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Declaration

I declare that all material presented in this report is my own work and has not been written for me, in whole or in part, by any other person(s). The research report has been submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in International Relations at the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at any other university.

ACRONYMS	
ANC	Antenatal Care
5S-CQI	5S-Continuous Quality Improvement
AAKCP	Asia-Africa Knowledge Co-Creation Program
AU	African Union
CARD	Coalition for African Rice Development
CHO	Community Health Officers
CHPS	Community-based Health Planning and Services
CSA	Civil Service Agency
CSTC	Civil Service Training Centre
DHIMS2	District Health Information Management System 2
EBT	Equipment Based Technology
FG	Facilitators Guide
FOCAC	Forum on China-Africa Co-operation
G8	Group of Eight Summit
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GHS	Ghana Health Services
HMT	Hospital Management Team
HRMO	Human Resources Management Office
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JBIC	Japan Bank for International Co-operation
JBIC	Japan Bank for International Co-operation
JCC	Joint Coordination Committee
JDP	Japanese Defence Force
JICA	Japan International Co-operation Agency
JOCV	Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers
KAIZEN-TQM	KAIZEN-Total Quality Management
KVTC	Kilombero Valley Teaks Company
LBT	Labour Based Technology
LGA	Local Government Authorities
LW	Learner Workbook
MAFAP	Monitoring African Food and Agricultural Policies
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MNH	Maternal and Neonatal Health
MOFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MoHSW	Ministry of Health and Social Welfare
MZRH	Mbeya Zonal Referral Hospital
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa’s Development
O&OD	Opportunities and Obstacles to Development
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OHCS	Office of the Head of Civil Service
OPD	Out-Patient Department
OPGW	Optical Ground Wiring
PLSD	Participatory Local Social Development
PMO-RALG	Prime Minister's Office and Regional Administration and local Government
PNC	Postnatal Care
QPI	Quality Productivity Improvement

RMSD	Rural Road Maintenance System Development
RTF	Regional Task Force
SCADA	Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition
SIDO	Small Industries Development Organization
TANESCO	Tanzanian Electric Supply Company Limited
TICAD	Tokyo International Conference on African Development
ToT	Training of Trainers
TQIF	Tanzania Quality Improvement Framework
TTF	Training Task Force
VC	Village Chairpersons
VEO	Village Executive Officer
WB	World Bank
WEO	Ward Executive Officer
WF	Ward Facilitator

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Research Question

Assessing Japan's ownership promotion within Africa: Cases of Tanzania and Ghana

Abstract

This research aims to look within Japan's efforts to promote ownership within Africa throughout the platform of the Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD). The conference emphasises the disbursement of Official Development Assistance as a pivotal tool to fostering self-help within the continent of Africa. The research will assess whether Japan's efforts in Africa have promoted a level of ownership within Africa by looking at the cases of Tanzania and Ghana. As two of Japan's major African recipients of ODA during the past 5 years, these countries will provide good grounds to evaluate Japan's engagement with African states by focusing on development projects that have been implemented through ODA within these two countries. Overall, the paper will give an efficient test of Japan's aid performance and reflect on the viability of the TICAD platform as a harbinger of development in Africa.

Key words: TICAD, Ownership, Self-Help, Official Development Assistance

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aims and Rationale

In this research, the efficiency of the TICAD process in terms of its ability to promote the objective of self-help within Africa will be put to the test. Japan promotes the disbursement of ODA to helping African states implement self-help that will eventually result in the African states gaining ownership of their development policies. It is this very claim that one aims to assess, by focusing on development projects initiated by Japan within two African states. In looking at development projects within the case studies, one will provide an accurate indication of whether self-help efforts are being fostered. There is a need for this form of research to gauge whether the ODA that African countries receive from developed countries such as Japan is beneficial to promoting Africa's ownership of its development processes. In another aspect, this research also investigates whether platforms such as TICAD are effective in fulfilling their objectives on the continent, seeing that TICAD places the promotion of ownership as one its central tenets.

This research is of vital importance given the fact that much of the work that investigates TICAD and its impact on the continent places a large emphasis on the monetary value of ODA provided by Japan rather than focusing on how far this aid goes in fostering the self-help agenda that Japan has set out to promote in its TICAD policy objectives. The research conducted in this paper bears an importance to actors from both ends of the TICAD process. For African states, it can indicate the level of effectiveness regarding their involvement in processes such as TICAD, while for Japan this research will surely look at whether TICAD is achieving its development goals through ownership promotion within Africa. The existing literature on TICAD has largely looked at what Japan aims to gain from a process such as TICAD and the obvious ODA gains that are made on the side of Africa. However, this research will provide an in-depth analysis of whether these ODA funds are fully beneficial to African states and whether they are fulfilling the goal of promoting a sense of self-help and ownership within Africa. Overall this work emanates from an identified knowledge gap in how Japan's ODA to Africa has been investigated without focusing on development projects that are implemented under the banner of TICAD.

1.2 Hypothesis

- *H1*: Disbursement of Japan's ODA grant fosters self-help within African.

1.3 Dependent Variable: Self Help

In the context of this topic on TICAD, the term ownership is largely used interchangeably with that of self-help (Ampiah 2012, 168). In its relations with Africa, Japan has placed an emphasis on supporting the continent to initiate self-help economic policies that will ensure ownership (Edstrom 2010, 19). Ownership is then regarded as the ability of the recipient country to take control over the designing, implementation and monitoring of its development strategy (Ampiah 2012, 165). Overall the term ownership is largely evident when a government takes full authority over the reform of its development policies and the development priorities are set and pursued by African countries (Lehman 2005, 432) To measure this variable of self-help within the case studies one will look at the major development projects that have been funded through Japanese ODA within these two case studies. These projects will have to be implemented between the period of 2009 to 2016. By focusing on these development projects, one will seek to investigate whether the projects have gone ahead in promoting self-reliance within the planning and implementation processes. Overall one will seek to measure the level at which the ODA recipient exercises the capacity to take charge of its own reform process through grassroots development projects.

1.4 Independent Variable: Official Development Assistance

In its simplest definition, ODA is a policy instrument utilised by industrialised states in the global North to promote socioeconomic conditions within developing states (Lumumba-Kasongo 2010, 183). In the case of Japan, the ODA is traditionally distributed by institutions such as Ministry of International Trade and Industry, Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA), Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning Agency. In the case of African states, Japan International Co-operation Agency (JICA) and Japan Bank for International Co-operation (JBIC) are the agencies that initiate the implementation of ODA disbursement under the

umbrella of TICAD. One could then say TICAD is placed as the platform to engage on how Japan will carry out ODA disbursement within the continent of Africa among a list of other objectives (Lumumba-Kasongo 2010, 202). In this research, one will focus on the bilateral ODA that Japan provides to the studied countries (Lumumba-Kasongo 2010, 192).

ODA by Japan is operationalised through 3 components, which are grant aid, technical co-operation and technical assistance (Cornelissen 1998, 10). Most of Japan's ODA to Africa is implemented through grant form and it comes to be used in social development projects (Sato 2005, 70). In ODA disbursement, grant aid is divided between bilateral aid and grant aid that is provided through multilateral institutions. Loan aid, on the other hand, is disbursed bilaterally. The ODA value in this paper will be calculated in different currencies throughout the available sources, as they interchange between the use of Yen (￥), Dollar ($), Tanzanian Shilling (Tsh) and Ghanaian Cedi.

1.5 Literature Review

When looking of the topic of TICAD it appears that not many scholars have given the conference much attention, especially given the dominance of the Forum on China-Africa Co-operation (FOCAC) that has taken most of the limelight. Of those that have covered this topic, Kweku Ampiah from Leeds University stands out as the most prominent of scholars. His writings on Japan-Africa relations have not only sought to track the progress of TICAD through all its conferences but have also looked to understand the development objectives of this partnership (Ampiah 2012). His article titled *The Discourse of Local Ownership in Development: Rhapsodies about 'Self-help' in Japan's Economic Assistance to Africa* seeks to understand Japan's development objective of promoting African ownership of its development policies.

The main argument brought forth by Ampiah rests on the much-explored debate on the conception of ownership. In his quest to find an ideal concept of ownership he identifies its main fault to be the opposition ownership efforts face from hegemonic donor regime in place (Ampiah 2012, 180). Cramer (2002, 20) comes to a similar conclusion when he concludes that ownership should be separate from conditionality that is usually promoted under the prominent

aid regime. In this research, I will seek to build upon from this foundation and further investigate whether Japan has made grounds in promoting this objective of ownership and will also strive to give a deeper analysis by focusing on specific case studies rather than giving a general analysis that is based on the tackling the diverse conceptions of ownership.

When looking at the concept of ownership within Africa, much of the literature has chosen to look at the principal-agent framework for understanding this concept. This is evident in works done by authors such as Cramer *et al* (2006) and Weeks *et al* (2002) that have looked at how ownership can be promoted through development reforms that still apply a level of conditionalities that are set by the principal who is the lending state. In this research, one aims to build from this very theory to understand the principle of ownership while linking it to the Japanese concept of self-help. Sawamura (2004) engages well with this Japanese philosophy of self-help when he explores how Japan engages in self-help efforts to promote self-reliant development within developing countries and how this approach fits within Japanese tradition. Sawamura (2004) explores this Japanese conception of self-help and defines it as an effort that seeks to improve good governance within developing states by fostering human resource development, institution building as well as social and economic infrastructure building (Sawamura 2004, 29). Overall it is this very conception of the notion of self-help that one aims to explore when looking at the case of how it has been applied within Africa

This theoretical approach of self-help fits within Japan's promotion of the East Asian development model to Africa (Osei-Hwedi & Osei-Hwedi 2010, 136). The promotion of self-help within Africa as part of the East Asian developmental model has often faced much pressure from the global North especially taking into consideration the prominent international donor standards that promote a Washington Consensus type of ODA funding (Osei-Hwedi & Osei-Hwedi 2010, 136). In focusing on the theory of self-help, one will also highlight the existing tension that is faced by Japan when seeking to implement this traditional developmental state approach within a system that promotes ODA practices that take on an agent-principle theory principle. It is on this background that one will set to look explore whether the traditional Japanese theory of self-help is able to be fully implemented to foster ownership within Africa through the disbursement of ODA grants.

In looking at the groundwork within TICAD, the concept of ODA comes to be considered as the main tool that cements the developmental partnership between Africa and Japan. Many scholars have sought to write on the funding elements of TICAD and provide an in-depth explanation of the funding principles within TICAD. One of these scholars is Tukumba Lumumba-Kasongo (2010), who has compiled a book that focuses on Japan-Africa relations by placing a major emphasis on the Official Development Assistance elements of this relationship. Apart from giving an extensive account of the political and economic works within Japan-Africa relations, the author also introduces a theoretical dynamic to this investigation by including several theoretical and philosophical elements in his arguments on how Japan-Africa relations should lead to mutually beneficial outcomes (Lumumba-Kasongo 2010, 44). As much as ownership is touched on in this book, the writer fails to make the connection between ODA and ownership and how the one could foster the other. It is this very gap that my paper aims to exploit, given the fact that many writers have not connected these two concepts explicitly in their work and how they form a major basis of TICAD. Other writers such as Lehman (2005) have tackled the issue of ODA by looking at how Japan's ODA strategy strays away from the World Bank/Washington Consensus approach and formulates an alternative approach. Such work will certainly provide one with a general outlook on how Japan's ODA policy seeks to promote self-help and will be useful in taking this dialogue of ODA and ownership to a case study level.

1.6 Case Selection

The cases that have been selected for this research are the countries of Tanzania and Ghana. The two countries have been selected by virtue of them being African recipient states of Japan's Official Development Assistance under the framework of TICAD. The location of the two states also comes into the criteria of case selection, with one country located in Eastern Africa and the other in Western Africa. These criteria were set for maintaining a certain level of variation within both cases that goes beyond the matter of both countries being Japanese ODA recipients. The amount of ODA received by the countries formed part of the selection criteria, as both countries are within the top 10 of the Sub-Saharan Africa ODA recipients within the last 10 years. These criteria of high ranking ODA recipient are quite effective in providing efficient grounds to testing the effectiveness of ODA disbursement to promote self-help within the respective states. It is of importance that the studied cases are top donor-recipient countries within Africa because it is in these countries where one will expect to find a bulk of the

development projects that Japan has initiated within the continent of Africa as part of its TICAD initiative of ownership promotion.

1.7 Variance in the IV and DV

In this study, there is an expected variance in the independent variable of ODA. This variance is evident when considering that Tanzania and Ghana receive different amounts of ODA disbursements within a fiscal year. However, this is not a significant gap, given the fact that these are two of Japan's top ODA recipients. This variance can lead to a case where the size and type of grant may come to have an impact on whether the independent variable leads to the desired outcome of self-help within a specific case.

On the side of the dependent variable, one acknowledges that the variance exists when looking at the nature of the projects that will be studied and different scales of each project. These projects may take different shapes and have various development objectives that may determine the extent to which self-help can be effectively implemented. The diverse nature of the projects may also lead to a variance in the dependent variable given that projects will range from being grounded in varying departments such as health, governance, transport, environment and various other departments while some of them being funded as a technical co-operation or grant aid.

1.8 Analysis of Data

A case study approach to this research is a more desired route. It is in this arena where one finds that many case studies seeking to explore Japan-Africa relations rarely relay the discussion to the overarching topic of TICAD and ownership. This is reflected in an article by Cornelissen (2016) that focuses on the economic and political relationship between Japan and South Africa. The analysis mentions TICAD, yet it mainly places an emphasis on the diplomatic dynamics of TICAD rather than the developmental focus. A topic such as TICAD is bound to be often analysed from a diplomatic perspective, and another author who has focused on TICAD from a diplomatic stance is Dobson (2012). In his paper, he highlights the diplomatic implications that came with Japan hosting the TICAD IV and the Group of Eight

Summit (G8 Summit) in the same year (Dobson 2012). This certainly reflects the diplomatic impact that TICAD has made, however, one seeks to go beyond the idea of merely looking at TICAD as a platform to form relations between Africa and Japan, but rather focus on the groundwork that is involved in a partnership such as this one.

