on behalf of all residents.

Elections

Recent local elections The last local elections were held in February 2016 with a turnout of approximately 90%, and the next elections will be held in 2021. The previous local elections were held in 2011 with an overall turnout of 98.9%. In 2011 the turnout for each local government level was as follows: districts: 93.6%, sectors: 91.2%, cells: 90.4%, and villages: 87.1%.

Voting system At the village level, local government law stipulates that all village residents are members of their village council. Cell council members are directly elected by universal adult suffrage of the cell residents. Representatives are then indirectly elected from the cell council members to the sector council, which then in turn indirectly elects a representative to the district council.

Elected representatives At its inaugural meeting, the district council elects a chairperson from among the elected councillors and the three members of the executive committee elected by all council members from cell level to district.

Systems for Community Involvement

Legal requirement and

implementation There are various official channels to encourage community participation in decision-making, including but not limited to: community assemblies (inteko z'abaturage): these convene monthly to discuss government policies and programmes and resolve domestic disputes in a given community. There are also local mediators (abunzi) who convene to resolve disputes in the cells; community work (umuganda): on the last Saturday of each month, citizens participate in community work known as umuganda to develop their communities. The Vision 2020 Umerenge Programme (VUP) is part of Rwanda's poverty reduction strategy and a mechanism through which communities in targeted sectors participate in public service. Existing channels for local participation include:

- A joint action development forum at both district and sector levels
- Public accountability days to strengthen accountability at both national and local level
- Citizen participation in budgeting and expenditure processes, to ensure fiscal accountability
- Representation of people with disabilities on every local decision-making body

- Several projects and programmes established to help citizens living below the poverty line, including ‘ubudehe’ and ‘VUP’ (as described above)
- A specific policy on social protection that targets the vulnerable and elderly. /rwanda ICT use in citizen engagement All local governments are encouraged to have an active website.

Organised Local Government

The Rwandese Association of Local Government Authorities (RALGA) is a non-governmental voluntary membership organisation that brings together local governments in Rwanda. RALGA’s mission is ‘to strive for efficient, effective, transparent and accountable local government in Rwanda through representation, advocacy and capacity-building’ with a vision ‘to have local governments that respond to the demands of people, that are just, democratic and participatory, and which are citizen, investor, and donor friendly’. RALGA’s threefold mandate is to represent members in and outside the country, to lobby and advocate for members and to build the capacity of members. The Local Governance Institute (LGI) is an initiative of the RALGA, which is mandated, among other things, to provide capacity building for local government leaders and officials. LGI provides short courses, a masters’ programme and tailor-made solutions for local government studies as well as acting a centre of research and knowledge for local governance in Rwanda and internationally.

Intergovernmental Relations

Intergovernmental interaction occurs through ‘national dialogue meetings’ which annually bring together the president and local government councillors. There are also national/local government quarterly meetings of the prime minister, ministers, provincial governors and local government leaders. This forum discusses the implementation of national policies, focusing on challenges, strategies and recommendations. Annual planning and reporting performance contract meetings take place between national and local leaders, where district mayors on behalf of their local citizens sign contracts with the president. Local leaders commit themselves to achieving a certain set of targets, and national government commits to provide funding as budgeted. There are annual budgeting and planning meetings bringing together chief budget managers from all levels to harmonise their budgets and plans, and , annual district budget days are organised to involve all stakeholders in policy development and the decision-making process.

Monitoring Systems

Performance contracts (imihigo) monitor local governments’ performance against their responsibilities. These contracts are evaluated annually, drawing on expertise from the president’s office, the prime minister’s office and RALGA, along with MINALOC and the Ministry of Economic Planning. Other monitoring systems for local government include:

- MINALOC’s oversight of district budgets and implementation of national programmes, including technical support and guidance if implementation is behind schedule
- The auditor general audits local governments to ensure effective use of public resources
- The ombudsman addresses any issues of corruption and investigates citizens’ complaints about local government

- A parliamentary committee on local government fulfils an oversight role on behalf of the legislature.

Finance, Staffing and Resources

All districts approach their budgets from the bottom up, by first considering local development priorities and then matching them with national grants and locally raised revenue.

1. Local government expenditure in 2013/14 local government expenditure was 22.4% of total government expenditure
2. Locally raised revenue Local government raises funds directly from several sources, including civil status registrations, property taxes and community healthcare schemes. In 2013/14 the total aggregated locally raised revenue was RWF71.629bn.
3. Transfers Total national government transfers stood at RWF31.889bn for the block grant and RWF206.798bn for ringfenced transfers for the fiscal year 2013/14. There was also a further RWF16.604bn transferred from other government agencies and RWF31.055bn from external agencies.
4. Loans No information is available.
5. Local authority staff Local governments have the authority to hire staff. The head of the administration in a district is called the executive secretary. S/he heads the management and technical units of the district and is the overall supervisor for the staff employed.

