

Factors Influencing the Extent to Which Child Rights NGOs In Tanzania Adopt Rights-Based Approaches

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THESIS

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This dissertation is dedicated to my son Victor Talala, my entire family and in memory of my father Talala Bana Mbise, my mother Ekaeli Afraeli Mbise, my grandfather Bana Kileesa Mbise (Your words “kalamu yafo yoowie” live in me), my grandmothers, Malosina Mbise (I hope you will understand why I left home to seek education, mama) and Masikawa Long’oiya Mbise, and my brother Aenea Talala Mbise. Without you, nothing would be possible. Eka!

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
AKDN	Aga Khan Development Network
CEDAW	Convention on Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
CBO	Community Based Organization
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DFID	UK's Department of International Development
DSW	Department of Social Welfare, Tanzania
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GoT	Government of the United Republic of Tanzania
GTZ	German Federal Enterprise for International Development
ISW	Institute of Social Work, Tanzania
LHRC	Legal and Human Rights Center
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoHSW	Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, Tanzania
MVC	Most Vulnerable Children
MKUKUTA	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty NSGRP/MKUKUTA (Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umasikini Tanzania)
NCPA	National Costed Plan of Action
NGO	Nongovernmental Organization
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
RBA	Rights-based Approaches

SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
TANLET	Tanzania Legal Education Trust
TCRF	Tanzania Child Rights Forum
TEN/MET	Tanzania Education Network/Mtandao wa Elimu Tanzania
LAC	Tanzania Law of the Child Act
TUKI	Taasisi ya Uchunguzi wa Kiswahili/Kiswahili Research Institute
UNCRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
UNICEF	United Nations International Children and Education Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAC	Violence Against Children
WB	World Bank

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to assess the extent to which local nongovernmental organizations in Tanzania adopt rights-based approaches. In addition, it attempted to identify internal and external factors associated with the degree of adoption of the rights-based approach. The rights-based approach calls for increased attention to the roles of nongovernmental organizations¹ as advocates rather than direct service providers.

Informed by innovation adoption and social development perspectives, the study employed a quantitative approach to survey a sample of local organizations focusing on child rights in Tanzania to assess the extent to which factors such as having a supportive leadership, NGO's staff capacity on child rights, NGO's source of funding, NGO's religious association, geographical location, perception of national policy/legal system, and community perceptions of child rights, influence the extent to which NGOs adopt rights-based approaches in their work. The study shows that receiving funding from both international and internal sources and how an NGO perceives the policy/legal framework for children in Tanzania, are important external (institutional) factors for predicting the extent to which local child rights NGOs adopt rights-based approaches. Contrary to the initial hypothesis, and some recent research on adoption of rights-based approaches in Africa, receiving funding from international sources only does not seem to have a strong influence on the adoption of rights-based approaches in this sample of local NGOs. This signifies a pragmatic and adaptive mechanism by local organizations to shifts in the global aid paradigms by diversifying their sources of funding. Likewise, NGOs with a

¹ The term Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) is sometimes used in conjunction with the more general Civil Society Organization. Civil Society covers formal and informal structures that are formed by groups of individuals outside the state framework in order to pursue a particular cause. An NGO is a part of the civil society and in this study will be used interchangeably with the more general Civil Society (Kepa, 2013).

more favorable view of the policy/legal framework for children are found to adopt rights-based approaches to a greater extent than those with a less favorable view. This study also shows us that internal factors, particularly leadership support and staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches, are important predictors of adoption of rights-based approaches. Motivating and supporting employees to learn about, and use, rights-based approaches, are important predictors of adoption of rights-based approaches by local child rights NGOs in Tanzania.

On the other hand, the study demonstrates that rights-based approaches are not understood to mean the same thing even by organizations that are part of the same NGO Forum. In addition to having these different interpretations, NGOs are also engaged in a selective process choosing to appropriate different elements of the rights-based approaches that are most salient to their local cultural contexts and program objectives.

Lastly, this group of NGOs have shown us that there has not been a complete move from needs based approaches to rights-based approaches. Some of the organizations in the Forum see rights-based approaches as the provision of services thereby highlighting the necessity for direct service provision as part of the rights-based agenda. These local NGOs help us to place the notion of rights-based approaches to more scrutiny with regards to its relevance and applicability in a context characterized by high resource dependence and poverty. In addition, they help us to see the rights-based approaches and needs based approaches as perhaps lying on a continuum of rights and services. The study concludes with a discussion of implications for social work practice, education, research and policy.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

Over the past two decades, rights-based approaches have assumed a central position in the discourse surrounding international development (Gready & Ensor, 2005). International organizations such as United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Save the Children and other international development agencies are advocating rights-based approaches and moving from needs-based approaches in their effort to establish and strengthen a comprehensive child protection agenda (Dibabo, 2013; Harris-Curtis, 2003; Nelson & Dorsey, 2003). Despite some achievements in realizing their goals, needs-based approaches failed to halt increasing poverty and widening gaps between the rich and poor in developing countries (Offenheiser & Holcombe, 2003). Local NGOs in developing countries with their need for funding and external support have also had to realign their program priorities to adopt RBAs.

Within social work, human rights form the core of the profession. The International Federation of Social Work states that: social work has, from its conception, been a human rights profession, having as its basic tenet the intrinsic value of every human being and as one of its main aims the promotion of equitable social structures, which can offer people security and development while upholding their dignity (IFSW, 1988, Ife, 2012, Burke et al. 2014; Androff, 2015). The New Global Agenda of Social Work considers four priority areas for its work: the economic and social inequalities within countries and between regions, the dignity and worth of individuals, environmental sustainability and the importance of human relationships (Global Agenda 2012; IFSW et al 2010). This includes the determination to work under the principles of

human rights and social justice. Rights-based approaches have also been identified as particularly useful for community practice (Libal & Harding, 2015), administration and management (Wronka, 2008) and social policy. In addition, there is increasing recognition of the contribution of social work in promoting social development and poverty eradication in developing countries (Twikirize, 2014; Patel, 2013). Social development perspectives are committed to rights-based approaches and to wider social goals such as democratic participation and egalitarian social justice. The rights-based approach has infused social development discourse with the language of human rights and helped to define the goals of social development, and facilitated the implementation of social development policies and programs (Midgley, 2010).

With regard to children, the near universal adoption of the Convention of the Rights of the Child recast the relationship between children and development (Jones, 2005). The UNCRC offered a closeness of fit to the increasing growing recognition among development agencies and CSOs that poverty should be conceptualized as a denial of human rights. With this, a growing attention has been focused on how CSOs have translated the rights discourse to the local level.

On the other hand, a recognition of the fundamental links between rights denial, impoverishment, vulnerability and conflict has led to the incorporation of rights-based approaches into funding strategies, policy formulation and practice of a diverse range of actors, including United Nations Agencies (UNDP, UNICEF), major donors (UK's Department of International Development [DFID], the Swedish International Development Agency [SIDA]), International NGOs (ActionAid, CARE, Oxfam) and local grassroots NGOs and social movements (Gready & Ensor, 2005).

Typically, rights-based approaches to development involve projects that either strengthen the ability of rights-holders (citizens) to claim their rights, or the ability of duty-bearers (the state and its institutions) to fulfill their human rights obligations. Today these notions of rights-based approaches have transferred from Northern NGOs to Southern NGOs. NGOs in Tanzania have, to some extent, been adopting rights-based approaches making programmatic shifts or merging service delivery with rights advocacy.

The rights-based agenda rose to prominence in parallel with the social development notions of participation and entitlements. Development work was no longer to be seen in terms of “service”, charity, or a privilege to be enjoyed by a few, but as rights that people could claim and that states are responsible to guarantee (Mohan & Holland, 2001). Overlying these principles are several actions that occur at different levels and scales of governance. At the international level, the RBA takes into account the globalization of the world economy whereby the actions of states beyond their borders is factored into any consideration of rights. At the national level, there is a need for commitment, cooperation and coordination (Mohan & Holland, 2001).

At the local level, emphasis is on participation, decentralization and the strengthening of civil society to be more rights-oriented. For NGOs at the local level the emphasis has had to change with the adoption of RBAs with a gradual move from service and output-based approaches to more process-based ones (Mohan & Holland, 2001). However, there is a major difficulty with rights-based approaches in that they conflict with indigenous conceptions of rights embedded in a distinctive notion of community. This is owing to the fact that international policies are often based on Western philosophies. Western oriented policies and intervention approaches tend to be more focused on individuals, ignoring the cultural, communal, and spiritual values that are central to indigenous communities (Midgley, 2008; Chogugudza, 2004).

Various studies have pointed to the obvious incongruity between the concept of rights as advanced by UN agencies, particularly the convention on the rights of the child, and those entrenched in local communities of developing countries (Christie, 2010; Laird, 2005;).

According to Laird, 2005:

The Convention on the Rights of the Child gives impression to a Western conception of unilateral and inalienable human rights. For instance, articles 12 and 13 guarantee a child's right to express his or her viewpoint, while articles 19 and 32 protect children against maltreatment and exploitation. Everywhere in the Convention are obligations of state and parents but nowhere are children characterized as having duties correlative to their rights. The absence of such duties is tremendously problematic for societies whose notion of rights is founded on interdependence and reciprocity (Laird, 2005 p. 461).

The second area where the UNCRC is criticized is in its formulation of childhood. In many African societies, households are multigenerational. This form of social organization according to Laird (2005) lies on a "value system which emphasizes the obligations owed by children to their parents in terms of contributing to the household and providing care during sickness or old age. Failure to fulfil these responsibilities will attract censure and probably penalty from both the kin and the wider community" (p.462). It can therefore be argued that the boundaries between one individual and another is placed differently in most African communities compared with Western societies (Ame, et al. 2011).

1. Needs-Based and Rights-Based Development

The rights-based approach has been described as the successor to the needs based approach. The needs based approach rose into prominence around the middle of the 20th century. The needs based approach had, at its core, a focus on meeting basic needs as expressed by the poor themselves (Replace, 2017). The needs based approach, relied on a service delivery model with little interference with the politics of the communities. For instance, while a needs based

approach pushes for more services and resources for marginalized groups, the rights-based approach “calls for existing resources to be shared more equally, and assisting the marginalized people to assert their rights to those resources, thus making the process explicitly political”(Nyamu-Musembi & Cornwall, 2004, p.2). However, the debate of how far we have come from articulating needs to rights, is an on-going one in the field of development. Some in the field see that rights-based approaches have done little to replace the needs based approach and yet others see these two approaches as mutually reinforcing allowing for both needs and rights to be met (Cornwall & Nyamu-Musembi 2004). Like other international norms, the rights-based approach has been received with some amount of suspicion and even callousness. Thinking that this is yet another development gimmick, some see it as an extension of western domination of developing countries. Some like Cornwall and Brock (2005) see the rights-based approach as yet another buzz word in development discourse likening it to predecessor terms like participatory development, poverty reduction, modernization, empowerment etc., According to these authors:

Participation, poverty reduction and empowerment epitomize this feel-good character: they connote warm and nice things, conferring on their users that goodness and rightness that development agencies need to assert the legitimacy to intervene in the lives of others (p. 1045).

Yet, despite these obvious challenges, developing countries continue to adopt rights-based policies promulgated by the leading organizations of the North. To what extent is this happening for NGOs that espouse rights-based approaches in Tanzania and what factors are influencing the extent to which they adopt these program innovations from the North?

2. Defining Rights-Based Approaches

Although Rights-Based Approaches (RBAs) have been widely discussed and used in recent years, there is still a lack of an authoritative definition (Gauri & Gloppen, 2012). To address this, RBAs have been broken down in several ways (McInerney-Lankford & Sano, 2010). For Gauri and Gloppen (2012) for instance, RBAs are defined as “principles that justify demands against privileged actors, made by the poor or those speaking on their behalf, for using national and international resources and rules to protect the crucial human interests of the globally or locally disadvantaged” (p.3). The Office of High Commissioner for Human Rights (2006) has defined RBA as:

A conceptual framework for the process of human development that is normatively based on international human rights standards and operationally directed to protecting human rights. It seeks to analyze inequalities which lie at the heart of development problems and redress discriminatory practices and unjust distributions of power that impede development progress. Mere charity is not enough from a human rights perspective. Under a human rights-based approach, the plans, policies and processes of development are anchored in a system of rights and corresponding obligations established under international law. This helps to promote sustainability of development work, empowering people themselves-especially the most marginalized-to participate in policy formulation and hold accountable those who have a duty to act (p.16).

UNICEF (2004) goes a step further to differentiate RBAs from what might be considered “good development” along the following unique characteristics of the RBA: (1) People are recognized as key actors in their own development, rather than passive recipients of commodities and services; (2) Participation is both a means and a goal; (3) Strategies are empowering; (4) Both outcomes and processes are monitored and evaluated; (5) Analysis includes all stakeholders; (6) Programs focus on the marginalized, disadvantaged, and excluded groups; (7) The development process is locally owned; (8) Programs aim to reduce disparity; (9) Both top-

down and bottom-up approaches are used in synergy; (10) Situation analysis is used to identify immediate, underlying, and basic causes of development problems; (11) Measurable goals and targets are important in programming; (12) Strategic partnerships are developed and sustained; and, (13) Programs support accountability to all stakeholders.

A program or agency that uses an RBA as a framework is working towards the realization of human rights as articulated in international human rights law, informed by a range of human rights principles, and fostering human rights capacity in all relevant actors (UNAIDS, 2004). According to Molyneux and Lazar (2003), a rights-based approach implies that some or all of the following elements are present in an NGO's work: an explicit analysis of NGO work in terms of rights; advocacy and/or work with the ultimate objective of genuine participation of the target population in formal and informal decision-making processes throughout society; an emphasis on empowerment; a focus on democracy, which involves not only an engagement in some way with governmental processes at international, national and local level, but also includes internal democracy and a participatory relationship with users; sensitivity to issues of difference, such as culture, gender, ethnicity, religion and age; and a shift from a focus on service provision to a greater emphasis on advocacy.

The rights-based approach takes the principles set out in international human rights treaties and declarations as a point of departure and a reference for programming (Ziwa, 2014). These principles include participation, non-discrimination and equality, accountability, and the interdependence and indivisibility of rights (UN, 2003). Drawing from the definitions of RBA advanced by UNICEF (2004), Blanchet-Cohen and Bedeaux (2014), and Mayhew, et al. (2006), my study focused on a definition of RBA that has five elements: Universality and equality, participation, networking, accountability, and engagement with international and national

policies and laws. More specifically, a rights-based approach in this study was defined as an approach to development work that is premised on the principles of universality and equality, participation, networking between stakeholders, accountability of all stakeholders and engagement with international and national policies and laws to advance the rights of children. These elements were selected based on their commonly occurring themes in the literature.

3. **Value Added of Rights-Based Approaches**

The “so what” of rights-based approaches has been variously described by different authors. However, it is commonly agreed that the rights-based approach has added value to previous approaches in the following areas:

Empowerment: one of the fundamental benefits of the RBA is that it empowers the people and communities affected by poverty. By framing development in human rights terms and subsequently as legal entitlements, what were previously seen as “needs” are now translated into rightful “claims”. What was once “charity” is now seen in terms of “justice”. This shift is seen as being essential for the self-esteem of people and it helps to transform them from a position of victimhood to being rightful claimants of their rights (Filmer-Wilson, 2005).

By framing development in human rights terms, the RBA not only establishes claims but it also establishes *obligations* to meet these claims and identifies the corresponding duty-bearers. In RBA, the state has obligations of delivering on its promises and providing oversight. By extension, the RBA is seen to provide links between the individual and the state (Gready, 2008). While restating the responsibility of the state to deliver is not new in development, RBA challenges the prevailing neo-liberal ideas that have sought to “roll-back the state” (Jensen & Jefferson, 2009, p. 5) a notion propagated by international financial institutions that want the state to play minimum roles in the delivery of services and address structural barriers to poverty.

The RBA has also *re-politicized development*, redefining development as being based on rights rather than on benevolence or charity (Gready, 2008). Under this guise, poverty is neither neutral nor inevitable but becomes “something done to people, for whom certain actors bear responsibility: poor is not what they are, but what they have been made” (Mander, 2005, p. 240).

Thirdly, according to Filmer-Wilson, (2005), reclaiming or re-politicizing the main (process) terms of development has subversive potential. Actually, the core principles of RBAs are not new and in some cases, have decades-long histories within development discourse and practice. However, Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi (2004) argue that RBAs provide an opportunity to re-politicize concepts such as participation which have been domesticated by the neo-liberal mainstream and institutions such as the World Bank. According to Gready (2008):

Rights-based participation implies a re-framing of participation, from assessing needs as a way of more efficiently implementing development projects (i.e. seen in technical and managerial terms) to a focus on advocacy and mobilization that potentially nurtures inclusive problem solving, citizenship, and political activism. This kind of participation, often most concretely achieved via a linkage with agency and empowerment, is sometimes ‘termed transformative (742).

4. Social Development Perspectives

The history of social work in Africa is a history of colonialism on the continent (Kaseke, 1991; Chogugudza, 2009). Colonialism and its related mechanisms of modernization in the post-colonial period have had a huge impact on the way social work is conceptualized in Africa today (Helmut, 2014). Various authors have shown that social work education was exported from Europe under the guise of civilization and improvement of the wellbeing of native Africans by the colonizers (Mwansa, 2011, Guest, 2004; Anucha, 2008; Midgley, 1991). The missionaries were in many cases instrumental in realizing this objective with their zeal to evangelize (Midgley, 1981). Alongside their preaching of the gospel, ‘missionaries were also the first to

introduce somewhat modern social welfare services such as schools, training institutions, clinics and hospitals' (Mwansa, 2011, p.5). However, these social work services were generally inferior and intended to uphold structural inequalities between the Europeans and indigenous Africans (Kaseke, 1991). Indeed, colonial masters had no desire to finance state welfare programs for Africans (Firoz, 2002).

While in Europe, social work is described as having evolved as a response to problems created by the Industrial Revolution and the rise of capitalism, the context of evolution of social work is somewhat different in Africa. In Africa, colonialism provided the socio-political context and atmosphere in which the practice of social work was established (Kaseke, 1991). In this context, social work was perceived to be a privilege for European or political elites. It served as a catalyst for the development and maintenance of difference between the colonizer and the colonized. Also, in the same way as social work was devised to remedy the ills of capitalism in Europe, the same remedial model was exported to the colonies (Ugiagbe 2014).

Having realized that the remedial model had done little to transform the lives of indigenous people, some post-independence governments in Africa sought to move away from, or to modify, the casework remedial approach to social work. Today, social work practice, education and training in Africa, has fundamentally shifted to social development approaches embracing notions of human rights as a means to address historically embedded drivers of inequality (Twikirize, 2014; Kiseke, 2001; Mabeyo, 2015; Chogugudza, 2009). According to Midgley, social development is an approach to social work that focuses on the social and economic development of people, families and individuals with an emphasis on rights, empowerment, participation and investment (Midgely, 2010). Social development therefore implies more than a mere survival through provision of material resources, aid or safety net

(Ruiz, 2015). By adopting a social development approach, social work recognizes its core contribution in addressing social issues from a human rights perspective (Twikirize, et al., 2014). Indeed, a rights-based approach is consistent with the notions of social development and empowerment approaches in social work that are taking root outside the western nations (Cree, 2013).

These changes to social work approaches in Africa are premised on the understanding that the social organization, cultural practices and socio-economic conditions are profoundly different between African societies and those of Britain and America. Based on this understanding, many critics of social work in Africa have derided the lack of relevance and appropriateness of remedial social work within Africa. This has given rise to voices that are calling for indigenous social work that is founded on the knowledge and philosophical foundations of Africans and that is genuinely African (Ugiagbe, 2014; Rankopo & Osei-Hwedie, 2011). This new social work would move towards perspectives that can contribute towards reform, democratization, redistribution and overall socio-economic change without using Western models and theories which Midgley (1983) termed as “professional imperialism”.

South Africa is described as one of the first countries to officially incorporate ideas of developmental social work as a matter of public policy through *The White Paper for Social Welfare 1997* (Ministry for Welfare and Population Development, 1997; Patel & Hochfeld, 2012). This paper heralded an authentic departure from Anglo-American social work practice tradition. The preamble to the policy states that the intention behind the new policy was to “devise appropriate and integrated strategies to address the alienation and the economic and social marginalization of vast sectors of the population who are living in poverty, are vulnerable,

and have special needs”. This is to be achieved through the adoption of “developmental social welfare policies and programs” (United Republic of South Africa, 1997, p.2).

In Tanzania, as in other parts of Africa, social work has traditionally been remedial, directed at the provision of basic needs, and with a generalist approach (Mwansa, 2011; Njimba, 2011). According to Njimba (2011) social welfare services in Tanzania were established to pacify the Tanzanian colony. Njimba further asserts that: “No social welfare programs were instituted for the rural areas as it was felt that the framework of tribal law and custom would meet the needs of individuals and families” (Cited in Mabeyo, 2014, p. 128). Thus, as in other African countries, social work in Tanzania as a profession did not arise from the demands of indigenous Tanzanians. This explains why Njimba and Ng’ondi (2006) described the profession as an “adopted child” (Cited in Mabeyo, 2015).

Today, this legacy of “welfarism” can be seen in social work practice in the country. A remedial approach that the country adopted manifests itself in the large proportion of nongovernmental organizations that are involved in direct service provision. These services are geared toward meeting welfare needs of children who are orphaned by the scourge of HIV/AIDS, the elderly population, people with disabilities and community welfare services.

The National Costed Plan of Action (NCPA II) for Most Vulnerable Children (MVC) is the main policy guideline for coordinating interventions that seek to enhance the wellbeing of most vulnerable children (MVC) in the country. This five year program (2013-2017) seeks to achieve this goal through preventing and/or reducing risks for most vulnerable children (such as strengthening the capacity of households and communities to care for MVCs), reducing the impacts of shocks (through improved access to and utilization of health care, education and early childhood care and development), and the protection of rights of most vulnerable children (URT,

2012). Among other things, the policy focuses on strengthening community-based care and assistance mechanisms including the establishment of Most Vulnerable Committees at ward and village levels. Community-based nongovernmental organizations support the provisions of essential services to both children and their caregivers.

Looking at social work practice in Tanzania today, we notice a shift from using more traditional approaches to social work to social development and community-based approaches. Tanzania's Department of Social Welfare (DSW) under the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (MoHSW) is the government body overseeing and supervising social welfare service delivery in the country. The Department holds that the adoption of a social developmental approach (development social work) is the key toward "reduction of pervasive and extreme poverty" (Cited in Mabeyo, 2015.p). It further stresses that, for the social work profession to be able to appropriately respond to and solve clients' contemporary problems, there is a need to reduce its reliance on the traditional, conventional welfarism approaches and act more proactively to the social welfare services demands (MoHSW, 2007. p. 9). This entails the adoption and application of social developmental approaches (Mabeyo, 2015).

Despite having a long tradition of community service founded on a socialist history of the nation, social work in Tanzania is considered debilitated, both at an educational level, and in professional practice (Ruiz, 2015). This partly relates to the fact that social work training has a relatively short history in Tanzania. It directly relates to the history of the Institute of Social Work (ISW) established by an Act of Parliament number 3 of 1973. The school is considered the "mother and founder school of social work training in Tanzania" (Mabeyo, 2015, p. 125). Until 2010 this was the only school offering social work training. Today there are about 12 schools

that are offering social work education at various levels of training under the Tanzania Emerging Schools of Social Work Education Program (TESWEP) Mabeyo, 2015).

Thus, as the only school of social work for a long time in the country, the practice and education of social work in Tanzania, is highly tied to the history of the ISW. To understand the current context of rights-based development we first have to situate it within the context of the only school of social work in Tanzania and the political context in which the institute was established. The starting point of this description would be the declaration of independence and the nation building movement. The declaration of independence of Tanganyika from Britain in 1961 was a moment of hope and jubilation for a young nation to exercise self-governance. It was also a time for new ideas to be tried out in the larger project of nation building. The foremost and important visionary of the nation happened to be its first president, Julius Kambarage Nyerere. Nyerere envisioned a nation that was truly independent-not merely through having its own flag, but one that was free to pursue its own path to development and Self Reliance (Mazrui & Mhando, 2013; Komba, 1995).

In 1967, the idea of self-reliance found further expression with the adoption of the Arusha Declaration. Considered the blueprint for social, political and economic life of the nation, the Arusha Declaration sought to establish Tanzania as a socialist nation founded on the principles of African Socialism and Self Reliance (*Ujamaa na Kujitegemea*) (Kassam, 1994). Higher education too was understood within this broad vision of preparing and inculcating in students the spirit of self-reliance (Ishumi & Maliyamkono, 1995). Higher education campuses were also to resemble collective communal villages (*Vijiji vya Ujamaa*). In other words, they were to be seen as “economic communities as well as social and educational communities” (Nyerere, 1967, p. 283). As an institution of higher learning, the Institute of Social Work was not

isolated from this grand nation building project. And, as a matter of fact, it was expected to be part and parcel of the project to achieve self-reliance and development of the people.

Another important policy initiative in the post-independence period that affected higher learning education is the adoption of the Musoma Resolution. There is probably no other single policy that has affected the performance of higher learning institutions more than the Musoma Resolution (Galabawa, 1991). According to Mkude, et al. (2003), The Musoma Resolution was one of the many measures taken in the early 1970s which tied higher learning institutions to the development path and ideology of the state. Passed in an era of Party Supremacy² and one-party democracy (Mmari, 1995; Kweka, 1995), the resolution included, among other things, the direct appointment of party cadres to head institutions of higher learning. Directives were also issued to institutions of higher education to review their curriculum and make them relevant to the needs and aspirations of Tanzanians (Mkude et al, 2003). The ISW was established in the context of the Musoma Resolution in 1973 under the National Social Welfare Training Institute Act No.26 of 1973. We can therefore say that the very establishment of the ISW laid the foundation for social work practice in the post-independence era to the present. Today, we see the legacy of this developmental approach to nation building through training. As an institution of the government, the Institute has been used as a testing ground for national social welfare training needs, blending social work with courses in human resource management and labor studies (Mbise, 2013). While

² Party Supremacy denoted a complete control of decision making by the National Executive Council of the ruling Party, Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM). Under the one-party democracy, the parliament was often seen as subordinate to the ruling party. CCM has been in power since independence in 1961. Then known as Tanganyika National Union (TANU), it united with Afro-Shirazi Party (ASP) in 1964 as part of the Union between the Mainland (Tanganyika) and the island of Zanzibar to form the present day CCM.

it is not possible to explicitly state the core values that the mission of the Institute is based on, it is possible to link prevailing social work training with the mission and vision of the department of social welfare under the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare.³

Thus, the legacy of nation building and developmental state that formed the basis for establishing the ISW in Tanzania has influenced current emphasis on social development approaches in the country. This aspect of social work is consistent with social development perspectives and rights-based approaches that are growing in most developing countries today.

5. Challenges to Social Work in Tanzania

Despite the growth in social work over the last few years, social work in Tanzania still faces several challenges. The most salient and often cited challenge relates to the lack of adequate resources and support services (DSW, 2012). There is also a lack of incentives for training and promotion of social workers, low salaries, low budgetary allocations to the Department of Social Welfare and a general lack of coordinated efforts to develop the workforce. In addition, low recognition of the social work profession among the population has contributed to low morale and respect for social workers (Mabeyo, 2014; Burke & Ngonyani, 2004). Overall, these challenges have resulted in an acute shortage of social workers in the country. This is particularly true at the district, ward, and village levels and in rural areas. As of 2012, only half of all districts have district social welfare officers. Today very few social workers choose to work for the government, and social work graduates more often are employed by NGOs and other better-paying industries and programs (DSW, 2011).

³ In 2015 the Ministry was renamed the Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children.

To address this gap, the government has been relying largely on paraprofessional social workers such as community volunteers, community justice facilitators, para social workers (PSWs) and non-governmental organizations. The establishment of these para professionals is useful in a context where the social welfare system is proven to be overstretched, underdeveloped, understaffed and inadequately financed (Mabeyo, 2014, Linsk et al., 2010). The considerable presence of NGOs in the delivery of social welfare services is associated both with their respective commitment to support the government in the delivery of social welfare services, on the one hand, and significant support from foreign donors, on the other. With this funding, NGOs have also had to adopt practice innovations that evolved from the international human rights norms such as the rights-based approaches. This study looked specifically at NGOs that are working on children's rights to understand factors that influence the extent to which they adopt rights-based approaches in Tanzania.

6. Tanzania: A Country and Child Rights Overview

The United Republic of Tanzania is an autonomous and independent union state of two previously sovereign nations of Tanganyika and Zanzibar. The name Tanzania is a “portmanteau” (World Bank, 2009, p.viii) of *Tanganyika*, the mainland, and *Zanzibar*, the nearby archipelago in the Indian Ocean. Tanganyika gained its independence through a non-violent struggle from the British in 1961 while Zanzibar's independence came through a bloody revolution which overthrew the Omani Sultanate regime in 1964. In the same year, the two nations merged to form the present-day United Republic of Tanzania.

Looking at Tanzania's demographic structure we see that it is a nation of young people. With an estimated population of approximately 53 million people, nearly 50% of this population is below the age of 15 and the total population is growing rapidly at 3 percent annually (higher

than the Sub-Saharan African average of 2.4%). A mere 3% of the population is 65 or older (WB, 2015). Nearly three quarters of this population live in rural areas making it one of the least urbanized countries (United Republic of Tanzania (URT), 2011). Tanzania is also a diverse nation made up of over 123 officially recognized ethnic groups and cultures. Kiswahili is the national language spoken by 96% of the population and English is spoken by the educated. Arabic is also used in Zanzibar. Religious statistics are hard to estimate in Tanzania as the government does not collect data on religious identification⁴. However unofficial estimates indicate the population is almost 50% Muslim and 50% Christian in the mainland while Zanzibar is 98% Muslim. Other estimates include a percentage of people who identify with traditional African religion (Department of State, 2012). Despite its ethnic diversity, Tanzania has cultivated a reputation of tranquility and co-existence among different groups and is widely described as an “oasis of peace” (Lindemann & Putzel, ND, p.1) in a region characterized by violence and conflict.

Economically, Tanzania is classified by the World Bank as a low-income country, is considered a least developed country by the United Nations, and ranks 159 out of 187 countries in the United Nations Development Program’s (UNDP’s) Human Development Index 2014. The life expectancy at birth is approximately 59 years, with a Gross National Income Per Capita of \$1300 (UNDP, 2013). Nearly 40% live below the poverty line and over 50% live below the \$1.25-per-day poverty line (UNDP, 2014; UNDP, 2013; WB, 2009). Agriculture forms the main economic activity for nearly 80% of the population; it provides nearly 50% of the GDP, 80% of

⁴ Statistics on religion in Tanzania were officially eliminated from government census reports in 1967.

the export earnings, and has been described as the backbone of the economy. Other sectors that employ a large proportion of Tanzanians are tourism, mining, manufacturing and service industries (Kweka, et al., 2003). A large proportion is also employed in the informal sector⁵, or what Muller (2005) refers to as the “last-resort economy” (p.10) which is increasingly being regarded as an alternative to agriculture as a source of additional income for rural and urban households (Kweka& Fox 2011; Schulz 1995).