A case study analysis will be the main form of analysis in which this research will be conducted. Document analysis will also be utilised to interpret the policy objectives of Japan within Africa and looking at the various documents that have been generated through TICAD conferences. Other documents that will be looked at will focus on how Japan has distributed its ODA grants within these case studies and bring in a quantitative element into the research. The most important analysis is that of self-help and looking at its application within the case studies. In this analysis, one will largely rely on project completion reports to analyse the impact of the projects that Japan has initiated in both these countries while seeking to analyse whether a Japanese form of self-help has been promoted based on the outcomes of these development projects.

1.9 Limitations

The major limitation of this research is largely linked to the data collection method. In this research, one aims to be purely dependent on the data that is made publicly available through the ODA platforms that Japan operates through and much of it is depends on the co-operation of Japanese authorities to grant insight regarding the development projects they have undertaken and the sufficient availability of documentation on these projects. This research would be more effective if the development projects were within my locality and enable an on the ground analysis of the impact of these development projects. One intends to mitigate this challenge by ensuring that there is a collection of sufficient data on the outcome of the development projects to formulate a solid argument.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND CONCEPTS

2.1 Principal-Agent Theory

The concept of ownership remains poorly defined within scholarly circles and this is the same case when seeking to engage with it from a theoretical stance. In dealing with aid distribution and the concept of ownership scholars have prominently relied on the economic theory of agent-principle to explain ownership in its general form. This is a theory that is commonly used in financial theory, the theory of privatisation as well as other branches of economics (Cramer 2002, 8). The principal-agent theory mainly assumes that the principal (funder) has a strong motivation to oversee the behaviour of agents (recipients) that are entrusted with the responsibility to manage the funds (Cramer 2002, 8). The expected outcome of this principal-agent arrangement would be the promotion of efficiency and minimalizing of wastage (Cramer 2002, 8). This theory also considers that when left unchecked, the agent may pursue its own interests rather than those of the principal. (Khan and Sharma 2001, 13). In a typical financial setting where a credit agency is not informed about the behaviour of the borrower, the obvious solution would be to take corrective measures in dealing with the uncertainty that is presented and this is often a justification for application of the principal-agent relationship (Cramer 2002, 9). Overall, the general argument is that the agent will perform effectively in a system where its objectives are aligned with those of the principal (Khan and Sharma 2001, 13).

2.2 Ownership

The problem in gaining an understanding of the concept of ownership largely stems in understanding the operational elements of the concept rather than the definitional meaning of the concept (Cramer, Stein & Weeks 2006, 421). In broader consideration, the term ownership has been associated with the position of being accountable and taking initiative (Cramer 2002, 2). From an ODA perspective, ownership can be understood as asserting control over a project and showing commitment to its success (Cramer *et al* 2002, 8). In an operational sense, ownership can be understood under the classification of national ownership, in which ODA is distributed for a purpose beyond the government, whereby the greater population and various stakeholders are largely considered (Cramer *et al* 2006, 422). National ownership would be the

antithesis of government ownership where development assistance is directed to solely benefit the government (Cramer *et al* 2006, 422). The government, however, has a role to play in national ownership as it serves to be the conduit through which the ODA is channelled, and it takes a leading role in the control, implementation as well as the monitoring of its development strategy, with the inclusion of specific projects and programmes (Cramer *et al* 2002, 9). In this process, the authority of the funder is limited to an advisory role rather than one of complete decision making (Cramer *et al* 2006, 422).

2.3 Self-Help

This understanding of ownership is what fuels the Japanese promotion of the philosophy of self-help (*jijo*) in developing countries. Japanese support of help-help efforts in developing countries comes from the notion that these efforts become a prerequisite for ownership (Sawamura 2004, 29). The Japanese understanding of self-help refers to a country's ability to pursue and achieve its objectives of sustainable economic growth through its own initiatives, with minimal assistance from external donors (Ampiah 2012, 168). This concept finds its roots in Japan's historical experience in which the country had to undergo reconstruction after the World War II, while also drawing from its experience in providing aid in East Asia (Sawamura 2004, 31). When Japan provides ODA in any form, it does not seek to carry the full burden of the operation but rather assumes that the recipient developing country will display self-help efforts through an action such as covering the local cost or land allowances; ensuring that projects are implemented as joint enterprises (Sawamura 2004, 30). The general assumption is that Japanese dominance in taking up the burden would discourage self-help efforts and come to hinder sustainable development within the developing countries (Sawamura 2004, 30).

2.4 Self-help and Ownership

There has been much debate in academic circles regarding the definition of these two concepts and their distinctions. In this paper, one will largely use these two terms interchangeably with the belief that they embrace the common objective of promoting self-reliance and control on the part of aid recipients. This approach also carries on from the Japanese use of both these terms, as the Japanese have opted to use the terms of self-help and ownership interchangeably

through most of their development discourse (Ampiah 2012, 168). The ambiguity of a concept like ownership and its broadened meaning throughout the academic sphere will not hinder this paper from assessing whether Japan has promoted ownership in these two countries. Overall this paper will give a clear analysis of whether ownership is being implemented in Africa.

CHAPTER THREE: OVERVIEW

3.1 Brief Background

The Tokyo International Conference on Africa's Development stands to be a pivotal vehicle to foster relations between Japan and Africa. The initially which since began in 1993 has gone on to have subsequent conferences in 1998, 2003, 2008, 2013 and 2016 (Edstrom 2010, 5). As an initiative that is primarily driven by the Japanese there stands to be much expected from the side of Japan as far as bridging the gap between this region of Africa and East Asia. This is largely reflected in how the main objectives of Japan seek to use TICAD as means to reshape the essence of development in Africa in such a way that attends to the requirements of African states in their individual capacities (Ampiah 2010, 417). The TICAD process not being limited to the provision of developmental policy guidelines also aims to attend to Africa's human security needs within areas such as health, agriculture, education, infrastructure development as well as capacity building within institutions (Ampiah 2010, 417). Over the years, the conference has gone on to focus on a plurality of political and economic objectives such as poverty reduction, human rights, good governance, democratization, economic liberalization and improvement of social services (Edstrom 2010, 13). However, the main principles that have guarded the progress of TICAD throughout the years have been the promotion of Africa's ownership of the development process as well as fostering international partnership (Osei-Hwedi &Osei-Hwedi 2010, 126). This paper will be focusing on the former.

The term ownership has featured from the very first 1993 TICAD conference where the Tokyo Declaration on African Development was adopted (Edstrom 2010, 14). Paragraph 5 of the declaration stated that "political, economic and social reforms must be initiated and carried out by African countries themselves, based on their visions, values and individual socioeconomic background." (Edstrom 2010, 14). TICAD II which took place in 1998 reiterated ownership promotion through the Tokyo Agenda for Action where it mentioned that "Ownership is derived when development priorities, as set by Africa, are pursued" (Edstrom 2010, 19). TICAD III saw the adoption of the *TICAD Tenth Anniversary Declaration* which went on to emphasize that "one of the ultimate goals of the TICAD process is to forge solidarity between Africa and the rest of the international community based on ownership and partnership because African development can be achieved only by the concerted efforts of Africa and its

development partners" (Edstrom 2010, 25). The fourth instalment of TICAD which was held in 2008 with Prime Minister Fukuda Yasuo making remarks in his opening address that argued for ownership promotion and even going as far as stating that "Where there is no ownership, which respects self-reliance, neither sustainable development nor growth is possible" (Edstrom 2010, 27). Overall this has been the general sentiment coming from Japan as far as the objective of TICAD is concerned.

Over the years Japan has made some leaps in its strengthening its partnership with African countries through TICAD. One of the major accomplishments made by this conference has been some of the monetary commitments Japan has made in the past. TICAD V saw Japan committing $26 million to support peace and stability in the Sahel Region (OSAA 2018). Five years later Japan committed $32 billion at the TICAD VI in Yokohama, which mainly aimed at bolstering infrastructure and human resource development. In the most recent TICAD VI conference Japan went on to pledge $30 billion in public and private support for infrastructure, education and healthcare in Africa (Diplomat 2016). This amount was set to spread over a period of three years, commencing in the year 2016 (Reuters 2016). In recent times there has been a comparison made between the Japan-China contribution within Africa, with the latter often cited as a far more influential actor within Africa. However, this will not be the focus of this paper as one aims to solely examine Japan's success in the continent without getting entangled in the Sino-Japan debate. This brings us to the relevance of this research and the objective of looking beyond Japan's monetary commitment as indicators of TICAD's success but delving deeper into some of the initiatives that have come to be funded through such commitments over the years and interrogating whether these have been making an impact within the continent.

3.2 Washington Consensus

There is often a case made about the clash between Japan's ODA objectives and the Western position on ODA. The standpoint of Japan's ODA approach is highly debatable seeing that some perspectives may argue that Japan is motivated to implement an ODA approach that draws from its past experiences and its developmental state model (Lehman 2005, 425). In all its traditions and approaches to ODA, the self-help philosophy is what sets Japan apart from

the Western approach (Edstrom 2010, 15). Self-help seeks to give donor recipients the liberty to prioritize their goals while allowing for autonomous decision making (Lehman 2005, 425). This approach certainly clashes with the Western notion reflected in Bretton Woods institution such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank (WB), where aid recipients play little role in the planning and decision-making process (Lehman 2005, 425). Overall Japan has often sought to provide an alternative path to development while utilising ODA as one of the tools to promote its development strategies in a region like Africa (Osei-Hwedi 2010, 127). The assessment in this paper will be useful in understanding whether Japan has opted to toe the line of Bretton Woods Institutions and the West or has stuck to its guns and pursued their traditional self-help approach.

3.3 The ODA Charter

The ODA charter is a document that was approved by the Japanese Cabinet in 1992 and has continued to be the foundation of the country's aid policy. The limitations brought upon the Japanese Defence Force (JDP) have thrust ODA as a core function of Japan's foreign policy, making the ODA policy susceptible to undergoing adjustment based on any changes that could be taking place in the international sphere (Sunaga 2004, 1). This constant transformation was the case in 2003 when the ODA charter was revised for the first time in 10 years (Sunaga 2004, 14). The revisions made on the charter brought in new ideas and addressed new challenges that came because of the changes that had taken place since the end of the Cold War. On the other hand, Japan was at a point where it needed to establish a framework that would be more transparent. The charter explicitly supports the promotion of self-help through ODA and this is the reason why ODA is a point of interest in this research. All in all, one will go ahead in addressing some of the challenges that have come up since the revision of the charter.

3.3 Domestic ODA Policy

In its goal to support self-help in the development of its recipient countries, Japan supported an aid policy called "aid on request" (*yosei shugi* in Japanese). This policy simply mandated that priority was to be given to certain requests made to the Japanese government by developing countries (Sunaga 2004, 14). The Japanese government would only be responsible for responding to countries that proposed and initiated their own projects (Osei-Hwedi 2010, 124).

In this arrangement, Japan would then pull away and allow the recipient government to head the project once it had initially provided financial and technical assistance at the beginning of a project (Osei-Hwedi 2010, 124). Such a policy certainly clashes with Western donor views that would normally go against African countries taking a leading role in formulating policies for their own development (Edstrom 2010, 15). This policy was later altered in the Official Development Assistance Charter of 2003 and saw the term "requests" being removed from the charter (Sunaga 2014, 14). The aid on request policy was set on a presupposition that the recipient countries have the sufficient capacity to make effective requests; however, this was not the case with every country and this prompted some policy reforms on this part (Sunaga 2004, 14).

This shift in the ODA charter led Japan to incorporate good governance as a requirement in its aid policy. Its ODA policy moved towards a more selective principle by emphasizing democratization, peace and human rights as some of the prerequisites to aid disbursement (Sunaga 2004, 14). The aid on request principle was replaced with a dialogue approach that would see Japan opting for a role where it would engage with the recipient country on formulating policies and targeting priorities that could best attend to the needs of their people (Sunaga 2004, 14). During this transformation, Japan reiterated its stance not to interfere in the domestic policies of developing countries. One believes that this very policy shift reflected the internal conflict existing within Japan's ODA policy in which the strife was whether to promote a purely self-help motivated policy such as aid on request or adopt a dialogue approach that leaned towards the agent-principle theory that has long been promoted by its Western counterparts. Overall one aims to see how this tension will be illustrated in the projects that will be considered for this paper and whether they reflect Japan's ODA objectives as far as ownership and self-help promotion is concerned.

3.4 Japan's Aid to Tanzania and Ghana

Japanese ODA allocation has experienced a few fluctuations since 2000, however, Japan has remained as one of the Sub-Saharan Africa major contributors as far as development financing is concerned (Osei-Hwedi 2010, 130). Traditionally Japan has prioritised the East Asian region in its ODA policy but efforts to diversify ODA recipient countries over the years has resulted

in a shift that has seen Africa becoming the largest recipient of Japanese ODA disbursement (Hirano 2012, 193). In its aid to Africa Japan has followed other traditional donors such as France and Germany by making grant aid its prime ODA focus (Hirano 2012, 196). When looking at the two selected countries and how and Japan has disbursed its ODA over a period of 5 years the first noticeable element is the total amount of funding that goes towards each form of ODA.