Distribution of Service Delivery Responsibility

Overview of local government service delivery responsibility the constitution assigns executive powers to local government over the following areas of activity, often implemented in partnership with other government and non-government agencies:

- Rural electrification
- Environmental management
- Local economic development and tourism
- Municipal planning, building regulations, public works and transport
- Social protection
- Primary health services
- Water, sewage and sanitation services
- Involvement of community organisations in matters of local government. Local governments also have the discretion to deliver the following services:
- Community policing
- Civil status register
- Kindergarten, nursery and adult education
- Housing construction permits
- Town planning, rural road construction and transport
- Cemeteries, crematoria and religious facilities
- Environmental protection
- Local economic promotion.

ICT use in service delivery E-government is used in service delivery and communication.

The Role of Local Government in Achieving the UN Sustainable Development Goals (Sdgs)

In order to assist governments, civil society, enterprises, and academic institutions in accomplishing the Sustainable

Development Goals in Africa, President Kagame established the new Sustainable Development Goals Centre for Africa (SDGC/A) in Kigali in 2016.33.10a In January 2017, the SDGC/A released its first study, "How Africa can achieve the Sustainable Development Goals," which emphasizes the need for more decentralization, particularly in North Africa. Making sure fiscal decentralization comes after political decentralization, matching grant mechanisms, boosting local capability, and distributing extractive royalties fairly are some of its prioritized topics. With an emphasis on Rwanda, MINALOC and RALGA are collaborating with CLGF to advance an EC-funded project that aims to increase the role of local government as a development partner, specifically in relation to localizing and implementing the SDGs.

Local Government Administrative Systems, Functions and Structure in Germany

The structure of the state public governance in Germany comprises three levels: the federation, the 16 federal states (Länder) and some 11,000 municipalities, which include cities, towns and other entities. The city states of Berlin, Bremen and Hamburg have a special role. Each is both a federal state and a municipality. Non-independent municipalities are grouped into sub-regional administrative districts (counties), and larger cities can be divided into urban districts (boroughs). The municipalities are subject to the legislation and supervision of the federal states, and are thus part of their administration. The most important legislation is the municipal by-laws of the federal states. They can directly transfer tasks to the municipalities.

Tasks and powers Municipalities provide key services to ensure the basic needs of the population. These municipal services of general interest include water and energy supply, as well as the maintenance of roads, schools, day-care centres and hospitals.

The right to self-government Municipalities can decide on their own local affairs as long as they comply with applicable law. They are thus far more than just public implementing authorities at the local level. It is important to note that their right to self-government only applies to the spatial area of the municipality. There, the municipalities have control over territory, personnel and organisations. This means they can make sovereign decisions on personnel matters, for example, and determine procedures and responsibilities. Basic Law, Article 28 (2): 'Municipalities must be guaranteed the right to regulate all local affairs on their own responsibility within the limits prescribed by the law.' Municipal districts (boroughs) (only in larger municipalities) with district councils (headed by district leader or district mayor) Municipalities 294 sub-regional districts (counties), 106 independent municipalities and some 10,900 cities and towns with councils and district councils (headed by [lord] mayor and district chief executive 16 federal states with state parliaments and state governments (headed by prime ministers) The Federation with the Bundestag and the Federal Government (headed by the Federal Chancellor) Government structures from national to local level Local government structures – Germany

Mandatory and voluntary tasks

The municipalities have certain mandatory tasks that are prescribed by federal or state laws. These include passport and civil registration services, the provision of schools and roads, urban land-use planning, street cleaning and wastewater management. In addition, there are voluntary municipal tasks such as culture, sports

facilities and local development cooperation. The municipalities perform these tasks at their own discretion and according to their financial resources. Municipalities can outsource certain tasks, such as waste management, to municipal companies such as public utilities or, as in the case of hospitals, commission private providers or companies to deliver services. For cross-municipal tasks such as public transport, many municipalities have founded special-purpose associations at the district level. Examples of municipal tasks:

- Road construction
- Transport
- Maintenance of schools and kindergartens
- Public safety: fire protection service, labour inspectorate, building inspectorate
- Social assistance: social welfare, old people's homes, homeless shelters
- Education and culture: adult education centre, libraries, theatres, orchestras, museums
- Utilities, housing: water, electricity, gas, housing construction, urban planning, economic development
- Health and youth welfare
- Waste disposal, sewerage, green spaces, recreation, cemeteries
- Hospitals, playgrounds, sports facilities
- State tasks: registry office, food inspection, civil registration, statistical work SchleswigHolstein MecklenburgVorpommern Brandenburg Sachsen Bayern BadenWürttemberg Thüringen SachsenAnhalt Niedersachsen NordrheinWestfalen Hessen RheinlandPfalz Saarland Bremen Hamburg Berlin the 16 federal states Local government structures – Germany

Municipal structures:

As at the federal and state levels, decisions at the local level are made by municipal 'governments' and 'parliaments' – the so-called representative bodies. As in federal and state elections, these bodies are elected directly, freely, equally and secretly by universal suffrage. They can pass resolutions, but cannot enact laws beyond that.