While widespread, poverty in Tanzania is more prevalent in rural areas. For this reason, the first policy of the newly independent Tanzania was to declare a war on three enemies of the state: *Poverty, Ignorance and Disease*. The first president, Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere, called on all Tanzanians to collectively respond to eradicating poverty in their midst. To this end, *Ujamaa* policy was officially launched in 1967 with the aim of building a socialist and egalitarian society. All major means of production were to be collectively owned or run by the government for the collective good. In addition, a mass villagization program followed to move Tanzanians into planned villages (Ndumbaro & Mvungi 2007). This was rationalized on the grounds of efficient delivery of social services to the people. While the *Ujamaa* policies were hailed for increasing access to education, health and reducing income inequality, Tanzania remained a poor country. In the latter part of the 1970s, mounting debt and increasing poverty forced the country into an economic crisis. Contrary to the dreams of building a self-reliant nation, Tanzania was still highly dependent on donor support to finance its budget and in the 1990’s, Tanzania was listed in the Highly-Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) program for debt

⁵ The informal sector is variedly defined but generally refers to any employment that is not in accordance with existing labor regulations. Informal sector enterprises are generally small scale and may or may not be registered with government agencies.

cancellation. Today, Tanzania's development budget is donor funded at nearly 40% making it one of the largest recipients of Official Development Assistance in Sub Saharan Africa (UNDP, 2011).

7. Rights of Children in Tanzania: The Policy Context

As in many other countries, child rights and child protection issues have gained much attention in Tanzania (Ng'ondi, 2015). Since the mid-1990s Tanzania has developed national and sectoral policies to promote the welfare of children. Tanzania has also ratified most major international human rights instruments on children. These include the UN Convention on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (UNCRC), the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, and the UN Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (TCRF, 2013). Other policy frameworks that directly relate to issues of children's rights in Tanzania include the following:

The Child Development Policy, 2008 highlights the need to protect children living in difficult circumstances, such as orphans, children with disabilities, street children, children affected by natural disasters, and children who cannot fend for themselves such as adolescent mothers. *The Education and Training Policy, 1995* addresses issues of right to education and the issue of education for all is stated as a human right. However, this policy mainly focuses on achieving enrollment for all children with little regard to issues of access⁶ and the quality of education in the country. Various sources have indicated that the quality of education and access remain extremely low (Sifuna, 2007; Wedgwood, 2007). *The National Policy on HIV and AIDS*

⁶ Access looks at differential opportunities to education. It seeks to achieve the broader social justice goal of ensuring that all children- regardless of their circumstances- receive education.

2001 provides support for children who are orphaned as a result of HIV AIDS. The policy indicates that such children are entitled to support from the central and local governments particularly for sibling headed households.

The *National Costed Plan of Action* (NCPA) provides measures and strategies to reach and identify most vulnerable children in the country. The first NCPA ran from 2007-2010 and was designed as a planning tool to be used by all district councils. The plan was considered successful despite facing a number of challenges in rolling it out. The current, NCPA II (2013-2017) seeks to address some challenges identified in NCPAI such as high costs of identifying vulnerable children, low dissemination and reach to the grassroots and challenges of registering children. This plan also includes advocacy for the rights of children and the role of community-based nongovernmental organizations in realizing children's wellbeing.

In 2009, Tanzania enacted the *Law of the Child Act 2009*. This act integrates child specific provisions from a range of national laws into one document, and accommodates fundamental rights of children as provided by international and regional human rights instruments (Ng'ondi, 2015). It serves as the main legal instrument to protect children from discrimination, ill treatment and neglect in the country (UNICEF, 2012) and strengthens the legal rights of children in Tanzania (Frankenberg, 2013). *The Law of Marriage Act 1971* defines and regulates marriage. However, it is in this law that the greatest conflict in the laws related to children in the country is reflected. While the LCA defines a child as any person below the age of 18 and prohibits marriage of children, the Law of Marriage Act of 1971 still refers to marriage at the age of 14 and 15 years for a girl child. In a country where child marriage and girl sexual abuse is common, the law has often been cited as condoning violence against children.

The ratification of these treaties and laws has done little to improve the situation of children in Tanzania. While significant progress towards achieving global and national targets for children such as universal primary education and access to healthcare have been made, large inequalities leave nearly half of all Tanzanian children severely deprived (UNICEF, 2012). A UNICEF 2011 report on violence against children (VAC) in Tanzania showed that violence against children is widespread with nearly 3 out of 10 females aged 13 to 24 reporting experiencing at least one incident of sexual violence before turning 18. Male children too experience violence. Child labor is widespread at 23% and 18% for boys and girls, respectively. Nearly 40% of the girls are married before the age of 18, nearly 15% have undergone genital mutilation, 3000 to 5000 children are estimated to live on the streets, corporal punishment is still sanctioned under a 1930 Law and is the most common form of punishment for children (URT, 2011; UNICEF, 2012; 28 TooMany, 2013; Human Rights Watch, 2013). Perhaps the Tanzania Human Rights Report 2013 sums up well the situation of rights for women and children in Tanzania:

Incidents of gender-based violence and child abuse continue in various corners of the country. These incidents indicate that lawlessness is very high in the country; no respect of human rights and inhuman and degrading treatment of one another is very high (LHRC, 2014 p. xxxiii).

In an attempt to help reverse the situation of children, the government of Tanzania has called on various state and non-state actors to collectively come together to improve the situation of children in the country. None have heeded this call faster than the civil society and community-based organizations. Today, the major focus of development work related to child rights is at the NGO level in Tanzania. This study will therefore, examine how NGOs respond to rights-based efforts and the associated factors that influence their adoption of these approaches.

To do so we first need to explore how NGOs fit into the Tanzanian context and how they have addressed issues of child rights.

8. Tanzania NGO Sector Policy and Regulation

In Tanzania, NGOs⁷ control a large portion of the development and service delivery sector and are at the forefront of poverty eradication efforts. The work of NGOs in Tanzania is regulated under the NGO Act of 2002. The Act is a product of the National NGO Policy approved by the government in 2001. This was the first post one-party policy drawn through a broad consultative process with members of the civil society in the country. The consultative process which started in 1996 brought together a wide range of civil society actors from various parts of the country through Zonal and national workshops (KEPA, 2008). The NGO Act provides for, among other things, the procedures for NGO registration, coordination, governance and operations in line with the laws of the country. According to the Act, an NGO is defined as:

...a voluntary group of individuals or organization which is autonomous, nonpartisan, nonprofit making which is organized locally at the grass-roots, nationally or internationally for the purpose of enhancing or promoting economic, environmental, social or cultural development or protecting environment, lobbying and advocating on issues of public interest of a group of individuals or organization and includes a Non-Governmental Organization, established under the auspices of any religious organization or faith propagating organization, trade union, sports club, a political party or community based organization but does not include a trade union, a social club, or a sports club, a political party, a religious organization or a community based organization (p.4).

⁷ The term NGO is sometimes used in conjunction with the more general Civil Society Organization. Civil Society covers formal and informal structures that are formed by groups of individuals outside the state framework in order to pursue a particular cause. An NGO is a part of the civil society and in this study will be used interchangeably (Kepa, 2013)

9. NGO's and Child Rights in Tanzania

Socio economic and political changes in Tanzania since the 1970s, and more particularly during the 1980s, have set in motion new and complex social problems and challenges affecting both rural and urban populations. Some of the challenges of this era include high levels of poverty, breakdown of family relations, poor health, rising rates of crime, alcohol and drug abuse, and problems related to HIV/AIDS. Both within and outside family environments, a high number of children suffer abuse and exploitation, including abandonment, physical abuse, corporal punishment, sexual and Gender-based violence (REPOA, NBS, & UNICEF, 2009; MoHSW, 2014).

While in the past the tribe, clan and family systems met nearly all welfare needs within the community, the realities of present day socio-economic environment have had an adverse effect on these traditional systems of care. Urbanization, HIV/AIDS, increased numbers of orphans and vulnerable children, and greater access to formal education, weaken the role of family and the clan in the care and socialization of children. These systems are severely strained and have failed to adequately respond to the challenges of poverty and social change in Tanzania. This has necessitated the need for interventions external to the tribe and family systems (Burke & Ngonyani, 2004).

To address this, NGOs assumed a key role of advocating for the rights of Children in Tanzania. Most child rights advocacy has, until recently, been done through women's rights organizations and legal aid centers (AKDN, 2007). These organizations have mainly used legislative tactics with lawyers making up a majority of their staff. One of the most prominent human rights advocacy organizations in the country is the Legal and Human Rights Center (LHRC). The LHRC describes itself as a private, voluntary, non-governmental, non-partisan and

non-profit making organization. It was established in 1995 as a human rights project of the Tanzania Legal Education Trust (TANLET). Its activities were with pastoralists, hunters and gatherers of Arusha and Kilimanjaro regions whose communal rights were being marginalized by sedentary groups and large corporations owning plantations (Mhina, 2007). Its primary tasks have been the creation of legal and human rights awareness among the public and particular underprivileged sections of society through legal and civic education and information, sound legal research and advice, monitoring and follow up of human rights violations, and advocacy for reforms of policies to conform to international human rights standards (LHRC, 2014).

Local NGOs advocating for child rights are relatively new and underdeveloped in the country. The consultative processes of the Law of the Child Act 2009, the launching of the Violence Against Children Report in 2011, and the constitution making process, catalyzed grassroots NGOs to advocate for the rights of children and women more than any other time in Tanzania's civil society history. One of the offshoots of these processes is the Tanzania Child Rights Forum (TCRF), a national network of 114 NGOs working on child rights. This network was specifically established to coordinate efforts of NGOs working to push for the passing of the Law of the Child Act and support the government's efforts to implement the Act.

B. Study Rationale

1. Rationale for Studying Tanzania

As shown in the preceding section, Tanzania was thought to be especially relevant for this study because of the following key reasons. First, the high rates of poverty have necessitated the intervention of non-governmental organizations in the delivery of services and advocating rights. These services are both driven by altruism from the civil society but also as a means to

supplement meager government efforts towards poverty alleviation in the country. Secondly, Tanzania's population is one of the youngest in the world with a median age of 17.6 (CIA, 2016). Thus, understanding the works related to advocacy of rights for children is important in a nation that is predominantly young. Third, as a developing country, Tanzania is a recipient of international development aid from most large western international development donors. It is the fourth largest recipient of aid in Sub-Saharan Africa behind Ethiopia, Egypt, and Kenya. In this regard, Tanzania has often been referred to as the "darling of the west" (OECD, 2016). With this aid also means that Tanzania is at the center of receiving norms and innovations such as rights-based approaches that are developed in the international development arena. It is therefore especially apt to explore rights-based approaches in a country that has been characterized as a major receiver of Official Development Assistance (ODA). Fourth, Tanzania has an active NGO sector with a large number of small, local and resource limited organizations that help to meet the material and rights related needs of local communities. These factors place Tanzania in a unique place for the study of adoption of rights-based approaches by local child rights NGOs.

2. NGO's and Adoption of Rights-Based Approaches in Tanzania

Formal and informal organizations have always had a place in the Tanzanian society (Teague-Elliott, 2008). While many of these, especially the Tanganyika African Association (TAA), played a key role in the country's independence movements, the growth in the number and vibrancy of NGOs is a much more recent phenomenon (AKDN, 2007; Havnevick, 1993; DCU, 2007; Kilemile, 2005, cited in TENMET, 2009). NGOs in Tanzania have not always played the same role, had the same focus, or been as prolific and well-funded as they are today (Levine, 2002). This "Boom" (Levine, 2002, p. 1043) corresponds with a proliferation of NGOs around the world but also to the socio-economic reforms pushed by the World Bank and the

International Monetary Fund (IMF) in the 80's and early 90's. Collectively referred to as the Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs), these reforms contained broad economic prescriptions that required the government of Tanzania, among other things, to open up the public space to civil society organizations (CSOs) (Green, 2012; Teague-Elliott, 2008; DCU, 2007; REPOA, 2007; Tibaijuka, 1998). For instance, while only seven NGOs were registered and formally recognized between 1961 and late 1970s (Lange, Wallevik & Kiondo, 2000), by 2007 it was estimated that there were over “8000 registered NGOs with 450 of these estimated to be active” (DCU, 2007, p. 15). In 1986, the government extended a formal invitation to churches and nongovernmental organizations to play a greater role in the provision of health and education services. In 1993 for instance, NGOs in Tanzania were running 61% of secondary schools, 87% of nursery schools and 43% of hospitals in nine districts (DCU, 2007).

Initially considered an urban phenomenon, NGOs are now flourishing beyond the limits of the cities and urban areas (Green, 2012). Mapping studies conducted by Kilembe (2005;2006 in TENMET, 2009) showed that NGOs in Tanzania work in different developmental sectors and thematic areas, such as: “HIV/AIDS, Civil Society Organization capacity building and coordination (networks), good governance and democracy, social economic development, poverty alleviation, human rights and litigation, rural development, education, women development, media, science and technology, gender and equity; child and youth development, social welfare and health” (p.5).

The NGO sector in Tanzania is also described as being highly diverse ranging from small Community Based Organizations (CBOs) dealing with local community issues, to larger, nationally based NGOs addressing social or economic needs (Mercer, 1999). To date, the role of NGOs in Tanzania can be said to have evolved through two major phases and approaches:

1. A service delivery phase⁸ (pre-independence era to early 1990s) during which NGOs work focused on charities, self-help initiatives, and working through government-set systems, and,
2. A shift from service delivery to influencing policy and advocating change since the 1990s to present. The role thus shifted to lobbying and campaigning, and articulation of rights rather than exclusively focusing on service delivery (TENMET, 2009).

Today many child welfare organizations are also embracing rights-based approaches and mainstreaming rights language in their work with children. Even where service delivery occurs, it is often framed in the language of entitlements (Pells, 2012).

Since the 1990s, NGOs have continued to play a more prominent role in national-level policy formulation and demanding more space in the democratic space of the country (Macpherson, 2009). The articulation of rights in addition to services is on the rise as more and more donors extend their support for rights-based activities in the country. The rise in the prominence of NGOs in the rights arena is both a result of what Mhina (2007) referred to as a “rise in civic culture” and from the changes happening in international development financing. Prominent among international factors is the 2005 Paris Declaration which lays out a blueprint for a new aid infrastructure that directs funds through two channels: 1) direct budget support for governments to deliver public goods and services; and 2) awards to advocacy NGOs to promote political reform (Rupcic, 2012). Thus, NGOs in Tanzania have had to realign their programs to suit this new trend in international aid flow that is prioritizing advocacy and rights.

⁸ It is acknowledged that there has not been a complete shift from service delivery. Some NGOs continue to provide direct material services in addition to using more participatory and empowerment strategies that engage local communities and the government

3. Adoption of RBA's

There is a significant amount of literature on how large global development NGOs and the development community adopts and understands rights-based approaches as well as the various conceptual, political, cultural and operational challenges such approaches face at the global level. There is also research that looks at the experiences of large international NGOs in operationalizing human rights-based approaches in the global South (Ziwa, 2014; Qadir, 2012; Schmitz, 2012; Plipat, 2005; Macpherson, 2009; Luttrell & Piron, 2005). A few studies have also attempted to look at factors that are associated with the adoption of RBA's. Most notable is the study by Plipat (2005) which surveys the largest development NGOs of the North that operate in the South to examine a number of factors associated with adopting Rights-based Approaches. In this study, NGOs were more likely to adopt RBA's if they: worked on issues of HIV/AIDS, women's rights, trade, debt, and aid; received 15% or less of their funding from the government; belonged to an NGO network with more than five members; were headquartered outside the USA; utilized advocacy and campaign strategies; were founded outside the USA; had supportive leadership (Plipat, 2005); and were urban-based (Kindornay, et al., 2012).

Conversely, Plipat's work shows that NGOs are less likely to adopt RBA if they: are headquartered and founded in USA, receive more than 15% of their funding from their home government; and belong to an NGO network of less than five members (Plipat, 2005). While Plipat's study found that NGOs may be less likely to adopt RBA if they are religiously affiliated, there is mixed evidence on this. Harris-Curtis (2003) finds that faith based organizations are equally likely to implement rights-based approaches. Donor influence (Harris-Curtis, 2003), political opportunity (Nyamu-Musembi & Musyoki, 2004), and moral appeal of the rights-based

discourse (Uvin, 2002) have also been cited among factors important for adoption of rights-based approaches.

This literature, has four shortcomings. The first is that most of it is written from the perspective of Western development workers or staff members from Western founded NGOs with local field offices in the South. Despite operating locally (some registered locally as well), these NGOs are not entirely representative of the local NGO experience. Second, most of these studies are anecdotal coming from practitioners and internal development consultants often commissioned by the donors. Third, the literature is dominated by qualitative studies without an attempt to test the relative importance of various factors that influence adoption of RBAs. Fourth, few studies have looked at adoption of rights-based approaches by local child rights NGOs. Thus, while we have some idea about the adoption of rights-based approaches by large international nongovernmental organizations, less is known about adoption of rights-based approaches by nongovernmental organizations that do not operate at the international level. Even more scant is research that looks at nongovernmental organizations working on child rights (Lwelyn, 2007; Ensor & Gready, 2005; Molyneux & Lazar, 2003).

C. Significance of the Study

This study sought to survey local NGOs in Tanzania working on children's rights to understand the factors that influence the extent to which they adopt rights-based approaches. Local NGOs in developing countries often act as intermediaries between the theories and approaches of the global development community. Despite recent increase in the number of NGOs claiming to adopt rights-based approaches in Tanzania (Maina, 2014; TENMET, 2009; Macpherson, 2009; Kilemile, 2006; Kilemile, 2005; REPOA, 2007), no studies look at the

factors that influence the extent to which local child rights NGOs adopt RBAs. The few studies available mainly come from outside Tanzania and look at the experiences of Northern Non-Governmental Organizations (NNGOs) in implementing RBAs in the South (for example, Vijfeijken, et al., 2009; Macpherson, 2009; Plipat, 2005; Offseheimer & Holcombe, 2003; Nelson and Dorsey, 2003; Brouwer, et al., 2005; Jones, 2005).

Considering the passing of the Tanzania Law of the Child Act 2009, the on-going constitution making process in Tanzania (Maina, 2014)⁹, and the recent landmark court ruling which declared child marriage illegal in Tanzania (Amnesty International, 2017), NGOs and the wider civil society have seen a marked increase in engagement with policy and political processes. With this, there has also been a rise in NGOs advocating for inclusion of child rights in the new constitution. It is crucial to understand the factors that influence NGOs ability to adopt rights-based approaches to support their effective and successful participation in the promotion of child rights in the country.

This is the first known systematic study of the adoption of rights-based approaches in the field of child rights in Tanzania. While other sectors, such as women's rights, HIV/AIDs, environmental and natural resources management made earlier transition to rights-based approaches, child rights are a much more recent comer into the rights-based approaches (Plipat, 2005). This study is therefore useful for generating evidence to support the development and scaling up of future efforts to promote child rights in Tanzania.

⁹ The process of drafting a new constitution has been marred by confusion and uncertainty. After a draft constitution was passed in parliament in 2015, the second stage of national referendum that would have voted on the draft, was stalled. The referendum was halted in order to pave way for the 2015 general elections. It is presently unclear when this process will resume.

This study also takes place at a time when Tanzania, largely influenced by requirements of the donor community, is engaged in broad social welfare system strengthening initiatives. These efforts are aimed at, among other things, streamlining welfare service delivery and coordination between actors. These efforts essentially require the coordination of efforts between state and non-state actors within a rights-based framework and social development perspective. Therefore, understanding the factors that influence the extent to which NGOs adopt RBAs as well as their relative importance will help to shed light on best ways to support local organizations to meaningfully engage in the wider system strengthening efforts in the country.

This study may be helpful for NGOs to understand the relative importance of internal and external factors and provide a roadmap of where to intervene to increase their capacity for advancing the rights of children in Tanzania.

Rights-based approaches are consistent with the mission of social work to empower marginalized groups in society (Zaidakilani, 2010). Understanding barriers and challenges of adopting rights-based approaches by local NGO's may help to shed light on areas for capacity building to support efforts for promoting child rights.

This study makes two theoretical contributions. First, rights-based approaches are consistent with social development perspectives in social work. This study contributes to understanding the extent to which local nongovernmental organizations are adopting social development approaches. Second, within innovation adoption perspectives, this study helps to understand the relative importance of factors for innovation adoption within a developing country perspective specific to rights-based approaches. Studies of innovation adoption are rare in social work. Understanding the extent, as well as the factors that influence the adoption of rights-based approaches, will be useful to gauge the level at which innovations developed in the

international development arena are adopted at the grassroots level in the south in general, and Tanzania.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND THEORIES

This chapter provides a review of relevant literature that deals with the adoption of rights-based approaches. It is divided into five sections. The first section summarizes literature on the emergence of notions of rights, and child rights, in particular. The second reviews literature on the global adoption of rights-based approaches. The third examines the adoption of rights-based approaches in developing countries. The fourth section reviews literature translating international norms by local NGOs in the south. Fifth is a review of literature on innovation adoption and associated factors for adoption of rights-based approaches. The chapter concludes with critical gaps in our knowledge that justify the need for my proposed study.

A broad and inclusive review of the literature was conducted using electronic database searches on Project Muse, JSTOR, Science Direct, EBSCOhost; multilateral aid donor agencies archives such as UNDP, UNICEF, World Bank, Department for International Development (DFID), and Danish Institute for Human Rights, DANIDA; reports and policy documents of the government of the United Republic of Tanzania and international NGOs.

A. From Welfare to Rights

Discussions of child rights globally are a relatively recent phenomenon emerging out of the human rights movement following the Second World War and the cold war that ensued (Alaimo, 2002; Reynaert, Bouverne-de-Bie & Vandeveld, 2009; Fass, 2011). More precisely, the adoption of child rights is described as emanating from “diplomatic maneuvers” by the Polish government in 1979. The Polish government sought to embarrass the West by proposing that the 1959 Declaration of the Rights of the Child be made a binding agreement. The West’s reaction to this was to urge a wider review of human rights and children (Jones, 2005). Seizing the

opportunity, civil society organizations (CSOs) began to apply pressure on the UN, eventually motivating the United Nations Commission for Human Rights in 1986 to draft a Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC).

The passing of the UNCRC in 1989 saw a significant infiltration of notions of child rights across the continents (Mbiye, 2017). The adoption of the convention globally, came as a promise to the improvement of children's well-being and status throughout the world (Lund, 2006). The basic premise of the UNCRC is that all children (all human beings below the age of 18) are born with fundamental freedoms and the inherent rights of all human beings. A child should enjoy all human rights laid down or proclaimed in the constitutions of the individual countries and particularly, in international conventions and declarations.

However, a general cultural-relativist argument suggests that human rights as formulated in UN Conventions and promoted by rights-based approaches are western constructions imposed on developing countries by powerful institutions (Morrow & Pells, 2012). The interpretation and application of the concept varies significantly across social, cultural and economic spheres. And while various aspects of rights have been discussed, none have been discussed as much as those relating to universality of rights. The debates have revolved around questions such as, are human rights absolute and universal or they are relative and context specific? (Baxi, 1998).

To explore this notion, we have to go beyond the UNCRC and look at the preceding Human Rights Declaration. In 1948, the international community adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This declaration proclaims the universality of human rights proclaiming that it is "a common standard of achievements for all peoples and all nations (UN, 1948, p. 1.). Thus, to the drafters of the Declaration, the prescriptions of the Declaration apply to every human regardless of who or where they are from. In other words, human rights are general

rights that arise from no special undertaking beyond membership in the human race (Kaime, 2009). “To have human rights, one does not have to be anything than be born a human being” (Donnelly 1984, p.400). Howard (1995) extends this argument by stating that:

Human rights are rights that all human beings are entitled to, merely by virtue of being human. Such rights do not have to be earned, nor are they dependent on any particular social status (p.1).

These conceptions of human rights as entitlements that belong to the individual are essentially liberal¹⁰ originating out of the specific historical context of Western Europe and Western dominance in framing UN conventions (Shivji, 1988). Its philosophical base derives from Enlightenment thinking and related ideas of modernism (Ife, 2012; Androff, 2015). Enlightenment sought to give primacy to human thinking and individual rationality over divine power or any other form of patriarchy (Ife, 2012). These conceptions also arise from distortions related to current economic and military imposition of western perspectives on less powerful nations (Weissman, ND). The dominant Western view of rights enforces a model of humanity and human rights centered on a Western philosophy of the individual on people from cultures where a collective understanding of humanity is primary to the individual notion (Ife, 2006). To relativists, therefore, these notions are naïve and, worse, culturally imperialistic holding little relevance outside Europe and North American societies (Kaime, 2009).

African scholars have particularly been critical of the claims of universality of human rights as essentially bourgeois and western. To these scholars, the notion of human rights as promoted through the Declaration is premised on a different and even opposite philosophy

¹⁰The term liberal is used here to denote an ideology that favors individualism and freedom in the western enlightenment sense as opposed to the American sense of people who hold social democratic principles.

(Shivji, 1988). These scholars hold that, whereas the liberal construct of human rights is premised on an autonomous and rational individual, the African world view knows no such individualism. Pollis affirms this contention further when she asserts that:

Whatever the diversity among third world countries in their traditional belief systems, individuals still perceive themselves in terms of their group identity. Who and what an individual is has been conceptualized in terms of the kinship system, the clan, the tribe, the village, whatever the specific cultural manifestations of the underlying prevailing worldview (p.1).

These differences have for a long time presented challenges of application and translation of human rights outside western countries. Thus, in less than a year after the UNCRC was adopted, African heads of state through the Organization of African Unity (OAU), in what could be considered an indication of resentment to their low level of involvement in the drafting process and UNCRC's failure to address the unique contexts of the African child, adopted their own version of the UNCRC, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC). This was an important gesture that made Africa the only continent with a regional instrument on child rights (Save the Children, 2010; Spitzer & Twikirize, 2013).

Despite heralding a sign of hope for the African child, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) has struggled to rise above its ratification. The UNCRC remains the dominant framework for child rights on the continent. Benefitting from its association with the United Nations system and strong funding from leading international organizations such as UNICEF, the UNCRC has continued to serve as the main language of protection for children. Also, much of this literature on child rights is "pushed by organizations that are firmly embedded in the international child rights framework, and for whom the universality of the UNCRC is paramount" (Kendall, 2003, p.371). While it may be beyond the purview of this study to explore varying notions of rights, it takes on the understanding that these

notions are essentially different and applied differently across cultural settings. To address this, the study used an open-ended question which allowed participants to provide their own version of the rights-based approaches. It was anticipated that some of these understandings will be different from the official definitions.

B. Global Adoption of Human Rights-Based Approaches to Development

What are now termed rights-based approaches can best be understood within the broader context of various development models that have evolved over decades. I will attempt here to paint a brief picture of the main approaches that have evolved in the world of development leading up to the adoption of rights-based approaches. In the decade after WWII global development was greatly influenced by Keynesian economic thinking. In this line of thinking, it was reasoned that the most effective way to lift living standards and alleviate poverty was through an intensive process of state-driven modernization (Lwelyne, 2007; Andrews & Bawa, 2014). This led to the rise of modernization theory. Developed by Western scholars, the modernization theory purported that development was a linear process that involved a move from a traditional stage (where you can put most poor countries) to modernity (where you can put most nations classified as developed). According to Andrews and Bawa (2014):

Modernization was, simply, ‘the process of transition from traditional to modern principles of social organization’. And its primary objective was to find out how the economies of the colonies of Britain, France, Portugal and other European or Western powers could undergo transformation and be made more productive as decolonization approached (p.924).

Modernization theory posits that all countries could be arranged alongside a continuum from traditional to modern societies, with third world clustered near the traditional pole while first world countries clustered near the modern extreme. First world countries were once upon a time traditional societies but have travelled along the continuum to become modern societies.

The path has therefore already been created for third world countries to follow suit. More importantly, Modernization Theory posits that the first world can help the third world become modern through capital infusion, economic assistance and the transfer of technology and know-how (Andrews & Bawa, 2014).

Not too long after, and in the light of failure to bring about development, modernization was deluged with criticisms. It was ethnocentric, based on the experience of the West; attended to only internal factors of a nation-state, without taking into account external factors in its past and present history (Andrews & Bawa, 2014). It ignored issues of inequality and realities of countries that experienced slavery and colonialism (and now neocolonialism). Key among the critics of modernization theory were Dependency theorists. Dependency theorists, many of whom came from countries classified as poor, advanced that understanding the underdevelopment of poor nations needed recognition of historical, political, economic, and cultural factors, external to the third world nations. To them, the development of the first world created and continues to maintain the underdevelopment of the third world. The wider global powers between the west and developing countries perpetuated inequality and poverty suggesting that it was in the interest of the west to maintain underdevelopment and inequality among the poor (Lwelyne, 2007).

By the 1970s the modernization approach had failed to bring development and eradicate poverty in developing countries. An alternative *basic needs approach* was adopted. Supported by the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the World Bank, the basic needs approach called for development work that focused on agriculture and the rural sector (Lwelyne, 2007). It also emphasized the importance of immediate fulfilment of basic needs such as health and education. Most NGOs went on to adopt this service delivery model (Alnoor, 2003). The idea

behind the basic needs approach was that wealth would automatically trickle down to the poorest in society (Lwelyne, 2007).

The basic needs approach did little to improve on the failures of the modernization approach. It too, assumed that economic growth was the only solution to poverty (Filmer-Wilson, 2005). It also failed to address forces that made trickle down from the rich impossible. It was after this that calls to merge human rights and development intensified (Ensor & Gready, 2005). In this merger, human rights and human rights promotion were seen as the real basis of development (Rupcic, 2012; Nelson & Dorsey, 2003). As early as 1981 at its conference on Development, Human Rights and the Rule of Law, the International Commission of Jurists admitted that:

The satisfaction of basic needs would be permanently achievable only with structural change at all levels, local, national, and international, that would enable those concerned to identify their own needs, mobilize their own resources and shape their own future in their own terms. Development should, therefore, be seen as a global concept including equal emphasis on civil and political rights and economic, social and cultural rights (ICJ, 1981, p.224).

The term *rights-based approach*, came about around the post-Cold War period in the early 1990s and gathered momentum in the build up to the Copenhagen Summit on Social Development in 1995 (Cornwall & Nyamu-Musembi, 2004; Kindornay, Ron, & Carpenter, 2012; Greany, 2008; Schmitz, 2007; Uvin, 2004). The post 1980's era is generally understood to have paved the way for developmental and human rights issues to enter the political space on a global stage (Gready, 2013).