Table 1: Japan's ODA to Tanzania by Fiscal Year

（Gross disbursements, ￥100 million）

Fiscal Year	Loan Aid	Grant Aid	Technical Cooperation
2011	15.00	28.23	36.02 (35.48)
2012	-	42.81	26.97 (25.98)
2013	126.02	31.66	30.34 (29.45)
2014	15.00	55.79	33.45 (32.92)
2015	178.47	38.36	33.96
Total	821.00	1,771.38	865.50 (857.23)

* The figures for Technical Cooperation between the fiscal year 2011 and 2014 indicate the amount of Technical Cooperation carried out by all relevant authorities, while the amount of Technical Cooperation implemented by JICA is noted in brackets.

The figures for the fiscal year 2015 show only the amount of Technical Cooperation implemented by JICA.

Source: MOFA Tanzania

In the case of Tanzania, it appears that grant aid is the most popular form of ODA, followed by technical co-operation then loan aid. It bears an importance that this research aims to mainly focus on grant aid and technical co-operation projects. This research certainly bears a relevance and covers the scope of Japan's main type of ODA funding provided to Tanzania. It will be interesting to see whether the amount of funding put into technical co-operation and grant aid will make any significant impact in the case of ownership promotion when looking at the projects conducted in Tanzania. In the case of Ghana there appears to be a difference, with Loan aid leading the way, followed by grant aid and technical operation being the least of the three.

Table 2: Japan's ODA to Ghana by Fiscal Year

（Gross disbursements, ￥100 million）

Fiscal Year	Loan Aid	Grant Aid	Technical Cooperation
2011	-	62.40	25.30 (24.86)
2012	-	31.91	21.32 (20.77)

2013	-	19.33	22.23(21.71)
2014	-	22.21	21.61 (25.15)
2015	-	11.46	20.51
Total	1,250.91	1,033.31	560.26 (553.51)

∗ The figures for Technical Cooperation between the fiscal year 2011 and 2014 indicate the amount of Technical Cooperation carried out by all relevant authorities, while the amount of Technical Cooperation implemented by JICA is noted in brackets.

The figures for the fiscal year 2015 show only the amount of Technical Cooperation implemented by JICA

Source: MOFA Ghana

The low amount of funding towards technical co-operation projects in Ghana will not affect the validity of the country's technical co-operation projects to be covered in this paper. The aim of the research is to assess how Japan has fostered ownership regardless of how low the total amount of technical co-operation funding may be. This data simply provides insight on Japan's high concentration on loan and grant aid as drivers of development. From this point we can assess whether Japan is strategic in its minimal funding towards technical co-operation ODA or if this is detrimental to the promotion of ownership.

CHAPTER FOUR: TANZANIA

Japan and Tanzania have sustained a relationship that commenced in 1962 when Tanzanian participants received training in Japan in that year, followed by a dispatch of experts from Japan coming to Tanzania in 1965 (JICA Tanzania 2010, 6). Japan went on to open the Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers (JOCV) Office in Dar es Salaam in the year 1966 (JICA Tanzania 2010, 6). This office was later upgraded to becoming a full-scale JICA office in the year 1980. Since then, the partnership between these countries has continued to strengthen and see Tanzania and Japan collaborate on a range of ODA projects. Japan has remained as a staunch supporter of development in Tanzania and has constantly furthered this objective through providing support in the form of loans, grant aid as well as engagement in technical cooperation. This section will mainly focus on a range of projects that these two countries have collaborated in, to sift out whether these projects have brought about a consistent promotion of ownership and self-help.

This section will focus on four different sectors to diversify the scope of the assessment. The first project will be a technical co-operation project in the transportation sector that will look at a rural road maintenance project that saw both countries collaborate in dealing with the road maintenance challenges faced by Tanzania. The second project will be yet another technical co-operation project within the health sector that aimed to improve the situation of the human resource crisis in this sector. The third project targeted the sector of governance through the support of improvement of the participatory planning process and community development in target regions within Tanzania. The last project was the only grant aid project and it was largely aimed at stabilising the power supply in the Kilimanjaro region. All in all, these are the four sectors that will be explored in this section, with the sole aim of combing out whether Japan has consistently kept its objective of promoting ownership within Tanzania.

4.1 Project 1: Rural Road Maintenance System Development Project (RMSD)

4.1.1 Brief Overview

Signed in the year 2011, this 4-year project was set to take off from February 2012 to March 2016 (JICA RMSD 2017). The location site for the project was in the Dodoma Region and Iringa Region in Tanzania (JICA RMSD 2017). With this being a technical co-operation project, the Japanese were expected to fulfil objectives such as the providing experts, short-term training, equipment and machinery as well as the cost of local activities (JICA RMSD 2017). The Tanzanian government was responsible for assigning counter-part staff, providing land and facilities for JICA expertise, bearing the costs of the pilot construction in both districts as well as managing operational costs such as the water and electricity (JICA RMSD 2017). The need for Tanzania to undergo this project was due to the difficulties the country had faced in managing and maintaining its rural roads, along with other problems that were caused by budget constraints, poor equipment as well as the use of inexperienced contractors (JICA RMSD 2017). In this case, it is then imperative to assess whether Japan provided sufficient support in the implementation of the project and if it kept to its objective of fostering ownership.

4.1.2 Planning, Implementation and Progress

When it came down to the planning process there was equal involvement from both sides in the initial stages, with Tanzania represented by individuals from the Prime Minister's Office and Regional Administration and Local Government (PMO-RALG) while Japan also brought along a host of experts to provide insight on how the project would be implemented and the various activities surrounding the process (JICA RMSD 2012a). The first Joint Coordinating Committee (JCC) took place in October 2012 and was chaired by Eng. Kayanda from the PMO-RALG. This setting allowed both sides to collaborate in the decision-making process (JICA RMSD 2012b). The conducting of JCC meetings fits within the nature of most technical co-operation projects in which host countries are given some level of autonomy as far as the decision-making process is concerned, with the ODA donor usually assuming an advisory role throughout most of the decision-making. This approach created good grounds for the seed of control to take hold on the side of the ODA recipient as it propelled a local actor such as the PMO-RALG into a position where it had to lead the way. However, JCC meetings are not to be viewed as a guarantee of ownership but rather a foundational step towards achieving the objective.

4.1.3 Labour Based Technology

A crucial decision that faced the council during the initial stage of the project was the question of whether to mainly utilise Labour Based Technology (LBT) or Equipment Based Technology (EBT). LBT is a method that can be easily implemented within a rural area setting as it stands to create employment opportunities while also fostering ownership of road assets to communities (JICA RMSD 2013). In its simplest application, the use of LBT methods would have resulted in a labour-intensive project in which the use of machines would be limited, in much opposition to EBT methods that largely rely on machinery. LBT methods were the attractive choice but a survey was used as a tool to further determine the applicability of LBT. A survey was issued in the Chamwino District Chiboli Village, an area that had past experiences with the utilisation of LBT methods in previous projects (JICA RMSD 2013). The findings of the survey presented a satisfaction level of 75%, as residents expressed a strong willingness to partake in an LBT project (JICA RMSD 2013). The major reasons for this strong approval may have been because LBT projects in the past generated income to purchase food, improve accessibility through road construction and resulted in crop prices improving due to better accessibility to the markets (JICA RMSD 2013). Ultimately, JICA strongly recommended that activities focusing on LBT specification should be incorporated into this project (PO-RALG 2016, 9). This decision from the Japanese to propel the project towards an LBT approach simply upholds the principle of self-help that it has sought to foster in its ODA initiatives, driving the local labour force to maintain their own infrastructure. On the other hand, this decision was a much-expected one considering that LBT would be the reasonable and cost-effective method in any rurally based project.

LBT has created some meaningful transformation in the lives of community members because of its application in this project. In one case, a trip to Iringa City from Makombe Village was reduced from three days to one day due to the road maintenance works between Magunga and Makombe (PO-RALG 2016, 57). In another, transportation costs from Makombe Village to Ifunda were reduced from 30,000 Tsh to 18,000-20,000 Tsh after some road maintenance works (PO-RALG 2016, 57). LBT also presented members of the community with the opportunity to sell their agricultural products at a higher price due to the improved transportation conditions that allowed them access to the market in the city (PO-RALG 2016, 57). For example, 20 kilograms of maize would have been sold at a price of 3,000 Tsh but

because of greater access to the market, the price in Iringa City would be 8,000 Tsh which meant an increase in profits (PO-RALG 2016, 57). These are just some of the benefits that came with the implementation of LBT works through the project and can be an indication of self-help being promoted.

4.1.4 Training and Capacity Building

Training was provided during this project, with more than 180 engineers and technicians participating (PO-RALG 2016, 13). One aspect of training that stood out was GIS training; a form of training that focused on data management. Through its implementation engineers were able to shift from managing rural data manually on paper, to utilising PCs as a data management tool (PO-RALG 2016, 21). Some training was also conducted in Japan from August 23 to September 10 in 2014 (PO-RALG 2016, 91). In this training, Tanzanian trainees attended lectures in several locations such as Tokyo, Saitama, Aomori and Kochi, as the focus geared at knowledge sharing on the road maintenance systems in Japan (JICA RMSD 2014). The overall purpose of this training was to create an understanding the administrative elements of rural road maintenance, participatory road maintenance works as well as acquiring a rural road evaluation system (PO-RALG 2016, 91). Such an initiative speaks to the Japanese method of promoting self-help in Tanzania, especially in the areas where engineers needed to be equipped with skills that would enable them to take control of the rural road maintenance problem faced in Tanzania. In this instance, Japan did not simply rely on ownership promotion that would be limited to ODA disbursement but went further in conducting skills transfer strategies that would be highly beneficial Tanzania.

A commonly faced challenge by countries engaging in technical co-operation projects is ensuring that a project is sustainable once the ODA donor has pulled out and a bulk of the remaining responsibility is left in the hands of the recipient government. As a technical co-operation, this was a challenge to be encountered in this project. In response to this, a medium and long-term plan was devised in model districts with the main objective looking into how the planning capacity in such projects could be improved when operating on limited resources (PO-RALG 2016, 22). The main concerns in this sustainability plan prioritized issues on maintenance needs, the production of multi-year budgets as well as the general utilization of

the budget (PO-RALG 2016, 22). This proactive approach proves that the project did not only focused on improving the current road maintenance system but looked to ensure that any progress made in this course would be met with long-term sustainability. The awareness that Japanese aid would decline at the completion of the project may have created an urgency on the side of Tanzania to devise strategies of how it would manage the financial workings once they assumed full control of the project. The inclusion of long-term planning within embodies the philosophy of ownership, with the recipient country preparing itself for the transfer of responsibility once the project reached completion.

4.1.5 Conclusion

Taking the whole progress of this project into consideration one can argue that this project was the ideal platform to promote self-help within rural Tanzania. The project was largely targeted at improving road conditions in a rural environment that continued to face challenges with road maintenance. This objective was in line with addressing the self-help notion of helping developing countries in areas that are in desperate need of developmental attention. The application of LBT as a strategy certainly bids well with the notion of creating self-help on a capacity building level in which local workers could apply their expertise. The Local Government, PMO-RALG and Regional Engineers certainly came out of this project with renewed knowledge on road management and maintenance; while improving the coordination between these three branches in terms of dealing with rural road maintenance, capacity building within Tanzania and boosting employment opportunities. The most key factor though was the involvement on the part of Tanzania. The Tanzanian counterpart was given a sufficient role in the planning and implementation process throughout this project and was provided with the opportunity to also benefit from Japanese expert assistance as well as training. These are certain ingredients to fostering greater ownership within the rural road maintenance sector in Tanzania.

The final important factor was the long-term planning around the sustainability of the project. This was a matter that embodied the idea of what self-help seeks to achieve. In this case, Tanzania did show initiative as far as long-term planning was concerned and this is a path that can be viewed as important in any ODA initiative. It may be true that not all African countries are well equipped to plan on the creation of strategies to sustain the development brought

through such initiatives. It remains to be seen whether Tanzania will pick up where Japan left off and build from the progress ushered in by this road project. This thinking leads into the understanding that ownership is a gradual process that should be measured on a long-term scale as opposed to a project by project analysis.

4.2 Project 2: Strengthening Development of Human Resource for Health

4.2.1 Brief Overview

The agreement to establish the project on Strengthening Development of Human Resource for Health was signed in August 2010, planning to go on for a duration of four years, commencing in November 2010 and concluding in November 2014. The main objective of this project was to ensure that healthcare and services were improved particularly around quality management (JICA Kaizen 2017). This was to be implemented through Japanese concepts of management called 5S-Continuous Quality Improvement (5S-CQI) and KAIZEN-Total Quality Management (KAIZEN -TQM). These principles largely aimed at improving the working environment in the hospitals by using problem-solving processes that would foster greater quality of services (TQIF 2011). In its contribution, Japan provided long and short-term experts, equipment for project operation and covered the expense of local training as well as workshops (JICA Kaizen 2017). Tanzania provided office space, counterpart staff from the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (MoHSW) as well as some of the expenses involved in the running of offices (JICA Kaizen 2017).

4.2.2 Kaizen Philosophy

In this project, Japan led the way as far as the planning, implementation and monitoring were concerned and much of this is because KAIZEN is a Japanese philosophy that can be effectively executed through the help of a Japanese organisation like JICA. Kaizen is a Japanese term that means “change for the better” and can simply be defined as a “Problem Solving Process” (Kaizen Handbook 2014, 6). Japanese manufacturers have long been using this system to improve the quality of their products and quality client satisfaction (URT-MoHSW 2013, vi). The 5S-Kaizen-TQM approach was mainly introduced in Tanzania in 2007 as part of the Asia-Africa Knowledge Co-Creation Program (AAKCP) (Good Practices 2014,

3). Initially, this was a knowledge sharing platform between Asian and African countries aimed at propelling participating countries towards pursuing a development method that suited their path (URT-MoHSW 2013, vi). Since 2011, there have been over 18 hospitals that were trained using this Kaizen approach, yet only 8 of these have started practising Kaizen as means to improve the quality of patient's services and hospital management (Kaizen Handbook 2014, 1).