Municipal and city councils, and district councils Elected by the citizens, these bodies make decisions which the administration must implement – by democratic voting. Their size depends on the population of the municipality; some municipal councils have 20 members, and city councils can have up to. They always work on an honorary basis, but receive an expense allowance. In order to decide on an issue, the parliamentary groups or individual councillors submit motions. These are discussed and then voted on democratically. The councillors also have the option of delegating certain decisions to the administration. Since not all issues can be dealt with in detail in the council meetings, the councillors have advisory or decision-making committees. These deal with topics such as finance, personnel or schools (compulsory in the state of North Rhine-Westphalia) or planning, mobility, environment, culture, and youth and family. The committees comprise members of the parliamentary groups, in numbers that reflect proportionately the number of seats each party holds. A council can also appoint 'knowledgeable citizens' to work on the committees.

Lord Mayors and district administrators

As a rule, these officials head the administration on a full-time basis and preside over the municipal and city councils and the district councils. There they have full voting rights. Depending on the federal state, they are elected for five to eight years.

Districts and municipal special-purpose associations the 294 sub-regional districts Germany-wide perform public tasks that exceed the capacity of smaller municipalities or cities, such as waste management or public transport.

Representation of interests

The municipalities in Germany are joined together in municipal associations such as the Association of German Cities, the German County Association or the Association of Towns and Municipalities. These associations represent the interests of the municipalities vis-à-vis the Federal Government and the European Union, among others, and advocate for the protection of municipal self government.

Funding and budget

Municipalities receive a legally determined percentage share of state wage, income and sales tax revenues through the states, as well as financial allocations from the federal government and the states. They themselves collect property and trade taxes and, to a lesser extent, excise and expense taxes such as dog taxes, as well as fees and charges. They also have the option of taking out loans. The budget of each municipality is determined by the district council or the city or municipal council. The largest share of municipal expenditure in Germany is spent on personnel costs and on social benefits such as social assistance within and outside of social institutions, as well as integration assistance. Further expenditure involves material costs.

The Service Agency Communities in One World (SKEW)

The Service Agency Communities in One World has been Germany's contact point for local development cooperation since 2002. It supports local government entities in promoting global sustainability and a fairer world in line with the United Nations' 2030 Agenda – both in Germany and in the Global South. To this end, it supports national and international dialogue and mutual learning between municipalities. The Service Agency offers an all-inclusive package comprising professional expertise, networking, one on-one consultation, and funding for projects and human resources. It is a division of Engagement Global, and operates on behalf of Germany's Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ).

Comparative Review on Tanzania, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Rwanda and Germany Local Government Administrative Structures

Tanzania, Rwanda, Malawi, Germany, and Zimbabwe have distinct local administrative systems influenced by historical, political, and economic factors. Tanzania and Rwanda exhibit a more centralized approach, with Tanzania's system being influenced by a legacy of indirect rule and a more hierarchical structure. Malawi's local government is enshrined in its constitution, while Germany's system is decentralized with four levels of territorial government. Zimbabwe's local government system is described in its national constitution, but faces challenges

related to central government influence and the need for elected literate councillors.

Here's a more detailed comparison:

Tanzania:

- Centralized Structure:**

Tanzania's mainland is divided into regions, each administered by a commissioner appointed by the central government.

- Local Councils:**

District, division, and ward levels have popularly elected councils with appointed executive officers.

- Reform Efforts:**

The Local Government Reform Program aims to improve efficiency, but challenges persist in delivering essential services.

- Centralized Powers:**

Unitarianism is used to administer local government authorities, with central powers prevailing.

Rwanda:

- Two-Layer Government:**

Rwanda has central and local government structures, with six administrative entities: provinces, city, and districts.

- Administrative Units:**

Provinces, the City of Kigali, and districts are the main administrative units.

Malawi:

- Constitutional Framework:** Local government is enshrined in Chapter XIV of the Malawi constitution.

- Single-Tier Authorities:** The system has 35 single-tier authorities, including district, city, municipal, and town councils.

Germany:

- Four Levels of Government:**

Germany has a federal government, states (Lander), counties (Kreise), and communities (Gemeinden).

- Local Government Levels:**

Counties and communities represent the local government level, regulated by Lander laws.

Zimbabwe:

- Administrative Provinces:**

Zimbabwe has ten administrative provinces, including Bulawayo Metropolitan, Harare Metropolitan, and others.

- Urban and Municipal Councils:**

The country also has city councils, urban councils, municipal councils, town councils, and boards councils.

- **Challenges:**

Local government legislation has given too much power to the Minister of Local Government, which has been abused.