Nelson and Dorsey (2008), for example, argue that economic globalization, social movement pressure from NGOs and women's rights advocates, changes in official aid, and conflict related humanitarian crises in the 1980's formed the foundation for the convergence

between development and human rights. Shortly thereafter, major international development organizations of the North such as the United Nations Development Organization (UNDP), United Nations International Children Education Fund (UNICEF), Swedish SIDA, Department for International Development (DFID), and NGOs such as Save the Children, CARE and Oxfam began to officially declare themselves rights-based agencies (Nelson & Dorsey, 2008).

According to Kindornay et al. (2012), within less than a decade, this new approach had “swept through the websites, policy papers, and official rhetoric of multilateral development assistance agencies, bilateral donors and non-governmental organizations worldwide” (p. 473).

ActionAid was probably the first of the major international development NGOs to formally adopt the rights-based approach with the launch of its “Fighting Poverty Together” Strategy in 1998 (ActionAid, 1999) followed in 2000 by Oxfam International which published its strategic plan for 2001-2004 entitled “Towards Global Equity” (Oxfam International, 2000). In 2001, Amnesty International ‘adopted a new mission that included work on economic, social and cultural rights, initiating new research methodologies, policy priority setting, and advocacy work in areas once considered the domain of development work’ (Nelson & Dorsey, 2003, p.2013).

In addition, a series of global conferences sponsored by the United Nations in the 1990s are also credited for bringing together international development experts, activists and social movement organizations to sow the early seeds of the merger between development and human rights (Nelson & Dorsey, 2008; Offenheiser & Holcombe, 2003). Notable among these are the Rio de Janeiro Conference on Environment and Development in 1992, the Human Rights Conference in Vienna 1992, the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen 1995 and the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995). According to Nelson and Dorsey

(2008), these conferences enabled rights NGOs to “develop new strategies, share information, and learn new methods for litigation and policy advocacy” (p.31).

As part of the 1997 UN Program for Reform and the 2003 UN Common Understanding, all UN development activities were required to explicitly reflect the principles of the Declaration of Human Rights and other human rights instruments (OECD & World Bank, 2013; Kindornay, Ron, & Carpenter, 2012). Within the UN family, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations International Children and Education Fund (UNICEF) were the earliest to institutionalize rights language in their programs. For UNDP, there was an early realization that the major source of poverty is “people’s powerlessness” (UNDP, 2000, p.9). Other UN organizations that have mainstreamed human rights into their work include the World Health Organization, UNICEF, UNAIDS, and the Office of High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) (Nelson & Dorsey, 2003).

Widespread rise in poverty associated with World Bank and IMF imposed Structural Adjustment Programs sparked widespread dissatisfaction and protests from activists against neoliberal policies (Hickey & Mitlin, 2008). According to these activists, the welfare model had failed to address inequality and poor people were increasing as a failure of the basic needs approach. What was needed, according to the activists, was a rethink of the patterns of exploitation and poverty as opposed to direct service provision which did little to transform structural drivers of poverty. In 1999 Amartya Sen’s work on *Development as Freedom* set the theoretical basis for conceptualizing the linkages between development and human rights. Criticizing planned and technocratic approaches to development which are founded on a neoliberal philosophy, Sen introduced notions of freedom, agency, capabilities and entitlement into development (Gready & Ensor, 2005; Sen, 1999). According to Sen, the basic needs

approach to development was philosophically flawed by equating development with the satisfaction of concrete needs (utility maximization). According to Fukuda-Parr (2003), this “emphasis of specifying basic needs in terms of supplying services and commodities points to a commodities basis instead of capabilities basis” (p. 304). The basic needs approach thus ruled out notions of rights, freedoms, and human agency (Sen & Williams, 1982).

In the year 2000, the interrelationships between rights and development found further expression with the adoption of the Millennium Declaration. The Declaration called on all member states of the UN to respect all internationally recognized human rights and fundamental freedoms, including the right to development. It is also in this summit that a core set of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were agreed upon (Jonsson, 2005). The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were to serve as specific, time-bound objectives to improve the conditions of the poorest of the poor by the year 2015 in the areas of income, hunger, disease control, education and environmental sustainability (Litonjua 2010; Hulme, 2009; Jackson, 2007; Sumner & Tiwari, 2009).

According to Hulme (2009) MDGs were “the world’s biggest promise—a global agreement to reduce poverty and human deprivation at historically unprecedented rates” (p.4). These goals comprise an eight-point plan that addresses extreme poverty and its manifestation in a comprehensive manner and with a focused framework by 2015 (Morgan, 2005; Migiros, 2007). These goals are : MDG1—eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; MDG 2—achieve universal primary education; MDG3—promote gender equality and empower women; MDG4—reduce child mortality; MDG5—improve maternal health; MDG6—combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; MDG7—ensure environmental sustainability; and MDG8—develop a global partnership for development (Lancet, 2010; Nelson, 2007).

The MDGs were seen as being consistent with, and a means of, realizing human rights standards and principles. In this regard, they were seen as being compatible with the rights-based approaches. MDGs are also in line with other universally recognized human rights (e.g. right to education, right to food) (Schmidt-Traub, 2009). Alston (2005) concludes that the MDGs have a great deal in common with human rights commitments.

However, some scholars could not see the relationship between MDGS and RBAs as being obvious. These scholars for instance saw that MDGS sought to address poverty in a language that avoided reference to rights in order to appeal to donor countries while rights-based approaches were targeted at activists and social movements (Nelson, 2007).

The assessment of the success of MDGs is highly mixed. For a long time, many countries, particularly in so called developing countries, reported being off-track in achieving the goals. While many reasons are provided for this lack of progress, some of the reasons include inadequate governance and the failure to respect essential civil and political rights. Many of these countries have also fallen into conflicts thereby failing to work toward long term development goals. The second reason advanced is related to extreme poverty. The argument here is that for countries that are already marred in poverty, government priorities are directed at responding to immediate poverty needs thus slowing the achievement of MDGs (Schmidt-Traub, 2009).

To others, MDGs were just one more development “gimmick or global wish list” (Saith, 2006, p. 1172) that does little to resolve problems faced by the poor. There are also those who thought that the MDGs were incomplete goals and did not include references to some key social and economic rights such as access to reproductive health, core infrastructure services, and governance issues (Schmidt-Traub, 2009).

On another level, MDGs were accused of lacking ambition for focusing on “mere” halving of extreme poverty by 2015. Critics claimed they do not go far enough toward eradicating poverty and addressing structural inequalities. By focusing on aggregate quantitative objectives, MDGs were also criticized for being blind to inequalities and failing to address the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable members of society. And finally, the MDGs were labeled as being “technocratic” and “top-down” with developed countries imposing their notions of development on poor countries (Schmidt-Traub, 2009).

C. Sustainable Development Goals

To redress some of the shortcomings of the Millennium Development Goals, the international community adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) at the end of 2015. The SDGs constitute 17 global goals for achieving sustainable development by 2030. While they have been largely criticized for their technocratic view of development, sustainable development goals are seen to generally want to address issues of sustainable development while the MDGs dealt only with development. Whereas development goals are aimed at achieving economic growth and reducing poverty, Sustainable development goals view development as a combination of economic development, environmental protection and social inclusion (Sachs, 2012). And, while the MDGs were seen as development targets aimed at only the poor nations, SDGs are seen as encompassing the whole planet with development targets for both developed and developing nations. According to Jeffrey Sachs (2012), regarded as one of the main architects of the SDGs:

The SDGs should therefore pose goals and challenges for all countries—not what the rich should do for the poor, but what all countries together should do for the global wellbeing of this generation and those to come (p, 2208).

It remains to be seen how far the SDGs can improve on the shortcomings of the MDGs and whether they will be achieved by the set date.

Thus, despite some recognition in higher levels of international organizations, focus on relationships between human rights and development had remained somewhat marginal from the 1950s to the 1980s. However, during the 1990s, human rights moved from the margins of development policy to the very center (Lwelyne, 2007). This shift was influenced by several factors, including the end of the Cold War, the evolution of the NGO and women's rights movements, and the reform of the UN. Coupled with continued criticism of neoliberal models pushed by the World Bank and IMF, and the ongoing search for more effective ways to alleviate poverty, these factors eventually resulted in the rise of what is today termed rights-based approaches to development. In the next section I will review the implications of adopting rights-based approaches.

D. Implications of a Rights-Based Approach to Programing

1. Universality and Equality

A rights-based approach involves the principle of non-discrimination and equality. With this is the requirement to apply all programs and activities to all social groups, particularly the most marginalized, regardless of gender or ethnicity (Theis, 2003; Ziwa, 2014)? Specifically, programs are required to direct priority attention towards those suffering discrimination and disadvantage in any given context, especially the poorest of the poor. For instance, those suffering multiple discriminations such as rural women and children belonging to an ethnic minority must be prioritized (OHCHR, 2006). An important first step to promote equity is to support mechanisms that disaggregate data to make excluded groups visible as different groups

of people are affected differently by policies and practices based on their difference (Theis, 2003). Theis (2003) further insists that:

To make excluded groups visible, disaggregate all data by gender, age, disability, ethnicity, wealth or other relevant differences. Analyze how laws, policies, programs and services affect different groups of people. Analyze budgets and expenditures by categories of people (gender, age, wealth categories, etc.) to show inequalities in resource allocations (p. 9).

2. Participation

When undertaking an RBA, participation becomes both a means and a goal of development. The principle of participation means that ‘every person and all peoples are entitled to participate in, contribute to, and enjoy civil, economic, social and political development’ (Declaration on the Right to Development, 1986, Article 1). And according to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), it also means that ‘all people are entitled to participate in society to the maximum of their potential’ (ICCPR, Article 25). As opposed to the need-based approach, the RBA calls for broad-based participation of communities, civil society, minority groups, local peoples and children at all stages of the development process (Ziwa, 2014; Schmitz, 2012, Ljungman, 2004). Participation requires that people are recognized as key actors in their own development, rather than passive recipients of services (Berman, 2008; UNICEF, 2004).

3. Networking

A rights-based approach entails networking and collaboration where stakeholders work effectively to form an intersectoral response to the political and social contexts of issues. By networking, policies can be influenced effectively in collaboration with other groups with common rights-based goals (Mayhew, et al., 2006; Blanchet-Cohen et al., 2014; Theis, 2003).

4. Accountability

rights-based approach calls for development actors to be responsible and accountable to those whom they serve (Harris-Curtis, et al., 2005). It also requires that the government, as the legitimate and main duty bearer, take responsibility for people's lives and that it is accountable by undertaking transparent processes and hearing people's views and responding adequately to those views. Accountability mechanisms exist at the international, national and local level to monitor compliance and support governments in fulfilling their human rights obligations (Gruskin, Bogecho, Ferguson, 2012; Ljungman, 2004). According to Theis (2003), rights-based approaches aim to strengthen accountability of governments through: 1) changes in policies, laws and programs; 2) more effective enforcement of laws against rights violations; 3) increased allocations of budgets and resources for poor, marginalized and at-risk people on all levels; 4) changes in awareness, attitudes, behaviors, practices, norms and values; 5) improvements in the quality and responsiveness of institutions and services; 6) an economy that enables rights (such as funding social services, monitoring budget allocations, etc.); 7) greater participation of right holders in decisions and claiming their rights; and 8) better data about people and their rights.

The World Health Organization (2014) notes other ways by which organizations can address state accountability such as: ratification of treaties and incorporation of standards in domestic law; judicial and quasi-judicial mechanisms (e.g. court rulings, constitutional reviews, national human rights commissions or ombudspersons); administrative and policy mechanisms such as reviews of policies and strategies, audits, and human rights impact assessments; political mechanisms, e.g. parliamentary processes; and reporting on human rights treaties that incorporate the rights of children.

At the level of an organization, there is an increasing recognition that NGOs too, have a responsibility to account to those whom they serve. At a basic level, accountability involves sharing information and reporting on activities. This is mainly because for people to demand their rights, they have to know what they are entitled to. Access to information and transparency are critical to ensure that services are delivered and standards met both for the government and NGOs (Blanchet-Cohen, 2014; Harris-Curtis, et al., 2005; Theis, 2003)

5. Engagement with International and National Policies and Laws

At the heart of the RBA, is the requirement for organizations to reference and use international and national human rights treaties and policies. Organizations are therefore required to ensure that all work is based on human rights standards and in the case of children, there is a clear focus on children and their rights in problem statements, program goals, strategies and outcomes (Theis, 2003). Hausermann (1999) sees the human rights legal framework as the “alpha and omega” of an RBA. This generally implies that programming and implementation is done on the basis of promotion and protection of human rights as set out in international treaties, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child and its two Optional Protocols, Millennium Development Goals and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC). Organizations also can engage in human rights monitoring and reporting (e.g. using the concluding observations of the CRC Committee to identify program priorities), human rights education and training to raise awareness of human rights, and implementation of the National Plans of Action for Children. Other strategies can include supporting people and institutions to demand children’s rights, fight discrimination and promote equity and inclusion of all children (Theis, 2003; Harris-Curtis, et al., 2005).

C. Adopting Rights-Based Approaches in Developing Countries

The notions of rights-based approaches have to a large extent disseminated to developing countries through the works of Northern NGOs and their field offices in the South (The UK Interagency Group on Human Rights-based Approaches, 2007; Kindornay, 2012).¹¹The literature devotes attention to the experiences of these “early adopters” in their field offices in the South. For instance, Schmitz’ (2012) work is based on a meta-evaluation of the work of Plan International and its partner organizations in more than a dozen countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, and Latin America. In this study, Schmitz finds that the implementation of RBA in Plan as well as in other NGOs remains a work in progress and the impact on the lives of poor communities remains difficult to establish. A review by Braunholtz-Speight, et al. (2008) on the operationalization of DFID’s Human Rights Framework in four developing countries, shows somewhat similar conclusions that there is little evidence of the extent to which country offices of the DFID integrate international human rights frameworks into their work.

Banerjee’s (2005) work is a collection of case studies of lessons learned from the application of rights-based approaches in the Asia-Pacific region by UNDP. Similarly, Ziwa (2014) conducted a qualitative study of the operationalization of the rights-based approach using ActionAid Malawi as a case study. In this study, the author found that the implementation of the

¹¹Talk of rights in development may be new among international agencies. But struggles for the realization of social, economic, and cultural, as well as civil and political rights have long been a feature of the political landscape in developing countries. One of the earliest sites of such movements for instance, was in Latin America where ideas of human rights have played a central part in the struggle for development, social justice, and peace. In conflicts and political repression, Freirians and liberation theologians conceived of development as a popular movement for social justice. Land Rights NGOs were at the forefront of mobilizing communities to engage in the struggles for rights to land (See Nyamu-Musembi, 2004; Slim, 2002).

approach in Malawi “did not lead to a radical transformation in power relations among development actors”. In her final analyses, Ziwa recommends that for effective poverty reduction, development actors must consider “blending RBA with other approaches to address immediate needs of the right-holders” (p. VI).

A 2009 report from the German Institute for Human Rights, GTZ and the German Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Planning, shows the implementation of a rights-based approach at the national level in Kenya. Through the support of the German government, the Kenyan government adopted a “human right to water as its guiding framework for the harmonization of donor activities in the Kenyan water sector” (p. 72). The report shows the extent to which the reform, through the support of the donor community, managed to mainstream human rights standards and principles as the guiding framework, opened the water sector to civil society participation, and mainstreamed gender and women’s representation in the water sector.

A more general review by Wing (2012) analyzes the reform of Women’s Laws in Africa from a rights-based perspective and the role that paralegal organizations play in bridging local and international human rights norms. In this analysis, Wing shows that from the early 1990s, women’s rights NGOs have played crucial roles in advancing the rights of women in different parts of Africa through legislation reform. In 2001 NGOs in Kenya pushed for raising the age of marriage for girls from the age of 16 to 18 and in 2006 Zimbabwe passed a Domestic Violence Act that forbids the customary marriage of girls under the age of 16 (Wing, 2012). While this work is able to analyze the progress made in the advancement of formal rights for women, it lacks a systematic inquiry into the factors that enabled these organizations to attain these results. It is also not clear the extent to which their work was based on a rights-based framework. Secondly Wing notes that there is a huge gap between “law-in-the-books and law in practice”

which indicates that there are factors that go beyond the organizations in accounting for the totality of achievement of the organizations.

Ako et al.'s (2013), Molyneux and Lazar's (2003) and Llewelyn's (2007) studies are somewhat different in that they look at the experience of local NGOs in translating human rights frameworks in Ghana, South America and Fiji, respectively. Ako et al.'s (2013) work is a case study of BelimWusa Development Agency (BEWDA), a local NGO working for women's rights, showing how it shifted its programs from economic empowerment work through extending microcredit to women, to an emphasis on rights. The study establishes that this shift was linked to receiving funding from ActionAid, an early adopter of RBA from the North. Similarly, Molyneux and Lazar interviewed various NGO representatives in South America to assess the extent to which they were incorporating human rights framework into their work. Molyneux and Lazar's (2003) final assessment is probably best captured in their explanation that "the rights embodied in UN conventions and declarations often seem remote from the daily lives of those who most stand to benefit from them, namely the excluded and the poor" (p. 2).

Llewelyne (2007) conducted a qualitative study of how local NGOs in Fiji understand and use human rights for development as well as the challenges surrounding the use of human rights at the local level. In her work, she finds that while NGO representatives were aware of the rights-based approach, they were also experiencing several challenges. The most significant challenges noted in her work were the gaps between human rights and development organizations and resistance to human rights on cultural grounds. However, this literature does little to look at the factors that influence the adoption of rights-based approaches.

D. Human Rights and Local NGO's in the South

Local Nongovernmental organizations in developing countries play an important role in the adoption and translation of international norms. These often are seen as providing the site on which global norms meet local contexts. Over time, the role and function of NGOs have changed depending on donor and state relations. For example, during the colonial period, local NGOs in developing countries were usually restricted to service delivery and welfare provision, with any broader political role being strongly discouraged by colonial authorities (Boli & Thomas, 1999). However, in the independence era many local NGOs did become politicized through their involvement in independence movements (Lwelyne, 2007). This political role was furthered with post-colonialism, when many NGOs evolved and diversified in response to local and global development themes and local concerns, including those of women's rights, indigenous rights, environmental and health issues (Ahmed & Potter, 2006).

From the early 1990s onwards, local NGOs, like their international counterparts, played an increasingly important role as agents of development and received increasing amounts of direct donor support (Eade, 2000). This new role was influenced by neoliberal development policy, in which privatization of public services led to a focus on the non-state sector for service delivery (Ahmed & Potter, 2006; Whaites, 2000). Within this political climate, channeling donor funds through local and international NGOs was seen as a more efficient means of reaching the poor than the direct funding of recipient states which had previously been the norm (Lwelyne, 2007).

Although the amount of donor funding that goes to NGOs for direct service provision has declined in the recent years, local NGOs have remained a vital link in international development. Local NGOs have continued to function as intermediaries, translating ideas generated by the

global development community into local contexts (Merry, 2006). Some criticize this role, arguing that due to their reliance on donor funding, local NGOs are little more than contemporary manifestations of nineteenth century missionary movements, spreading a western version of wellbeing and truth (Anderson & Rieff, 2005) as well as remaining “apolitical” on issues of national interest (Merz, 2012) or, even, serving as the “new compradors¹²” (Hearn, 2007). Others see them as aiding in the colonization of poor countries as quoted in the *New African* (2005):

In the days of old-fashioned colonialism, the metropolitan powers sent their officials to live in Africa and directly run the colonies. Today they do so indirectly through NGOs (*New African*, 2005, p. 12).

An alternative view suggests that local NGOs have more agency than this view allows (Hilhorst, 2003; Tvedt, 1998; Wallace, Bornstein, & Chapman, 2006). They agree that local NGOs work within development systems and are guided by development theories which “are not determined by the internal characteristics of different cultures” (Tvedt, 1998, p. 229). Yet, they argue that local NGOs translate these systems and theories into specific cultural contexts, rather than simply applying them uncritically.

The intermediary position between global ideas and local contexts allows local NGOs to make connections between formal human rights frameworks and what “makes rights become substantive in terms of people’s actual experiences” (Pettit & Wheeler, 2005, p. 6). While it was beyond the purview of this study to uncover the local community experiences, it has however shown that rights-based approaches are understood very differently at the local NGO level and

¹²The term comes from Portuguese meaning buyer or commercial go-betweens.

that small NGOs adopt different parts of the rights-based approaches that are most salient with the local community needs and program objectives.

E. Adopting Rights-Based Approaches in Tanzania

In a workshop presentation, one of the leading NGO activists from Tanzania was quoted in early 2000 acknowledging that Tanzania NGOs were “rights blind, and “needs” focused” (Harris-Curtis, 2003, p. 562). However, a study by Dublin City University in 2005 showed that the civil society in Tanzania, largely due to donor preferences, is shifting its work from “direct service provision towards advocacy and other forms of policy engagement” (p.17). With this shift is an overall belief that NGOs in Tanzania, like other developing countries, are pursuing rights agendas handed to them by Western countries. These sentiments are well summarized in the following statement by Shivji:

We are funded by, and we rely almost exclusively on foreign funding. This is the single limitation. “Whoever pays the piper calls the tune” still holds true however much we may want to think otherwise. In many direct and subtle ways, those who fund us determine or place limits on our agenda or reorient them (Shivji, 2007, p.54)

This statement notwithstanding, many organizations are now more or less including rights language and advocacy strategies in their work. The ongoing constitution review process in Tanzania which started in 2011 has, to a large extent, catalyzed NGOs to engage in the mobilization of their constituents to demand the inclusion of their interests in the revised constitution. Maina (2014) reviewed NGOs involvement in the ongoing constitution review process in Tanzania and established that NGO’s engagement has mainly been within their areas of interest such as natural resources, land rights, human rights, children’s rights, women’s rights, good governance etc. Maina’s work takes a legalistic view, focusing on the works of the Legal and Human Rights Center (LHRC). It also looks at the transitional period of the constitution

review which may not tell us the extent to which these organizations have reoriented their programmatic framework.

Kelsall (2003) was one of the earliest to empirically look at the application of a rights-based approach at the local level using World Vision's Empowerment Model in Northern Tanzania. In this study, Kelsall revealed the ambiguities of the ideas of empowerment and participatory development in rural communities. More precisely, he found that the empowerment approach worked to empower community elites who benefited either directly or indirectly from the projects. The poor in the community remained unaffected and uninvolved in the project processes (Kelsall, 2003).

F. Challenges of Actualizing Rights

The extent to which rights-based approaches offer a better alternative to needs based approaches in improving the lives of people is a subject of intense debate and criticism. Hausserman (1998) argues that "It is much easier to refer to human rights approach in policy statements than to use in practice" (p.3). To date, there is little or no systematic evidence about the actual impact of the approach on poverty, exclusion or discrimination (Schmitz, 2012). Key academics remain skeptical about the transformative power of rights-based approaches. One of the academics, Paul Gready, notes that it remains to be seen "whether rights-based approaches will truly deliver their promise" (2008, p. 745). There is also no consensus among the donor community and a few significant organizations including USAID have never adopted a rights-based approach (Schmitz, 2012).

Indeed, the literature is replete with challenges related to the rights-based approach. To this end Llwellyn-Fowler (2007) has grouped the challenges into four main categories:

conceptual, political, cultural and operational. *Conceptual* challenges relate to the understanding of human rights and development, and the understanding of human rights and rights-based approaches. *Political* challenges relate both to local and international political factors such as danger which may surround human rights advocacy and donor unease around activities that challenge the economic and social status quo. *Cultural* challenges relate to resistance to human rights which may occur on the grounds of culture, such as the perception that human rights are an individualistic, western imposition. *Operational* challenges relate to practical factors which may constrain the use of human rights for development, such as funding problems, difficulties measuring results for monitoring and evaluation purposes and the adequacy of local legal systems for claiming rights (p. 11).

In their work on assessing the transformative power of the rights-based approach, Ako et al., (2013) find that the struggles for human rights were only impactful at the local level while “the bigger picture of structural constraints and dominant power relations remained largely unchallenged” (p.46). Similar findings are reflected in Ziwa’s (2014) qualitative study on *ActionAid’s* operationalization of the human rights-based approach in Malawi. Ziwa notes that contrary to the assumptions of the RBA, project implementation was still heavily top-down and that the RBA did not lead to “radical transformation of power relations among development actors” (p.vi).

Some scholars have also questioned the claims of universality, arguing that human rights doctrine is a product of the west and is not so readily transplanted to settings with other cultures. Moreover, in the field of child rights, there is a call for context-specific understandings of child rights and the consideration of African conceptions of childhood (e.g. Midgley, 2006; Kaime, 2009a, 2009b; Osei-Hwedie & Rankopo, 2008; Rankopo & Osei-Hwedie, 2011; Hessle, 2011;

Ochen, et al. 2012) which are often different from western conceptions. The failure for the RBA to make real changes in the lives of people and in power relations, further emboldens skeptics who assert that human rights-and the rights-based approach is an ideology in the service of western hegemony (Anghie, 2004; Kennedy, 2002) that bears disturbing resemblance to colonial-era rhetoric (Rupcic, 2012) and a part of the “donor agenda” (Bradshaw, 2006, p.1329).For instance Tsikata (2004) notes that while the World Bank embraces the language of rights it still continues to push for the privatization of essential services in several African countries and “is engaged in land reforms which expand the access to land of trans-national corporations, rejecting that these policies would further impoverish poor households and their members” (p.7).To Uvin (2002), the rights-based approach is nothing short of the extension of the liberalization agenda exported to the developing world. Uvin (2002) states that “the powerful and the rich have voluntarily set out to collaborate and redefine the conditions of misery and exploitation for the rest of the world” (p.1). Writing on the adoption of the rights-based approach at the national level in Malawi, Banick (2010) notes that politicians and bureaucrats saw the RBA as forcibly imposed on their country rather than being formulated on the basis of local knowledge and national discourses and processes (p. 47).

On another level, rights-based work provides a number of challenges when it comes to measuring achievement and outcome. Unlike welfare or service delivery organizations, rights-based organizations are working for changes in structures and systems—a redistribution of power. The outputs of service delivery organizations are concrete and tangible; it is easier to set performance measures. “For economic and social rights organizations, the problem of measuring performance is complicated by the question of who is making the change” (Offenheiser & Holcombe, 2001, p. 22).

Indeed, conceptual confusion over what, precisely, “rights-based” thinking means is one more reason that NGOs encounter problems of measuring the impact of rights-based work (Bradshaw, 2006). Although many donors and NGOs adhere to similar rights-based principles, there are many different interpretations of what it means in practice. For example, a UNESCO review of rights-based programming in the Asia-Pacific region found a wide variety of strategies. Some actors relied on social and interest group mobilization, while others took legal and quasi-legal approaches (Kindornay, 2012). Analysts have begun to identify some of the differences across RBA frames being used. One of these is Schmitz (2012) who distinguishes between “populist (ActionAid), campaign-driven (Oxfam), legalist (Save the Children), and community-focused versions (Plan)” (p.529).

G. Theoretical Perspectives

Dealing with the adoption of rights-based approaches within social work requires a consideration of perspectives from both the innovation adoption literature and social development perspectives. The following is a review of key ideas of social development and innovation adoption perspectives and how they relate to rights-based approaches.

1. Social Development Perspectives

Social development perspectives in social work emerged more than fifty years ago as a somewhat distinctive approach to addressing human needs and enhancing human well-being in the Global South (Midgley, 2003). It rose at a time when the struggle for independence from European imperial domination was gathering momentum in colonial countries. However, it wasn't until the 1970s and 1980s that social development perspectives and developmental social work perspectives started to diffuse across the world. Early theoretical developments were

facilitated by the establishment of the Inter-University Consortium for International Social Development, later renamed International Consortium for Social Development (ICSD). The main goal of the consortium was to introduce social development perspectives to American social workers (Midgley, 2010). With the rapid expansion of the nongovernmental sector in the Global South, social development is now widely associated with community based activities managed by local people or by nongovernmental organizations.

Within social work, social development perspectives sit within a broad family of empowerment and strengths-based perspectives emphasizing human rights, agency and community participation. It is also closely affiliated with structural social work which seeks to address discrimination through advocacy within the given political and organizational arena (Davis 1991, cited in Mullaly, 2007) and changing existing structures that perpetuate inequality (Mullaly, 2007).

Social development seeks empowering rather than remedial solutions that originally defined social work as a profession. By adopting a social development approach, social work recognizes its core contribution in addressing social issues from a human rights perspective; targeting vulnerable groups such as women and children within a broader development context (Twikirize, 2014).

Described as the leading authority in social development perspectives in social work, Midgley (2010) asserts that social development and developmental social work in general, have the following key features:

1. Both emphasize client strengths and the importance of empowerment and require that those served receive tangible social investments that enhance their capabilities and facilitate their participation in community life.

2. Both emphasize community-based practice interventions. Developmental social workers believe that their clients can best be served within their communities as opposed to residential care facilities or in any other settings that remove them from their environment.
3. For both, the process is participatory as opposed to traditional social work practice striving to raise awareness and self-determination.
4. Both emphasize that economic development goals be combined with social goals. Unlike the models that emphasize economic development alone, social development perspectives assume that inclusive, and therefore meaningful, development occurs when pure economic growth goals are taken in conjunction with social goals.
5. In general, social development perspectives are committed to rights-based approaches and to wider social goals such as democratic participation and egalitarian social justice. The rights-based approach has infused social development discourse with the language of human rights and helped to define the goals of social development, and facilitated the implementation of social development policies and programs.
6. For both, social development workers collaborate with progressive organizations and groups and use their lobbying and advocacy skills to contribute to the achievement of these goals.
7. And finally, both social developmental and developmental social work rely extensively on sharing international innovations. As its history shows, the field has been largely shaped by international exchanges and eclectic sharing of ideas. These exchanges are today increasingly reciprocal and mutually beneficial and challenge the previous practice of uncritically replicating Western theories and practice interventions (Gray, 2005). Such

exchanges have contributed to an acceleration of the flow of ideas between Western and Non-Western social work practitioners, and vast flows from international development organizations.

2. Innovation Adoption

A number of theoretical perspectives have been used to explain the behavior of organizations and their ability and willingness to adopt novel working practices (Anderson & McAdam, 2006; Mason, 2004). Innovation Adoption perspectives may be helpful in developing a conceptual framework of factors that influence the adoption of rights-based approaches. A rights-based approach is an innovation. At the organizational level, an innovation is defined as the adoption of a new product, service, process, technology, policy, structure or administrative system. The adoption of innovation essentially means that the innovation is new to the adopting agency and that it seeks to derive benefits from changes that the innovation is expected to bring to the organization (Angle & Van De Ven, 2000). The adoption of innovation can be a direct result of managerial choice or can be imposed by external conditions (Damanapour & Schneider, 2006).