4.2.3 Training and Capacity Building

The first objective in this project was the rolling out of 5S-Kaizen –TQM strategy which saw a process called 'Training of Trainers' (ToT) conducted in the target hospitals (URT-MoHSW 2013, 4). Upon receiving training, trained personnel were expected to share their gained knowledge and skills with their colleagues and subordinates in their health facilities and were expected to carry out 'in-house training' (URT-MoHSW 2013, 5). Through undergoing the rollout there was a realisation of some hospitals having insufficient budgets to carry out in-house training (URT-MoHSW 2013, 5). In-house training was an important part of the project because its omission would mean that there would be no Kaizen cases to even report on. This problem certainly reflects that effective capacity building strategies can only be properly implemented when met by capacity on the side of the recipient, and in this case financial capacity was the main stumbling block towards achieving a smooth rollout plan. Overall the project pushed to conduct this form of training on all levels, in both public and private hospitals since 2008 with a total of 56 health facilities receiving training on 5S-KAIZEN-TQM by the year 2013 (URT-MoHSW 2013, 6).

4.2.4 Project Achievement

In monitoring the progress of KAIZEN, cases were categorised into themes, which were Administration, Clinical Services and Resource management (Good Practices 2014, 7). Findings showed that 70% of these themes targeted the improvement of clinical service for patients, 23 % targeted the improvement of clinical management and 7% aimed to improve on administrative service (Good Practices 2014, 7). All in all, these themes reflected a general objective to largely improve patients care through the implementation of Kaizen. Introduction

of Kaizen practices led to some noticeable progress in hospitals. One of these hospitals was Mbeya Zonal Referral Hospital (MZRH) where the patient waiting time to consultation at the Out-Patient Department (OPD) was reduced (Good Practices 2014, 15). Before the project, there was no clear patient flow protocol, with the hospital battling with establishing a defined activity schedule and a meeting schedule (Good Practices 2014, 15). The introduction of Kaizen resulted in countermeasures such as clarification of job allocation and daily duties for staff, conducting training on time management as well as developing a patient flow protocol (Good Practices 2014, 15). To establish these claims there was a data collection conducted through interviewing outpatients as well as the staff on OPD. These are the findings that were presented:

Table 3: Effectiveness of Kaizen

#	Contributing Factors	Frequency		Reduction Rate (%)
		Before	After	
1	Delay in starting consultation	12	8	33.3
2	Long break during consultation	10	4	60.0
3	Interruption by emergency cases	8	6	25.0
4	Bypass of Staff	7	2	71.4
5	Long contact time	5	4	20.0
Total		42	24	42.9

Source: Good Practices 2014

4.2.5Conclusion

This project presented a unique case in which a Japanese method was implemented within an African setting. This certainly bids well in furthering the Japanese motive to promote knowledge sharing between itself and African countries. On the other hand, it can also be questionable whether this purely fosters self-help on the side of African countries. The Kaizen approach is a concept that according to the Japanese will help reduce the waste of resource, increase productivity and quality of health services in many developing countries (Good Practices 2014, 24). However, the main challenge when faced with implementing this objective remains in the attempt to replicate a Kaizen approach in a country like Tanzania where the situation of health facilities is obviously different from that encountered in Japan. This gulf in capacity does not paint a good picture as far as ownership promotion is concerned, giving an

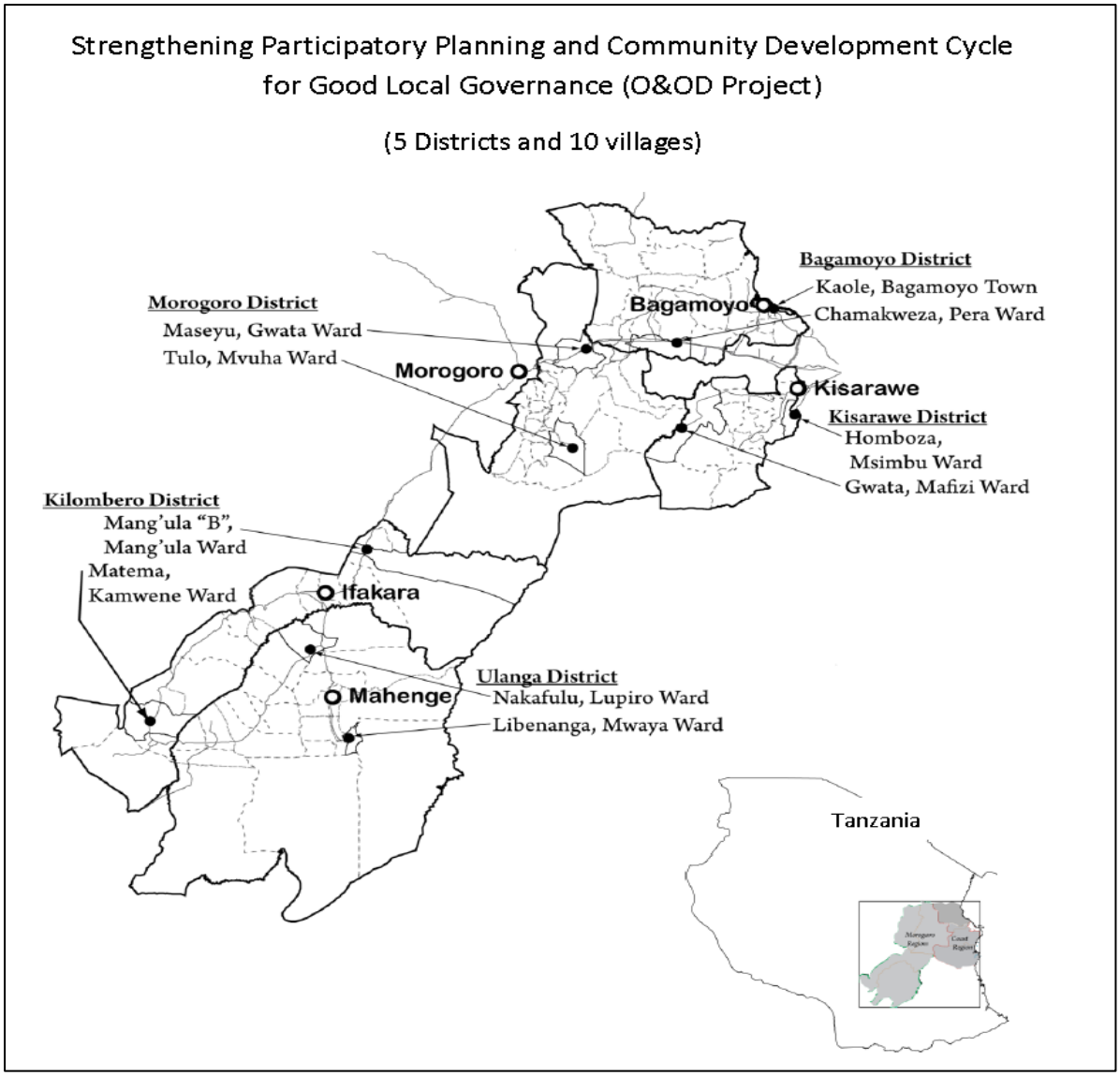
impression that this project attempts to utilise a Japanese solution to fix an African problem. The project findings reported that some trained health workers had a difficult image about the Kaizen approach and this observation brings one to the view that the problem in cases such as this comes with adopting rigid solutions that do not originate within the context in which they are being implemented. The Kaizen project and its implementation can be likened to an organ transplant in which Japan is the donor and Tanzania is the recipient, in due progress, it remains to be seen whether the Tanzanian body will reject or accept the Kaizen organ and see it become a sustainable solution to be fully embraced by Tanzanians.

4.3 Project 3: Strengthening Participatory Planning and Community Development Cycle for Good Local Governance

4.3.1 Brief Overview

JICA pledged its support to this specific community development project in 2009, with the project commencing in October 2009 and ending in October 2014 (O&OD Brochure 2013). The basic tenet of this project was to propel a process called Opportunities and Obstacles to Development (O&OD), which seeks to encourage community people to be involved in the planning, implementation and ownership of their community processes (O&OD Brochure 2013). Essentially the aim would be to move away from a top-down process of planning towards a more decentralized bottom-up set up within local communities (O&OD Brochure 2013). The O&OD model was a move from the Tanzanian government to promote local autonomy through participatory social development processes with Japan's efforts becoming crucial in ensuring that this project reached this objective (O&OD Brochure 2013). This project targeted 10 villages from 5 Local Government Authorities (Bagamoyo DC and Kisarawe DC in Coast Region and Kilombero DC, Morogoro DC, and Ulanga DC in Morogoro Region). This section of the report will discuss developments that surrounded the progress of the project in these districts.

Figure 1: Site Map for O&OD Project



Source: O&OD

4.3.2 Planning and Implementation

As with every project, the process of implementation was quite vital to its success and entrusted with this responsibility was to be a Regional Task Force (RTF), Training Task Force (TTF) and Ward Facilitators (WF) who aided the process of facilitation (O&OD 2011, 2). These actors formed what will be referred to in this reports as the 'O&OD Team'. The implementation of this project went beyond the involvement of facilitators as community leaders were also brought into the fold to familiarise them with the approach of the project while fostering cooperation between community leaders and the O&OD team (O&OD 2011, 6). These leaders included Ward Executive Officers (WEOs), Village Chairpersons (VCs) and Village Executive Officers (VEOs), who played a significant role in representing their respective communities

(O&OD 2011, 6). Overall the leading actors in the implementation process were mainly of Tanzanian representation, which then strengthens Japan's stance on acting as a supporting co-ordinator that granted the host government the opening to assume control of the project.

4.3.3 Training and Capacity Building

The RTF and WF underwent training that took place through classroom sessions and field sessions in preparation for the project implementation. A form of training that stood out was training on Participatory Local Social Development (PLSD) that took place in October 2010, where nine RTF members spent 15 days in Japan (O&OD 2011, 8). This effort on the side of Japan aimed to bolster the capacity of facilitators in implementing the objectives of the project on their home soil with much efficiency. In its third year of operation, the WF and RTF members received training on the community planning process as this was essential to promoting community ownership of the development process (O&OD 2012, 8). The training process led to each village eventually formulating an annual development plan due to the enhanced knowledge of village leaders on community planning (O&OD 2012, 17). Such training was initiated in the consequent year and resulted in community members within the 10 target villages gaining a better understanding of the community planning process as well as some improvement in the participation of women, disabled people as well as livestock keepers (O&OD 2013, 12).

4.3.4 Project Progress

By the third year of the project, there were expected improvements from all stakeholders which prompted them to monitor the progress of communities in target villages. This procedure was conducted from April to May 2012 through interviews, group discussions and site visits (O&OD 2012, 22). The findings presented a noticeable change in all the villages. Kaole village in the Bagamoyo District saw an increase in the attendance of meetings from 10 people in 2010 to 40 people in 2012 (Shaurimoyo hamlet) with this mainly attributed to the training received by leaders on their roles and responsibilities, improved facilitation of WF's as well as the exchange visit to Homboza (O&OD 2012, 22). Homboza village in Kisarawe District experienced a rise in collective activities participation, which went from 50% to 75%, mainly

because of greater collaboration between the community, VCs and O&OD experts (O&OD 2012, 23). The village revenue in Gwata village in Kisarawe District increased from Tsh. 1,500, 000 to 4,000,000 within 3 months through much help from the finance and planning committee that had devised means to find alternative revenue sources, methods of supervision and collection of revenue (O&OD 2012, 23). Discussed here are just some of the many changes that were experienced by the ten villages that partook in the project by its third year.

4.3.5 Project Achievement

As important as the progress of the community is, the project had an objective to breach the gap between Local Government Authorities (LGAs) and villages through the help of facilitators. A strengthened relationship between these actors would signal the sustainability of the project's objective and propel progress that would ripple far beyond the duration of the project. The success of this becomes evident when looking at how the LGA led the way in many of the community initiatives since the inception of the project (O&OD 2013, 17). The table shows some of the major successes that have occurred through the support of the LGA in target villages.

Table 4: LGA Support of Community Initiatives in Target Villages

LGA	Village	Community Initiative	LGA Support
Bagamoya	Kaole	**Road construction** -Installation of a culvert connecting Bondeni Hamlet and the main road was completed (2011)	-District civil engineer provided technical advice. - Rehabilitation of the main road was budgeted in LGA plan (FY 2012/13).
	Kaole	**Water well construction** -Water project committee was formed, and collection of financial contribution was started (2012).	-District water engineer provided technical advice on adherence to water policy
Kisarawe	Homboza	**Improvement of village dispensary** -Solar panel, rainwater harvesting system and sewage system have been installed (2012).	-Constituency Development Catalyst Fund (Tsh 10,000,000) was allocated for developing sewage system (2012
	Gwata	**Improvement of group activity** - A furniture making group participated in the training provided by Small Industries Development Organization (SIDO) (2011)	-Introduction of external organization (SIDO) for training and provision of equipment through the district community development office (2011)
Morogoro	Maseyu	**Construction of pre-primary schools** - The school buildings are under construction (2012).	-District council provided trucks for transporting construction materials (2012) -District education officer provided technical advice for school buildings
	Maseyu	**Construction of village dispensary** - Construction up to the wall has been completed (2012)	-The budget for remaining construction was allocated in LGA plan (FY 2012/13)
Kilombero	Mang'ula B	**Construction of primary school buildings** -The school buildings are under construction (2012)	-The budget for remaining construction was allocated in LGA plan (FY 2012/13).