Rwanda's local administrative system features a hierarchical structure with provinces, districts, sectors, cells, and villages, all playing a crucial role in service delivery and governance. The system emphasizes decentralization and citizen participation, with local governments responsible for a range of functions, including resource management, service delivery, and local development. Compared to other systems, Rwanda's approach stands out for its emphasis on citizen involvement and the devolution of responsibilities to lower levels of government.

Here's a more detailed look:

1. Structure and Hierarchy:

- **Provinces (Intara):** The highest level, with limited executive power, primarily focusing on monitoring and support to districts.
- **Districts (Akarere):** The core level of local governance, with significant administrative and political power.
- **Sectors (Umurenge):** Intermediate level, managing specific geographic areas within a district.
- **Cells (Akagari):** Further subdivisions of sectors, often corresponding to villages.
- **Villages (Umuudugudu):** The lowest administrative level, where residents have a direct say in local governance.

2. Functions and Responsibilities:

- **Service Delivery:**

Local governments are responsible for delivering various services, including education, healthcare, infrastructure, and social welfare.

- **Resource Management:**

Districts manage local revenue, including taxes and grants from the central government, and allocate funds for various development projects.

- **Local Development:**

Districts are responsible for planning and implementing local development projects, often based on community needs and priorities.

- **Citizen Participation:**

Rwanda's system emphasizes citizen participation in local governance through various mechanisms, such as forums, meetings, and elections.

3. Decentralization:

- Rwanda's decentralization efforts have been ongoing since 2000, with all forms of decentralization (deconcentration, delegation, and devolution) being implemented concurrently.

- The goal is to empower local governments with the resources and authority to effectively manage and deliver services to their communities.
- The system is constantly evolving, with ongoing efforts to strengthen local capacity and ensure greater accountability.

4. Citizen Participation:

- Rwanda's system places a high emphasis on citizen participation, with various mechanisms in place to ensure that citizens have a voice in local governance.
- Citizen forums, meetings, and consultations are common ways for citizens to engage with their local government and contribute to decision-making.
- Elections are held at all levels of local government, with high voter turnout rates.

5. Comparative Analysis:

- Compared to other systems, Rwanda's approach stands out for its strong emphasis on citizen participation and the devolution of responsibilities to lower levels of government.
- The system also places a high priority on service delivery and local development, with a focus on addressing the needs of the local population.
- However, challenges remain, such as ensuring adequate financial resources and capacity building at the local level.

In conclusion, Rwanda's local administrative system is a complex and evolving system that emphasizes decentralization, citizen participation, and service delivery. While challenges remain, the system is constantly evolving, with ongoing efforts to strengthen local capacity and ensure greater accountability.

Zimbabwe's local government system, operating at both urban and rural levels, is designed to enable local democracy and decentralization of powers. It focuses on delivering essential services and facilitating public participation in decision-making processes. Key functions include infrastructure management (water, sanitation, roads), public service delivery (primary healthcare, refuse collection), and local development planning.

Key Features of Zimbabwe's Local Government System:

- **Two Tiers:** Local government in Zimbabwe is structured into urban and rural district councils.
- **Decentralization:** The system aims to decentralize power, allowing local communities to manage their own affairs and participate in decision-making.
- **Local Democracy:** Ward and village assemblies ensure public participation and representation.
- **Service Delivery:** Local authorities are responsible for providing essential services like infrastructure, healthcare, and waste management.

- **Development Planning:** Local councils are involved in developing and implementing plans for local economic and social development.
- **Legal Framework:** The system is governed by laws like the Urban Councils Act and Rural District Councils Act, which define powers and responsibilities.

Functions and Responsibilities:

- **Infrastructure:** Managing and maintaining infrastructure like roads, water and sanitation systems.
- **Public Health:** Providing primary healthcare and sanitation services.
- **Economic Development:** Promoting local economic growth through development plans and initiatives.
- **Community Development:** Implementing programs and initiatives to address local community needs and issues.
- **Public Participation:** Ensuring public participation in local governance through ward and village assemblies.

Structure and Organization:

- **Urban Councils:** These councils are responsible for urban areas and their development.
- **Rural District Councils:** These councils manage rural areas and their development.
- **Wards:** Both urban and rural councils are divided into wards, with each ward represented by a councilor.
- **Assemblies:** Ward and village assemblies provide platforms for community participation and decision-making.

Challenges and Issues:

- **Financial Constraints:** Local authorities often face financial limitations, impacting service delivery.
- **Capacity Building:** Strengthening the capacity of local governments to effectively manage their resources and deliver services is crucial.
- **Central Government Influence:** Central government intervention in local affairs can hinder the effectiveness of local governance.
- **Service Delivery Deficiencies:** Inadequate service delivery in areas like water, sanitation, and waste management is a persistent concern.

In comparison to other systems, Zimbabwe's local government system emphasizes decentralization and public participation, aiming to empower local communities and improve service delivery. However, challenges related to funding, capacity building, and central government influence need to be addressed to fully realize the potential of local governance.