A classical innovation theory posits that adoption starts with the recognition that a need exists and moves to searching for solutions, then to the initial decision to attempt the adoption of a solution, and finally to the actual decision to attempt to proceed with the implementation of the solution (Damanpour & Schneider 2006; Gallivan 2001; Mendel et al. 2008). Greenhalgh et al. (2004) characterize the adoption process as three stages: preadoption (e.g., awareness of innovation), peri-adoption (e.g., continuous access to innovation information), and established adoption (e.g., adopters' commitment to the adoption decision). Alternatively, Frambach and

Schillewaert (2002) discussed two stages associated with adoption: the organization's decision to pursue adoption and the staff's acceptance and initiation of their individual processes of accepting the innovation. Adoption will either move to initial implementation activities or revert to preadoption (Frambach and Schillewaert 2002; Gallivan 2001). Other studies have looked at factors intrinsic to the innovation being adopted.

It is useful to note here that innovation adoption studies have mainly been applied in business and engineering fields (Fyvie & Ager, 1999). Some researchers have argued that the application of innovation adoption concepts in development is often questionable (Schumacher, 1999). While classical innovation adoption thinking might suggest that individuals within organizations are "rational actors who weigh out the cost and benefits of innovations" (Raugh, 2010, pp.31), this notion is not compatible with development work in the south. This is mainly because innovation adoption within development rarely moves through such linear stages. In addition, development work takes place within contexts that are defined by resource dependency and conflicting political values (Raugh, 2010). Under such contexts rational processes of innovation adoption become complicated and even unrealistic. Thus, for NGOs in the south, and human service organizations in general, there is little incentive to experiment in a neat and linear manner as innovation adoption theorists suggest. While useful, it is beyond the scope of this study to untangle the uniqueness of adoption of rights-based approaches from general innovation adoption.

The literature shows us that whatever the source of influence for adopting an innovation, innovation adoption perspectives can be categorized into two: those that focus largely on the external environment and those that focuses on organizational internal environment. The latter are also referred to as institutional factors (Mamman & Bakuwa, 2012; Bakuwa & Mamman,

2012). My study used this External/Internal theorization to develop a conceptual framework of factors that relate to the adoption of rights-based approaches by nongovernmental organizations working on children's rights in Tanzania.

3. Organizational Theory

Organizational theorists assume that factors internal to the organization are influential in the decision and ability to adopt new practices and policies at the organizational level (Daft, 2004). Internal factors such as actions of management, attitudes toward change, and perceptions of the external environment are also prominent factors that influence the extent to which organizations adopt new practices and policies (Mason, 2004). These internal factors are often controllable and discretionary to the organization and its top executives (Damanpour & Scheneider, 2006). Organizations, according to this perspective, actively choose strategies to maintain organizational autonomy and power within their environments (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, cited in Raugh, 2010). In spite of the recognition of the influence of internal and external factors on the adoption of practices at the organizational level (Plipat, 2005; Mamman & Bakuwa, 2012), we lack specific information about how these would apply within the context of child rights, particularly at the NGO level in Tanzania.

4. Institutional Theory

Institutional theorists on the other hand, assume that organizations rely on the external environment for their inputs (Goodstein, 1994; Teo et al., 2003). Thus, organizations seek approval and legitimacy for their behaviors. In other words, an organization is subject to pressure to conform. Such conformity facilitates acceptance and legitimacy which in turn contributes to organizational success and survival (Mamman & Bakuwa, 2012; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983).

At the global level, human rights are seen as an important issue by many development agencies and governments. At the national level, policies and perceptions of human rights as well as the legal environment to support human rights, have significant influence on the implementation of rights-based approaches (UNICEF, 2012).

To institutional theorists an understanding of organizations and management practices is a social rather than an economic endeavor. The key idea in the theory is that the adoption and retention of many organizational practices are often more dependent on social pressures for conformity and legitimacy than on performance (Kessler, 2013). The foregoing literature would therefore indicate that the widespread adoption of rights-based approaches by local organizations is largely a product of pressure to emulate international development norms rather than a rational decision based on its effectiveness to improve the wellbeing of people in developing countries. Within innovation adoption, this is often referred to as *diffusion*. Diffusion holds that new practices are often adopted by organizations not because of their technical outcomes but because they resonate with social and community values.

Institutional theorists' ideas are also rested on what is referred to as rational myths. Emanating from a paper published in 1977 *Institutional Organizations: Formal Structures as Myth and Ceremony*, Meyer and Rowan argued that organizations exist in social contexts in which the rules of behavior are defined not by economic rationality but by prevailing myths about what constitutes a successful organization.

Another important concept is the idea of *legitimacy*. According to institutional theorists, organizations adhere to rational myths and adopt common practices out of a desire to appear to be legitimate. The central assumption being that organizations improve their chances of survival by conforming to commonly held expectations of what a successful organization should appear

to be (Scott, 2008). Organizations that appear to be legitimate are more likely to access resources than organizations that do not appear to be legitimate. Such ideas are important to help to explore the extent to which adoption of rights-based approaches is only a means of acquiring legitimacy for local NGOs in Tanzania.

Isomorphism describes the tendency for organizations to want to conform to an institutional environment by adopting structures, practices and behaviors similar to other leading organizations. Organizations that share a common social field are subject to similar institutional pressures and over time become similar to each other.

H. Factors Associated with Adopting Rights-Based Approaches

In the following section I review factors that have been found to influence adoption of rights-based approaches in particular, and innovation adoption, in general. While I was able to identify only one study that specifically looked at adoption of rights-based approaches, studies that have looked at adoption of other innovations are also reviewed. Plipat's (2005) work is unique because it specifically assesses factors that influence adoption of rights-based approaches. He finds that at least six factors are useful predictors for adoption of rights-based approaches. These include, NGO's source of revenue, NGO's association with religious organizations, number of members in an NGO network or family, having supportive leadership, and the working method before adopting rights-based approaches. The following is a review of these and other factors relevant to children's rights as identified in the literature. The number of members in a network or family and the working method were not included as they were considered to be constants and not relevant to this study as the NGOs being studied already belonged to a network (TCRF) and had a common working method (advocating child rights).

1. NGO's Source of Funding

Research suggests that the source of NGO's funding is directly related to the likelihood of adopting RBAs (Plipat, 2005; Kindornay, 2012; REPOA, 2007). Indeed, most funding from western donors usually comes with a "human rights-based conditionality" (D'Hollander, Marx & Wouters, 2013, p.17). However, even among the donor community, variations exist with some donors preferring to use the human rights conditionality more than others. For instance, Plipat (2005) established that NGOs that were being funded by European and Australian donors were much more likely to adopt RBAs than those funded by American donors. As in many developing countries, in Tanzania foreign donors have had a significant impact on the formation of modern civil society. This is most evident among registered NGOs, of which about 90% are funded from foreign sources (Haapanen, 2007). According to a study conducted by the Dublin City University in 2007, the formation of nongovernmental organizations in Tanzania coincided with a period of major donor interest in funding civil society in Tanzania. However, this funding usually comes with conditions that receiving organizations adopt certain methods and address certain causes that are supported by the donor. Thus, the activities of most organizations reflect the priority of the donor agendas and funding streams (DCU, 2005). More specifically, the same study establishes that donor preferences are "pushing civil society organizations away from direct service provision towards advocacy and other forms of civic engagement" (DCU, 2005, p.17). While the funding sources are variable, external funders can generally be categorized into two major groups in Tanzania: those from Europe and Australia on the one hand, and those from the United States of America on the other. Research has suggested that these funders differ in terms of the extent to which they support rights-based approaches. For instance, USAID, one of the biggest donors to Tanzania, has not adopted the RBA to date (Schmitz, 2012).

2. Religious Association

Association with secular or religious organizations has been shown to influence the extent to which NGOs adopt RBAs. Pliapat (2005) for example, finds that NGOs that are faith-based are less likely to be rights-based compared to non-religiously affiliated ones. However, this evidence is inconclusive as some scholars have found that religious association does not predict RBA adoption (Harris-Curtis, 2003). Some faith-based organizations such as Norwegian Church Aid and World Vision have programs that affirm the rights of children. In addition, in the 50th anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Christian AID affirmed the rights of all people as “made in the image of God” (McGee, et al., 1998).

A Joint Position Paper by the Rights and Development Group (2008) titled *Rights-based Development from a Faith-based Perspective*, describes the relationship between rights and development as being “positive but ambiguous”. This indicates the tension that persists between the moral supports of the principles of rights-based approach such as empowerment, participation, accountability and networking, on the one hand, and the desire for faith based agencies to remain isolated from political processes that come with adopting rights-based approaches, on the other. Religious notions of “serving the poor” (Harris-Curtis, 2003) make it difficult for some faith-based organizations to adopt an advocacy approach that does not go hand-in-hand with direct material provision.

3. Geographical Location

Where an NGO is located has been found to influence the extent to which it adopts RBAs with urban based NGOs being more likely to adopt RBAs than those in rural areas (REPOA, 2007; Kindornay, 2012). Urban based NGOs have greater access to information and resources

compared to those in semi-urban or rural areas. Urban based NGOs also have better access to trained personnel who can take on complex works of advocacy and information analysis, and have better access to policy makers who are mainly based in urban areas. For most developing countries, poverty, while widespread, is predominantly a rural phenomenon. This makes the demand for concrete services in rural areas more important than advocacy and rights programming (REPOA, 2007).

4. Community Perceptions of Rights

The social context in which the NGOs operate is a useful predictor of their extent of policy adoption. One aspect of this context is societal norms and attitudes, defined as “implicit or explicit societal rules governing behavior” (Moser & Norton, 2001, p.22). This view is reinforced for instance in cases where international human rights law and national statutory codes theoretically may give children protections against abuse (e.g. corporal punishment, child labor etc.) while societal norms deny or are silent on these rights. In their study, Ako, et al. (2013) found that traditional cultures and authorities presented a barrier for local NGOs to implement rights-based approaches in Ghana owing to the local chief’s resistance to women’s rights. They further note that such resistance extended beyond influential men to the “beliefs and attitudes that underpin social norms and practice” (p.66). Singh (2013) further notes the significance of these norms which he classifies into three sets: first, knowledge rooted in local-cultural context; second, will of the right-holders to adopt the new interventions; and third, the systemic conditions within existing traditional social institutions that bring possibilities and constraints with respect to the realization of the right (Singh, 2013).

Indeed, despite the widespread ratification of the UN Convention of the Child, many difficulties with implementation have arisen. A major question has centered on whether rights are universal or culturally bound. The UNCRC's conception of child rights has been challenged particularly in non-western cultures (Llwyne-Fowler, 2007). In some cultures, it may be difficult for individuals to imagine that children have rights apart from their parents and adult members of their community (Cherney et al., 2008). In these cultures, the links to family and the local community might be considered to be of greater importance than the child's right to self-determination. For instance, Ben-Arieh et al., (2006) shows that attitudes toward child rights are strongly affected by one's ethnicity, nationality and culture.

5. NGO Perception of National Policy/Legal Framework

Whether organizations perceive the policy and legal environment as being supportive to achieving their goals is crucial to determine the extent to which they will adopt rights-based approaches. One of the most significant institutional factors compelling organizations to adopt new working arrangements is the threat of litigation or the withdrawal of goodwill from government or the wider community (Abrahamson, 1991; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Ako et al. (2013) show how the work of local NGO promoting women's rights in Ghana found itself in a web of legal and institutional barriers that impeded the full realization of women's rights. The authors document that awareness-raising on issues of women's rights, such as rights to inheritance, to own property and to participate in decision making, were often not welcomed by the rulers and community leaders who relied on Customary Law that did not recognize the equality of men and women to inherit (Ako et al., 2013). In the area of child rights, national or

international policy frameworks on children fall within this category of institutional forces that can influence organizations to adopt rights-based approaches.

6. Supportive Leadership

Research has shown that supportive leadership is one of the most important internal factors influencing organizational behavior such as the adoption of new working policies (Dichter & Aulick, 2013; Mamman & Bakuwa, 2012). Leadership influence on the adoption of new approaches can be demonstrated through such means as the allocation of sufficient financial and human resources to support new policies, worker motivation, selecting champions within the organization to lead change, and workforce training to acquire needed skills for a new way of working. Other leadership factors include, leadership instilling a spirit of team work and cooperation among the staff, and leading by example (Okorley & Nkrumah, 2012). By and large managerial leadership has been shown to hold the key to the success and survival of nongovernmental organizations today (Kusi-Appiah, 2006; VanSant, 2003).

7. Staff Capacity

Offenheiser and Holcombe (2001) note that staff are the essential resource in a rights-based organization. Research has also highlighted the influence of employees as determinants of organizational receptivity to innovations (Mamann & Bakuwa, 2012; Huczynki, 1993; Taylor & MacAdam, 2004). It is therefore likely that staff expertise around child rights will influence the extent to which NGOs adopt rights-based approaches. However, other research, for example Mamann and Bakuwa (2012), has shown that not all expertise is useful. Rather, expertise that is relevant to the goals and mission of the organization may be helpful. In this regard for instance,

personnel well versed in child rights will be more receptive to rights-based programming than those without the relevant knowledge and skills.

E. Summary

The review of this literature has highlighted two decades of wide diffusion of the rights-based approach from the northern development organizations and its adoption in the global south. It has also shown that the rights agenda as it relates to children is a recent phenomenon emerging out of the human rights movement following the Second World War. This diffusion pushed by the developed nations of the north, has also been criticized by adopting countries of the south as being parochial and enforcing universalist thinking that is contested in collectivist societies. Not surprisingly, much of the literature on child rights is propagated by organizations that are firmly embedded in the international child rights framework, and for whom the universality of that rights framework is paramount. In addition, the rights-based ideas face a number of challenges that stem from conceptual confusion over what, precisely, “rights-based” means. Although many donors and NGOs claim to adhere to similar rights-based principles, there are many different interpretations of what it means in practice.

This literature also has a few shortcomings. The first is that most of this work is written from the perspective of western development workers or staff members of western founded NGOs with local field offices in the South. Despite operating locally (some registered locally as well), these NGOs are not entirely representative of the local NGO experience. Secondly most of this literature is anecdotal, coming from practitioners and internal development consultants often commissioned by the donors.

Using perspectives of social development and innovation adoption, this study sought to address gaps in the literature by examining the extent to which factors such as NGO's source of funding, having a supportive leadership, NGO's religious association, geographical location, staff capacity on child rights, NGO's perception of national policy/legal system, and community perceptions of child rights, influenced the extent to which local NGOs adopted rights-based approaches.

III. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

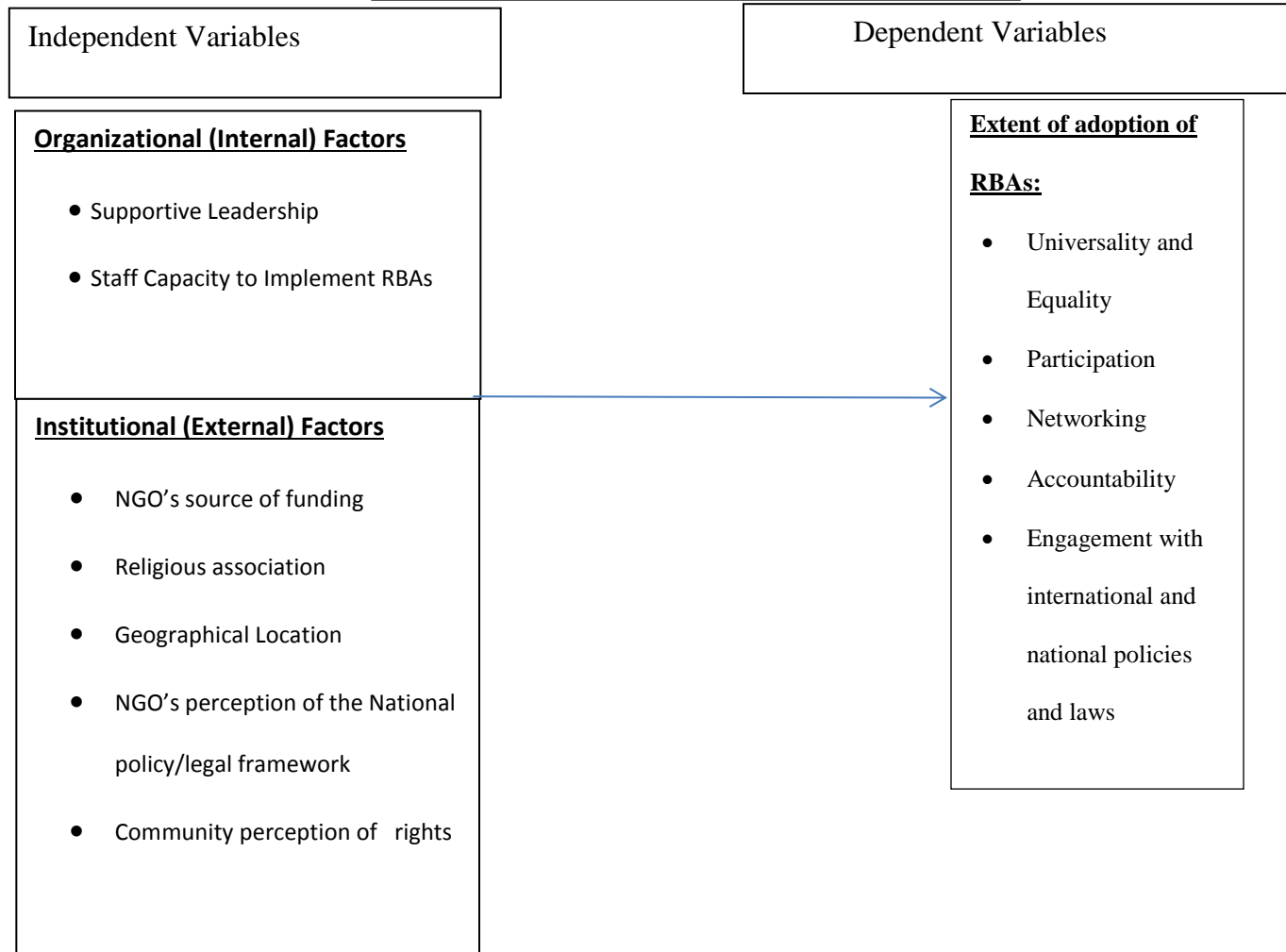
This chapter presents the conceptual framework that guided the study, as well as the research questions examined and the hypotheses tested in this study.

A. Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 provides a conceptual illustration of the internal and external factors influencing the adoption of rights-based approaches as derived from the reviewed literature. Following the perspectives drawn from institutional and organizational theories, the variables have been categorized into those that are internal to the organization (Organizational) and those that are external to the organization (Institutional).

The internal/organizational factors to be considered are: having a supportive leadership, and staff capacity. The external factors are: NGO's source of funding, religious association, geographical location, perception of national policy/legal framework, and community perceptions of rights. This framework was used to shape the selection of variables and the analysis plan. Suggested modifications of this conceptual framework and reinterpretation of hypotheses and theoretical perspectives are presented in the discussion chapter.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of the Study



B. Conceptual Definition of Variables

In the following section I provide conceptual definitions of the independent and dependent variables in the model.

1. Internal/Organizational Factors

Supportive Leadership is defined as the extent to which top leadership of the agency supports the implementation of rights-based approaches in the agency.

Staff Capacity is defined as the perceived capacity of staff members in an organization to implement rights-based approaches (UNICEF, 2012). NGO representatives were asked to rate their staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches.

2. External/Institutional Factors

NGO's Source of Funding is conceptually defined as the main sources of funding for NGO activities. In this study, NGOs were differentiated in terms of whether their main sources of funding are international or local (from within Tanzania) or from both international and local sources.

Religious Association refers to the NGO's affiliation with a religious organization. In this study, NGOs are differentiated in terms of whether or not they are associated with a religious organization (Plipat, 2005).

Geographical Location is defined as the place where an NGO is located. In this study, geographical location is defined as either urban or rural.

NGO Perception of National Policy/Legal Framework is defined as perception of the degree to which the national policy/legal framework supports or impedes the adoption of rights-based approaches. The national policy/legal framework is the aggregation of laws and policies

enacted by a country over time, plus the common law and customary laws which have been accumulated through judicial or traditional practice (Food and Agricultural Development Organization, nd.). In this study, NGO representatives were asked to rate the extent to which the policy and legal environment is conducive to advocating for children's rights.

Community Perception of Rights is defined as the local beliefs and practices with respect to children's rights (Singh, 2013). In this study, NGO representatives will be asked to rate the community's perception of the extent to which the community supports children's rights.

3. Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in this study are the NGO representative's assessments of the degree of adoption of a rights-based approach and each of the elements of a rights-based approach.

Universality and Equality is defined as the extent to which NGO programs are applied holistically to all young people regardless of gender or any other excluding characteristic (Blanchet-Cohen, 2014). In this study, respondents were asked to rate the degree to which their organization upholds this principle by ensuring that its programs are accessible to all children regardless of gender, class, social economic status or other differentiating mark and works to address all forms of discrimination in society.

Participation is defined as the extent to which the organization and its programs recognize program recipients as active agents and subjects of their own rights, placing an obligation on duty-bearers to give due consideration to young peoples' views (Blanchet-Cohen, 2014). More specifically for this study, participation is understood as the extent to which the organization ensures that children have access to information to ensure their participation, the

extent to which children are actively involved in relevant organization activities, as well as the organization's commitment to change attitudes and structures to support child participation.

Networking refers to the extent to which stakeholders work together to effectively form intersectoral responses to the political and social contexts of issues instead of developing narrow programming (Blanchet-Cohen, 2014). For this study, networking is seen in terms of the extent to which an organization works with other organizations to advocate for the rights of children.

Accountability refers to the extent to which duty-bearers meet their obligations to act in the best interest of young people (Blanchet-Cohen, 2014). In this study accountability is understood as the extent to which organizations work to hold the government accountable to meeting its obligations toward children. Accountability is also seen here in terms of the extent to which organizations themselves are accountable/ responsible to those that they serve.

Engagement with International and National Policies and Laws refers to the extent to which NGOs use and reference international and national human rights laws and standards to achieve their goals (Theis, 2003). More specifically in this study, engagement with international and national policies and laws implies the use and reference to international treaties and national laws and policies in the organization's programs for advocating the rights of children.

C. **Research Question and Hypotheses**

The main research question for this study was: To what extent does having a supportive leadership, NGO's staff capacity on child rights, NGO's source of funding, NGO's religious association, geographical location, perception of national policy/legal system, and community perceptions of child rights, influence the extent to which NGOs adopt rights-based approaches? I

tested seven related hypotheses based upon the conceptual framework for this study and prior research:

Hypothesis 1: NGO's with a supportive leadership will adopt RBAs to a greater extent than those with a less supportive leadership.

Hypothesis 2: NGOs staff capacity on rights-based approaches is associated with the extent of adoption of RBAs such that NGOs with staff with high capacity will adopt rights-based approaches to a greater extent.

Hypothesis 3: NGO's source of funding will be associated with the extent of adoption of RBAs such that NGOs receiving funding from outside donors will adopt rights-based approaches to a larger extent than those being funded by local donors

Hypothesis 4: NGO's that are associated with religious organizations will adopt rights-based approaches to a lesser extent than those unassociated with religious organizations.

Hypothesis 5: The extent of adoption of RBAs varies with the NGO's geographical location such that urban based NGOs will adopt rights-based approaches to a greater extent than rural NGOs.

Hypothesis 6: The extent of adoption of RBAs is related to the NGO's perception of national policy/legal framework for children such that NGOs that perceive the national policy/legal framework to be supportive of advocating for children's rights will adopt rights-based approaches to a greater extent

Hypothesis 7: The extent of adoption of RBAs is related to the community's perception of child rights such that NGOs in communities that are more supportive to child rights will adopt rights-based approaches to a greater extent.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology that guided this study. I first discuss the overall research design for the study. Next, I describe the methods that were used to address the research question and to test the study hypotheses.

A. Research Design

This study used a quantitative design to examine the relative importance of factors for adoption of rights-based approaches within the Tanzanian context. The approach consisted of an online survey of local NGOs working on child rights in Tanzania. These helped to describe the relative strength of association of each of the independent variables with the dependent variables (Extent of adoption of RBAs and each of the five elements of RBAs). A definition of a rights-based approach was displayed before respondents began the quantitative portion of the survey. Respondents were asked to use this definition as a point of reference when completing their ratings. This definition remained visible to the respondents for the remainder of the survey.

The study had one qualitative component, which asked survey respondents to provide a narrative description of their definition of a rights-based approach. Participants provided their narrative descriptions before beginning the quantitative portion of the survey and before the point of reference definition of a right based approach was displayed. These narrative responses were content analyzed to determine the degree of similarity or difference between the respondents' definitions of rights-based approaches and the definition used as a point of reference in the survey administered for this study.

B. Sampling Plan, Procedure, and Selection Criteria

Participants were recruited from the Tanzania Child Rights Forum (TCRF), a network of registered NGOs working to advocate for the rights of children in Tanzania. NGOs were eligible to participate if they were members of the TCRF and recognized as a local NGOs registered and operating locally in Tanzania. The survey was sent to the 110 organizations that were part of the TCRF. It was initially thought the Forum had around 114 member organizations but this number was revised as the list of organizations that was received from the coordinator had four duplicate organizations. The member organizations of the Forum are spread across different regions of mainland Tanzania and the Isles.

I followed Green's (1991) suggestion for determining the minimum number of subjects to undertake the statistical analysis I proposed with a minimum statistical power. Green's formula (i.e. $N \geq 50 + 8m$; where m = number of predictors) was used with eight independent variables (NGO's source of funding (coded as 2 dummy variables), supportive leadership, NGO's religious association, geographical location, staff capacity on child rights, NGO's perception of national policy/legal system, community perceptions of child rights). This power analysis revealed that a minimum sample size of 114 NGOs would be required to perform multivariate analyses with sufficient power if all independent variables were included in the equation. Realizing that it was clearly unrealistic to expect that all or nearly all members of the TCRF would participate in the survey, I planned to reduce the number of variables in multivariate analyses by including only those that were statistically associated with the dependent variables at the bivariate level. A number of strategies were employed to attempt to realize the largest possible sample size. These strategies are explained in detail in the data collection section. However, in the end, only 78 organizations responded to the survey.

C. Measurement

The data collection questionnaire was developed specifically for this study using literature that is relevant to rights-based approaches and one item from an adapted measure (See Appendix A). The questionnaire includes measures for each of the independent and dependent variables in this study. In this section I operationally define these variables and refer to the survey item number (s) corresponding to each variable. In the first section I provide operational definitions of internal (organizational) factors and external (institutional) factors. In the second section I provide operational definitions of the dependent variables.

1. Internal (Organizational) Factors

Supportive Leadership: The extent to which the leadership of the organization supports a rights-based approach was measured using three items adapted from Aarons, Ehrhart and Farahnak's (2014) Implementation Leadership Scale (ILS). The original ILS is a 12-item scale with four subscales representing proactive leadership, knowledgeable leadership, supportive leadership, and perseverant leadership. For the purposes of this research, the supportive leadership subscale was most appropriate. The original items of the subscale were (1) Supports employee efforts to use EBP, (2) Supports employee efforts to learn more about EBP and (3) Recognizes and appreciates employee efforts. These items were reworded for this study as (1) We support employees' efforts to use rights-based approaches (2) We support employees' efforts to learn more about rights-based approaches (3) We recognize and appreciate employee efforts toward successful implementation of rights-based approaches. These items were rated on a four-point ordinal scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*to a great extent*) (Survey items 10-12). The scale score was obtained by computing the means for participants who responded to all the three

items. Participants who did not respond to all three items were not included in the calculation of the scale score.

Staff Capacity: This was a single item measure. Staff capacity was defined as the respondent's perception of the extent to which the NGO's staff members are able to implement rights-based approaches. It was measured on a four-point ordinal scale where *1=Not capable*, *2=Barely capable*, *3= Capable*, *4= Highly capable* (Survey item 13).

2. External (Institutional) Factors

NGO's Source of funding was measured at the nominal level: 1=*International (outside Tanzania)* 2= *Internal (in Tanzania)* 3=both internal and international (Survey item 9). For bivariate and multivariate analyses, two dummy variables were created: International Funding only (1=yes; 0=no) Internal and International Funding (1=yes; 0=no). Internal funding only was the reference group.

Religious Association was defined as the NGO's affiliation with a religious organization. This single item was assessed as a dichotomous variable coded 1=Yes, 2= No (Survey item 6).

Geographic Location is a single item measured as a categorical variable: 1=*Rural*, 2=*Urban* (Survey item 5).

NGO perception of the National Policy/Legal Framework is a single-item measured on a 4-point ordinal scale and defined as the extent to which organizations perceive national policies and legal frameworks to be conducive for achieving the organization's mission and advocating for child rights (1=*Not at all*, 2=*Very little*, 3= *Somewhat*, 4=*To a great extent*) (Survey item 7).

Community Perception of Rights was measured at the ordinal level using one item that probes the extent to which the community supports children's rights. This was rated on a four-point scale (1=*Not at all*, 2=*Very little*, 3=*Somewhat*, 4=*To a great extent*) (Survey item 8).

3. Dependent Variables:

The dependent variables for this study were NGO representatives' assessments of the degree to which their organizations adopt a rights-based approach as well as each of the elements (subscales) of a rights-based approach: universality and equality, participation, networking,

accountability, engagement with international and national policies and laws to uphold the rights of children. The five factors were measured on a four-point ordinal scale (*1=Not at all, 4=to a great*) as separate variables.

Universality and Equality is defined as the extent to which the organization's programs address all children regardless of race, gender or other discriminating characteristic. Three items were developed based upon the literature to assess universality and equality. The universality and equality subscale score was obtained by computing the mean score for participants with responses to all three items on the scale (Survey items 14, 15, & 16).

Participation is defined as the extent to which the organization supports the participation of children in programs and decision making in society. Four items, developed based upon the literature, are used to measure participation. The participation subscale score was obtained by computing the mean for participants who had responses on all items (Survey items 17, 18, 19& 20).

Networking is defined as the extent to which the organization works with other agencies on issues of children's rights instead of working independently. One item was developed based upon the literature (Survey item 21).

Accountability is defined as the extent to which the NGO is answerable to its beneficiaries and requires the government to meet its obligations on children. Three items were developed based upon the literature to assess accountability. The accountability subscale score was obtained by computing the mean for participants who had responses on all items (Survey items 22, 23 & 24).

Engagement with International and National Policies and Laws to uphold the rights of children is defined as the extent to which the NGO's programs were developed on the basis of

international, regional and national human rights treaties and laws. One item was developed based upon the literature to assess this (Survey item26).

Overall Adoption of RBA is the overall adoption of all elements of a rights-based approach. The overall adoption of RBA total scale score is computed by summing up the mean scores of the elements of rights-based approaches. The total scale score was used to assess the overall score for adoption of rights-based approaches for each organization. To address the challenge of variable weighting of the factors, analyses were run separately for each of these factors and computed an overall adoption scale score.