	Mang'ula B	**Improvement of group activity** -A group participated in the training for bee keeping and destructive animal control for agriculture.	-WFs linked the group to environmental conservation organization (Ecologia), which provided training and equipment to the group.
	Matema	**Construction of community roads** - 30 km of road has been dug and levelled (2012).	-5 culverts are planned to be constructed with LGA's own source budget (FY2012/13)
Ulanga	Nakafulu	**Construction of staff houses** -The houses are under construction (2012).	-District council introduced KVTC (Kilombero Valley Teaks Company) to financially support the construction (Tsh 14,000,000
	Nakafulu	**Rehabilitation of a water well** -The project was completed (2012).	-District council purchased water pump, hired technicians and transport cement, which cost Tsh 2,500,000
	Libenanga	**Construction of school buildings** -Construction of 2 classrooms and provision of 80 desks were completed (2012).	-District council provided financial support of Tsh 7,000,000 -District engineer provided technical advice for construction

Source: O&OD

4.3.6 Cost Sharing

This project is the only examined project that has directly sought to promote ownership in Tanzania. In the discussion of the project much reference has been made regarding the role of the Tanzanian Local Government, but much on the side of the Japanese has not being discussed. The financial input on the side of Japan sheds light on the extent at which Japan contributed to the project. The table indicates that JICA has covered a sizable portion of the cost for this project and should be commended for this effort. However, this does not bid well for the sustainability of the project in its promotion of ownership. PMO-RALG has only carried out 16% of the costs and this barely reflects any capacity on the side of Tanzania to carry out a project of this kind with less reliance on Japanese ODA.

Table 5: Cost sharing between PMO-RALG and JICA for O&OD Project

	Year 1 2009-2010	**%**	**Year 2 2010-2011**	**%**	**Year 3 2011-2012**	**%**	**Year 4 2012-2013**	**%**	**Total (average per year)**	**%**
PMO-RALG	0	0	10.6	16	13.2	39	3.5	6	27.3(6.8)	16
JICA	12.1	100	54.2	84	20.3	61	55.6	94	142.2(35.6)	84
TOTAL	12.1	100	64.8	100	33.5	100	59.1	100	169.5(42.3)	100

(Unit: Tsh Million) Source: O&OD

The success of the project has led to ideas on the future replication of the O&OD project. An improved replication of the project would call for an increased budget, which makes a securement of financial resources on the side of LGA a precondition for this step to be taken

(O&OD 2013, 33). Japan has played its part in supporting the ownership initiative promoted by the O&OD community project, but the sustainability of this progress can mainly be guaranteed through further replication of O&OD. Tanzania has shown leadership to embrace tenets of self-help such as involvement in the planning, implementation and control of the project. However, its shortfall in financial capacity sheds much doubt on its ability to promote the Japanese envisioned notion of self-help. The issue of financial incapacity remains to be a major hindrance to ownership consolidation in many African countries. Even if the foundation is set in place by projects such as these, the ability to expand without the financial backing of donors such as Japan remains a challenge for many African states.

4.3.7 Conclusion

In all the projects that this paper has focused on, this specific project can be lauded as the only project that directly worked towards achieving ownership in Tanzania, and it is for this reason that this specific project was given extensive coverage. The discussed project certainly covers a variety of ownership promotion activities such as the training that was provided as well as the inclusion of target communities throughout the implementation of the project. In terms of capacity building, one cannot find fault with the manner this project was implemented as the Tanzanian counterpart stood to benefit immensely, especially when it came to communities developing a self-organizing capacity. However, as previously discussed the future replication of this project in other target areas is doubtful when considering the poor financial backing this project received from the donor recipient. In initiating self-help efforts Japan has always sought to avoid a situation where it bears a large burden of the project as this is viewed as a discouragement to achieving ownership, yet the cost-sharing figures reflect that Japan did the exact opposite by carrying a bulk of the financial burden. Even though such projects can be commended for their efforts to bolster ownership and create a positive impact in the communities they are implemented in, sustainability remains a key factor where self-help is concerned and the failure to develop a long-term perspective on this will only make projects such as this one a temporary fix without devised strategies for sustainable development.

4.4 Project 4: The Project for Rehabilitation of Substation and Transmission Line in Kilimanjaro Region

4.4.1 Brief Overview

Tanzania has been experiencing difficulties in maintaining its power utilities during the 1990's and early 2000's. In the year 1993, the government took a decision to privatize TANESCO (Tanzanian Electric Supply Company Limited) as part of structural reforms of the electric power sector (TANESCO 2011, 1-1). This transition resulted in a stagnation within the power sector as far as public assistance and ODA was concerned. Tanzania found itself in a state where there was no investment or maintenance of existing power facilities, accompanied by a steady rise in the demand for electricity (TANESCO 2011, 1-1). As a response to the deteriorated power supply facilities, the privatization of TANESCO was suspended in 2006 and in 2009, The Electric System Master Plan was established to promote long-term development of the power sector (TANESCO 2011,1-1).

This project was conducted in the Kilimanjaro Region, A region with a population of 1.57 million by 2008 and regarded as Tanzania's largest tourist destination that accommodated visitors from all over the world (TANESCO 2011, 1-1). However, because of the poor power supply in Tanzania, the region has often found its power supply frequently interrupted by loadshedding as well as equipment failures (OPMAC 2015, 5). It is for this reason that Tanzania was prompted issued a request to the Government of Japan, asking them to assist in the upgrading and construction of transforming facilities along with the installation of transmission lines all in the aim of achieving a stable power supply in the Kilimanjaro Region (TANESCO 2011, 1). This project was conducted from March 2011 to February 2013. The main priorities were the renewal of two deteriorated substations (YMCA Substation and Lawate Substation), expansion of two existing substations (Trade School and Kiyungi), construction of two new substations (KCMC Substation and Makuyuni Substation) (TANESCO 2011, 2-9).

As far as project responsibilities were concerned Tanzania had TANESCO operating as its main implementing agency. Apart from the obvious responsibility of covering a fraction of the project costs Tanzania was expected to level the land where the upgrading and new construction of substations would be located, install a transmission line beyond Makuyuni Substation, procuring and installing Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition System

(SCADA) and communication systems as well as procuring and installing optical ground wiring (OPGW) (OPMAC 2015, 6). The involved parties on the side of Japan were Yachiyo Engineering Co. Ltd as the main consulting agency for as well as a joint venture between Mitsubishi Corporation, Aichi Electric Co and Yurtec Co. on the contractor responsibilities (OPMAC 2015, 3). The involvement of TANESCO as the main agency was a sensible choice and certainly speaks within the bounds of self-help in which a domestic agency was granted the opportunity to take a leading role in a project that would improve its capacity and the sector it operates in. The involvement of Japanese companies is also quite expected considering that the project was a grant aid and donor countries tend to bring their own experts on board during high scale projects. As with any grant aid project, one would question the concentrated appointing of Japanese contractors and consultants and this will be thoroughly touched on in the other grant aid project in the Ghana section where we will discuss the rehabilitation of the National Trunk Road N8. Overall this project showed initiative by bringing in TANESCO as the main agency and this was certainly an indication of this project aim to fulfil the objective of ownership promotion.

4.4.2 Cost Sharing

The initial projected cost to be carried by Japan was 2,500 million yen, while Tanzania was expected to contribute 212 million yen, making the total cost at 2,712 million yen (OPMAC 2015, 9). However, the project went on to cost less on the side of Japan as it eventually contributed 2,092 million yen and Tanzania had to cover more than its initial pledge and ended up paying 338 million (OPMAC 2015, 9). The final cost of the project ended up reaching a total of 2,430 million yen (OPMAC 2015, 9). It is not clear why the costs of Tanzania were overrun but the reason for Japan's lowered cost was because of reduced costs of equipment (OPMAC 2015, 9). The cost-sharing dynamics in this project are typical of any grant aid project where we see the ODA donor contributing far more than the recipient. However, for a country like Japan, that is seeking to promote ownership this form of cost-sharing where it carries a significant sum of the budget does not foster self-help on any level. Tanzania is not placed in a position where it assumes a shared responsibility in the financial setting of the project and this form of relationship sets a tone for how the rest of the project is implemented, ensuring that Japan is somewhat validated in assuming a leading role throughout the project based on its massive contribution towards the costs of the project.

4.4.3 Project Achievement

The first major achievement of the project was achieving the stabilization of the power supply in the Kilimanjaro Region. This was largely evident in the decline of power outage hours in the Rombo District, because of the voltage becoming more stable. This improvement can be attributed to the then newly built Makuyuni Substation that was constructed as part of the project (OPMAC 2015, 14). Rombo District was not the only beneficiary seeing that Himo and Marangu Districts also received power from Makuyuni Substation, enabling them to benefit by receiving a more stable power supply (OPMAC 2015, 14). Another positive impact was the increase of power consumers and electrification in the Kilimanjaro Region between 2011 and 2015 because of the project. The table indicates a gradual increase in electricity subscribers each year which totals an increase of 46,769 from the year 2011 to 2015. The electrification also indicates a 6.93 improvement between 2011 and 2015.

Table 6: Number of Electricity Subscribers and Electrification Rate in Kilimanjaro Region

Year	**2011**	**2012**	**2014**	**2014**	**2015**
Number of electricity subscribers (Number)	83,938	87,448	92,654	115,923	130,707
Electrification Rate (%)	22.40	22.93	23.86	29.33	32.48

Source: TANESCO 2011

This project led to much improvement in the power supply in schools and hospitals within the region. Before the project, the schools in this region were affected by frequent power outages that hindered schools from having consistent use of computers copying machines and other electric appliances (OPMAC 2015, 18). A survey conducted by Japan through interviewing schools in the region found out that the situation improved after the project. Before the project, students living in boarding schools would often struggle to study at night because of lack of lighting (OPMAC 2015, 18). A stable supply has enabled students to study at night without any distractions, which has given a boost to their academic performance (OPMAC 2015, 18). KCMC Hospital and Huruma Hospital are two hospitals in the region that made use of electrical medical devices as well as examination instruments. Before the project, the use of these instruments was largely hindered by the frequent power outages as the bulk of the emergency

in-house generators were meant for facilities such as the Intensive Care Unit (OPMAC 2015, 19). The steady supply of power has since lessened the reliance on in-house generators, even though interviews still maintain there are some persisting problems, the change brought on by this project is highly acknowledgeable and has impacted hospitals in reducing the breakdown of medical devices (OPMAC 2015, 19).

4.4.4 Conclusion

The electricity project is one that held a high potential in impacting the community in which it was implemented. African countries are constantly grappling with improving their power supply sector and how they can maintain a steady supply. The project reflects the Japanese effort of aiding in areas that need urgent attention and that bear a level of relevance as far as developmental needs are concerned. Tanzania expressed a need for assistance in the power supply in the Kilimanjaro Region and Japan did exactly what was expected without derailing the focus of the project. As far as fostering self-help one can argue that this project does work towards placing the Kilimanjaro region in a position where it is given the opportunity to maintain its development objectives. The supply of power bears an importance in ensuring that other sectors such as the health and education sector run efficiently and what this project did was largely in-line with improving the capacity for further self-help efforts to take place in the region. Kilimanjaro is a major tourist attraction in Tanzania, making it a region where local communities and Tanzanian state depend on for achieving economic growth. Projects such as this one are foundational in the process towards making this growth possible and Japan has shown great foresight in providing support through its ODA provision while also strengthening the capacity of the power sector in the Kilimanjaro Region.

CHAPTER FIVE: GHANA

In this section, we will look at four ODA projects that were implemented by Japan in Ghana. Three of these will be technical co-operation project while one will be a grant aid. The first project to be looked at will be a road maintenance project that was set within proximity to the city of Kumasi, an urban area in Ghana. This was a grant aid project requested by the Ghana government for the repair of the N8 national road. The second project will be a technical co-operation project aimed at improving the maternal and neonatal health services in the Upper West Region of Ghana. The third project to be examined will be the project that aimed to bolster the capacity of the Civil Service Training Centre based Accra. This is the only project that was not set to solely benefit Ghana but also some of its neighbouring countries. The final project will be an agricultural technical co-operation project that was based in Northern and Ashanti districts in Ghana. All in all, these are the four sectors that will be explored in this section, with the sole aim of establishing whether Japan has consistently kept its objective of promoting ownership within Ghana.