Malawi's local government system aims to decentralize political and administrative authority to district councils, with a legal framework established by the 1998 Local Government Act and the National Development Policy. Local councils, overseen by

elected representatives, are responsible for delivering local services and participating in development planning.

Malawi's Local Government System

Malawi's local government system is characterized by the following:

- **De-centralization:** The 1998 Local Government Act (LGA) mandates the devolution of political and administrative power to district councils, ensuring local governance and democratic participation.
- **Unitary Structure:** Malawi has a single-tier local government system, with 35 unitary authorities: 28 district councils, four city councils, two municipal councils, and one town council, says CLGF.
- **Role of District Councils:** District councils are responsible for delivering local services, developing local plans, and implementing national policies at the local level.
- **Community Involvement:** While district councils are central to the system, there's a need for more clarity on integrating community-based institutions into local government.
- **Close Relationship with Central Government:** Local governments are largely funded by the central government and are guided by national policies, meaning they reinforce national initiatives rather than developing independent ones.
- **Democratic Oversight:** Elected local councils are responsible for overseeing the administration of district councils, ensuring transparency and accountability.
- **Limited Autonomy:** While local councils have some decision-making power, they rely heavily on central government funding and are bound by national policies.

Functions of Local Government in Malawi

- **Service Delivery:** Local governments are responsible for delivering essential services like infrastructure (roads, water, sanitation), education, health, and social services.
- **Development Planning:** Local governments play a role in developing local development plans that align with national policies.
- **Policy Implementation:** Local councils are tasked with implementing national policies at the local level, ensuring their relevance and effectiveness in specific communities.
- **Citizen Participation:** Local governments are expected to facilitate citizen participation in local governance, promoting democratic values and accountability.
- **Resource Management:** Local councils manage local resources, including local revenue, ensuring efficient and sustainable use of funds.

Comparative Analysis

While Malawi's local government system aims to promote decentralization and local autonomy, it faces challenges related to financial dependence on the central government and potential limitations in the integration of community-based institutions.

In conclusion, Malawi's local government system is a crucial component of its overall governance structure, responsible for delivering local services, implementing national policies, and promoting citizen participation. While the system faces challenges, it plays a significant role in promoting development and good governance at the local level.

Germany's local government system, characterized by a two-tier structure and strong autonomy, plays a crucial role in delivering services and promoting local democracy. Cities and municipalities form the lowest, local level, while districts are the supra-local tier, with district-free cities combining both functions. This system, based on decentralization and subsidiarity, grants local authorities significant independence in managing their affairs and directing resources.

Here's a more detailed look at the system:

Key Features and Functions:

- **Two-Tier Structure:** The system is divided into two levels: municipalities (local level) and districts (supra-local level).
- **Autonomy and Decentralization:** Local authorities enjoy a significant degree of autonomy in managing their own affairs and making decisions, with the principle of subsidiarity (local authorities handle matters best at their level) guiding their actions.
- **Service Delivery:** Local governments are responsible for delivering a wide range of services, including education, social services, infrastructure, and local development, within their own means and capabilities.
- **Financial Autonomy:** Local governments have access to a variety of tax revenues, including property taxes, and the ability to set their own tax rates.
- **Political Participation:** Local governments provide opportunities for citizens to directly participate in political decision-making and promote local democracy.
- **Advancing the Energy Transition:** Local authorities are increasingly playing a key role in implementing energy-saving measures and promoting renewable energy initiatives.
- **Responding to Social Needs:** Local governments also play a significant role in integrating refugees and asylum seekers.

Comparative Analysis:

- **Compared to Other Federal Systems:** Germany's local government system is considered strong and effective, often cited as a model for other countries.

- **Compared to Other European Systems:** Germany's local government system is ranked among the functionally strongest in Europe, along with Sweden.
- **Strengths:** Germany's system is praised for its decentralized approach, strong local autonomy, and its ability to effectively deliver services at the local level.
- **Challenges:** While the system is generally successful, challenges remain, including ensuring equitable resource allocation between different municipalities and addressing the increasing complexity of local governance.

In summary, Germany's local government system is a well-established, functionally strong system characterized by decentralization, local autonomy, and a focus on service delivery and citizen participation.

Problem Areas

As mentioned in the introduction, the problem areas to be discussed are, finance, personnel, politics and leadership, community attitude, intergovernmental relations, planning and ideology. This is one way of classifying these problems.