D. Reliability, Validity and Pilot Testing the Survey

The measures included in the survey instrument were created for this study from literature that is relevant to implementation and rights-based approaches. Therefore, the measures had not been previously tested for reliability or validity. To strengthen the face and content validity of the instrument, a number of strategies were employed. First, I asked a panel of experts to review the questionnaire. These were expert consultants who were familiar with the rights-based approach with children in Tanzania and local NGO environment. They were also native Kiswahili speakers and fluent in English.

I then pilot tested the survey by administering it to five NGO's that were working on children's rights in Tanzania but were not members of the Tanzania Child Rights Forum. The pilot sought to test the viability of procedures for recruitment of NGO's and administration of the questionnaire. A couple of questions were included at the end of the questionnaire that asked if there were any difficulties in completing the questionnaire, if any questions were unclear, and if

the respondent had recommendations for improving the questionnaire or the process. No modifications were suggested by these NGOs.

Before being administered, the survey was translated to Kiswahili using the forward and back translation approach. Kiswahili is the official language of Tanzania and spoken by nearly 96% of the population. Forward translation is translation from English to Kiswahili. Back translation refers to translating from the target language (Kiswahili) back to the source language (English) to determine if the translated document retains the meaning intended in the original measure, consistent with cultural interpretations (Chen &Boore, 2009). An expert in translation with certification from TUKI (Taasisi ya Utafiti wa Kiswahili) which certifies Kiswahili translators, was used to validate the translation of the instrument from English to Kiswahili and from Kiswahili to English. All translations were approved except the definition of rights-based approaches which had to be changed to more accurately reflect the understanding used by local child rights NGOs in Tanzania. Once the survey was administered and the responses entered into SPSS, Cronbach's alpha was computed for each multi-item subscale and the overall adoption of RBA total scale, to assess their internal consistency reliability.

E. Data Collection

Data for this study were collected anonymously through an online survey using Qualtrics, a secure, web-based service for creating and administering surveys (Qualtrics, 2015). Since mobile phone penetration is high in Tanzania (over 75%), the survey was designed to allow compatibility with laptops and mobile devices, including mobile phones.

Based on personal communication with the coordinator of the Forum before the study, electronic means of inviting NGOs to participate and administering the survey stood out as the

best means of communication related to the Forum. An email letter of invitation to participate in the survey was sent out to a representative of each NGO, using the mailing lists of the Tanzania Child Rights Forum (TCRF). The invitation contained the link to the web-based survey. The invitation asked the representative listed for each NGO to respond to the survey on behalf of the organization. Ideally, these were people in a position to speak about the agency and its programs (See sample letter of invitation Appendix B). To ensure that I received maximum response, the following strategies were employed:

1. First, incentives were developed for those who successfully completed the survey. The incentives were resources for capacity building opportunities for NGOs advocating children's rights in Africa. The link to the incentive was included at the end of the survey. Those who attempted to complete the survey but ended up being ineligible, were sent to a page that informed them that they were not eligible, but thanked them for their interest in rights-based approaches and provided the link to the capacity building opportunities for NGOs advocating children's rights in Africa. Some respondents, at their own choosing, wrote personal messages of appreciation thanking me for the links to these sources. It was, therefore, possible to know at that point some organizations which had already responded to the survey. This turned out to be helpful during phone follow-ups as I did not have to call these organizations again. However, this did not compromise anonymity, as I was not able to link the responses to the organizations.
2. Second, automatic reminders from Qualtrics were set to go out to email addresses that had not responded to the survey. The reminders were set to go out after one week of non-response. To prevent duplication of responses, I set the Qualtrics survey such that only

one survey was accepted from a single email address and to prevent forwarding the survey to other email addresses.

3. Third, and the most effective means, was through calling all organizations to encourage them to respond. This was possible because I already knew the names and email addresses of the representatives that had been invited to participate in the study from each member organization. The contact information containing the name of the organization, email and/or phone number of the contact person was received from the Forum coordinator. The phone numbers and other contact information belonged to those staff members of the organization who were in contact with the Forum. To make sure that I was speaking with the right person, I asked whether they had received my survey. I encouraged them to respond to the survey if they had not already done so, and thanked those who indicated they had already responded. For those indicating they had not received the survey, I was able to establish the reasons for their not receiving the survey through this phone follow up. The reasons were mainly due to representatives changing emails, or having changed organizations. For those who were using different emails, I resent the survey to their new and active emails. For those who had changed organizations, I asked them if they could give me contact names of people who were responsible in their old organizations. All, with the exception of one, were willing to share contact information. Once I received this information, the survey was then sent to the new person in the organization. The contact information was securely protected in my personal laptop with a password and will be destroyed after this study is complete.
4. Fourth, I attempted a face-to-face contact with organizations that I could not reach by phone. For this purpose, I made a trip to Tanzania. I used this opportunity to not only

visit some organizations, but also to try calling from within the country. This strategy bore minimal success. I reached out to a total of 10 organizations through calling and visiting. I visited three in the Arusha and Kilimanjaro area. Two completed the surveys. For those organizations that I visited, I was able to establish that some had relocated from their original address which was received from the Forum coordinator, that the representative who received the survey was not there at the time of my visit, or that there was no electricity for the organizations to access office computers and hence complete my survey. Some promised to fill the survey on their phones after the face-to-face but didn't keep this promise. While some wanted to fill the survey on their phones, they also wanted some money so that they could buy data in order to be able to access internet on their phones. I declined these requests because I did not have the resources to do this and I had not requested IRB approval to provide these resources/incentives to participate. I could not travel to other regions as that would have taken a lot of time and money which I did not have.

As a result of these efforts only 78 out of 110 organizations that received the survey responded representing a 71% response rate. Out of these only 66 responses were valid for analysis (cases which had a response on dependent variables). It was not possible to establish the characteristics of those NGOs that did not respond to the survey as the information received from the forum coordinator only contained the names of organizations and contact information of the representative. However, inferring from the characteristics of those that responded, my hunch would be that those that did not respond are largely rural organizations where internet and communication is much more difficult to establish.

F. Human Subjects Protection

Prior to beginning data collection, I completed and obtained Institutional Review Board approval from the University of Illinois at Chicago and the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology (COSTECH) (See Appendix for Human Subjects Clearance). I also received a letter of support from the Tanzania Child Rights Forum (TCRF) which was copied to the Minister responsible for Health, Community Development, Gender, Seniors and Children, in Tanzania (See Appendix B). Protection of study participants in this research entailed ensuring equitable selection, informed and voluntary participation, and anonymity of study participants (Fortune & Reid, 1999; Rubin & Babbie, 2008).

1. Voluntary Participation and Informed Consent

NGOs participated in this study without coercion. This was ensured in a number of ways. First, in an email letter of invitation sent to representatives of each TCRF member organization, potential participants were informed about the research, their role, any potential risks. Second, the voluntary nature of participation and their right to withdraw from the study at any point in the research process was guaranteed (See Appendix).

2. Anonymity

The invitation letter and the online survey were administered using Qualtrics, a survey administration software program that ensures that survey responses are anonymous. While I needed email addresses and contact information to send the invitations to participate and the link to the survey, as well as for follow up, no identifiers were linked to the completed survey.

3. Protecting Participants from Anticipated Risks

This study did not expose participants to greater than minimal risk. However, it was reasonably anticipated that NGOs that are receiving funding on the condition that they adopt rights-based approaches might have felt fearful about revealing information that they might judge to be sensitive if that information was identified with their agency and reported to their donors. To address this fear, the responses to the survey were anonymous and the researcher was not able to link the information to any organization.

G. Data Analysis Plan

Data were analyzed at the univariate, bivariate, and multivariate levels. The main hypotheses were tested at the multivariate level using OLS multivariate regression because, although some of the dependent variables were single item ordinal measures, it is common to treat these and the multi-item scale scores as interval level variables (Fortune & Reid, 1999). Data were analyzed using IBM/SPSS Version 20.0. Prior to performing statistical procedures, data were screened, diagnosed and edited for incorrect values/scores following Broeck, et al.'s (2005) data-cleaning framework.

1. Data Screening/Diagnosis

After data were transferred from Qualtrics to SPSS, the second stage was to screen the data for missing data, outliers, including inconsistencies and strange patterns. I used the missing values analysis procedure on SPSS to check for inaccurate or missing values. The results show that there was a large number of missing values. After screening the data, a total of 12 cases out of 78 who responded to the survey were found to be missing more than 5% of data. These included 8 cases which did not have any response on the dependent variables and four cases which were incomplete. The reasons for incomplete responses were mainly due to representatives who started responding to the survey but did not complete it in one sitting and could also not complete the survey within 72 hours. After the 72 hours had lapsed, the survey was recorded. The missing data diagnosis showed that the data set had 66 complete cases which were fit to use for analysis. These are cases which had responses on both the independent and dependent variables and response on all items of multi- item dependent variable measures.

2. Univariate Analyses

Descriptive statistics were computed to get a sense of the distribution of data for all variables. In addition, univariate analyses enabled me to further assess missing data and to assess the distribution of data for each variable in the study. This was helpful to determine whether the dependent variables approximate normality and whether any transformations were required before conducting bivariate and multivariate analyses. For multi-item scales, I report univariate analysis of each item as well as univariate analysis of the scale scores.

Most of the items in the online survey were rated on Likert scales. Data from Likert scales are ordinal. However, it is common practice to assume equal distance between points on

these scales and treat them as interval data for the purposes of analysis (Fortune & Reid, 1999). Therefore, in addition to reporting the number and percentage of respondents who selected each rating on Likert scales and reporting the median rating, means and standard deviations are reported as well.

3. Screening for Normality of Dependent Variables

According to Tabachnick and Fidel (2007), screening for normality is an important early step before analysis particularly when inference is the goal. The screening stage found the dependent variables to be non-normally distributed. To improve the normality of the distribution, log transformation of the dependent variables was undertaken. Results of Shapiro-Wilk show that the variables do not approximate normality. A second transformation applying the square root transformation, also did not improve the normality of the dependent variables (residual). As these transformations did not improve the normality of the distributions, original data was used in all the analyses. However, Tabachnick and Fidel (2007) also note that “normality of the variables is not always required for analysis” (pp.79). Thus, while this assumption is not met, the analysis using regression was conducted as assumptions of normality of the dependent variable and residuals are not a necessary condition. According to Lumley et al. (2002), “normality is not required to fit a linear regression.

4. Bivariate Analyses

Bivariate analysis involves a simultaneous look at two variables (e.g. extent of adoption of RBA for NGOs in urban and rural areas). At this level, an SPSS correlation matrix was used to assess the correlation between each of the variables in the study. Each RBA element

subscales well as the total scale score for the measure of adoption of rights-based approaches were included as separate variables.

Both Pearson's r and Spearman's ρ were calculated and compared to ensure that assumptions of linearity were justified in subsequent analyses. Spearman's Rho is a more conservative measure of association that does not assume linearity. When the association is linear, Pearson's r and Spearman's ρ are nearly identical (Norman, 2010; Cohen, et al., 2003). The analyses revealed a high degree of similarity across all comparisons, so only Pearson's r is presented in the results section.

Nominal variables (Source of Funding) were dummy coded. Pearson's r was used to calculate bivariate correlations that included a dichotomous variable. It is acceptable to use Pearson's r to compute correlations between interval and dichotomous variables or two dichotomous variables, since the algorithm for Pearson's r approximates the Point-biserial r when one variable is dichotomous and the other is interval and Phi when both variables are dichotomous (Cohen et al., 2003).

The SPSS-generated correlation matrix displays Pearson's r and p values for each that are the results of tests of significance for each measure of association as well. P values less than or equal to .05 (two tailed) were interpreted as providing preliminary evidence of support for study hypotheses related to the particular independent variable.

5. Multivariate Analyses

To test the main hypotheses, factors that were found to be associated with the dependent variables at the bivariate level were included in the multivariate analyses. To ensure adequate

statistical power, predictors that demonstrated no statistically significant bivariate associations with the dependent variable were dropped from the regression model.

Separate multiple regression analyses were conducted for each element of rights-based approaches, as well as the total scale score. Each of these dependent variables were regressed on all significant factors entered in a block. OLS regression models allowed for assessing the percentage of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by all variables in the model, as well as the degree to which each variable in the model makes a unique contribution to explaining variance in each dependent variable, controlling for all other variables in the equation.

6. Content Analysis

The only open ended question in the survey was intended to gauge how consistent the NGOs definitions of rights-based approaches were with the definition used in this study. The narrative responses were analyzed through content analysis procedures. Content analysis provides a structured way of analyzing narrative data that are generated typically from open-ended questions. Content analysis was deemed appropriate as it produces descriptions or typologies along with expressions from subjects reflecting on how they perceive the social world (Berg, 2001). In essence it involves the classification of parts of a text through the application of a structured, systematic coding scheme from which conclusions can be drawn about the message content (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

Three content analysis procedures reviewed by Hsieh and Shannon (2005) were followed to analyze the narrative responses. The first step involved reading the whole text data to achieve immersion. The second step was to repeatedly read the data to derive codes, thoughts and main concepts in the text. The third step was interpretation and presentation of the data.

The data generated from this open-ended question helped to compare the extent to which NGOs' definitions of rights-based approaches were consistent with the working definition used in this study. The data were also analyzed to compare differences and similarities of conceptualization across the responding organizations. And thirdly, the data were examined to gauge the extent to which the differences in conceptualization of rights-based approaches corresponded with the extent of adoption of rights-based approaches for different organizations. This was done by entering the codes from content analysis onto SPSS as variables for analysis.

a) The Coding Process

The coding process of the open ended question followed the following steps. The first step for this procedure was to develop an initial codebook. The initial codebook included predetermined codes representing all categories contained in the definition of a rights-based approach which guided this study (1. RBA as Universality and Equality, 2. RBA as Participation, 3. RBA as Networking, 4. RBA as Accountability, 5. RBA as Engagement with International and National Laws and Policies). The second step was to read and immerse myself in the transcripts guided by the initial five themes. Third, themes were recorded in the process of reading the transcripts and entered onto a coding matrix when they emerged. Through reading the responses, I created new codes that were not contained in the initial codebook similar to an inductive coding process in content analysis (Elo & Kyngas 2008). The choice of the code for each response was based upon the category that was most explicit from reading the transcripts. All codes were entered onto a categorization matrix. In a coding process either a structured or unconstrained coding matrix can be used (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). For this study, I used an unconstrained coding matrix which allowed me to enter new themes that emerged from reading the texts and which were not represented by the initial five codes. As a result of this, I created seven codes (two more codes in addition to the initial five codes).

The fourth step involved giving this new coding matrix to two independent coders who were familiar with Kiswahili and English. Contrary to Carey, Morgan, and Oxtoby's (1996) proposal to code at least 25% of the transcripts, the independent coders coded all 66 transcripts. This was because the length of transcripts was deemed short enough to manage all at once (Some definitions were a few words long). The independent coders read through the transcripts noting each emerging theme using the seven codes that they received. A theme was recorded if it

obviously emerged to the readers. In the end of this reading process, the independent coders identified two more codes in addition to the seven codes initially identified. The fifth step was to discuss and compare the themes for each transcript. Through the discussions we agreed to revise the coding matrix by adding two new themes which were identified by the independent coders. The final coding matrix had nine codes (Universality, Participation, Networking, Accountability, Engagement with International and National Laws and policies, RBA as Rights Talk, RBA as Justification to Intervene by Adults, RBA as Service and Rights, or, RBA as Rights and Responsibilities).

b) Establishing Inter-Rater Reliability

The interpretation of the themes emerging from the narrative responses required validation of reliability. To ensure this, I tested intercoder agreement. To estimate the degree of intercoder agreement, I entered the ratings of each coder into SPSS to calculate their Intraclass Reliability Coefficient (ICC), a measure of inter-rater reliability (Ko & Li, 2016). The ratings of the three coders (i.e. whether they coded the transcript as Universality, Participation, Networking, Accountability, Engagement with International and National Laws and policies, RBA as Rights Talk, RBA as Justification to Intervene by Adults, RBA as Service and Rights, or, RBA as Rights and Responsibilities) were compared for each rater (i.e. rating given by the researcher and the two independent coders) against each other. The raters were entered as numeric variables in SPSS (Rater1, Rater2, Rater3 with their respective ratings). I used a two-way mixed effects model measuring ‘absolute agreement’ between the raters. The results show that there was high level of interrater agreement on the definition and understanding of rights-

based approaches by the three raters, ICC=.965 (95% CI, p<.001). According to Koo and Li (2016), values above 0.90 indicate excellent reliability (Table I).

Table I. Results of Inter-rater Reliability Using Two-way Mixed Effects Model, Absolute Agreement, Three Raters

	Intraclass Correlation b	95% CI		F Test with True Value 0		
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df 1	df2
Single Measures	.902***	0.856	0.935	28.556	4	128
Average Measures	.965***	0.947	0.977	28.556	4	128

***p<.001.

V. FINDINGS

A. Findings from the Survey

1. Descriptive Data

All 66 organizations with valid responses to the survey indicated that they were members of the Tanzania Child Rights Forum (TCRF) and were registered and operate locally in Tanzania. Fifty-four (83%) of the organizations were based in urban areas compared to 11 (17%) based in rural areas. Forty-seven (71%) indicated that they were not associated with a religious organization while eighteen (27%) were associated with a religious organization (Table II).

Table II.
Descriptive Data

Survey N=66	Frequency	Percent	Missing
Member TCRF	66	100	
Registered in Tanzania	66	100	
Urban	55	83	
Rural	11	17	
Religious association	18	27	1 (2%)
No religious association	47	71	

a) NGO's Perception of Policy/Legal Framework for Children

The extent to which organizations perceive the legal and policy framework for children in Tanzania to be conducive for advocating for children's rights was measured on a four-point scale ranging from 1-4, where 1= "Not at all" and 4= "To a great extent". The mean rating for this item was 3.08 (Median 3.0, SD= 0.62). Forty respondents (61%) rated the legal and policy framework as somewhat conducive, 16(24%) indicated it was conducive for advocating for children's rights to a great extent but 10(15%) indicated very little conduciveness for advocating for children's rights.

b) NGO’s Perception of Community Support for Child Rights

The NGO’s perceptions of the extent to which their communities were supportive of children’s rights was also measured on a four-point scale ranging from 1-4, where 1= “Not at all” and 4= “To a great extent”. The mean rating for this item was 2.9 (Median= 3.0, SD= 0.77). The standard deviation is somewhat greater here than observed for ratings of the policy environment, indicating that the NGOs perceptions of community support for child rights are more varied. Thirty-one (47%) indicated that their communities are somewhat supportive of children’s rights and 16(24%) rated their communities as supportive, whereas 18 (27%) rated their communities as displaying very little support and 1(2%) indicated the community in which they operate is not at all supportive of children’s rights (Table III).

**Table III.
NGO’s Perception of Legal/Policy Framework & NGO’s Perception of Community Support for Child Rights**

Variable N=66	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat (3)	To a great extent (4)	Mean	MD	SD
Policy/ legal environment in Tanzania is conducive to advocating for children’s rights	0	10 (15%)	40 (61%)	16 (24%)	3.08	3.0	0.6
Community supports child rights	1 (2%)	18 (27%)	31 (47%)	16(24%)	2.9	3.0	0.77

c) NGO Sources of Funding

Most the NGOs (44, 68%) get their funding from both internal and international sources. Eleven (17%) receive funding from internal sources only, and nine (14%) are funded from international sources only (Table IV).

Table IV.
NGO's Source of Funding

Source of Funding	Frequency	Percent
Both international and internal	44	67
Internal	11	17
International	9	14
Missing	2	3
Total	66	100

d) Leadership support for implementing rights-based approaches

Leadership support for implementing rights-based approaches in their agencies was measured using three items that assessed the extent to which the leadership: 1) showed recognition and appreciation of employees' efforts toward successful implementation of rights-based approaches, 2) supported employees' efforts to learn more about rights-based approaches, and 3) supported employees' efforts to use rights-based approaches. With regard to showing recognition and appreciation of employees' efforts toward successful implementation of rights-based approaches, 53 (80%) thought that the leadership supported this, 11 (17%) somewhat, and 1 (2%) very little (Mean=3.8, Median=4, SD=.44).

In supporting employees' efforts to learn more about rights-based approaches, 39 respondents (59%) thought the leadership supported this, 17 (26%) somewhat, 7 (11%) very little, and 2 (3%) thought their leadership did not support this at all (Mean=3.4, Median=4, SD=.80). Likewise, with regard to supporting employees to use rights-based approaches, 49 (74%) thought the leadership supported this, 14 (21%) somewhat, and 2 (3%) thought the leadership provided very little support for this (Mean=3.7, Median=4, SD=.52).

The leadership support total scale score was obtained by summing the item ratings and computing the mean score for those who had responded to all three items of the scale. Only one

case was missing from this analysis (Table V). The mean rating for the leadership support scale was 3.6 (MD=4, SD=.504). An analysis of the internal consistency of the scale yielded a Cronbach's Alpha of =.771. This indicates that this three-item scale has sufficient internal consistency. Reliability is not markedly improved by dropping any item from the scale.

**Table V.
Leadership Support**

Leadership Support Item	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Mean	MD	SD	Missing	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted(n=65)
Show recognition and appreciation of employees' efforts toward successful implementation of rights-based approaches	0	1 (2%)	11 (17%)	53 (80%)	3.8	4	.44	1(2%)	.725
Support employees' efforts to learn more about rights-based approaches	2 (3%)	7 (11%)	17 (26%)	39 (60%)	3.4	4	.80	1(2%)	.780
Support employees' efforts to use rights-based approaches		2 (3%)	14 (22%)	49 (74%)	3.7	4	.52	1(2%)	.598
Overall Scale Score					3.6	4	.50	1	.771

e) Staff Capacity to Implement Rights-Based Approaches

In terms of the extent to which agency representatives perceived their staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches, 31(47%) thought their staff were capable of implementing rights-based approaches, 19 (29%) highly capable, and 12 (18%) barely capable. The mean rating for staff capacity is 3.1 (MD=3, SD=.704) (Table VI).

Table VI.
Staff Capacity to Implement RBA's

Staff Capacity	Barely Capable	Capable	Highly capable	Mean	MD	SD	Missing	TOTAL
N (%)	12(18%)	31(47%)	19(29%)	3.1	3	.704	4	66(100%)

f) Extent of Adoption of Rights-Based Approaches

Universality and Equality: To assess Universality and Equality, three items were used: 1) the extent to which organizations supported excluded groups to demand their rights, 2) the extent to which organizations work to ensure services are accessible to all children, and 3) the extent to which they lobby for equitable allocation of budgets and resources. These were measured on a four-point scale ranging from 1-4, where 1= “Not at all” and 4= “To a great extent”. The mean rating for this item was 3.5(MD=4, SD= 0.70). Most respondents 41(62%) rated their organizations as supporting excluded groups, 18 (27%) somewhat, 4 (6%) very little and 2 (3%) not at all. One case was missing on this item.

With regard to the extent to which organizations make sure that services are accessible to all children, the mean rating was 3.4 (MD=4, SD=0.75). Thirty-four (52%) rated their organizations as accessible, 22 (33%) somewhat, 7 (11%) very little and 1 (2%) not at all. Two responses were missing from this item.

In rating the extent to which NGOs lobby for equitable allocation of budgets and resources, respondents had a mean rating of 3.2 (MD=3, SD=0.91). Twenty-eight, 28 (42%) rated, 21 (32%) somewhat, 9 (14%) and 4(6%) not at all. Four responses were missing from this item.

The universality and equality subscale score was calculated by computing the mean score for those who responded to all the three items. One response was missing from this analysis (Table VII). Analysis of the internal consistency of the scale yielded a Cronbach's Alpha of =.78.

This indicates sufficient internal consistency reliability for the scale. The mean rating for the scale score was 3.3 (MD=3, SD=.68).

**Table VII:
Universality and Equality**

Universality Item	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Mean	MD	SD	Missing	Cronbach's α if item deleted(n=65)
Our organization supports excluded groups to demand their rights	2(3%)	4(6%)	18(27%)	41(62%)	3.5	4	.70	1(2%)	.807
We work to ensure services are accessible to all children	1(2%)	7(11%)	22(33%)	34(52%)	3.4	4	.75	2(2%)	.605
We lobby for equitable allocation of budgets and resources	4(6%)	9(14%)	21(32%)	28(42%)	3.2	3	.91	4(6%)	.670
Overall Scale Score					3.3	3	.68	1	.78

Participation: To assess the extent to which organizations ensure participation of children, four items were used namely, 1) extent to which organizations ensure that children have access to information to ensure their participation, 2) extent to which children are involved in relevant activities, 3) extent to which organizations advocate for changes in laws and institutional structures and procedures to create greater space for child participation, 4) extent to which organizations seek to change adult attitudes and behaviors towards children's participation. These were rated on a four-point scale ranging from 1-4, where 1= "Not at all" and 4= "To a great extent". The mean rating for which organizations ensure that children have access to information to ensure their participation was 3.3 (MD=3, SD=0.80). Twenty-nine (44%) rated to a great extent, 25 (38%) somewhat, 8(12%) very little, and 2 (3%) not at all. Two responses were missing on this item.

In rating the extent to which children are involved in relevant activities, organizations had a mean rating of 3.3 (MD=3, SD=0.76). Twenty-eight (42%), rated to a great extent, 25 (38%) somewhat, 9 (14%) very little and, 1(2%) not at all. Three cases were missing on this item. With regard to the extent to which organizations advocate for changes in laws and institutional structures and procedures to create greater space for child participation, the mean rating was 3.3 (MD=3.5, SD=0.79). Thirty-two (49%) rated their organizations as advocating for these changes to a great extent, 23 (35%) somewhat, 7 (11%) very little and, 2 (3%) not at all. Two cases were missing on this item.

When rating the extent to which their organizations seek to change adult attitudes and behaviors towards children's participation, organizations had a mean rating of 3.7(MD=4, SD=0.58). Forty-eight (73%) indicated their organizations sought to change these attitudes and behaviors to a great extent, 13(20%) somewhat, and 4 (6%) very little.

The participation subscale score was obtained by computing the mean score for those who responded to all four items on the scale. One response was missing from this analysis (Table VIII). Analysis of the internal consistency of the scale yielded a Cronbach Alpha score of .76. This shows a reasonable internal consistency reliability of the scale. The mean rating for the scale was 3.4 (MD=3.5, SD=.56).

Table VIII.
Extent of Participation

Participation Item	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Mean	MD	SD	Missing	Cronbach's α if item deleted(n=62)
extent to which organizations ensure that children have access to information to ensure their participation,	2(3%)	8(12%)	25(38%)	29(44%)	3.3	3	.80	2(3%)	.65
extent to which children are involved in relevant activities	1(2%)	9(14%)	25(38%)	28(42%)	3.3	3	.76	3(5%)	.66
extent to which organizations advocate for changes in laws and institutional structures and procedures to create greater space for child participation	2(3%)	7(11%)	23(35%)	32(49%)	3.3	4	.79	2(3%)	.69
extent to which organizations seek to change adult attitudes and behaviors towards children's participation		4(6%)	13(20%)	48(73%)	3.7	4	.58	1(2%)	.77
Overall Scale Score					3.4	3.5	.56	1	.76

Networking: One item was used to assess the extent of networking between organizations. Respondents rated the extent to which organizations work with other organizations to advocate for the rights of children in Tanzania. The item was measured on a four-point scale ranging from 1-4, where 1= “Not at all” and 4= “To a great extent”. The mean rating was 3.6 (MD=4, SD=0.65). Most respondents, 45 (70%), indicated their organization engaged in networking to a great extent, 17 (26%) somewhat, and 2 (3%) not at all. Two cases were missing on this item (Table IX).

Table IX.
Extent of Networking

Networking	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Mean	MD	SD	Missing	TOTAL
N (%)	2(3%)	31(47%)	17(26%)	45(70%)	3.6	4	.65	2	64(97%)

Accountability: To assess accountability, four items were used to rate the 1) extent to which organizations require the government to meet its obligations on children (education, health, etc.), 2) extent to which they provide human rights information and education to our beneficiaries to hold the government to account, 3) extent to which they provide information about their programs in accessible places and 4) the extent to which they publish reports of actual program implementation regularly and share these reports with our beneficiaries. The items were rated on a four-point scale ranging from 1-4, where 1= “Not at all” and 4= “To a great extent”. On the extent to which organizations require the government to meet its obligations on children (education, health, etc.), organizations had a mean rating of 3.2(MD=3, SD= 0.85). Twenty-nine (44%) rated their organizations as requiring government to meet these obligations to a great extent, 23 (35%) somewhat, 8 (12%) very little and 3 (5%) not at all. Three cases were missing from this analysis. On the extent to which organizations provide human rights information and education to their beneficiaries to hold the government to account, the mean rating was 3.3 (MD=3, SD=0.77). Twenty-eight (42%) rated their organization as somewhat, 27 (41%) rated to a great extent, 7 (11%) very little, and 2 (3%) not at all. On the extent to which organizations provide information about their programs in accessible places, organizations had a mean rating of 3.5(MD=4, SD= 0.7). Forty-four (67%) organizations indicated their organizations provided this information to a great extent, 15 (23%) somewhat, 5 (8%) very little, and 1 (2%) not at all. Similarly, on the extent to

which organizations publish reports of actual program implementation regularly and share these reports with their beneficiaries, organizations had a mean rating of 3.6(MD=3.5 SD.71). Most organizations indicated that they do this to a great extent, 45 (68%), 12 (19%) somewhat, 5 (8%) very little and 1 (2%) not at all.

The accountability subscale score was obtained by computing the mean score for those who responded to all four items on the scale. One response was missing from this analysis (Table X). The mean rating was 3.4 (MD=4, SD.61). Analysis of the internal consistency of the scale yielded Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .83. This reveals adequate internal consistency reliability of the scale.

Table X.
Extent of Accountability

Accountability Item	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Mean	MD	SD	Missing	Cronbach's α if item deleted(n=60)
We require the government to meet its obligations on children (education, health, etc.)	3(5%)	8(12%)	23(35%)	29(44%)	3.2	3	.85	3 (5%)	.78
We provide human rights information and education to our beneficiaries to hold the government to account	2(3%)	7(11%)	28(42%)	27(41%)	3.3	3	.77	2(3%)	.87
We provide information about our programs in accessible places	1(2%)	5(8%)	15(23%)	44(67%)	3.6	4	.71	1(2%)	.74
We publish reports of actual program implementation regularly and share these reports with our beneficiaries	1(2%)	5(8%)	12(19%)	45(68%)	3.7	4	.71	3(5%)	.74
Overall Scale Score					3.4	3.5	.61	1	.83

Engagement with International and National Policies and Laws: The fifth element of the rights-based approach sought to assess the extent to which organizations engaged with international and national policies and laws related to children. The item asked the extent to which organization's programs are developed on the basis of rights set out in international, regional and national human rights treaties and laws (UNCRC, ACRWC, MDGs, MKUKUTA, and LCA 2009). The item was measured on a four-point scale ranging from 1-4, where 1= "Not at all" and 4= "To a great extent". The mean rating for this item was 3.6(MD=4, SD=0.64). Most respondents rated their organizations as engaging with these policies and laws to a great extent 49(74%), 12 (18%)

somewhat, 3 (5%) very little, and 1 (2%) not at all. Three cases were missing on this item (Table XI).