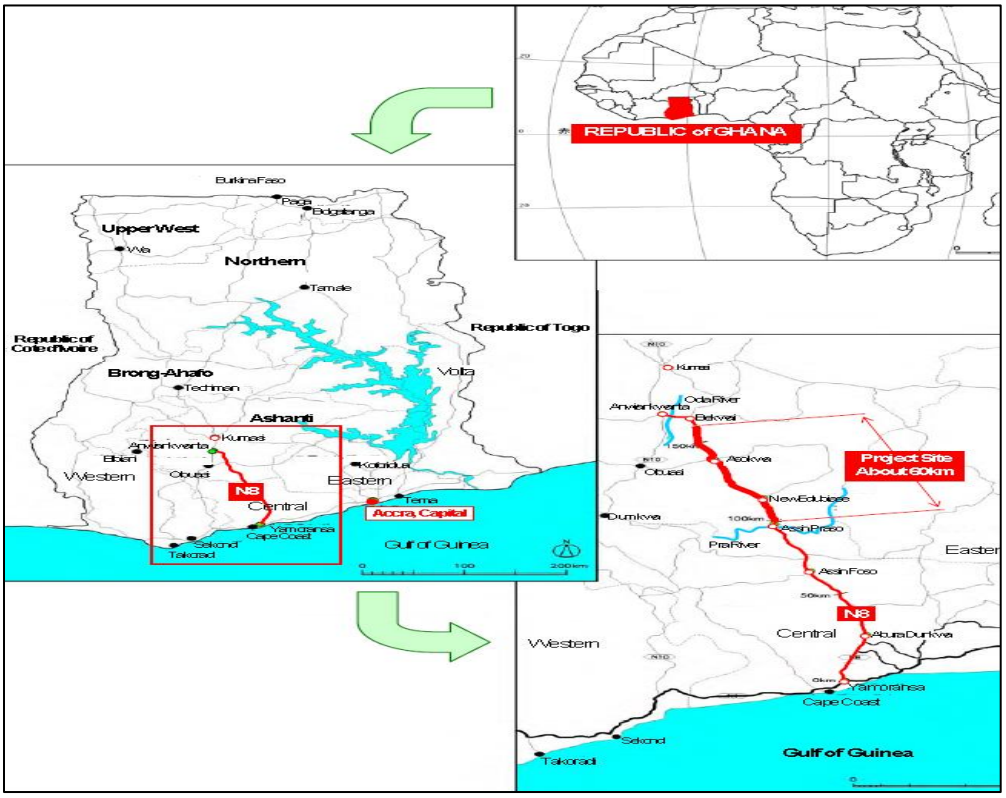
5.1 Project 1: Rehabilitation of the National Trunk Road N8

5.1.1 Brief Overview

This project for the Rehabilitation of the N8 Road commenced on July 2009 and was set to be completed in December 2014. The road sector is a crucial factor when the socio-economic activities in Ghana are considered. The N8 serves as a road that contributes to the economic productivity in Ghana as it allows products shipped in through the Port of Tokorodi (second largest port in Ghana) to make their way into the inland production-based city of Kumasi that has an estimated population of 1,170,000 (Ministry of Transport 2008, S-1). The road previously underwent improvements that made use of a paving of asphalt concrete between 1990 and 1994 through the help of Japanese Yen loans (Ministry of Transport 2008, 1). Since then the road paving had endured much damage because of the increase in traffic volume as well as poor monitoring of overloading (Ministry of Transport 2008, 2). This led Ghana to submit a request to the Japanese Grant Aid Scheme for road improvements totalling a length of 176 km in the year 2006 (Ministry of Transport 2008, 2). However, the Japanese side conducted a preliminary study that concluded that the damaged road section totalling 60km

from Assin Prasso (including Assin Prasso Bridge) to Anwiankwanta heading south needed urgent attention (Ministry of Transport 2008, 2). This Project would gear towards improving the 60 km of the N8 road between Assin Prasso and Bekwai as agreed on both sides (JICA Evaluation 2012, 13).

Figure 2: Site Map for National Trunk Road N8 Project



Source: Ministry of Transport

5.1.2 Planning and Implementation

As far as responsibilities between Japan and Ghana are concerned, this is how the project was carried out. Japan was responsible for the construction work, procurement of construction materials and machinery, consultancy services as well as safety measures (Ministry of Transport 2008, 58). On the side of Ghana, the main responsibilities were the acquisition of construction permits, customs clearance and tax exemption, as well as land acquisition (Ministry of Transport 2008, 58). This set-up clearly indicates that Japan led the way by controlling a bulk of the responsibilities that were in line with the planning and implementation of the project. Ghana, on the other hand, was charged with duties that are reflective of a

recipient country making preparation for some work that was mainly to be carried by Japan. The layout of this project certainly does not uphold the objective of ownership promotion on the side of Japan given that the Ghanaian side does not carry enough responsibility that would indicate that they were in control of the project.

In looking at this project from an ownership perspective the main issue that stands out is that of the parties that were charged with heading this project. Two companies were contracted to spearhead this road project. Ingerosec Corporation, a Japanese company that offers consulting services in many areas such as road infrastructure, transportation infrastructure and urban planning among a range of other services was contracted to the project (JICA Evaluation 2012, 13). In construction, Tokura Corporation which is another Japanese company led the way in the construction work that took place during the project (JICA Evaluation 2012, 13). One might argue that Ghana had a role to play by means of selecting Japanese-national contractors through an open-bidding, but this is a minor role in the face of dominant Japanese control of the project (Ministry of Transport 2008, 59). The high involvement of outsourced Japanese consultancy spelt disaster for any opportunities for ownership promotion on the side of Ghana. A set up of this manner simply points towards the objective of the project being the completion of the N8 road rehabilitation, making it a higher priority in opposition to an ownership promotion approach that would have certainly aimed at achieving greater skills and technology transfer between Ghana and Japan.

The issue of Japan's dominant control of the project can be brought into light when considering how the construction materials for the project were procured. General materials such as cement, reinforcing bars and wood that are produced locally were procured locally (Ministry of Transport 2008, 61). However, bridge construction-related materials such as PC steel materials and anchorage fittings were procured in Japan due to their excellent quality and ease of procurement (Ministry of Transport 2008, 62). In another case a survey found that concrete pipes that are manufactured locally were of inferior quality, calling for them to be procured from Japan (Ministry of Transport 2008, 62). This over-reliance on Japanese imports in the project reflects the general challenge of promoting ownership in African countries such as Ghana. By this one implies that Japan faces the problem of seeking to promote ownership in countries where hurdles such as lack of quality building materials or high skilled technicians

are a major problem that can only be remedied by the Japanese taking measures such as utilising their very own consultancy services along with their exported building materials.

The objective for Japan to promote ownership while also ensuring that the planning and implementation of the project are of the best quality sets a dilemma for Japan. In many projects such as this one, aiding countries are faced with the crucial decision of whether to use locally manufactured materials and consulting services that could be inferior for the sheer motive of ownership promotion or whether to implement a high-quality project at the expense of ownership promotion. In the N8 road project, local workers and technicians were utilized based on a degree of competency and one cannot infer that this project did not create employment opportunities for some Ghanaian nationals (Ministry of Transport 2008, 54). Yet the level of Ghanaian involvement in the projects planning and implementation process leaves little to be desired in the wake of expectations of ownership being created through this project. In fact, one can go as far as arguing that the N8 project was based on a road rehabilitation problem on the side of the Ghana, and Japan offering a solution exclusively tailored by them. The power dynamics between both actors left no room for ownership to be placed as a priority, with both sides hailing the project as a success when it was completed ahead of schedule in December 2013 (Modern Ghana 2013).

5.1.3 Project Achievement

One could argue that this project achieved the least in the area of self-help promotion, but the completion of the project remains as somewhat of an achievement. Putting ownership aside the project did make a noticeable impact on the road conditions between Assin Prasso and Bekwai. The project was such a success to such an extent that the second phase of the rehabilitation of the National Trunk Road N8 was agreed upon in 2017 (Joy Online 2017). Japan put forward an amount of $56.6 million towards the improvement of International Corridor Roads in Ghana (Joy Online 2017) This project would also improve on the 31.1 km Assin Fosu-Assin Prasso section of road as well as a section in the Assin Fosu. Overall it appears that the first project that commenced in 2009 was a stepping stone towards further Japanese involvement in the improvement of road maintenance within the target area. However as impactful as this may be

in the wake of better road conditions, the findings presented in the first phase do not point to the achievement of self-help promotion.

5.1.4 Conclusion

With this being one of only two grant-aid projects to be assessed in this paper, the expectations were that the project would take a different outcome to that of the technical co-operation projects this paper has largely focused on. This certainly was the case as the findings presented a new issue on ODA loans. Of all the projects one could arguably say this project exhibited the least form of ownership promotion. A large part of poor ownership promotion can be attributed to the nature of the ODA disbursed through grant aid and not a technical co-operation. Unlike many of the technical co-operation projects where we see a major involvement of the recipient country in most of the planning and implementation of a project, a grant aid project does not provide similar opportunities. Instead, both countries in the project found themselves immersed in a common goal of completing a project without taking ownership into much account. In the process of meeting this objective, outputs that were in line with self-help efforts such as training were usually overlooked, and the recipient country was not able to push for such initiatives because the ODA request was centred around gaining assistance in completing a specific goal, which in this case was repair of the N8 road.

Some can argue that Japan cannot be faulted for sticking to the script and simply delivering on its part as far as completing the project, even if self-help efforts were minimal. However, this viewpoint would simply be letting Japan off easily seeing that it has consistently placed ownership as one of its central tenets in its ODA policy, therefore it should be expected to uphold a certain level of ownership promotion regardless of whether a project is implemented under grant aid or technical co-operation. Going forward Japan faces the challenge of ensuring that it finds viable solutions to incorporate self-help within its grant aid projects, ensuring that a project such as this one allows for the greater transfer of knowledge and technology between Japan and the recipient country, as these are pivotal building blocks towards achieving capacity building in developing countries. Otherwise, failure to optimise on self-help efforts in Ghana may see Japan returning in future for yet another project focusing on repairing the N8.

5.2 Project 2: Project for Improvement of Maternal and Neonatal Health Services Utilising CHPS System in the Upper West Region

5.2.1 Brief Overview

The project for Improvement of Maternal and Neonatal Health Services commenced in September 2011 and was concluded on September 30 in 2016 (JICA Neonatal 2016). Some delays were experienced, and the project was suspended in its second year to resolve some misunderstanding on the side of Ghana concerning the budget of the project (GHS 2016, 1). However, it resumed once the Ghana Health Service (GHS) and JICA agreed on the operationalisation of the project budget (GHS 2016, 1). The project targeted 11 districts that are in the Upper West Region, having an estimated population of 780 000 people in total (GHS 2016, 1). The main objective of this project was to ensure that there would be an improvement in the Maternal and Neonatal Health (MNH) status in the Upper West Region (JICA neonatal 2016). This goal was aimed to be achieved using a system referred to as Community-based Health Planning and Services (CHPS). From the side of Ghana, there was involvement from the Regional health directorate, District health directorate, Sub-district health teams and Community Health Officers (JICA Neonatal 2016). Ghana was also charged with the responsibility of allocating office space as well as the covering a share of the budget for operation. Japan, on the other hand, provided its JICA Expert team that would take the lead in fostering capacity building on the side of the Ghanaian counterparts (JICA Neonatal 2016). The Japanese were also responsible for the provision of medical equipment, vehicles, office equipment, training equipment along with covering the burden of the operational budget (JICA Neonatal 2016).

5.2.2 Planning and Implementation

One of the activities in the planning process of this project involved the formulation of a document that would deal with the dissemination of good practices. In producing this work there was a focus on topics that connected to the improvement of ANC/skilled delivery/PNC as indicators that reflect the purpose of the project (GHS 2016, 16). To ensure that this document captured the voices of each respective district, a taskforce was formed to gather cases in each district, to individually identify the good practices that districts held to be important (GHS 2016, 16). In totality 72 cases were gathered, but after conducting field visits on 28 cases

there was the eventual decision to select 6 cases to be developed (GHS 2016, 16). The product of this was 350 copies of the *Collection of Good practices* being printed in August 2016 and distributed throughout each district to be used by field health workers (GHS 2016, 96). The reason why one has outlined this specific process as important is mainly that it picked up on community-level approaches that could be adopted at national level, ensuring that ownership is fostered as far as implementation of good practices is concerned (GHS 2016, 94). The process also saw a large involvement of Ghanaian counterparts along with stakeholders from the various districts, ensuring that the good practices document that was formulated would depend upon local input in decision-making and planning (GHS 2016, 94). These are certainly indicators that reflect the self-help and capacity-building aspects of this activity.

The decision-making throughout the project was headed by the Joint Coordination Committee (JCC) where meetings took place in which discussions, agreements and the general direction of the project formed part of the agenda (GHS 2016, 4). This project saw a total of 10 meetings conducted between October 2011 to August 2016. This Committee involved the Ghanaian and Japanese stakeholders who were part of the project management. When assessing the last two JCC meetings that were held respectively on the 16th of April (9th JCC meeting) and 17th of August 2016 (10th JCC meeting), the participant lists indicates the dominant involvement of the Tanzanian counterpart. In the 9th meeting, of the 66 attendants, only 7 were from JICA and their role was to conduct the Terminal Evaluation Mission (GHS 2016, appendix 16). The Tanzanian counterpart made up the rest of the participants, with most of them representing the GHS, RHMT, DHMT and various training schools (GHS 2016, appendix 16). It was more of the same in the 10th and the last meeting had 53 participants with Japan having 3 representatives and the rest being from the Tanzanian counterpart (GHS 2016, appendix 17). Major participation of Tanzania in these JCC meeting reflects the level of self-help effort on its part, by maintaining high involvement on a platform where much of the project decision-making was conducted. This is certainly in line with a Japanese strategy of assisting developing countries in such a manner that they are given the opportunity to lead the way in many of the ODA projects, rather than have Japan carrying a bulk of the decision-making responsibility.

5.2.3 Training and Capacity Building

Training is a crucial part of any project and can be vital in ensuring that capacity building takes place. This project was not any different from most technical co-operation projects as it also conducted training on various levels. The main form of training that was conducted throughout the project was CHO Fresher Training. This form of training targeted new Community Health Officers (CHOs) working at CHPS (JICA Activities 2017). Fresher training was also provided for midwives, community health nurses and enrolled nurses through the utilisation of national training material (JICA Leaflet 2015). The second type of training was Refresher Training, which targeted community health nurses that dealt with providing antenatal care (ANC) as well as postnatal care (PNC) to pregnant women (JICA Leaflet 2015). The last type of training was offered to midwives and it offered Safe Motherhood Clinical Skill Training which largely focused on practical training sessions on birth assistance and emergency delivery (Leaflet 2015). Overall the project initiated several measures which ensure that capacity building was fostered in the project sites.

Going further in capacity building efforts, the project also took note of how traditional concepts and local customs had negative effects on the utilization of child health services. These customs involve views that are against giving birth in public spaces such as hospitals and the notion of unassisted childbirths reflecting the bravery of a pregnant woman (Neonatal Activities 2017). The project went ahead in supporting the development of educational materials based on community needs as well as awareness-raising activities within communities (Neonatal Activities 2017). The capacity building that took place proves that this project sought to take the interests and views of the communities in which it was implemented into account and moulded solutions that attended to customs and traditions that applied within a Tanzanian context. Preparing facilitators for a work of this manner gave confidence of a project that aimed to create sustainable solutions that attended to the distinct needs of the population rather than simply providing health solutions that were validated by the ODA donor without assessing the general needs of the recipient country and its target communities.