1. **Finance** This is the bedrock of local government development but in terms of revenue base and even the way these revenues are managed, they do not portend good prospects for development.
2. **Personnel and Competence** There is the problem of qualified personnel in the technical and professional departments in local government and unfortunately these are the staff that implements and monitors local government developments projects.
3. **Politics** The attitude of politicians is such that they see local government as a rehabilitation center rather than as an instrument of development. They pursue policies that promote their welfare rather than the overall development of the institution and the society. A very important factor in policies and leadership is the unstable leadership at the local level. This encourages disjunction in development, which incidentally is an important factor in policy formulation.
4. **Community Attitude** The value system of the community is such that does not promote development. It encourages and condones corrupt practices which are antithetical to development. Furthermore, local government policies alienate communities, especially at the level of participatory decision-making and so communities feel marginalised and are unaffected by the government programmes.
5. **Intergovernmental Relations** Control of local governments can be negative to development. This manifests in interference in local government service. Such interference prevents local governments from implementing their plans and budgets, since state governments direct from time-to-time new expenditures to be funded by local governments (outside local governments own budgets). So also, are delays in approvals of budgets, thereby threatening the timing and target of activities planned for.
6. **Planning and Ideology** The plan document has become just a document of intention and not commitment. All tiers of government pay lip service to plans. There is no sustained

ideological commitment to the spirit of the plan. A lot of effort has been placed on social service and infrastructural development at the local level and very little on economic development. There is no way the rural area can be developed. There has to be concerted and sustained economic development programmes by all tiers of government.

Theoretical Framework and Review

The outcomes of integrating the selected theoretical frameworks into the analysis of the survey responses from council members, executive officers, and government workers engaged in the implementation of SMPs in LGAs are covered in this part. Regarding the efficiency of SMPs in enhancing service delivery within Local Government Authorities, each of these stakeholders offered insightful information. The talks have been guided by the following theories: scientific management theory, governance theory, and RBV. These frameworks were chosen because they are important and useful for describing how organizations function and perform in order to achieve their goals.

Resource-based theory states that a company's distinct assets and capabilities are important factors that influence both its overall organizational success and competitive advantage. According to this theory, which was put forth by Brien Wernerfelt in 1984, businesses need to have resources that are rare, precious, unique, and non-replaceable in order to keep a competitive edge. The term VRIN refers to these components. Through the prism of resource-based theory, businesses can assess their internal strengths and capacities in comparison to their peers and pinpoint areas in need of development. By doing this, companies may create growth plans that work and streamline their processes to get better outcomes. RBV is based on the assumption that some characteristics of a company's internal operations give it advantages that are difficult for competitors to match (Stoker, 1998). Because they are difficult to duplicate, acquire, or replace, resources with high degrees of uniqueness, rarity, inimitability, or lack of substitutability provide long-lasting competitive advantages (Barney and Hesterly, 2010).

The ability of a business to acquire and apply specialized talents that are not commonly shared outside of its borders determines its potential to add value (Tehrani, 2017). One player has little chance of standing out from the others when competing organizations have access to the same resources. Thus, homogeneity makes it virtually impossible for any firm to attain sustained competitive benefit. According to Palladon et al. (2016), consistency prevents one company from using tactics that aren't available to all other market participants. Possessing specific abilities alone may allow a business to engage in activities that result in competitive advantage. But without exclusivity, companies have little possibility of long-term, outstanding achievement. Thus, one of the most important prerequisites for obtaining a competitive advantage is resource heterogeneity. If every company has the same resources, none can expect to outperform its rivals by using them exclusively. Since all businesses have equal access to the same skill sets, they are all in the same place, which makes competition extremely unpredictable and makes it unlikely that shareholder value will be created.

Effective organizational management, according to recent research, necessitates the use of SMPs to accomplish particular objectives through a variety of elements, including human

resources, leadership, structuring, regulating mechanisms, and strategic execution plans (Phiri and Phiri, 2022). These components aid in directing the organization's available resources toward the pursuit of its goals.

Understanding how SMPs can support increases in accountability and transparency in local government authority is based on the Resource-based View, which emphasizes the significance of using internal resources to preserve a competitive edge. Through case study analysis, researchers were able to pinpoint important factors that help improve these attributes by strategically allocating and utilizing the organization's resources. According to the Resource-Based Theory, an organization's strategy and overall success are greatly influenced by its internal resources. Strategic management practices and high performance are closely linked by unique resources and talents. To achieve long-term prosperity, businesses must efficiently use their resources and expertise to optimize value generation, innovation, and market distinction.

To effectively utilize these benefits and eventually realize their commercial goals, firms must structure themselves around them (Palladon et al., 2016). This approach, which was first put forth in 1984, aids businesses in determining their strengths by analyzing the remarkable blend of their material and immaterial resources, skills, and competencies. By doing this, businesses can identify their unique selling points and increase their chances of developing advantages or competitive benefits. According to Mohamud et al. (2015), each company has unique "bundles" of resources and capabilities that enable them to set themselves apart from competitors and develop skills that result in long-term competitive advantages. In order to comprehend the relationship between resources, competitiveness, and financial gain during strategic implementation, this study made use of the Resource-Based Theory. Businesses allocate resources at the planning phase in order to carry out their plans effectively. According to Grants (2016), this theoretical framework sheds light on how resource growth can strengthen a company's position in relation to competitors, the effects of informational asymmetry, and the influence of asset allocation on competitive advantage.