Table XI.
Extent of Engagement with International and National Policies and Laws

Engagement with Int'l & National policies and laws	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	To a great extent	Mean	MD	SD	Missing	TOTAL
N (%)	1(2%)	3(5%)	12(18%)	49(74%)	3.6	4	.64	2	63(97%)

Overall Extent of Adoption of RBAs: To understand the overall extent to which NGOs adopted rights-based approaches, I computed the overall mean scores of the elements of rights-based approaches to obtain a single score for the RBA scale. The mean rating for the overall adoption of RBA is 3.4 (MD=4, SD=.53). Internal consistency reliability of the overall RBA adoption scale was examined in two ways. First, Cronbach's alpha was computed with the measures of each of the five elements of RBA, which included the total subscale score for each element measured with a multi-item scale as well as the scores for elements measured with a single item. This gave equal weight to each element. Cronbach's alpha was also computed with all individual items in the total scale, excluding subscale scores. The latter method gives equal weight to each item in the overall scale. The first method yielded a Cronbach Alpha score of .89 using five items (elements of the RBA). The second method resulted in a Cronbach's alpha of .79. The two methods suggest that the RBA adoption scale had adequate internal consistency reliability.

B. Bivariate Analyses

Bivariate analyses were conducted to understand whether and how the independent variables were associated with the extent of adoption of key elements of the rights-based

approaches and overall RBA adoption. These analyses revealed which independent variables demonstrated statistically significant associations with dependent variables at the bivariate level. To reduce the number of predictors in the multivariate analysis, thereby increasing statistical power, only independent variables that demonstrated statistically significant bivariate associations with dependent variables were included in the multivariate analyses. However, despite reducing the number of predictors, the statistical power was less than .80 as the number of responses needed to achieve this power was less than 90. The bivariate analyses were also helpful to screen for potential multicollinearity by examining associations between all independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Statistically significant correlations between independent variables of .80 or higher, were considered to be indicators of possible multicollinearity (Morrow-Howell, 1993). However, none were found. Bivariate analyses were also helpful in examining the strength of associations between all subscales that measure adoption of elements of RBA, as well as each of these subscales and overall adoption of RBA. Both Pearson Correlation Coefficients and Spearman's rho were computed to ensure assumptions of linearity were met for multivariate analyses. The two measures of correlation were virtually the same and I will here report only the Pearson Correlation Coefficients.

1. Results of Bivariate Analyses

i. Correlations Between Independent and Dependent Variables

The results show that Universality and Equality significantly correlates with staff capacity $r=.42$, $p<.01$ and having supportive leadership $r=.52$, $p<.01$. Participation correlates with NGO perception of the policy/legal framework $r=.277$, $p<.05$, receiving funding from both internal and international sources, $r=.345$, $p<.01$, staff capacity to implement RBAs $r=.58$, $p<.01$, and

Supportive leadership $r=.63$, $p<.01$. Networking is significantly correlated with NGO perception of the policy/legal framework for children $r=.313$, $p<.01$, Staff capacity to implement RBAs, $r=.30$, $p<.05$, and supportive leadership $r=.58$, $p<.01$. Accountability is significantly correlated with NGO perception of policy/legal framework $r=.29$, $p<.05$, staff capacity $r=.41$, $p<.01$, and supportive leadership $r=.66$, $p<.01$. Engagement with international and national laws and policies on children is significantly correlated with NGO perception of policy/legal framework $r=.42$, $p<.01$, receiving funding from both internal and international sources, $r=-.249$, $p<.01$, staff capacity $r=.34$, $p<.01$, and supportive leadership $r=.53$, $p<.01$.

In terms of the overall extent of adoption of rights-based approaches, five factors are significantly correlated with it: NGO perception of policy/legal framework $r=.364$, $p<.01$; receiving funding from both internal and international sources, $r=.31$, $p<.05$, staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches $r=.483$, $p<.01$, and supportive leadership $r=.698$, $p<.01$. The variables: NGO perception of policy/legal framework, receiving funding from both internal and international sources, staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches and supportive leadership, are found to be statistically correlated with the dependent variables at the bivariate level and will be included in the multivariate analyses. Where the NGO is located, NGO association with a religious organization and community perception of children's rights, are not significantly associated with any of the five elements of the rights-based approaches and were thus dropped from multivariate analyses.

ii. Correlations Between Independent Variables

The results show that NGO's location is significantly positively correlated with the NGO religious association $r=.271$, $p<.05$. NGO's perception of the policy/legal framework for children is significantly correlated with supportive leadership, $r=.303$, $p<.05$. Community perception of children's rights is significantly correlated with staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches, $r=.288$, $p<.05$. Receiving funding from international sources only is significantly negatively correlated with receiving from both international and internal sources, $r=-.562$, $p<.01$. Supportive leadership significantly positively correlates with staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches $r=.523$, $p<.01$. These findings show that the independent variables do not have a problem of multicollinearity. According to Morrow-Howell (1993) correlations greater than $r=.80$ should suggest some problems of multicollinearity.

iii. Correlations Between Dependent Variables

Bivariate analyses of associations between the dependent variables, shows that Universality and Equality is statistically correlated with participation, $r=.698$, $p<.01$, networking $r=.55$, $p<.01$, accountability, $r=.723$, $p<.01$, engagement with international and national laws and policies $r=.560$, $p<.01$, and RBA Adoption, $r=.849$, $p<.01$. Participation correlates with networking, $r=.486$, $p<.01$, accountability, $r=.622$, $p<.01$, engagement with international and national laws and policies, $r=.592$, $p<.01$), and RBA Adoption $r=.804$, $p<.01$. Networking correlates with accountability, $r=.723$, $p<.01$, engagement with international and national laws and policies, $r=.659$, $p<.01$, and RBA Adoption $r=.819$, $p<.01$. Accountability correlates with engagement with international and national laws and policies $r=.633$, $p<.01$, and RBA Adoption, $r=.885$, $p<.01$. Engagement with international and national laws and policies, correlates with RBA

adoption, $r=.823$, $p<.01$. The results show that the elements of rights-based approaches are highly correlated with the overall RBA score but not highly correlated with each other. This suggests that the subscales are multidimensional measuring different elements of RBA (Table XII).

Table XII.
Bivariate Correlations

Correlations

	NGO Location	NGO Religious Association	NGO Perception	Community Perception	External Funding Only	External & Internal Funding	Supportive Leadership	Staff Capacity	Universality & Equality	Participation	Networking	Accountability	Engage Int'l HR Framework	RBA Adoption
NGO Location	1													
NGO Religious Association	.271*	1												
NGO Perception	0	0.201	1											
Community Perception	-0.036	-0.109	0.238	1										
External Funding Only	0.178	0.127	0.084	0.09	1									
External & Internal Funding	-0.23	-0.133	0.104	-0.057	-.562**	1								
Supportive Leadership	-0.178	-0.123	.303*	0.118	0.101	0.194	1							
Staff Capacity	-0.106	-0.158	0.131	.288*	0.065	0.168	.523**	1						
Universality & Equality	-0.127	-0.167	0.216	0.101	-0.012	0.244	.517**	.419**	1					
Participation	-0.161	-0.047	.277*	0.067	-0.021	.345**	.634**	.575**	.698**	1				
Networking	0.003	-0.031	.313*	-0.045	0.061	0.225	.584**	.304*	.548**	.486**	1			
Accountability	-0.176	-0.141	.294*	0.044	0.016	0.232	.666**	.412**	.723**	.622**	.723**	1		
Engage Int'l HR Framework	-0.1	0.02	.411**	0.022	0.064	.249*	.532**	.344**	.560**	.592**	.659**	.633**	1	
RBA Adoption	-0.13	-0.086	.364**	0.046	0.024	.310*	.698**	.483**	.849**	.804**	.819**	.885**	.823**	1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

C. Summary of Bivariate Results

The bivariate analyses have shown that the overall adoption of rights-based approaches is significantly correlated with the NGO's perception of the legal and policy framework for children, having a supportive leadership, NGO's staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches and receiving funding from both international and internal sources. Where the NGO is located, whether or not it is associated with a religious organization, and the way the community perceives children's rights, are not significantly associated with any elements of the rights-based approaches or overall adoption of rights-based approaches.

In terms of the independent variables, NGOs location is found to be significantly positively correlated with religious association. NGO supportive leadership is found to be significantly correlated with NGO's perception of legal and policy framework for children. Staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches is also found to be significantly correlated with community perception of children's rights. In addition, staff capacity correlates with supportive leadership. Receiving funding from external sources only is negatively correlated with receiving funding from both external and internal sources. While these independent variables are associated, the relationships are not large enough to suggest the problem of multicollinearity.

D. Regression Analyses

1. Elements of RBA

To test the extent to which organizations adopted the various elements of the rights-based approaches, regression analyses were conducted with each of the five subscales that measure adoption of elements of the rights-based approaches as the dependent variable and all predictor variables that were significant at the bivariate level. The hypotheses were tested using one model with the overall adoption of rights-based approaches as the dependent variable and all significant predictors at the bivariate level.

a) Model 1: Universality and Equality

The first model tested the extent to which perception of policy/legal framework, staff capacity, source of funding, and supportive leadership predicted adoption of the principles of universality and equality. The model was significant and contributes to 32% of the variance observed in the dependent variable ($R^2=.32$, $F(5, 56) = 5.24$, $p < .001$). Having a supportive leadership is the only variable found to make a unique significant contribution to predicting the adoption of the element of universality and equality. A unit increase in the extent to which the organization supports its staff to implement rights-based approaches, corresponds with 0.46-unit increase in the extent to which the organization adopts universality and equality in its programs ($\beta = .461$, $p < .01$) (Table XIII).

Table XIII.
**OLS Regression of Universality & Equality on Perception of Policy/Legal Framework,
 Staff Capacity, Funding Source, and Supportive Leadership**

	Unstandardized Coefficients	SE	Standardized Coefficients
	β		β
Perception of Policy/Legal Framework	0.07	0.13	0.063
Staff Capacity	0.219	0.125	0.227
External Funding Only	0.042	0.264	0.022
External & Internal Funding	0.08	0.066	0.171
Supportive Leadership	0.461*	0.18	0.349
$F=5.24$			
$R^2=.32$			

a Dependent Variable: Universality & Equality

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$ *** $p<.001$

b) Model 2: Participation

The second model tested the extent to which perception of policy/legal framework, staff capacity, source of funding, and supportive leadership predicted the extent to which organizations adopted the element of participation in their programs. The model was significant and explains 57% of the variance observed in the dependent variable ($R^2=.568$, $F(5, 56)=14.735$, $p<.001$). In this model, staff capacity, having a supportive leadership and receiving funding from both international and internal sources, are unique significant predictors of the extent to which NGOs adopt participation in their programs. A one unit increase in staff capacity corresponds with a .24-unit increase in extent of adoption of participation ($\beta=.24$, $p<.01$) and a one unit increase in supportive leadership corresponds with a .45-unit increase in the extent to which organizations adopt participation in their programs ($\beta=.45$, $p<.001$). A unit increase in receiving funding from both international and internal sources corresponds with a .11-unit increase in the extent of adoption of rights-based approaches ($\beta=.11$, $p<.05$) (Table XIV).

Table XIV.
OLS Regression of Participation on Perception of Policy/Legal Framework, Staff Capacity, Funding Source, and Supportive Leadership.

	Unstandardized Coefficients	SE	Standardized Coefficients
	β		β
Perception of Policy/Legal Framework	0.061	0.086	0.066
Staff Capacity	0.238**	0.083	0.299
External Funding Only	0.078	0.174	0.049
External & Internal Funding	0.11*	0.043	0.285
Supportive Leadership	0.452***	0.12	0.413
$F=14.735$			
$R^2=.568$			

a Dependent Variable:
Participation

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

c) Model 3: Networking

The third model tested the extent to which perception of policy/legal framework, staff capacity, source of funding, and supportive leadership predicted adoption of the element of networking in their programs. The model was significant and contributes to about 37% of the variance observed in the dependent variable ($R^2=.375$, $F(4, 55) = 6.61$, $p < .001$). Only supportive leadership was significant unique predictor of the extent to which organizations work with others to advocate for the rights of children. A unit increase in the extent to which the leadership is supportive corresponds with .62-unit increase in the extent to which organizations network to advocate for children's rights ($\beta = .622$, $p < .001$) (Table XV).

Table XV.
OLS Regression of Networking on Perception of Policy/Legal Framework, Staff Capacity, Funding Source, and Supportive Leadership.

	Unstandardized Coefficients	SE	Standardized Coefficients
	β		β
Perception of Policy/Legal Framework	0.164	0.128	0.148
Staff Capacity	-0.006	0.118	-0.006
External Funding Only	0.177	0.258	0.091
External & Internal Funding	0.079	0.061	0.173
Supportive Leadership	0.622***	0.173	0.485
$F=6.611$			
$R^2=.375$			

a Dependent Variable:
Networking

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$ *** $p<.001$

d) Model 4: Accountability

The fourth model tested the extent to which perception of policy/legal framework, staff capacity, source of funding, and supportive leadership predicted adoption of accountability as an element of rights-based approaches as the dependent variable. The model was significant and accounts for about 68% of the variance observed in the dependent variable ($R^2=.678$, $F(5, 56) = 9.544$, $p<.001$). Again, for this model, only supportive leadership is found to be a significant unique predictor of the extent to which organizations include the element of accountability in their programs. A unit increase in supportive leadership corresponds with a .68-unit increase in the extent to which organizations adopt the element of accountability ($\beta=.682$, $p<.001$) (Table XVI).

Table XVI.
OLS Regression of Accountability on Perception of Policy/Legal Framework, Staff Capacity, Funding Source, and Supportive Leadership.

	Unstandardized Coefficients	SE	Standardized Coefficients
	β		β
Perception of Policy/Legal Framework	0.103	0.107	0.101
Staff Capacity	0.078	0.103	0.088
External Funding Only	0.003	0.217	0.002
External & Internal Funding	0.045	0.054	0.105
Supportive Leadership	0.682***	0.15	0.56
<i>F</i> =9.544			
<i>R</i> ² =.678			

a Dependent Variable:
 Accountability

p*<.05 *p*<.01 ****p*<.001

e) **Model 5: Engagement with International and National Policies and Laws on Children**

The fifth model tested the extent to perception of policy/legal framework, staff capacity, source of funding, and supportive leadership predicted an organization's engagement with the international and national policies and laws on children. The model was significant, predicting about 44% of the variance observed in the dependent variable ($R^2=.437$, $F(5, 56)=8.707$, $p<.001$). Two predictors made unique significant contributions in this model. Having a supportive leadership significantly predicts the extent to which organizations engage with the international and national laws and policies on children. A unit increase in supportive leadership corresponds with .54-unit increase in the extent to which organizations engage with international and national laws and policies on children ($\beta=.537$, $p<.01$). Receiving funding from both international and internal sources compared to internal sources only corresponds with a .12-unit increase in the

extent to which an organization engages with the international and national laws and policies on children ($\beta=.117$, $p<.05$) (Table XVII).

Table XVII.
OLS Regression of Engagement with International & National Policies and Laws on Perception of Policy/Legal Framework, Staff Capacity, Funding Source, and Supportive Leadership.

	Unstandardized Coefficients	SE	Standardized Coefficients
	B		β
Perception of Policy/Legal Framework	0.185	0.107	0.184
Staff Capacity	0.026	0.103	0.03
External Funding Only	0.227	0.217	0.132
External & Internal Funding	0.117*	0.054	0.277
Supportive Leadership	0.537**	0.15	0.45
$F=8.707$			
$R^2=.437$			

a Dependent Variable: Engage Int'l HR Framework

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$ *** $p<.001$

A final regression model was run with the extent of adoption of rights-based approaches as the dependent variable, and all significant variables at the bivariate level as the predictors in the model. The dependent variable, extent of adoption of rights-based approaches, was created by summing the average scores of each of the elements of the rights-based approaches. The model was significant and accounts for 58% of the variance in the extent of adoption of rights-based approaches ($R^2=.575$, $F(5, 56) = 15.133$, $p<.001$) (Table XVIII).

Table XVIII.
OLS Regression of Overall RBA Adoption on Perception of Policy/Legal Framework, Staff Capacity, Funding Source, and Supportive Leadership.

	Unstandardized Coefficients	SE	Standardized Coefficients
	B		β
Perception of Policy/Legal Framework	0.117	0.08	0.135
Staff Capacity	0.105	0.077	0.141
External Funding Only	0.104	0.162	0.07
External & Internal Funding	0.086*	0.04	0.237
Supportive Leadership	0.55**	0.112	0.535
$F=15.133$			
$R^2=.575$			

a Dependent Variable: Total RBA Adoption

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$ *** $p<.001$

E. Summary of Regression Results

The models show that having supportive leadership is the most common predictor of the extent to which organizations adopt the five elements of the rights-based approaches. Supportive leadership predicts the adoption of universality and equality, participation, networking, accountability, and engagement with international and national policies and laws on children. Receiving funding from both international and internal sources compared to internal sources alone, significantly predicts the extent to which NGOs engage with international and national laws and policies on children. Overall, as shown in the final model, the extent to which child rights NGOs adopt rights-based approaches, is predicted by whether the leadership of the organization is supportive of rights-based approaches and receiving funding from both international and internal sources compared to receiving from internal sources alone.

F. Findings from Content Analysis

The open-ended question in the survey aimed at assessing the differences in the definition of rights-based approaches and to see the extent to which it differed from the one presented in this study. The data were analyzed through content analysis procedures. Responses from each organization were coded based upon the category that appeared most explicitly from reading the responses.

1. Universality and Equality

From the analysis, eleven organizations definition and understanding of rights-based approaches aligned with the idea that rights-based approaches are about ensuring equality and reaching out to all children to ensure their rights are met. This conforms to the principle of nondiscrimination which is central to rights-based approaches. One organization's understanding of rights-based approach as universality was as follows:

We advocate for the right of education, education is a basic right for all people/children, so our advocacy aims at making sure that all have a right to quality education (Tunatetea haki ya elimu, elimu ni haki ya msingi kwa watu wote, kwahiyo utetezi wetu unalenga kuhakikisha kuwa kila mmoja ana haki ya kupata elimu bora)

We can see that the universality and equality principle is here applied to their education programs and mission of ensuring quality education for all children in Tanzania. Another organization understands rights-based approaches as helping them to reach out to those children who have been forgotten by the community and the government. This further demonstrates the principle of nondiscrimination and equality which seeks to reach out to all children regardless of their position and situation. One organization frames its understanding of rights-based approaches as:

To advocate for children who have been directly forgotten by the community and the government (Kuwatetea watoto waliosahauliwa na jamii moja kwa moja na serikali)

2. Participation

Four organizations define and understand rights-based approaches as strategies to ensure participation of children in decision making and having a say in decisions that affect their lives. Participation to these organizations is also broadly understood to mean empowerment of children through participation. It also means to put the interests of the child at the center of each program:

To put the interests of the child in every program/project that we are implementing
(Kutanguliza maslahi ya mtoto kwanza kwa kila mradi unaotekelezwa)

This to us means that, all our programs target children and we put on the eyes of a child
(Ni kwamba mipango yetu yote imlenge mtoto, kuvaa miwani miwani ya mtoto, mipango yetu yoyote inamlenga mtoto)

It means planning all of our programs concerning children on the basis of child and human rights and to ensure child participation in all decision making (Kupanga mipango yote kuhusiana na watoto kwa kuzingatia haki zao na haki za binadamu na kuhakikisha ushiriki wa watoto unazingatiwa katika kufanya maamuzi)

3. Networking

The understanding of rights-based approaches as strategies to collaborate with others in the areas of child rights was mentioned by four organizations. This was taken to mean that organizations work with other nongovernmental organizations, international development organizations and the government to advance the rights of children in Tanzania. Rights-based approaches are therefore perceived to make possible the creation of alliances among stakeholders to work on issues affecting children.

A strategy to bring together child rights stakeholders to collectively advocate for children's rights (Ni mpango mahususi wa kuunganisha nguvu za wadau wa haki za mtoto katika kuhakikisha nguvu ya pamoja kweye harakati za kutetea haki za mtoto)

One organization's response further broadens collaboration to also include communities and political leaders:

A strategy that brings together development partners such as the community, political leaders and activists, to advocate for human rights. (Ni mfumo Unaojumisha wadau mbalimbali wa maendeleo katika kutetea haki za binadamu kwa mfano jamii, wanasiasa na wanaharakati mbalimbali)

Strategies used to address or advocate for child rights by our organization in partnership with other organizations that deal with children in our communities (Mikakati tunayotumia kutekeleza au kutetea haki za watoto kwa kushirikiana na mashirika mengine yanayohusika na watoto katika jamii yetu)

While another includes supporting the government to implement policies and laws on children:

We work in three areas: Meeting the needs of street children including protecting them against all forms of exploitation. 2. Re-uniting street children with their families. 3. Supporting government efforts to improve policies, laws and guidelines on children's rights. (Sisi tunafanya katika maeneo makuu matatu. 1. kufikia mahitaji ya watoto wa mataani ikiwa ni pamoja na ulinzi wa mtoto juu ya unyanyasaji wa aina yoyote. 2. kuunganisha watoto wanaoishi mtaani na familia zao. 2. kuunga mkono juhudi za serikali katika kuboresha sera, sheria na miongozo mbalimbali juu ya haki za watoto)

4. Accountability

Seven organizations see rights-based approaches as strategies to ensure accountability. Most characterized their role as making sure that the state met its obligations towards rights holders (children). Only one went as far as seeing accountability as applying to both the duty bearers (government) and the organizations to the service recipients. One NGO defines its understanding of rights-based approaches as:

An approach that strives to provide rights holders with their rights, and holds the duty bearers accountable to fulfill their obligations towards the rights holders

Another organization characterized their understanding even more precisely stating their role in helping to educate rights holders to be able to hold the government to account for its obligations towards the rights holders.

A strategy that helps the organization to make plans for empowering people to claim their rights instead of needs. This strategy also helps rights holders to hold duty bearers accountable and also to live up to their obligations in various international human rights frameworks such as UNCRC and the ACRWC (Mkakati wa utetezi wa haki maana yake ni mkakati ambao unawezesha shirika kupanga mipango ya kuwajengea uwezo kwa kuzingatia haki na sio hitaji. Mkakati huu pia unawezesha washika haki (right holders) kuwajibisha watoa maamuzi (duty bearers). Na mkakati huu pia hulenga kuwawezesha watoa maamuzi (duty bearers) kutimiza wajibu wao kwa kadri ya walivyoridhia mikataba mbalimbali ya kimataifa. Mfano Mkakati wa Kimataifa wa Haki za Mtoto (CRC) na Mkataba wa Afrika wa Haki na Ustawi wa Mtoto (ACRWC).

Yet another organization viewed its role very differently in terms of accountability compared to the other organizations. The following definition stood out as unique because it showed how the organization uses data and generating evidence as a means to hold the government accountable by exposing gaps in policy:

Implementing activities and programs that prioritize the safety and welfare of children and generating data that can inform the government and policy makers about the gaps that exist in advancing the rights of children (Ni kutekeleza mipango kazi na programu zinazotoa kipaumbele katika utekezaji wa usalama na ustawi wa mtoto pamoja na kutoa takwimu au matokeo ya utekezaji huo yanayoonesha ni kwa namna gani takwimu hizi zitaijuzua serekeli na watunga sera juu ya pengo lililopo katika utekezaji wa masuala ya haki za watoto)

5. Engagement with International and National Laws and Policy

The understanding and definition of rights-based approaches as engaging with international human rights and national legal framework was also mentioned. This aspect of the rights-based approach is seen as giving organizations the tools with which to hold the government accountable to its commitments in international and national human rights laws and policies. These organizations made explicit mention of using the international human rights framework and

national laws and policies on children to design their programs and also as a source of their claims.

Examples are such as:

Programs that help us implement policies aimed at protecting the rights of children
For us this is a strategy for program development rooted in laws and constitutional rights
to bring positive changes (Kwetu hii ni dhana au mbinu ya kimkakati au program ya maendeleo yenye misingi
ya haki ya kisheria au kikatiba inayolenga kufikia mabadiliko chanya).

Our organization strategy is to make sure that all children access their basic rights
according to the Universal Declaration on Human Rights. The main thing is to make sure
that laws and policies about children are improved and enforced particularly in fighting
against stigma, discrimination, and empowering them to claim their own rights (shirika lina
mkakati wa kuhakikisha kila mtoto anapata haki yake ya msingi kulingana na tangazo la haki za binadamu jambo
kubwa hapa ni kuhakikisha sera na sheria zinazohusu mtoto zinaboreshwa na kupewa nguvu hasa kutonyanyapaliwa
kutokubaguliwa na kupewa uwezo wa kupaza sauti juu ya haki zao)

Likewise, others framed this understanding of rights-based approaches in terms of their
specific areas of work. This organization was particularly using the language of accountability to
address laws that touch on the girl child:

Through RBA we are able to tackle challenges faced especially by girls such as early
pregnancies and laws that condone such practices; girls being thrown out of school
because of getting pregnant; and using girls as domestic servants and denying them
opportunities on the grounds of being a girl (Mkakati wa utetezi wa haki hususani haki za mtoto ni
mpango thabiti wa kusimamia mahitaji ya mtoto na kumsimamia katika haki zake na kusaidia katika maendeleo ya
maisha yake kwa ujumla kwani kwa kuwepo na mkakati wa utetezi wa haki kwa watoto kutasaidia katika kupambana
na changamoto zinazowakabili hasa watoto wa kike kupewa mimba katika umri mdogo na bila sheria kuchukuliwa,
wanafukuzwa mashuleni, kutengwa na jamii na familia zao, utumishwaji wa kazi za ndani na kunyimwa fursa
mbalimbali kwa kigezo cha kuwa mtoto)

And yet other organizations saw RBAs as being consistent with their legal assistance
work:

These are efforts that we take to help community members access their rights through
conflict resolution, mediation, and helping them with preparing court documents
especially women and children who are often unable to do soon their own (Ni jitahada
tunazozifanya ili kusaidia jamii kuweza kupata haki zao kwa kuwasaidia katika kusuluhisha migogoro, kupatanisha na
kuwaandikia nyaraka za kimahakama kwa wale wasiokuwa na uwezo hasa wanawake na watoto)

6. Rights-Based Approaches as Rights ‘Talk’

An understanding of rights-based approaches that came out from the organizations and was not captured in the five initial codes, is the view of rights-based approaches as the inclusion of rights talk in programming. Although it was not apparent how this rights talk is operationalized and understood, it seems to suggest that organizations understand rights-based approaches as any inclusion of the language of rights in their programs. Other studies on rights-based approach in Africa have found the challenge of linking rights-based approaches with this rights ”talk” and whether embracing rights talk is equivalent to embracing rights all together or just a means to attract donors who are interested in rights language (Destrooper, 2016; Muzyamba, 2015; Rupcic, 2012;). It remains unclear how this rights talk is translated into practice and how these organizations differ from those with a more specific understanding of rights-based approach.

7. Rights-Based Approaches as Justification

Another understanding of rights-based approaches that came out from the open-ended question was the view of rights-based approaches as a justification to intervene on behalf of children. Organizations that viewed RBA from this perspective see children as “inferior beings” needing adult intervention in their lives to advocate for their rights. Children are here seen as lacking the ability and agency to stand up for their own rights which then calls for adult intervention. The following excerpts from the definitions and understandings of RBA highlight this variation.

Children are dependent creatures and they need support from their elders, parents, and community to follow up on their rights (watoto ni viumbe tegemezi katika maana kuwa wanahitaji usaidizi wa watu wazima/wazazi/jamii kwa hiyo ni budi haki zao zifuatiliwe)

Children are weak creatures and they need the protection of their elders. It is important to have programs to protect vulnerable children (watoto ni viumbe dhaifu ambao wanahitaji ukaribu wa watu wazima, hivyo ni budi kuweka mkakati hususani kwa watoto waishio mazingira hatarishi)

Children are dependent creatures. It is therefore the responsibility of the society to take steps and ensure that their rights are met (Watoto ni viumbe tegemezi hivyo ni jukumu la jamii kuchukua mkakati wa kuhakikisha wanatendewa haki)

8. Rights-Based Approaches as Service Delivery

Other NGOs defined and understood rights-based approaches as strategies that helped to the deliver services and advocate for the rights of children.

For me rights-based approaches means to ensure that you are standing for the rights of children including meeting their basic needs such as food, shelter, clothing and education in order to build a secure future for them (Binafsi mkakati wa utetezi wa haki za watoto ni kuhakikisha unasimamia ipaswavyo haki za watoto ikiwemo mahitaji yao muhimu kama vile chakula, malazi, mavazi pamoja na elimu ili kumjengea mazingira mazuri ya maisha yake ya baadaye)

Helping children get their basic needs (Kuwasidia watoto kupata mahitaji yao ya msingi)
Ensuring children develop mentally, physically and in relationship with their community (Mtoto kuwa na ustawi bora kiakili, kimwili na kimauhusiano na jamii yake)

9. Rights-Based Approaches as Responsibilities

The understanding of rights-based approaches as meeting the rights and responsibilities of children was also mentioned. One organization described this understanding of RBA as:

“To promote and protect rights, the responsibility of children, and protecting children against all forms of discrimination” (Kulinda na kuthamini haki, wajibu wa mtoto na kumkinga dhidi ya ukatili na unyanyasaji wa aina yoyote).

See Categorization Matrix XIX for themes that emerged through content analysis.

Table XIX. Categorization Matrix

How does your organization define and understand rights-based approaches	Frequency (N of organizations)	Percent %
Universality & Equality	10	15
Participation	4	6
Networking	4	6
Accountability	7	11
Engagement with international and national laws and policies	11	17
RBA as ‘rights talk’	21	32
RBA as Justification	3	5
RBA as Service Delivery	3	3
RBA as Responsibilities	3	5
Missing	1	2
Total	65	100

G. Relationship Between Definition of RBA’s and Extent of Adoption of RBA’s

This study was also interested in understanding whether extent of adoption of rights-based approaches was at all related with the way an organization understood and defined rights-based approaches. To do this, the definition and understanding of rights-based approaches was entered onto SPSS as a categorical variable. Where an NGO definition was consistent with the definition of RBA that guided the study (i.e. contained one of the five elements of the RBA), it was coded as ‘1’ and ‘0’ where the definition was not consistent. Only one code was assigned to each organization that responded. I coded the category based on the code that was most explicit from reading the response from each organization. I then computed a one way ANOVA to test whether there was a significant relationship between NGOs that defined and understood rights-based approaches as the five elements of RBA used in this study, and those that didn’t. The

results show that there is no statistically significant difference between NGOs that defined the RBA in terms of the five elements that guided this study and those that didn't on the extent to which they adopted rights-based approaches as determined by ANOVA, $F(1, 63)=1.155, p>.05$ (Table XX).