5.2.4 Project Achievement

This project saw many achievements with the most obvious being in the mortality ratio. The average Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) per 100,000 live births declined from 212.0 in the

year 2010 to 155.8 in 2015 (GHS 2016, 8). There is a gradual decline since the year 2010, except in the year 2013 (GHS 2016, 8).

Table 7: Institutional MMR and neonatal mortality rate

Indicator	**Year**					
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Institutional MMR/100,000 live births*	212.0	202.0	182.0	196.0	161.1	155.8
Neonatal deaths/1,000 live birth	7.8	11.2	6.9	7.8	5.1	7.4

*Denominator: Population ×4% Source: DHIMS2 data

These achievements can mainly be attributed to the improved accessibility to health services that came because of the increased number of CHPS Zones and Community Health Officers (GHS 2016, 9). The training that was received by CHO's, midwives and other health workers was also pivotal in improving the quality of health services (GHS 2016, 9). Such success can only be maintained if the activities that were set forth in this project are sustained, which then calls for greater ownership on the side of Ghana in carrying this project forward and further improving the quality of health services. Failure for Ghana to maintain the systems that were set through this project will possibly see a decline in the quality of health service and see the mortality rate relapsing to its former ratio. This is an outcome that should be avoided in the case of this project.

5.2.5 Conclusion

This project certainly addresses an essential part of health, in the form of maternal and neonatal health services. From what has been highlighted the project has taken a similar shape to other technical co-ordination projects by taking a training intensive approach that involved capacity building. However, we saw this project taking a different approach to that of Tanzania. In the Tanzanian project, we saw the utilisation of the KAIZEN -TQM approach to improve health care services in the country yet this project took a different direction by relying on the CHPS system. This system allowed for greater relevance and flexibility, especially considering how the project attended to implementing health solutions that were formulated through a

consultative approach. The formulation of the *Collection of Good Practices* gives an indication of this approach, with the project formulating good practices based on the unique needs of communities rather than presenting a ready-made solution that was prepared by Japan. Such an approach certainly bids well for the promotion of ownership within Maternal Health Services in Ghana as it allows the host country to implement a system that will easily integrate into the existing health care system. By not following the route of implementing a rigid approach such as Kaizen-TQM, Japan can be said to have given the Ghana greater chances of implementing a sustainable self-help project that could be replicated throughout other communities within the country. Credit is due to the Ghanaian counterpart for its strong commitment and participation in this project as it allowed Japan to assume the desired role of being an ODA donor that did not hinder self-help efforts through over-involvement in this project.

5.3 Project 3: The Project for Institutional Capacity Development of the Civil Service Training Centre (CSTC)

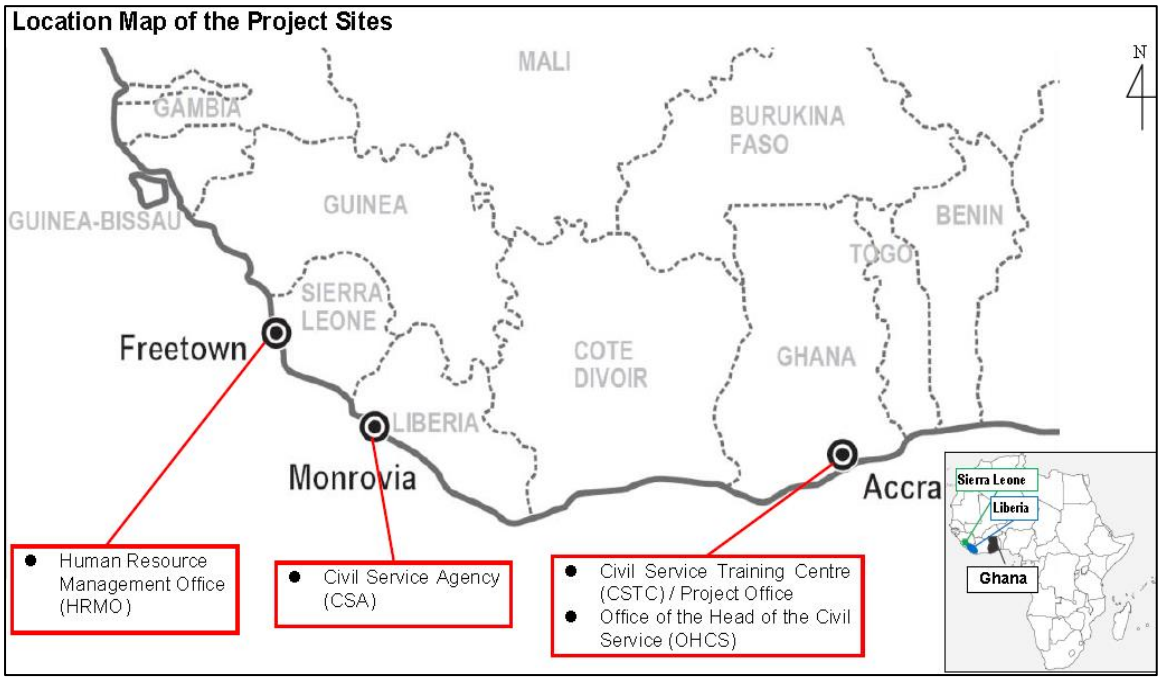
5.3.1 Brief Overview

The Project for Institutional Capacity Development of the Civil Service Training Centre took place from March 2011 to February 2014 with the Ghana Civil Service Training Centre as the main driver of the project. This CSTC was established in 1953 under the colonial government to assist the Establishment Secretariat, which is now known as the Office of the Head of Civil Service (OHCS), with the training of lower and middle-level civil servants (JICA OHCS 2014). JICA had previously implemented a 3-year technical co-operation project (Capacity Development of Government Administration) in collaboration with the CSTC from March 2007 to February 2010 (OHCS 2014, 1). The first project aimed to improve the capacity of the CSTC through a short-term programme with the conclusion of the project bringing the realisation that there was a further need to improve the training capacity of the CSTC so that it could extend its services in the West Africa-sub region (OHCS 2014, 1).

It was for extending the reach of the CSTC that this project was initiated and charged with the responsibility of implementing international training courses that would not only benefit Ghanaian civil servants but civil servants from Sierra Leone and Liberia (OHCS 2014, 1).

Through the course of the 3 years that the project took place, Ghana and Japan were the two parties that carried the main responsibility of implementing the project. On the side of Japan, the main responsibility was to provide a team of experts that consisted of four members (OHCS 2014, S-1). Japan also had to ensure that overseas training took place, with one session taking place in Japan and the other two in Singapore (OHCS 2014, S-1). They also covered the cost of the equipment (14.9 million yen) as well as the cost of the local operation (83.9 million yen). The Ghanaian side was responsible for supplying a total of 33 counterparts, a new training building as well as working space for the Japanese expert team (OHCS 2014, S-1). The office area in which most of the activities of the project took place was in Accra, Ghana, yet some were also implemented in Sierra Leone and Liberia (OHCS 2014, 3). Overall the unique element of this project was that it was a Ghanaian project that was also implemented for the benefit of neighbouring countries such as Sierra Leone and Liberia.

Figure 3: Site Map for Civil Service Training Centre Project



Source: OHCS 2014

5.3.2 Planning and Implementation

The project management structure was determined at the first JCC meeting. The meeting saw the Head of the Civil Service being appointed as the Project Director who would be responsible for the managing and supervising of the project (OHCS 2014, 8). Along with this role, the Head of the Civil Service became the chairman of the JCC, entrusted with monitoring the progress of the project. The Principal of CSTC was appointed as the Project Manager while the leader of the Japanese Expert team was granted the same authority as the Project Manager (OHCS 2014, 8). This project structure certainly reflected the high involvement of the Ghanaian side with its occupation of important positions within the project. The Japanese side was certainly not side-lined as they provided the much-needed technical advice throughout most of the JCC meetings. However, this set-up certainly showed initiative on the side of the Japanese in allowing the Ghanaian counterparts to lead the way and on the side of the Ghanaian counterparts there was evidence of the capacity to lead within a project of this sort.

5.3.3 Training and Capacity Building

Technical co-operation projects usually cover training, yet one aims to look at the resources that enabled training to take place. In this project, three subject areas of "Leadership", "Ethics" and "QPI" (Quality Productivity Improvement) were set as the pillars to bear the implementation of curriculum design and manual development (OHCS 2016, 24). Two field surveys were conducted, and these involved a background analysis trip aimed at establishing the cooperation framework among the three participating countries and gaining insight on the civil service systems in the two neighbouring countries as well as the training needs of their public servants (OHCS 2016, 23) A task team of 16 members all from Ghana was responsible for formulating the training materials and curriculum. Following this process, the CSTC reorganized the curriculum towards being more skill focused because of the knowledge gained from training received in Singapore (OHCS 2016, 25). The final product of this reorganising was a new type of training material called the Learner Workbook (LW), which would be used alongside a Facilitators Guide (FG) also produced by CSTC trainers (OHCS 2016, 26). Overall this procedure indicates that ownership was promoted during the planning process of this project, and Ghanaian counterparts were given the opportunity to develop their capacity in an instance such as this one where their curriculum design and manual development skills were improved.

The CSTC trainers went through various forms of training such as Learning Platform (LP) workshops where Staff Training Officers shared their experience, knowledge and skills learned through the duration of the project (OHCS 2014,11). Advanced TOT (Training of Trainers) was a platform that focused on enhancing the skills of CSTC trainers to plan and facilitate skill-focused training sessions. Advanced TOT saw the Japanese expert team leading the planning and facilitating of the first two courses and allowed CSTC Staff Training Officers to implement the third and last training course (OHCS 2014, 24). As mentioned earlier, two Third Country Training sessions were held in Singapore as well as training in Japan to ensuring that trainers would go back to their home country with enhanced capacity in Civil Service training. During the training, there were efforts on the side of the CSTC to ensure that it improved its capacity to implement EL/QPI courses in Liberia and Sierra Leone (OHCS 2014, 22). In this process counterparts from these neighbouring countries received training as this was a step towards the CSTC establishing itself as a regional Centre of Excellence (OHCS 2014,22).

5.3.4 Project Achievement

As far as benefits are concerned Ghanaians emerged as the greatest beneficiaries of this project with about 4000 Ghanaian officers receiving training during the project. Liberia and Sierra Leone each emerged with about 40 officers receiving training as a part of this project (OHCS 2014, 3). By the end of the project, the CSTC had an increase that was way above 50% of its training resources as far as trainers and facilities were concerned. This is evident in the number of training officers going from 26 to 44 (69% increase) and the number of classrooms increasing from 3 to 12 (300% increase) because of the new building that was completed by 2013 (OHCS 2014, 40). This project also created a relationship between Ghana and its neighbours, with the Human Resources Management Office (HRMO) in Sierra Leone and Civil Service Agency (CSA) in Liberia promising to further collaborate with the CSTC by requesting it to send trainers for TOT as well as refresher training for TOT alumni (OHCS 2014, 40).

5.3.5 Conclusion

In all the projects that this paper has looked at, this one had an objective that went beyond its borders and sought to improve the capacity in neighbouring countries of Liberia and Sierra

Leone. The notion of increasing self-help efforts was the driving force behind improving the capacity of the CSTC and its ability to function as a centre of excellence. CSTC as a project focus presented good grounds for ownership promotion seeing that civil and public servants were targeted, and this largely propelled these sectors into reaching higher levels of capacity. Japan would certainly promote self-help at a quicker rate if it relied on this approach as far as ownership promotion is concerned. Projects that look to work across borders and foster a regional partnership would certainly enable Japan to propel a knowledge sharing culture within Africa, in such a way that developmental progress can cause a ripple effect within a region.

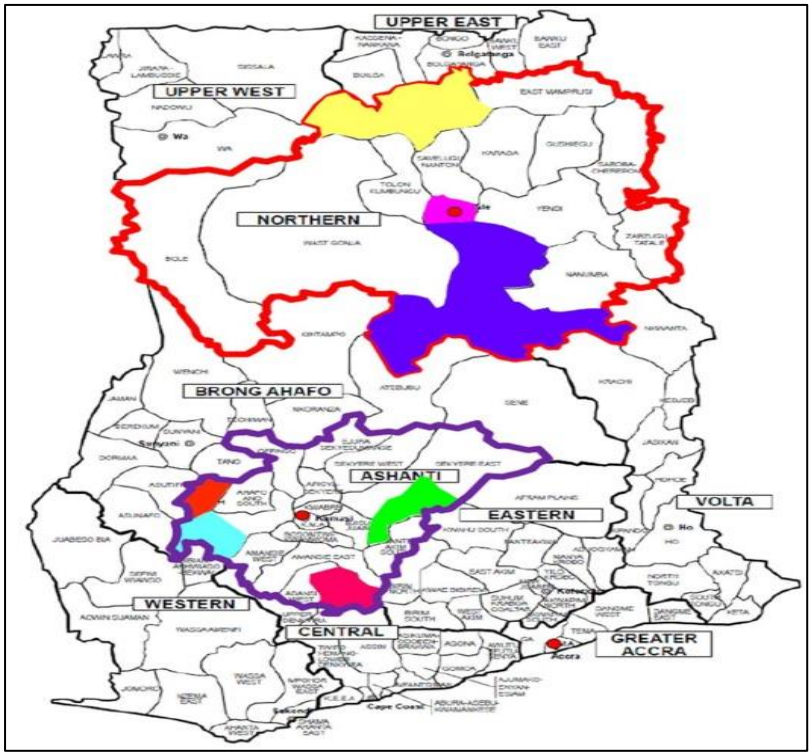
5.4 Project 4: Project for Sustainable Development of Rain-Fed Lowland Rice Production

5.4.1 Brief Overview

The project for Sustainable Development of Rain-Fed Lowland Rice Production kicked off in July of 2009 and was set to finish off in July 2014. One will briefly provide an overview of the rice industry in Ghana to give a background on this topic. Ghana's agriculture sector is its largest earner of foreign exchange and contributes to a bulk of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The importance of this sector in the economy has often led to national development programmes targeting agriculture as a major development goal (CARD 2010, 1). In a case where agriculture is the mainstay of the economy rice emerged as the second most important cereal next to maize and is rapidly became a profitable crop for many rice farmers (CARD 2010, 1). In the year 2010 around the time this project was in progress rice was the 10th agricultural commodity in Ghana by the value of production (MAFAP 2013, 2). Rice consumption had increased sharply over the years with the self-sufficiency ratio of rice being as low as 20% to 30% (CARD 2010, 1). This resulted in the rice import bill in Ghana reaching an annual amount of US$500 million annually and raising some concern for the Ghanaian government (CARD 2010, 1). The sector has seen itself compete with imported rice, which has also seen local rice farmers pushed out of business (Ghana Government 2017). This problem was part of the motivation for the country to implement a technical co-operation project such as this one, that can target productivity and profitability within rice farming (Mumuni & Oladele 2012, 378).