Understanding how resources and profits interact during plan implementation is made easier with the help of the Resource-Based Theory. The Resource-Based Theory states that an organization's ability to utilize and harness its human resource pool—which is a component of its assets or resources—determines how effective it is. According to research, a company's overall competitive edge, financial health, and human resources are all directly correlated (Barney & Hesterly 2020). To develop a strong business strategy, organizations must assess their current resources and identify any areas where they could be lacking ("resource gaps"). By addressing these shortcomings, businesses can strengthen their positions in comparison to rivals by funding training and development initiatives for staff members. Companies can then select the best strategy or method that effectively utilizes their available resources, resulting in higher output and enhanced competitiveness, after assessing their resource strengths and filling any gaps (Smith, 2013).

According to Palladon, Kadir, and Chong (2016), resources have an impact on an organization's performance in local government agencies (LGAs) through the constructions of a work environment and a commitment to developing expertise. These

factors may result from the organizations' effective resource management. Although organizations in the same industrial 108 108 grouping have similarities, Lynch (2020) demonstrates that there are significant differences in their performance levels. They focus on how resources are distributed and the resulting influence on strategy formulation and operational outcomes, attributing these differences to the distinct organizational resources and competencies that these businesses possess.

The foundational writings of Barney and Hesterly (2010) state that organizations can gain a long-term competitive edge through organizational capability. Put another way, businesses should make use of their internal environment, which includes their human resources, intangible assets, physical assets, and competencies, if they wish to stay ahead of the competition and get the best possible outcomes (Morvaridi, 2013). For example, while managing organizations, Palladon, Kadir, and Chong (2016) recommend using the Resource-Based View theory to gain a deeper understanding of the capabilities and resources that enable the effective use of different management strategies. Thus, it emphasizes the importance of understanding resources and capabilities within the organizations to secure longterm success in the marketplace.

The Resource-Based Theory states that organizations have resources that help them be more productive and effective when executing their goals. Furthermore, assuring competitor analysis, benchmarking, and following public sector comparators like the OECD, WTO, IMF, etc. are crucial components of sustainable management practices (SMPs). Competent authorities could confirm how organizations function effectively while upholding moral principles. But according to certain data, a lot of organizations don't use sustainable management practices. In order to get better results, it would be advantageous to integrate a thorough framework based on both tangible and intangible resources, which encompasses corporate cultures, informal networks, and formal processes and systems (Grindle, 2020). Furthermore, the Resource-Based Theory makes a distinction between two categories of resources: tangible resources, which are observable and quantifiable, and intangible resources, which are less tangible and more difficult to measure. Capabilities, on the other hand, describe an organization's ability to make imaginative and creative use of its resources. According to Bakar et al. (2011), capabilities involve harnessing, organizing, and bundling resources to create new value for customers. In the end, this gives businesses an advantage over their competitors. Maintaining an organization's competitive edge is largely dependent on its capabilities. The Resource-Based Theory states that a company's competitive position and performance are determined by the resources available to it. The firm's assets, skills, processes, knowledge, and culture are all considered resources. According to Barney & Hesterly (2010) and Palladon et al. (2016), businesses can create long-lasting competitive advantages by effectively allocating and incorporating their resources into their operations and strategy. By doing this, businesses can erect obstacles to entrance and safeguard their sources of competitive advantage against competition from other companies in the same sector.

The resources within a company's control are the primary determinant of its capacity to create successful plans. These resources allow companies to create unique strengths that set them apart from others in the industry. The origin of Resource-Based Theory dates back to the late 1950s, first advanced by Edith

Penrose. The theory gained recognition in strategic management circles a decade later and eventually became one of the leading frameworks in the field (Lynch, 2020). Highlighted that every firm possesses distinct resources, endowing them with particular traits. Furthermore, according to Phiri and Phiri (2022), these unique resources foster a competitive atmosphere in which businesses compete on the basis of their unique skills rather than commoditizing goods. The Resource-Based View offers a basis for creating competitive advantage by acknowledging businesses as varied collections of assets gathered throughout time (Romzek, 2000).

Businesses keep assets that allow them to have a long-lasting presence in the market. Businesses employ distinctive resources to differentiate themselves from the competition in appropriate ways (Barney and Hesterly, 2010). A company's financial resources, tangible assets, human capital, intellectual property, information, and knowledge are a few examples of these assets. These elements come together to form a capacity that adds value and boosts the company's earnings.

Therefore, by assessing how Local Government Authorities (LGAs) in Tanzania contribute to better service delivery through School Management Plans (SMPs), the Resource-Based Theory provides an excellent viewpoint for analysis. This method enables researchers to investigate how council resources contribute to improving the standard of instruction in different Tanzanian community schools, including evaluations of potential barriers affecting underprivileged students' academic performance. Future educational policy planning may focus on infrastructure improvements for improved overall academic outcomes nationwide, especially in rural areas with low incomes, by recognizing that schools face unique obstacles related to limited access to electrical energy sources (URT, 2019).