Table XX.
Relationship Between Definition & Understanding of RBA and RBA Adoption
ANOVA Descriptives

Overall RBA Adoption	N	Mean	F	Sig.
Not consistent with RBA Definition in the study	29	35.672	1.155	0.287
Consistent with RBA Definition in the study	36	34.265		
Total	65	34.893		

VI. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Discussion of Findings

1. Descriptive and Bivariate Analyses

The findings of this study illuminate important influences between various internal and external factors and the extent to which NGOs adopt rights-based approaches. Most importantly, this study extends our knowledge of the different factors that are associated with the adoption of rights-based approaches in a developing country context.

A total of 110 local child rights NGOs that are part of the Tanzania Child Rights Forum (TCRF) participated in this study. These organizations are locally registered in Tanzania and are located across the country. Most indicated that they are located in urban settings. The bivariate analyses have shown that the overall adoption of rights-based approaches is significantly correlated with the NGO's perception of the legal and policy framework for children, having a supportive leadership, NGO's staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches and receiving funding from both international and internal sources. Where the NGO is located, whether or not it is associated with a religious organization, and the way the community perceives children's rights, are not significantly associated with any elements of the rights-based approaches or overall adoption of rights-based approaches at the bivariate level.

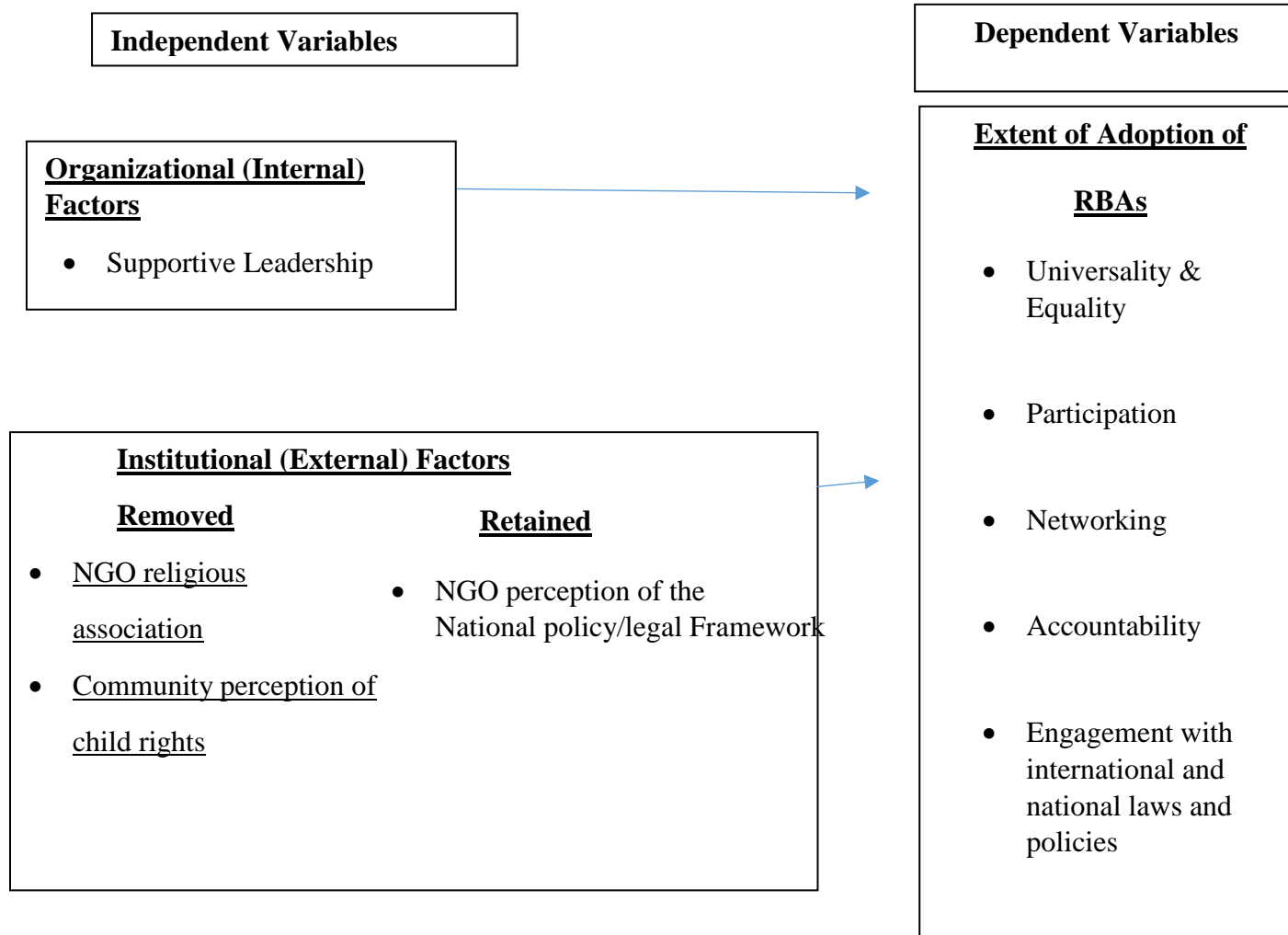
In terms of the independent variables, NGOs location is found to be significantly positively correlated with religious association. The Pearson's Chi-Square test of correlation shows that rural NGOs are more likely to have a religious association than their urban counterparts. While religious associations have for a long time had a prominent presence in development work in Tanzania, the data

suggests that this might also be a more rural phenomenon than an urban one. Other studies have generally linked this higher religious involvement in NGO work to higher rates of poverty in rural areas. These higher rates of poverty also appeal more to religious organizations which are more readily willing to give to the poor. Religiosity and religion in general, is also found to increase generosity and charity to the poor (Schnable, 2015; Regnerus, et al., 1998). NGO supportive leadership is found to be significantly correlated with NGO's perception of legal and policy framework for children. This is an interesting correlation which shows that a more supportive leadership leads to a more positive perception of the legal and policy framework for children.

Staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches is also found to be significantly correlated with community perception of children's rights. This would suggest that the higher the respondents rate their organization's staff in being capable to implement rights-based approaches, the higher they rate the community's perception of rights. In addition, staff capacity correlates with supportive leadership. This seems to reasonably suggest that a more supportive leadership correlates with higher rates of staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches. Receiving funding from external sources only is negatively correlated with receiving funding from both external and internal sources.

Figure II. Shows the updated conceptual framework based upon the bivariate analysis. This updated framework guided the multivariate analyses.

Figure II: Updated Conceptual Framework after Bivariate Analyses



2. Multivariate Analyses

At the multivariate level, the findings also show that those NGOs receiving funding from both international and internal sources are more likely to adopt rights-based approaches, particularly the elements of participation and engagement with international and national laws and policies, than those NGOs receiving funding from only internal sources. Receiving funding from international sources only compared to internal sources only, surprisingly, was not a significant predictor of adoption of rights-based approaches among this sample of local NGOs in Tanzania. Thus, the diversification of sources of funding here seems to be the main driver for the adoption of rights-based approaches rather than relying on single sources of funding. This is an interesting finding which stands against some recent studies in Africa which have directly attributed the adoption of rights-based approaches almost exclusively to receiving funding from international, mainly western, sources (Muzyamba, 2015; Ziwa, 2014; Unnithan & Heitmeyer, 2014; Cornwall & Brock, 2005).

Local organizations might here be responding to shifts in the global aid paradigms by diversifying their sources of funding. Following global financial meltdown that occurred in 2008, many organizations in donor dependent nations have had to renegotiate their engagement and dependence on foreign funding. With these changes at the global level, foreign funding has not only become scarce and unpredictable, but highly volatile with shifting donor priorities (Abouassi, 2014; Parks, 2008). For instance, some of the organizations that I contacted through follow up indicated that they had decided to close their projects as funding was not forthcoming. Thus, these organizations might be diversifying their sources of funding by merging internal and external sources as an adaptation mechanism. According to Frank (2008) seeking funding from multiple donors makes NGOs less “vulnerable to individual donor pressures and volatility” (p.219). It will be more informative for future studies to

explore how these NGOs respond to fluctuations in funding and the implications this might have on advocacy work for children in Tanzania.

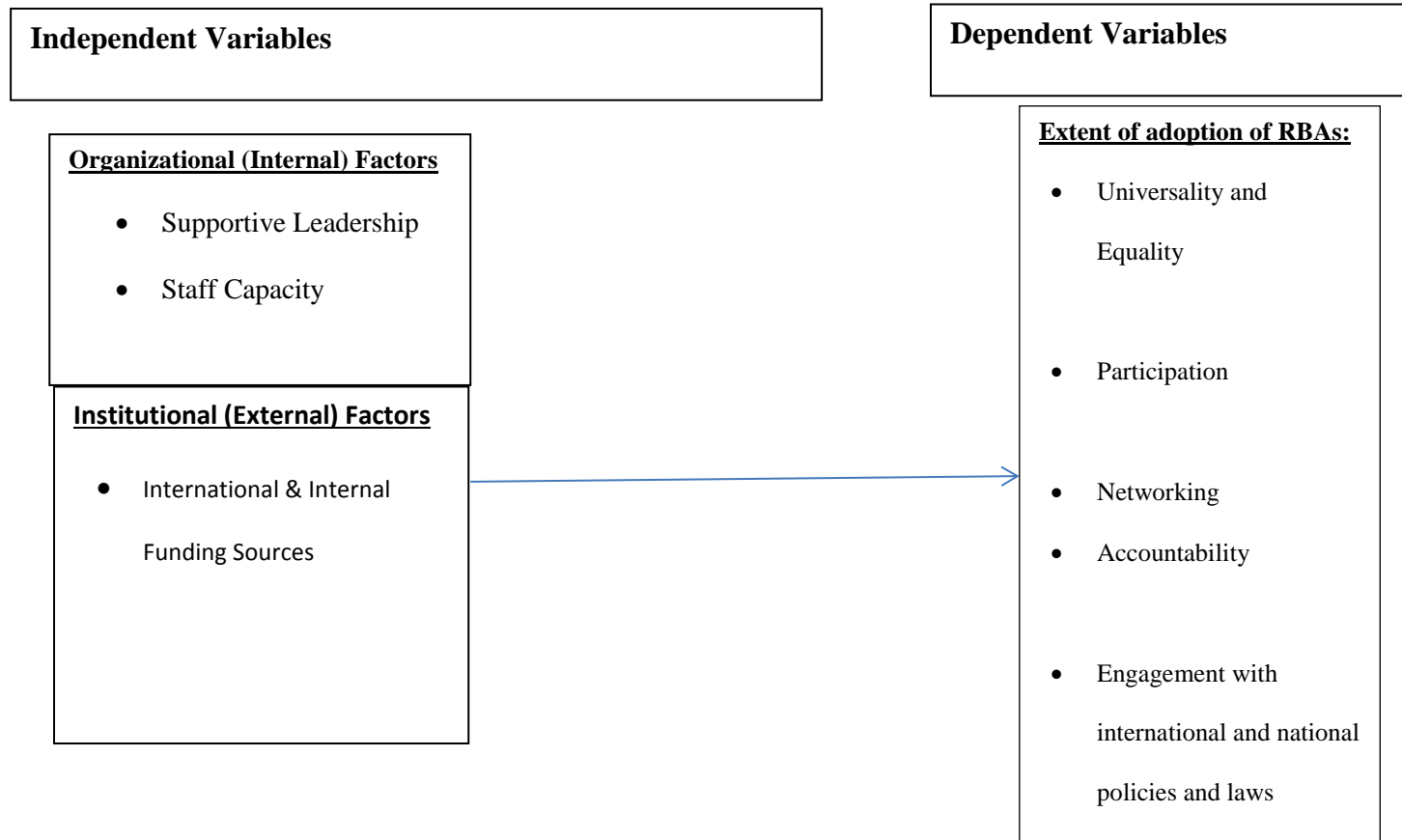
NGOs perception of national policy/legal framework was found to be positively associated with the adoption of rights-based approaches. NGOs that see the policy/legal framework as favorable are more likely to adopt rights-based approaches compared to those with a less favorable view. This is in conformity with other studies which have found a link between the perception of the legal and/or policy framework and engagement with rights work (Abrahamson, 1991; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Ako et al. 2013; TANGO, 2013). For a long time, the Tanzania legal framework related to children has been perceived negatively as offering little protection for women and children's rights (TANGO, 2013), and having too many conflicting laws in the area of child protection (Kisanga, et al., 2010). In addition, some organizations in Tanzania fear that the legal system is too weak and corrupt to adequately prosecute those who are accused of perpetrating crimes against women and children. This perception has in turn meant that many prefer to not report their cases to formal authorities fearing that they will not be handled fairly or preferring to resolve matters outside the formal legal system (Kisanga, et al., 2010). It would, therefore, make sense that for those NGOs with a more favorable view of the legal and policy framework, would want to engage in rights work compared to those who perceive the framework negatively.

This study also shows us that internal factors, particularly leadership support and staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches, are important predictors of adoption of rights-based approaches. Motivating and supporting employees to learn and use rights-based approaches, is here shown to be important. Various studies have shown how internal factors especially having a supportive leadership and motivating staff serves as a key factor for adoption of innovations, including rights-based approaches (Plipat, 2005; Bakuwa & Mamman, 2012; Okorley & Nkrumah, 2012). For instance,

Bakuwa and Mamman (2012) found that top leadership support was the single most important factor for workplace adoption of HIV/AIDS policy by NGOs in Malawi.

Likewise, whether staff members feel they have the capacity to implement rights-based approaches is important. This factor is also found to be related with supportive leadership. This would seem to suggest that the two go together to influence the adoption of rights-based approaches. We can therefore infer that where staff members are motivated and supported by the leadership, their perceived ability to implement rights-based approaches, increases. This is an interesting finding which shows that in addition to external factors, what the leadership does-including how much it motivates and supports its staff and how staff members perceive their capacities-are important factors for successful adoption of innovations in general, and rights-based approaches, in particular. Figure III shows the conceptual framework after multivariate analyses. The figure shows that, ultimately, the extent of adoption of rights-based approaches in this sample of local NGOs in Tanzania can be predicted by the staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches, how supportive the leadership is and receiving funding from both internal and external sources compared to receiving from internal sources only.

Figure III. Final Updated Conceptual Framework After Multivariate Analyses



3. Content Analysis

The only open ended question in the survey sought to understand how different organizations that are part of the Child Rights Forum defined and understood the rights-based approach. The responses to this question were analyzed through content analysis procedures and what follows is a discussion of the key findings that emerged through this process.

a) Different Understandings of Rights-Based Approaches

This study has also shown us that rights-based approaches are not understood to mean the same thing even for organizations that are part of the same child rights forum. In addition to this diversity of understanding, most organizations see rights-based approaches as any inclusion of the language of rights in their work while others emphasize specific elements of rights-based that are most salient for their programs and community needs. According to this group of organizations, rights-based approaches include: elements of universality and equality; participation; networking; accountability and engagement with international human rights framework; inclusion of the language of rights in programming; justification for adults to intervene in the lives of children; the inclusion of rights and services; and merging rights and responsibility.

This does seem very interesting as it challenges the mainstream western driven understandings of rights and rights-based approaches. Other studies have also found this diversity in understandings and interpretations of rights-based approaches or *plural rights-based approaches* (Cornwall & Nyamu-Musembi, 2004, p.1415) which differ from those propagated by large international development organizations such as UNICEF, Plan International, Save the Children International, Swedish International Development Organization etc. (Muzyamba et al. 2015; Destrooper 2016; Unnithan & Heitmeyer, 2014). While it was explicitly expressed through

the findings, the variety of interpretations of rights-based approaches shown by these local NGOs, points to a challenge on the universality of the mainstream idea of rights-based approaches. To what extent could this be seen as a small way by which these small organizations are pushing back on a received norm and interpreting it on their own? Future studies would seek to delve deeper into exploring how local organizations perceive the notion of rights as a received norm.

It also shows us that NGOs are engaged in a “cherry-picking” process where they adopt certain elements of the rights-based approaches that are relevant to their contexts while leaving out others. This cherry picking was also recently found in a study by Destrooper (2016) who found that a water and sanitation program in the Democratic Republic of the Congo contained several elements of the rights-based approach but other elements were “virtually absent”. These differences also point to the processes involved in translating human rights at the local context level. Merry (2006) for instance, argues that for human rights to be effective, they have to be translated into local terms and situated within local contexts. A process she refers to as “vernacularization” (p.135). These findings seem to point to this process of vernacularization where NGOs are appropriating specific elements of the rights-based approaches that are most salient with their local community needs, culture and program objectives.

b) Rights-Based Approaches as Rights “Talk”

The understanding of rights-based approaches as any inclusion of the language of rights in programs was particularly interesting. Although it was not apparent from this study how this rights talk is operationalized and translated on the ground, it seems to suggest that organizations may be freely incorporating rights talk without attempts to translate them into action. Other studies on rights-based approaches in Africa have found the challenge of linking rights-based

approaches with this rights "talk" and whether embracing rights talk is equivalent to embracing rights all together or just a means to attract donors who are interested in rights language (Destrooper, 2016; Muzyamba, 2015; Rupcic, 2012). This begs another question as to whether this is yet another passing development gimmick and rhetoric. According to Cornwall and Nyamu-Musembi, 2004, the field of development is ripe with buzz words which become trendy but which do little to transform old development practices. According to them, the rights-based approach like other fashions has become "the latest designer item to be seen to be wearing and has been used to dress up the same old development" (p.1417). It therefore remains unclear how this rights talk is translated into practice and how these organizations differ from those with a more specific understanding of rights-based approach. Future studies would seek to uncover this by delving deeper into the translation processes and practices of local NGOs that are branding themselves as rights-based.

c) **Rights-Based Approaches as Service Delivery**

The understanding of rights-based approaches as not only the advocacy of rights but also the provision of services, is an interesting one as it brings us to question the relevance and practicality of advocating rights exclusively without regard to service provision. This understanding of rights-based approaches challenge the dominant liberal articulation of rights-based approaches which tends to emphasis rights more than services. However, this understanding of rights-based approaches is not surprising given the fact that these organizations work in areas that experience high levels of poverty. In such contexts, a concrete intervention in tackling poverty is likely to be more appreciated than a rights work which does not bear immediate results in improving the lives of people on the ground. Other studies conducted within

an African context (e.g. Muzyamba, 2015 and Ziwa, 2014) also show that the advocacy of rights without the inclusion of poverty alleviation goals is often considered inadequate. On the other hand, this finding helps us to expand prevailing understandings of rights-based approaches which are often framed as the complete shift from a needs based approach. Perhaps, these local NGOs raise the relevance of exploring the rights-services continuum instead of a complete dichotomy.

d) Rights-Based Approaches as Responsibilities

The understanding of rights-based approaches as a means for children to meet their responsibilities toward their elders and community was particularly important in this group of local NGOs. This does seem slightly deviate from the mainstream understanding of rights-based approaches which places more attention on rights than responsibilities. However, the understanding that children have rights and responsibilities is a well-known attribute of most African cultures and is articulated in article 31 of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. Under this charter, children are seen to have rights and responsibilities toward their parents, kinship groups and community. And at the continental level, children are charged with the responsibility of maintaining the unity of the people of Africa (Mbise, 2017). This is often cited to challenge the perceived lack of emphasis on responsibilities articulated in the UNCRC. By situating rights within the realm of the state, some suggest that the UNCRC diminishes the roles and responsibilities of children toward their parents, elders and their communities as articulated in most non-western societies. For instance, in their study on translation of human rights by civil society actors in India, Unnithan and Heitmeye (2014) found that civil society workers were particularly frustrated by the lack of emphasis on duty and responsibility in received notions of rights-based approaches in India.

e) **Rights-Based Approaches as Justification**

This study has shown that some organizations view rights-based approaches as offering a justification to intervene on behalf of children. Children are here viewed as lacking the ability and agency to stand up for their own rights which then calls for adult intervention. This view seems to challenge what is commonly seen as the foundation of rights-based approaches and other empowerment based approaches. This study causes us to reflect more on the notions of rights and empowerment as they are commonly understood under the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC). They also raise the larger question of the extent to which rights-based approaches can transform adult-children relationships and the role that culture plays in the interpretation and understanding of RBAs. Some studies on RBA in an African context have found that RBAs generally lacked the transformative power they are purported to have. For instance, in Malawi, Ziwa (2014) found that RBAs did little to transform power relations and structures between the donors, agencies and staff and rights holders. Likewise in Ghana, RBAs failed to challenge structural power inequalities at the local and national levels (Aberese Ako et al., 2012). On the other hand, some may see this articulation of rights-based approaches as being consistent with the UNCRC and the ACRWC. The UNCRC could be seen as granting parental responsibility to adults rather than taking it away. According to Article 5 of the convention, children should be able to exercise their rights as they acquire the competences to do so. Thus children's capabilities are seen as evolving. Until such a time, parents retain the rights to direct their children. Yet others may see this articulation of parental responsibility being in conflict with provisions of the convention which assert the rights of children to be heard regardless of their age, to participate in decision making and that their rights to privacy and confidentiality should be respected (CRIN, 2017).

f) Shift from Needs to Rights-Based Approaches?

Lastly, this group of NGOs have shown us that there has not been a complete move from needs based approaches to rights-based approaches. The fact that some of these organizations see rights-based approaches as the provision of services, highlights that the necessity for direct service provision remains and has not been replaced by advocacy NGOs. These local NGOs also help us to place the notion of rights-based approaches to more scrutiny with regards to its relevance and applicability to a context characterized by high resources dependence and poverty. In addition, they help us to see the rights-based approaches and needs based approaches as lying on a continuum of rights and services. This will be an important research to explore in the future to understand how rights and services are translated together in a local community context in Tanzania.

4. Reinterpreting Theoretical and Conceptual Perspectives

From an innovation adoption and social development perspective, this study has shown us the complex nature of rights-based adoption at the local level in a developing country characterized by low resource and dependence on foreign funding. This study has shown that organizational (internal) factors, particularly the staff capacity to implement rights-based approaches and having a supportive leadership, are the most important factors for these small local NGOs to adopt rights-based approaches. Initially it was expected that external factors, particularly receiving funding from external sources only, will have a greater impact on the extent of adoption of rights-based approaches. However, we see that organizations have diverse sources of funding opting to mix funding from internal and external sources. Thus, in their bid to promote social development, local NGOs are here seen to negotiate complex organizational and

institutional factors for pragmatic and developmental objectives. Pragmatic objectives are aimed at the survival of small resource dependent grass root organizations (such as mixing diverse sources of funding instead of relying exclusively on external sources) while social development goals aim at expanding access to justice and rights for vulnerable groups in society such as children.

The findings have also thrown light on the fact that the interpretation and understanding of rights-based approaches by these local organizations is much more varied than originally conceived. These organizations understand rights-based approaches as much more than the adoption of the five elements initially conceptualized in this study. This suggests that the relationship between the variables is much more complex than initially hypothesized. Also, the fact that we could not establish any significant relationship between the various understandings of rights-based approaches and the extent of adoption, might suggest that other variables need to be considered in order to fully understand the complex relationship between the variables in the framework.

While these findings were derived from the Tanzanian context, they bear some relevance to other developing countries characterized by high levels of poverty and high dependence on non-governmental organizations to deliver much needed services and advocate for rights. This is especially true for most Sub-Saharan African countries which rely on international development aid for cash assistance and are often at the center of translating norms developed in the international development arena.

5. The Research Experience

This study used an online survey to quantitatively assess internal and external factors associated with the adoption of rights-based approaches in Tanzania. This is one of the only known studies to use an online survey to study small grassroots NGOs in Tanzania. Despite having a comfortable level of penetration of mobile phone technology (65% own mobile phones, 8% own smartphones (Pew Research 2015) and rising numbers of people with access to the internet, relying on an online survey to research in Tanzania was always going to be challenging. With this in mind, an aggressive follow up plan was utilized to make sure that as many NGOs as possible were contacted and encouraged to participate. This meant sending reminder emails and follow up phone calls to organizations. Some responded immediately, others after several phone calls, and others, not at all.

Some of the reasons for not responding included, not having internet connection, organizations having changed emails and phone numbers, organizations having closed their projects due to lack of funding, contact persons having moved on to other organizations, and other organizations refusing to pick up calls that came from outside Tanzania. Foreign numbers (or any phone number that is too different from the known national phone networks) are associated with cybercrime and superstition. In a country where belief in the occult and mysticism is high (see for example Mesaki, 2009; Green, 2005; Mesaki, 1993), a foreign number may have been interpreted from these perspectives. Having realized this, the researcher also tried to make follow up calls from within Tanzania but with little success.

A. **Limitations of the study**

All studies have limitations (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). This study was not an exception and it had several conceptual and methodological limitations. The first conceptual limitation relates to the lack of a clear and accepted definition of a rights-based approach. Although this study sought to address this limitation by proposing a definition that had five dimensions, the varying understanding of what constitutes rights-based approaches in practice remains a challenge. To address this challenge, participants were asked to provide narrative definitions of rights-based approach before they read the definition of rights-based approach that anchored the survey questions. As anticipated, more dimensions emerged from the respondents.

The questionnaire and most of the items and scales contained in the questionnaire were originally developed for this study. The reliability and validity of the items and scales contained in the questionnaire had not been previously tested for reliability and validity with the population from which my sample is obtained. I, however, included several procedures for strengthening the integrity of the measures such as review by panel of experts, pilot testing, translation and back-translation, and internal consistency reliability testing for multi-item scales. Future studies will aim at developing a validated measure of adoption of rights-based approaches within an African context.

Another challenge was in obtaining a large enough sample to ensure adequate statistical power for the multivariate analyses. Based upon the number of variables in the multivariate analyses, a minimum sample size of 90 respondents was required to ensure adequate statistical power. However, this number was not achieved. Despite the limited statistical power, three variables did demonstrate sufficient predictive power: leadership, perception of the policy/legal framework for children, and funding source. The small sample size also limits generalizability of

the findings. It is not clear how well the responding NGOs represent all NGOs that are part of the TCRF, and no claim can be made that these findings can be generalized to NGOs outside of the TCRF.

Also, the survey was sent to one NGO representative. It is not known whether NGO representatives were objective enough in their ratings of the degree to which their organizations were adopting rights-based approaches or whether their responses were the best representation of the organization's policies and practices.

This study was also limited by the use of a quantitative approach. An in-depth exploration of the experiences and challenges from the perspective of those working on child rights would have expanded our understanding of the experiences of local NGOs for adopting rights-based approaches. Future studies will seek to delve further into the issues identified in this study to conduct in-depth interviews that seek to understand the experiences of implementing rights-based approaches by local NGOs in Tanzania.

Finally, while it was important to protect the anonymity of responding organizations in the survey, it limits the extent to which we can describe the characteristics of the responding organizations and those that did not respond to the survey. This, in turn, limits the extent to which we can generalize our findings beyond this sample of organizations without adequate description of their characteristics. Also while most organizations indicated that they were rural, the demarcation between what constitutes a rural or urban area, is unclear. It is not clear whether the organizations point of reference for location was their headquarters or where their services are delivered. Future studies will seek to delineate this more clearly.

B. Implications of this Study for Social Work Practice, Education, Research and Policy.

Despite some limitations, the study generated important findings which have some useful implications for social work practice, education, research and policy.

Implications for social work practice: Human rights lie at the core of social work. The social work codes of ethics of professional organizations around the world appeal to the concept of people having rights that social workers need to respect and advocate (TASWA, 2012; IFSW, 2012; Androff, 2016). As a form of practice, the rights-based approach seeks to hold governments accountable for ensuring that rights are met for all members of society. The findings of this study have two key implications for social work practice. The study has shown that leadership support has huge implications for how much staff can work to advocate for the rights of children. This will therefore mean that social work practice would have to understand and continue to motivate staff in small local settings who are often at the center of translating received norms in their local contexts. Such a position can be exciting but also frustrating as staff try to reconcile between various discourses as Unnithan and Heitmeyer (2014) note:

CSO workers, often acting as mediators between local communities, on the one hand, and the state and development networks, on the other, play a central role in reconciling these multiple discourses (p.1369).

This study therefore draws attention to social work leadership to ensure staff, particularly in small local NGOs in resource poor settings, remain active and motivated in their roles.

Secondly, this study has shown that rights-based approaches do not have a universally accepted definition or understanding and despite being dependent on external funding, local NGOs have selectively appropriated them to fit their local needs and understandings of rights. In

a word, this study has highlighted that there are multiple and often contested interpretations of rights. Social workers practicing in these local settings must maintain an open mind and seek to understand local community's own interpretation and understanding of rights. This understanding can also only come through genuine engagement with and working in solidarity with these communities.

Thirdly, and most relevant to Tanzania, the findings are highly relevant to ongoing work to strengthen case management practices and social service workforce strengthening programs (Davis, 2017). These findings point to the need for case management staff to incorporate rights advocacy and direct service provision at the local level where necessary. These efforts should be seen as complimentary and mutually reinforcing rather than mutually exclusive of each other.

Implications for social work education: This study contributes to further explorations of the role of international social work education particularly with grassroots nongovernmental organizations. This study has shown that different internal and external factors influence the extent to which organizations adopt rights-based approaches. External factors such as how NGO's perceive the legal/policy framework for children are important in understanding how rights-based approaches are adopted differently by different organizations. Similarly, internal factors such as leadership support are important for adopting innovations.

This study also brings into discussion the role of international development norms and values and their adoption at the local level. NGOs that are part of the Tanzania Child Rights Forum serve as a case of how international norms developed in the spheres of international experts are received and applied in a developing country context. It also shows us that NGOs negotiate complex factors seeking to balance practical community needs with shifts in funding infrastructure at the international and national level. These findings should also help to generate

discussion about our roles as social workers in the face of globalization, international development and the changing nature of international funding.

Implications for social work research: This study is one of a few to quantitatively explore factors that are related with the adoption of rights-based approaches by local non-governmental organizations in a developing country. It is also the first to utilize growing internet and mobile phone connectivity in a developing country to conduct an online survey. While this is not a means to replace face-to-face engagement with people, and certainly not a challenge free option, it presents new opportunities going forward for engaging in research in a developing country within the context of growing internet connectivity. This study has also helped to delineate some of the key factors for adoption of rights-based approaches for organizations working with children as well as opening up to new factors that were not initially understood. More research is needed to understand, in greater depth, the contextual factors associated with innovation adoption of human rights-based social work. These qualitative studies should explore in greater depth the understanding and translation of rights-based approaches by organizations at the local level. They should also seek to include the views of staff and clients from the community. On the other hand, using a mixed method study which begins with a qualitative component may allow for the development of a more robust measure of factors that can be assessed quantitatively with a larger sample than was used in this study. To address sampling issues, future studies can expand beyond a convenient sample like the TCRF, to look at organization that exist outside the network.

Implications for social work policy: This study contributes to the further exploration of partnerships between government and non-government actors in advancing the rights of children. More specifically, it begins to shed some light on the experiences of those who are at the

forefront of implementing government policies on behalf of children. These experiences show that the people implementing policies do not share a common understanding of policy statements on children. It also shows that supportive leadership including motivating and rewarding social service staff is an important ingredient in the implementation of policies. This is especially relevant for Tanzania as it embarks on social service workforce strengthening programs. A motivational and staff capacity component should clearly be reflected in policies addressing the rights of children and youth in Tanzania. For instance, while the current Tanzania National Costed Plan of Action II notes the strategic importance of supporting social welfare workers working with most vulnerable children (NCPA II Strategic Objective 4), the policy is silent on how these core professionals will be motivated and supported to achieve the objectives of the policy. Clarifying the support and motivational packages for professionals working with most vulnerable children at the local government level, will be an important component for ensuring that policies are effectively translated into practice.

Secondly, this study has shown us that relying only on internal funding is associated with lower implementation of a rights-based approaches. This may also reflect staff and organizational capacity, since organizations with greater staff capacity are more likely to attract funding from international sources and more likely to diversify their funding sources. Leading international development organizations wanting to promote a rights-based approach in Tanzania, should therefore refocus their policies to invest in building the capacity of local NGOs they have not previously funded. At the same time, these large donors should incorporate local concerns into their understandings of RBA and how they can be implemented at the local level.

Third, this study has shown us that there is a diversity of understanding of rights-based approaches even by organizations that are part of the same child rights forum in Tanzania. The

multiplicity of interpretations of the same received notion of rights shows us that the policy formulation processes and implementation ought to ensure this diversity of understandings is reflected in the policies developed. Quite often, most policies involving children and youth in Tanzania emerge out of consultative processes that rarely reach and involve small local organizations such as the ones that participated in this study. Most small local organizations are often missing in luxurious board rooms of major cities where policy decisions are made. This study is one reminder that diversity of interpretations extends to the smallest NGO working with children and youth at the community level. Involving these diverse understandings will be a key step to ensure more inclusive and representative policies targeting children and youth in Tanzania.

C. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study sought to understand internal and external factors that influence the extent to which child rights NGOs in Tanzania adopted rights-based approaches. Through a quantitative and content analysis approach, the findings show that the extent to which these organizations adopted rights-based approaches was dependent on having a supportive leadership, staff being able to implement rights-based approaches, receiving funding from both internal and external sources compared to receiving from internal sources only and how they perceive the policy and legal framework for working with children in Tanzania. We also see that there is a varied understanding of rights-based approaches among this group of NGOs and that a complete shift from service provision to rights advocacy has not occurred for all organizations. Based upon the findings of the study, I conclude with the following recommendations:

1. At the practice level, rights-based approaches can both be a means to advocate rights and to provide direct services. Integrating rights advocacy and service provision fits well with the ongoing efforts to strengthen case management frameworks in Tanzania. It is important to examine how an emphasis on rights and an emphasis on service provision provide synergies and complement each other to improve the overall wellbeing of children and communities in Tanzania.
2. A motivational and staff capacity component should clearly be reflected in policies addressing the rights of children and youth in Tanzania. The current NCPAII should clearly highlight motivational and support packages for social service workers in the government and civil society.
3. Future studies should explore in greater depth the understanding and translation of rights-based approaches by organizations at the local level. They should also seek to include the views of staff and clients from the community.
4. Financing social welfare services in Tanzania is a constant challenge. Securing funding is partly dependent upon staff and organizational capacity. This study recommends investing in the capacity of local NGOs to attract and compete for funding from a variety of external and internal sources, and to do so in a way that helps external sources understand the views and beliefs of local NGOs and their communities. This is not only a more sustainable way to achieve the objectives of the policies but also a better way to develop ownership by those targeted by the policies.
5. Educate students to critically engage with received notions of development. It is essential that social workers who are at the forefront of implementing policies

targeting children and youth are able to meaningfully question and translate these norms consistent with the values and traditions of the communities in which they serve.

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Appendix A.

Research Approval
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
AT CHICAGO

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS)
Office of the Vice Chancellor for Research (MC 672)
203 Administrative Office Building
1737 West Polk Street
Chicago, Illinois 60612-7227

Approval Notice
Initial Review (Response To Modifications)

June 10, 2016

Amana Mbise
Jane Addams College of Social Work
Psychiatry
1747 W Roosevelt Rd, M/C 747
Chicago, IL
Phone: (312) 996-1426

RE: Protocol # 2016-0293
“Factors Influencing the Extent to Which Child Rights NGOs In Tanzania Adopt `Rights-Based Approaches”

Dear Mr. Mbise:

Please note that stamped and approved .pdfs of all recruitment and consent documents will be forwarded as an attachment to a separate email. OPRS/IRB no longer issues paper letters and stamped/approved documents, so it will be necessary to retain the emailed documents for your files for auditing purposes.

Your Initial Review (Response To Modifications) was reviewed and approved by the Expedited review process on June 2, 2016. You may now begin your research

Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

Protocol Approval Period: June 2, 2016 - June 2, 2017
Approved Subject Enrollment #: 114
Additional Determinations for Research Involving Minors: These determinations have not been made for this study since it has not been approved for enrollment of minors.
Performance Sites: UIC, Tanzania Childs Rights Forum (TCRF)
Sponsor: None
PAF#: Not applicable
Research Protocol(s):

- a) Factors Influencing the Extent to Which Child Rights NGOs in Tanzania Adopt Rights-Based

Approaches; Version 2; 05/17/2016

Recruitment Material(s):

- a) Face-to-Face Script; Version 1; 03/09/2016
- b) Phone Script; Version 1; 03/09/2016
- c) Reminder Email; Version 2; 04/19/2016
- d) Reminder Email (Kiswahili); Version 2; 04/19/2016

Informed Consent(s):

- a) Email Invitation; Version 1; 03/09/2016
- b) Email Invitation (Kiswahili); Version 1; 04/19/2016
- c) A waiver of consent has been granted under 45 CFR 46.116(d) for recruitment (for access to potential subject contact information) purposes only; minimal risk; electronic consent will be obtained at enrollment
- d) A waiver of documentation of consent has been granted under 45 CFR 46.117 for all of the research (for the online survey); minimal risk; subjects will be provided with an information sheet containing all of the elements of consent

Your research meets the criteria for expedited review as defined in 45 CFR 46.110(b)(1) under the following specific category(ies):

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including but not limited to research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Please note the Review History of this submission:

Receipt Date	Submission Type	Review Process	Review Date	Review Action
03/11/2016	Initial Review	Expedited	03/21/2016	Modifications Required
05/20/2016	Response To Modifications	Expedited	06/02/2016	Approved

Please remember to:

→ Use your **research protocol number** (2016-0293) on any documents or correspondence with the IRB concerning your research protocol.

→ Review and comply with all requirements on the OPRS website at, "UIC Investigator Responsibilities, Protection of Human Research Subjects" (<http://tiger.uic.edu/depts/ovcr/research/protocolreview/irb/policies/0924.pdf>)

Please note that the UIC IRB has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions,

seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Please be aware that if the scope of work in the grant/project changes, the protocol must be amended and approved by the UIC IRB before the initiation of the change.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research. If you have any questions or need further help, please contact OPRS at (312) 996-1711 or me at (312) 355-0816. Please send any correspondence about this protocol to OPRS at 203 AOB, M/C 672.

Sincerely,

Alison Santiago, MSW, MJ
Assistant Director, IRB # 2
Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

Enclosure(s) will be sent in a separate email:

- 1. Informed Consent Document(s):**
 - a) Email Invitation; Version 1; 03/09/2016
 - b) Email Invitation (Kiswahili); Version 1; 04/19/2016
- 2. Recruiting Material(s):**
 - a) Face-to-Face Script; Version 1; 03/09/2016
 - b) Phone Script; Version 1; 03/09/2016
 - c) Reminder Email; Version 2; 04/19/2016
 - d) Reminder Email (Kiswahili); Version 2; 04/19/2016

cc: Creasie Hairston, Jane Addams College of Social Work, M/C 309
James Gleeson (Faculty Advisor), Jane Addams College of Social Work, M/C 309

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
AT CHICAGO

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS)
Office of the Vice Chancellor for Research (MC 672)
203 Administrative Office Building
1737 West Polk Street
Chicago, Illinois 60612-7227

**Approval Notice
Continuing Review**

May 17, 2017

Amana Mbise
Jane Addams College of Social Work
Psychiatry
1747 W Roosevelt Rd, M/C 747
Chicago, IL
Phone: (312) 996-1426

RE: Protocol # 2016-0293
“Factors Influencing the Extent to Which Child Rights NGOs in Tanzania Adopt Rights-Based Approaches”

Dear Mr. Mbise:

Your Continuing Review was reviewed and approved by the Expedited review process on May 17, 2017. You may now continue your research.

Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

Protocol Approval Period: June 2, 2017 - June 2, 2018
Approved Subject Enrollment #: 114 (Limited to data analyses for 78 subjects)
Additional Determinations for Research Involving Minors: These determinations have not been made for this study since it has not been approved for enrollment of minors.
Performance Sites: UIC, Tanzania Childs Rights Forum (TCRF)
Sponsor: None
Research Protocol:

- b) Factors Influencing the Extent to Which Child Rights NGOs in Tanzania Adopt Rights-Based Approaches; Version 2; 05/17/2016

Recruitment Material(s):

- e) N/A – limited to data analysis only

Informed Consent(s):

- e) N/A – limited to data analysis only

Your research meets the criteria for expedited review as defined in 45 CFR 46.110(b)(1) under the following specific category(ies):

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including but not limited to research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Please note the Review History of this submission:

Receipt Date	Submission Type	Review Process	Review Date	Review Action
05/05/2017	Continuing Review	Expedited	05/17/2017	Approved

Please remember to:

→ Use your **research protocol number** (2016-0293) on any documents or correspondence with the IRB concerning your research protocol.

→ Review and comply with all requirements on the guidance:

"UIC Investigator Responsibilities, Protection of Human Research Subjects"

(<http://research.uic.edu/irb/investigators-research-staff/investigator-responsibilities>)

Please note that the UIC IRB has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Please be aware that if the scope of work in the grant/project changes, the protocol must be amended and approved by the UIC IRB before the initiation of the change.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research. If you have any questions or need further help, please contact OPRS at (312) 996-1711 or me at (312) 996-9299. Please send any correspondence about this protocol to OPRS at 203 AOB, M/C 672.

Sincerely,

Allison A. Brown, PhD
IRB Coordinator, IRB # 2


Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

Enclosure(s): None

cc: Creasie Hairston, Jane Addams College of Social Work, M/C 309
James Gleeson, (Faculty Sponsor) Jane Addams College of Social Work, M/C 309

Appendix B. Research Approval: COSTECH

**TANZANIA COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
(COSTECH)**



Telephones: (255 - 022) 2775155 - 6, 2700745/6
Director General: (255 - 022) 2700750&2775315
Fax: (255 - 022) 2775313
Email: rclearance@costech.or.tz

Ali Hassan Mwinyi Road
P.O. Box 4302
Dar es Salaam
Tanzania

RESEARCH PERMIT

No. 2016-164-NA -2016-63 2nd May 2016

1. Name : Amana Talala Mbise

2. Nationality : Tanzanian


3. Title : "Factors Influencing the Extent to which Child Rights NGOs in Tanzania Adopt Rights-Based Approaches"


4. Research shall be confined to the following region(s): Dar es Salaam

5. Permit validity from: 2nd May 2016 to 1st May 2017

6. Contact/Collaborator: Mr. Eric Shemweta Guga, Tanzania Child Rights Forum, Dar es Salaam

7. Researcher is required to submit progress report on quarterly basis and submit all Publications made after research.


M. Mushi
for: DIRECTOR GENERAL





Tanzania Child Rights Forum
Ref: TCRF/016/RES/33



Tuesday, 2 February 2016

To Research Clearance,
Tanzania Commission Science And Technology,
Ally Hassan Mwinyi Rd. Kijitonyama area,
P.O. Box 4302,
Dar es Salaam.

Dear Sir/Madam,

Ref: PhD Candidate at the University of Illinois at Chicago.

Kindly refer to the above subject.

We wish to inform you that Amana Talala Mbise has been accepted to conduct his research entitled "Factors Influencing the extent to which child rights NGOs in Tanzania adopt rights based approaches" through our network. We are hoping Amana's Work will be helpful in supporting and expanding our knowledge on advocating for the of the child in Tanzania.

As you may already know, Tanzania Child Rights Forum (TCRF), is a space for mutual collaboration and networking and it emerge from CSO's engagement in the process towards enactment of the Law of the Child Act No. 21 of 2009. Working with about 200 CSOs to-date, TCRF coordinate CSOs working on child rights issues in the country in order to ensure effective and efficient implementation and timely reporting on the progress made towards those commitments made by the state party.

I anticipate your support and cooperation in this.

Eric Shemweta Guga,

Coordinator, Tanzania Child Rights Forum.

Copy: 1. Minister of Health, Community Development, Gender, Seniors and Children, P.O. Box, 3448, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

Appendix C

**Survey Questionnaire
Adoption of Rights-based Approaches by Child Rights NGOs in Tanzania**

- 1. I have read the consent information in the invitation email and...
 - a. I agree to participate in this survey
 - b. I don't wish to participate in this survey

- 2. Is your organization a member of the Tanzania Child Rights Forum
 - Yes 1
 - No 2

- 3. We are registered and operate locally in Tanzania
 - Yes 1
 - No 2

If answered **NO to the above questions participant is skipped to a page reading:**

“Based upon your response, it is clear that your organization does not meet the criteria for inclusion in this study. Click Next If you are interested in sources for capacity building for NGOs working to advocate for children's rights in Africa”

- 4. How does your organization define and understand rights-based approaches? (Please provide your organization's definition. There is no right or wrong answer)

GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION

- 5. Which of the following best describes the location of your organization?
 - Rural 1
 - Urban 2

RELIGIOUS ASSOCIATION

- 6. Is your NGO associated with a religious organization?

Yes 1

No 2

NGO’s PERCEPTION OF NATIONAL POLICY/LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR CHILDREN

Please rate the following statement on the extent to which your organization perceives the national policy/legal framework for children to be conducive for advocating children’s rights in Tanzania where 1 is *not at all* and 4 to a *great extent*

Category of perception	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat (3)	To a great extent (4)	Don’t know (5)
7. To what extent would you say the policy and legal environment in Tanzania is conducive to advocating for children’s rights	1	2	3	4	5

COMMUNITY PERCEPTION OF CHILD RIGHTS

Please rate the following statement on the extent to which you perceive the community to be supportive of children’s rights where 1 is *not at all* and 4 to a *great extent*

Category of perception	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat (3)	To a great extent (4)	Don’t know (5)
8. To what extent would you say the community in this area supports children’s rights?	1	2	3	4	5

SOURCE OF FUNDING

9. Which of the following best describes your main source of funding?

International (From outside Tanzania) 1

Internal (in Tanzania)..... 2

Both international and internal 3

Definition of Rights-based Approaches

In this study, rights-based approaches are defined as approaches to development work that are premised on the principles of universality and equality, participation, networking between stakeholders, accountability of all stakeholders and engagement with international and national policies and laws to

advance the rights of children. (Please use this definition when responding to the rest of the questions in the survey)

SUPPORTIVE LEADERSHIP

Please rate the following statements on the extent to which your organization’s leadership supports the implementation of rights-based approaches where 1 is *not at all* and 4 *to a great extent*.

Remember: In this study, rights-based approaches are defined as approaches to development work that are premised on the principles of universality and equality, participation, networking between stakeholders, accountability of all stakeholders and engagement with international and national policies and laws to advance the rights of children.

Support category	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat (3)	To a great extent (4)	Don’t know (5)
10. We recognize and appreciate employee efforts toward successful implementation of rights-based approaches	1	2	3	4	5
11. We support employees’ efforts to learn more about rights-based approaches	1	2	3	4	5
12. We support employees’ efforts to use rights-based approaches	1	2	3	4	5

STAFF CAPACITY TO IMPLEMENT RIGHTS-BASED APPROACH

13. On a scale of 1-4, where 1 is not capable and 4 highly capable, how capable would you say your staff are with implementing the rights-based approaches?

Not capable Barely capable Capable Highly capable
 1 2 3 4

Remember: In this study, rights-based approaches are defined as approaches to development work that are premised on the principles of universality and equality, participation, networking between stakeholders, accountability of all stakeholders and engagement with international and national policies and laws to advance the rights of children.

EXTENT OF ADOPTION OF RIGHTS-BASED APPROACHES

Please rate the following statements on the extent to which your organization adopts the key elements of the rights-based approach 1 is *not at all* and 4 *to a great extent*.

Remember: In this study, rights-based approaches are defined as approaches to development work that are premised on the principles of universality and equality, participation, networking between stakeholders,

accountability of all stakeholders and engagement with international and national policies and laws to advance the rights of children.

Element of rights-based approach	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat(3)	To a great extent (4)	Don't know(5)
Universality and equality					
14. Our organization supports excluded groups to demand their rights	1	2	3	4	5
15. We work to ensure services are accessible to all children	1	2	3	4	5
16. We lobby for equitable allocation of budgets and resources	1	2	3	4	5
Participation					
17. We ensure that children have access to information to ensure their participation	1	2	3	4	5
18. Children are actively involved in relevant events	1	2	3	4	5
19. We advocate for changes in laws and institutional structures and procedures to create greater space for child participation	1	2	3	4	5
20. We seek to change adult attitudes and behaviors towards children's participation	1	2	3	4	5
Networking					
21. We work with other organizations to advocate for rights of children	1	2	3	4	5
Accountability					
22. We require the government to meet its obligations on children (education, health, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
23. We provide human rights information and education to our beneficiaries to hold the government to account	1	2	3	4	5
24. We provide information about our programs in accessible places	1	2	3	4	5
25. We publish reports of actual program implementation regularly and share these reports with our beneficiaries	1	2	3	4	5
Engagement with international and national policies and laws					
26. Our organization's programs are developed on the basis of rights set out in international, regional and national	1	2	3	4	5

Element of rights-based approach	Not at all (1)	Very little (2)	Somewhat(3)	To a great extent (4)	Don't know(5)
human rights treaties and laws (UNCRC, ACRWC, MDGs, MKUKUTA, LCA 2009)					

Thank you for your participation! Click Next to be directed to a link with sources for capacity building opportunities for NGOs working to advocate children’s rights in Africa

Appendix D.

Letter of Invitation
University of Illinois at Chicago
Jane Addams College of Social Work

Greetings,

You are kindly being asked to be a subject in a dissertation research study titled: *Factors Influencing the Extent to Which Child Rights NGO's In Tanzania Adopt Rights-Based Approaches*. The objective of the study is to understand the factors internal and external to the organization and their influence on the extent to which child rights NGOs in Tanzania are adopting rights-based approaches. I'm a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Illinois at Chicago and I'm conducting this study as part of my dissertation. I am therefore asking you to complete this survey as a representative of your organization which is a member of the Tanzania Child Rights Forum. If you are not in a position to respond on behalf of your organization, kindly share the email of the person in that position so I can communicate directly with them. If you are the person to complete the survey, please answer the questions to the best of your knowledge. There are no right or wrong answers. I want to know what is true for you and the organization you represent. Your answers are an important part of this study, and I value the information you give me. When the research is completed, I will send out an email to all organizations that were invited to participate, with a link to a summary of the results.

What about privacy and confidentiality?

In this research study, you will not be asked to provide any identifiable information about yourself. The survey is anonymous and no one, including me, will be able to link the responses to any specific organization.

Are there any benefits to taking part in the research?

There are no direct benefits to participating in this survey. However, as an incentive, after completing the survey, you will be directed to a link with sources for capacity building opportunities for NGOs working to advocate children's rights in Africa.

Can I withdraw from the research?

Yes. This dissertation study is completely voluntary. You can withdraw any time from the research process without consequences of any kind. However, your full participation will be highly appreciated.

Whom should I contact if I have questions?

You can contact the researcher, Amana Talala Mbise, at +4525303829 or Email: ambise2@uic.edu .
Or the faculty sponsor, James Gleeson, Ph.D. at (+1)312 996-0042, email: jimglee@uic.edu .

What are my rights as a research participant?

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form or if you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, including questions, concerns, or to offer input, you may call the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS) at the University of Illinois at Chicago at (+1) 312 996-1711 or (+1)-866-789-6215 or email OPRS at uicirb@uic.edu.

Or the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology (COSTECH), at (+255-22) 2700745/6,
email: Rclearance@costech.or.tz.

Follow this link to the Survey:

#{: //SurveyLink?d=Take%20the%20Survey}

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:

https://uic.qualtrics.com/SE?Q_DL=8cTmJItUakCqZIV_3mdbxw9rYmrc4tL_MLRP_6A3If7nvBcX75aJ&Q_CHL=email

Completion and submission of this survey indicates your informed consent. You can choose to complete the survey in one sitting or you can save and continue later. To do this, you have to use the same internet browser and device that you started the survey on.

Appendix E.

Recruitment Phone Script

“Hello, my name is Amana Mbise, and I am conducting dissertation research as I complete the Ph.D. at Jane Addams College of Social Work, University of Illinois at Chicago. My study examines the extent to which child rights NGOs in Tanzania adopt rights-based approaches. I had earlier sent you an email requesting your organization’s participation in my study. The email invitation included a link to an online survey. With this call, I’m encouraging you to respond to the survey. If you have already responded to the survey, I wish to thank you for your time and participation in my study”.

Appendix F

Face-to-face contact Script

“Hello, my name is Amana Mbise, and I am conducting dissertation research as I complete the Ph.D. at Jane Addams College of Social Work, University of Illinois at Chicago. My study examines the extent to which child rights NGOs in Tanzania adopt rights-based approaches. I had earlier sent you an email requesting your organization’s participation in my study. The email invitation included a link to an online survey. With this visit, I’m encouraging you to respond to the online survey. If you have already responded to the survey, I wish to thank you for your time and participation in my study”.

Appendix G

Reminder Email

Greetings,

You are kindly being asked to be a subject in a dissertation research study titled: *Factors Influencing the Extent to Which Child Rights NGO's In Tanzania Adopt Rights-Based Approaches*. The objective of the study is to understand the factors internal and external to the organization and their influence on the extent to which child rights NGOs in Tanzania are adopting rights-based approaches. I'm a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Illinois at Chicago and I'm conducting this study as part of my dissertation. I am therefore asking you to complete this survey as a representative of your organization which is a member of the Tanzania Child Rights Forum. If you are not in a position to respond on behalf of your organization, kindly share the email of the person in that position so I can communicate directly with them. If you are the person to complete the survey, please answer the questions to the best of your knowledge. There are no right or wrong answers. I want to know what is true for you and the organization you represent. Your answers are an important part of this study, and I value the information you give me. When the research is completed, I will send out an email to all organizations that were invited to participate, with a link to a summary of the results.

What about privacy and confidentiality?

In this research study, you will not be asked to provide any identifiable information about yourself. The survey is anonymous and no one, including me, will be able to link the responses to any specific organization.

Are there any benefits to taking part in the research?

There are no direct benefits to participating in this survey. However, as an incentive, after completing the survey, you will be directed to a link with sources for capacity building opportunities for NGOs working to advocate children's rights in Africa.

Can I withdraw from the research?

Yes. This dissertation study is completely voluntary. You can withdraw any time from the research process without consequences of any kind. However, your full participation will be highly appreciated.

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You can contact the researcher, Amana Talala Mbise, at +4525303829 or Email: ambise2@uic.edu . Or the faculty sponsor, James Gleeson, Ph.D. at (+1)312 996-0042, email: jimglee@uic.edu .

What are my rights as a research participant?

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form or if you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, including questions, concerns, or to offer input, you may call the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS) at the University of Illinois at Chicago at (+1) 312 996-1711 or (+1)-866-789-6215 or email OPRS at uicirb@uic.edu.

Or the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology (COSTECH), at (+255-22) 2700745/6, email: Rclearance@costech.or.tz.

Follow this link to the Survey:

`{: //SurveyLink?d=Take%20the%20Survey}`

Or copy and paste the URL below into your internet browser:

https://uic.qualtrics.com/SE?Q_DL=8cTmJItUakCqZIV_3mdbxw9rYmrc4tL_MLRP_6A3If7nvBcX75aJ&Q_CHL=email

Completion and submission of this survey indicates your informed consent. You can choose to complete the survey in one sitting or you can save and continue later. To do this, you have to use the same internet browser and device that you started the survey on.

VITA

EDUCATION

Masters (2012)	University of Illinois at Chicago <i>Social Work (Community Health and Urban Development)</i>
Bachelor (2005)	University of Dar es salaam <i>B.A Sociology (Hons.) Social Policy and Administration</i>
Diploma (2006)	Eastern and Southern African Management Institute <i>Leadership in Community Development Management</i>
Certificate	Dar es salaam School of Journalism <i>Journalism and Mass Communication</i>
Advanced Level	Kilimanjaro Academy, Moshi
Ordinary Level	Laiser Hill Academy, Nairobi
Primary	International School Moshi, Arusha Branch Seela Primary School

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Present	Interim Assistant Program Director, Child Development and Diversity Program, Danish Institute for Study Abroad, Copenhagen
2012 – June 2014	Midwest AIDS Training and Education Center, Chicago Program Evaluation Specialist
2011 – June 2012	Twinning Center/Midwest AIDS Training and Education Center, Chicago Research Assistant.
2007 – 2010	Institute of Social Work, Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, Tanzania Assistant Lecturer

CONSULTING

April 2010	AMANI Early Childhood Development. Research consultant and coordinator. Developed terms of reference for studying repetition rates for standard two pupils in Tanzania. Study was
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conducted in Iringa and Njombe Districts. Also coordinated and conducted a pilot study on Chandarua Salama, a project to increase awareness on malaria prevention among primary school pupils.

- Oct 2009 Research Supervisor on Study to evaluate ACCESS and TARGETING of ACTs in Tanzania. A project of Ifakara Health Institute in collaboration with London School of Tropical Medicine and the Centers for Disease Control (CDC), USA.(Anthropological Component)
- April 2009: Junior Consultant, Steadman's Group Survey on International Fellows Exchange Programme for Journalists.
- October 2008 Contracted to analyze Information from the Friends of Education Movement for Hakielimu. Developed Samples for Quantitative and Qualitative analysis. Hakielimu is the largest and most effective child education advocacy NGO in Tanzania
- September 2008 Institute of Social Work-University of Carinthia Project; Lead Analyst for Qualitative and Quantitative Data for Research on Social Protection among Elderly in Tanzania
- June 2008 Local Junior Consultant for World Bank Study on the Effectiveness of AID in the Infrastructure Sector. Contracted by International Relief and Development (IRD).

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

- Current Faculty, Danish Institute for Study Abroad, Child Development and Diversity Program, Copenhagen. **Course:** Children in a Multicultural Context
- 2007-2010 Assistant Lecturer. Department of Labor Studies, Institute of Social Work, Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, Tanzania.
- Guest Lectures
- Guest Lecturer, Danish Institute for Study Abroad, Copenhagen (Research with children and Child Rights)
- Guest Lecturer, International Social Work, University of Illinois at Chicago
- Guest Lecturer, Social Intervention-Direct Practice, A.M class, University of Chicago
- Guest Lecturer, Child and Family Practice, University of Illinois at Chicago
- Guest Lecturer, Child and Family Practice, University of Illinois at Chicago

PUBLICATIONS AND REPORTS

Peer reviewed articles	<p>Mbise, A.T. (2017). The diffusion of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) more than the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) in Africa: The influence of Coercion and Emulation. <i>International Social Work</i>, 60 (5); 1238-12430</p> <p>Mbise, A.T. (2013). Review of Robert Kwame Ame, DeBrenna Lafa AgbÉnyiga & Nana Araba Apt (eds). (2011). Children's Rights in Ghana: Reality or Rhetoric? <i>Journal of Community Practice</i>, 21:1-4.</p>
Manuscript Under review	<p>Birth Registration is not Certification. Evidence from Tanzania National Panel Data 2011. <i>Children and Society</i> Revise resubmit</p>
Manuscript Under Development	<p>Adoption of rights-based approaches by local child rights NGOs in the South: What factors matter?</p>

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

November 7 2016	<p>Adoption of rights-based approaches by local child rights NGOs in the global South: What factors matter?. FORSA/NORSA Conference PhD Workshop at the Metropolitan University College, Copenhagen, Denmark</p>
March 2014	<p>Omari Leah; Mvungi Abu; Linsk Nathan; Mason Sally; Caloupis Furaha; Mbise, Amana. The multi-level social work career path to strengthen and retain Tanzania's Social Welfare Workforce. International Social Work Conference. Professional social work in East Africa: towards social development and poverty reduction 16-18th March 2014</p>
March 2013	<p>Jacob, B.A., Carlberg-Racich, S., Mbise, A.T., Evans, G.L. & Rivero, R. (2013). Ascertainning Needs for Teletraining within Corrections: Results of a Training Needs Assessment.</p>
May 2011	<p>Mbise, Amana, Nathan Linsk, Meseret Desta, Abebe Abate, Bonnie Lubin, Sally Mason, Leah Omari...& Ashenafi Hagos (May 2011). Generating local partnerships to care for orphans and vulnerable children and people with HIV/AIDS. Presented at the HIV/AIDS and Social Work Conference 2011: Best Practices: HIV and Social Work: Bringing</p>

Together Research, Practice, Advocacy, and Planning. May 26, 2011, Atlanta, GA

SERVICE

2011-2012	Editorial Assistant, Journal of HIV/AIDS & Social Services: Research, Policy & Practice. Taylor & Francis Publishers. Nathan Linsk, PhD, Larry Gant, PhD, Helen Land, PhD, & Dexter Voisin, PhD, Mike Bass PhD, Co-Editors
2012	Member of Metropolitan Chicago Synod Conference Delegation
2009-2010	Country Mentor and Trainer: REPSSI, UNICEF and University of Kwa Zulu Natal Certificate Program for Child Welfare Workers in Eastern and Southern African Countries
2006-date	Technical Support. Umoja wa Miradi ya Viziwi Tanzania (UMVITA). Organization for Deaf Peoples Projects in Tanzania. Supporting with proposal development and advice
Tanzania Ministry of Trade and Industry	Supported with the development of the popular version of the Tanzania Small and Medium Enterprise Policy In partnership with the International Labour Organization, Tanzania
Sesame Street Project	Supported with piloting Kilimani Sesame a Kiswahili version of children TV Program, Sesame Street

HONORS & AWARDS

2006	Ford Foundation Young Development Professionals (YDP), East Africa. Awarded through the Aga Khan Foundation, Tanzania
2001	Cum Laude award for Best student in Social Sciences. Kilimanjaro Academy
2001	Cum Laude award for Best Student in Geography. Kilimanjaro Academy