In conclusion, the Resource-Based Theory focuses on how unique features or capabilities give businesses an advantage over rivals in the market. Businesses must find and use special resources, such as a skilled workforce, proprietary knowledge, cheap production costs, and a favorable reputation, in order to achieve this. Knowing Resource Based Theory helps managers assess if their companies have enough resources to carry out their strategic strategies effectively.

Methodology

The study employed a qualitative research design to examine the extent to which the Resource Based View (RBV) framework is endorsed in Tanzania to improve accountability and transparency in service delivery and resource allocation in Local Government Authorities (LGAs). A case study approach was used, with Mufindi District Council as the study site. Semi-structured interviews, focus groups, and document reviews were among the techniques used to gather the data. These methods yielded detailed and comprehensive information about the council's struggles to promote accountability and transparency as well as the application of Strategic Management Practices (SMPs). Thematic analysis, which was used in the data analysis process, assisted in locating themes and patterns in the data, including the main conclusions of inadequate resource allocation, a complex and opaque SMP implementation process, and poor SMP implementation.

The researcher adopted a desk research methodology since adequate documented information that needed synthesis was

available. Documents from the Ministry of Local Government, Urban Councils and Rural District Councils were consulted and analysed. In Addition, books and Articles published in Newspapers And journals were Also reviewed. The reviewed! data! was! Organized into groups, sifted and interpreted into meaningful information. Documents relating historical development of the countries.

Conclusion

In conclusion, despite the fact that the Resource-Based View theory lacks substantial empirical support and research attention on innovations and the use of digital platforms among LGAs, it seems pertinent in addressing issues pertaining to the strategy formulation of various administrative systems, functions, and structures of local government. Future research should look at using both quantitative and qualitative approaches to analyze the intricate interactions between many contextual elements that influence how well RBV techniques are implemented in public administration. Future researches would also benefit from investigating other theoretical vantage points in order to gain a deeper understanding of how digitally enabled solutions affect the operationalization of resilient and responsive LGAs.

The study found that because RBV's efficacy through SMPs has not resulted in appreciable improvements in accountability and transparency, its use in governing LGAs is still debatable. According to recent studies, researchers should record the important variables that can affect how well SMPs rule LGAs in order to achieve the objectives of resource allocation and service delivery. According to the study, the Tanzanian government should continue to provide a complete commitment to guaranteeing that its employees implement SMPs effectively through human resource policies and practices that are integrated with the human resource strategy, staff facilitation, and motivation. This commitment should be made through the Ministries of President's Office Regional Administration and Local Government Authorities. Tanzanian LGAs lack strong management tools or systems, such as scenario analysis, plan development, implementation, monitoring, and review, according to recent research.

These flaws hinder their ability to deliver high-quality services and manage resources effectively, jeopardizing the values of openness and accountability that are fundamental to sound governance. By impeding central coordination efforts because of inadequate institutional arrangements that are in line with Tanzanian circumstances, this failure could jeopardize the goals of national policy. These findings point to a lack of measures aimed at increasing the skills of local actors. The report suggests major adjustments to the Tanzanian government's policies pertaining to staff participation in executing council missions and aspirations. It is possible to provide citizens with high-quality services and increase employee accountability by implementing innovative management systems that make the most of the resources already in place. In order to guarantee the accomplishment of goals and foster more accountability and openness in government circles as well as in communities, regular monitoring and tracking of the action plans outlined in the strategic plan are also required. This will ultimately result in long-term sustainable growth.

Through the Ministries of President's Office Regional Administration and Local Government Authorities, the Tanzanian,

Malawian, Rwandan, and Zimbabwean governments should provide a complete commitment to guaranteeing the successful implementation of SMPs by their staff members through human resource policies and practices that are integrated with the human resource strategy, staff facilitation, and motivation, according to the study's findings (Controller and Auditor General, 2022).

Recommendations

Suggestions for Additional Research In Tanzania, Malawi, Rwanda, and Uganda, the ineffective implementation of SMPs among LGAs results in subpar workplace service delivery to citizens. Indeed, there are demands that must be taken into account in the management of the LGAs in order for the reform of practices to largely accomplish the council goal to be possible. In particular, employees must be held accountable for their actions and be transparent about their service delivery to citizens, which could lead to high performance that the CAG will report. Structure frameworks that could aid LGA governance in resource allocation and service delivery have not yet been identified by scholars. Once more, in order to assess their importance in distributing council resources and providing services, management and governance theories must be upheld. According to the study's recommendations, future research should look into using both quantitative and qualitative methodologies to analyze the intricate interactions between various contextual factors that influence how well RBV strategies are applied in public administration (Association of Local Government Authorities of Tanzania, 2020).

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