In this project, Japan is a joint donor and it partners with the Ghanaian government through the Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA). The project cost a total estimated funding of $1.6 million during a five-year period and held the objective to increase the production of rice as well as the income of farmers in two selected regions (Mumuni & Oladele 2012, 378). The target areas were the Ashanti Region and Northern Region. The overall objective of the project was to disseminate a model for sustainable rain-fed lowland rice development within the targeted model areas. In usual cases, rice production takes place in three different ecologies which are lowland rain-fed, upland rain-fed ecology and irrigated ecology (MAFAP 2013, 5). By the year 2010, the rain-fed lowland type ecology that was targeted in this specific project formed 78% of the rice production in Ghana. This figure reflects the level of importance in this project as it geared towards improving food security within the country.

Figure 4: Site Map for Rain-Fed Lowland Rice Project



Source: ResearchGate 2012

5.4.2 Project Implementation

The main beneficiaries of this project were 30 staff members from RADU and DADU as well as 1000 rice farmers. Essentially one can argue that this project mainly targeted farmers as they formed the core of what this project aimed to achieve. In implementing this project, a major output was that of establishing a methodology that would improve farming support system for sustainable rain-fed lowland rice production (Mumuni & Oladele 2012, 378). A great deal of effort was placed in training as farmers received several on-field and off-field training sessions that were also accompanied by exchange visits (Mumuni & Oladele 2012, 380). As part of Japan's strategy to utilise ODA as a platform to share its own homegrown methods within other developing countries, the country often finds itself sharing knowledge with African countries with the hope that they may adopt their methods and mould them according to their unique domestic setup. This was the case in this project as the Ghanaian counterpart learned about Japan's rice development and distribution policy (JICA RICE 2012). This was largely conducted with the aim to ensure that these methods would be replicated within a Ghanaian rice production setting. A bulk of the training was undertaken using existing technologies and farming materials that farmers were familiar with (JICA RICE 2012). This project introduced some new post-harvest technologies such as threshing, milling and packing to improve the quality of rice farming (JICA RICE 2012). Simple changes such as the use of tarpaulin for threshing and training on the better use of harvest sickles largely contributed to the rice paddy quality (Mumuni & Oladele 2012, 380).

5.4.3 Rice Value Chain Improvement

The rice value chain in Ghana is divided into two parts which are the local rice value chain and the imported rice value chain (MAFAP 2013, 13). This project was mainly focused on improving the local rice value chain and this was evident in the projects objective to improve the rice production in local target areas. The local rice value chain consists of actors such as input suppliers, producers, bulkers, millers, wholesalers and retailers (MAFAP 2013, 13). A major criticism that is always lodged against the country's research efforts that aim to improve on the rice value chain has often noted how most efforts are always directed at production and improving post-harvest technologies while failing to adopt a research agenda that is market driven (CARD 2010, 32). An example of market-driven research would be focusing on finding out about product characteristics that consumers are attracted to and would be willing to buy instead of following a production improvement approach (CARD 2010, 32). In fulfilling this

the project went ahead in taking a step towards the right direction through the establishing Quality Rice Promotion Forums (QRiPF) in model sites (JICA RICE 2012). QRiPF in model sites were mainly formed to encourage farmers to produce quality rice that would bring satisfaction to the consumer and attract a decent price for their produce (Ghana Government 2017). This forum was an indication that Japan felt that improving the value chain network would be a good step in ensuring that the project would be sustainable.

5.4.4 Project Achievement

Having met some challenges this project managed to achieve some level of success. The first evident success was from the start of the project when farmers expressed an increase in their yield of crops, particularly in the 2010 farming season (Mumuni & Oladele 2012, 380). When looking at previous years in which the average yield in the project areas was lower, the improvement in the year 2010 can mainly be attributed to the knowledge transfer that was conducted throughout this project (Mumuni & Oladele 2012, 380).

Table 8: Rice Yield Comparative Data

Region	2007	2008	2009	2010(Project Figures)
Ashanti	1.1	1.1	1.2	4.9
Northern	1.7	2.3	2.3	2.9

Source: ResearchGate

The immediate change that occurred was a major indication that this project made a difference as far as production is concerned and met the project objective of boosting the rice farming in rain-fed lowland areas. It remains to be seen whether the quality of rice produced by local farmers will be able to supersede imports.

5.4.5 Conclusion

This project reached a certain level of success as far as increasing the yield of crops since its introduction; however more remains to be done around the strengthening of the Ghanaian Rice sector. The project largely focused on building the capacity of farmers in the target areas and this fell in line with Japan's motive to foster self-help efforts. The ability of local Ghanaian farmers to improve on their farming capabilities enabled the country to strengthen its local agricultural sector and ensure that local farmers were able to produce quality rice that could begin to compete with imports. This certainly speaks to the notion of self-help where a sector such as the Ghanaian rice sector was provided with the opportunity to improve on its quality for the sake of ensuring that the Ghanaian consumer market began to lean towards local rice for the betterment of local farmers as well as the country's poverty reduction strategy. The training methods used in the project embodied the idea of self-help in a sense that farmers were trained to improve on methods that they were accustomed to instead of being introduced to completely different methodology that farmers were not accustomed to. This form of training bears a greater chance of producing sustainable development in the Ghanaian rice industry and thrust local farmers to take greater ownership of their development process.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

This paper has given an in-depth focus on the internal workings of each of the projects; however, what remains to be discussed is the relevance of the idea of ownership and self-help. In the theory section, one discussed the principal-agent theory and the fact that it is the standard approach as far as ownership is concerned in Bretton Woods institutions like the IMF and WB. In looking at this theory and its groundings in financial theory one can simply argue that Japan does not fit the role of a principal that is dealing with Ghana and Tanzania as agents. The principal-agent theory provides the understanding of a principal that takes charge of the development process without allowing the agent much liberty in taking the reins and controlling its own development process. Instead, these eight projects have given us varying instances in which Tanzania and Ghana as the donor recipients have taken a leading role in the Japanese funded ODA projects. This initiative on the side of the recipient was largely present in the technical co-operation projects where the recipient state carried an amount of responsibility and reflected progress towards attaining ownership of its development process.

Even though one can argue that Japan was the ideal model for self-help, these projects have shown that this role has not been fully perfected on the side of Japan. There have been several instances in the case studies where one has pinpointed Japan's inability to promote a certain level of ownership promotion and this can be attributed to the conflict that was faced by Japan in its efforts to apply an ODA policy that strayed away from the conventional principal-agent standard that has been set by Bretton Woods institutions and western nations. A shortcoming of Japan self-help promotion has rested in its heavy financing, especially within the grant aid projects where the recipients were granted minimum financial responsibility, which then limited the country's self-help capability and placed much doubt on the future sustainability of development initiatives beyond Japanese assistance. The recipient countries cannot be held unaccountable in this regard as they should be responsible for pursuing self-help with the mind of limiting long-term dependency on Japanese ODA even though it may come at the price of bearing additional responsibility during ODA projects. In the future, Japan should exercise caution in how they finance these projects, as they need to provide enough assistance to allow the recipients to meet them halfway rather than create a precedent in which developing African countries are continually placing the financial burden on donor countries such as Japan while failing to work towards achieving self-help.

6.1 Japan's ODA policy and its applicability

Japan's ODA policy and its move from the 'aid on request' principle to a dialogue approach where it played an engaging role with recipient countries and how they would formulate policies that would prioritise their people was quite evident in the projects we focused on. All these projects bore a certain level of relevance to the development needs of the recipient country be it the repairing of roads in rural Tanzania to maintenance of roads in urban Ghana, there was always a need for the transformation that was brought about by these projects and this often discarded of the need to examine the relevance of the ODA requests. However, the question lies in the processes that were followed to reach an agreement to implement these projects. In the case of grant aid, the recipient countries were responsible in requesting Japan for assistance in a specific sector, allowing Japan to assess the rationality of the request through its own study and proceeding to respond on how it could best assist in the implementation of the requested project. One could deem this system as not being any different from the previous aid on request principle that had been enforced before the 2003 ODA charter, apart from providing Japan with some flexibility in selecting projects that fulfil their ODA criteria. Both countries case studies presented us with democratic governments that could be argued to uphold good governance and human rights, and this did not present the opportunity to examine Japan's response in a case where it is dealing with an ODA request from a country that is not deemed as upholding good governance. This opens greater future opportunities for investigation of Japan's ODA policies towards African countries not upholding democratization, peace and human rights.

As far as success is concerned it cannot be denied that each of these projects has made a major impact in the areas they were implemented in. By impact one is simply referring to development progress that may not have fostered a high level of ownership but made a considerable contribution to improving a sector in the community that it was implemented in. The section that covered the project achievements certainly reflected the success of these projects, with most of them reaching completion in the required time. These projects had immediate effects in the communities in which they were implemented in, enabling these communities to gain a first-hand experience of the developmental work Japan was initiated in these target areas. The consistent use of JCC meetings as the decision-making body also gave

way for recipient actors to partake in the decision-making and realising the goal of ownership promotion. This dialogue approach that was conducted through these JCC meetings certainly embodied the objective held by Japan in its ODA charter, where it called for greater dialogue with the recipient country in how the developmental policy would be implemented. This process did in no way affect the ability of the recipient country to assume a certain level of control over the project, seeing that JCC meetings were predominantly attended by actors from the recipient countries.

Impact as a term can be nebulous and often have a broad meaning. It can be argued that ODA is bound to make an impact one way or another, be it negatively or positively. It is for this reason that one should begin to think of impact in the form of self-help. Projects such as the N8 road maintenance certainly made an impact through the improvement of road conditions along the Assin Prasso but failed to achieve the promotion of self-help in its implementation process. In the case of these projects making an impact that aligned with self-help one would look at aspects such as training, Labour Based Technology, community and local government participation as some of the indicators of impact. These qualities were present in the technical co-operation projects and can be said to have contributed to the success of the projects and their classification as high impact indicators of self-help. Apart from the two grant aid projects, high impact self-help measures were present in the examined projects at to some degree. Even though the O&OD in Tanzania project may be placed above the Capacity Development of the Civil Service Training Centre project in Ghana as far as self-help impact is concerned, both these projects exerted a noticeable impact through the involvement of local actors.

6.2 Suggestions for future research

Future research focusing on Japan's ownership promotion in Africa needs to explore means on how Japan and African countries can co-operate in ensuring that there is sustainable development created through the technical co-operation projects that are implemented. This paper has clearly highlighted some of the groundwork that has been laid by Japan as far as establishing the principle of self-help in concerned, however, there remains further room for improvement. By sustainability, one is merely referring to the emphasis that projects should place on the long-term viability of implemented projects and the notion that projects should be

able to create an impact that will ripple into the long term. This paper surely reflected on some instances where Japan engaged with the governments on further replication of the projects, yet the argument put forward is that Japan can do more in the initial stages of ownership promotion that can guarantee the likelihood of future replication and growth of specific development projects.

The use of case studies to gauge the progress made by Japan, not only on the front of ownership promotion but various other TICAD objectives can be a useful route to consider in future research. A study on Japan's ownership promotion can be extended to a larger scope in which a comparative study can be conducted using countries within a specific region or across different regions. This will allow further exploration of whether Japan has followed a certain pattern in its promotion of self-help on the continent. Case study-based approaches can be utilised to explore the diverse sectors in which ODA plays a role. This paper has focused on the areas of transportation, agriculture, energy, governance and health, but the scope can be furthered by looking into other sectors in which Japan has contributed through ODA, such as education and infrastructure development. In expanding the research into these greater scopes, the aim would be to provide greater input on how Japan could improve on its promotion of self-help as well as touching on the role that African countries would also have to play in those initiatives. These are just some of the avenues that can be explored in future research on the topic of ownership promoted by Japan.

As much as this paper has looked at the ODA question from a macro perspective where we've touched base on some of the financial aspects involved in funding some of these ODA projects, a study can be conducted to monitor the overall financial contribution that goes towards technical co-operation projects geared at promoting ownership in comparison to other forms of ODA that do not effectively. This form of research would serve the purpose of reflecting on whether TICAD as a conference and institutions such as JICA are financially committed to the objective of ownership promotion through the funding of self-help initiatives. This project has isolated a few development projects without placing a major focus on the fully-fledged financial processes in each of these projects, leaving much room for that question to be explored in future research.

6.3 Suggestions for the future ODA projects

From these projects, one can point towards a few ways in which Japan can improve its interaction with African countries and move towards propelling the principle of ownership within Africa. These two case studies have provided sufficient information on Japan's exploits in these two countries. The first suggestion one can provide is that Japan should target the implementation of technical co-operation projects ahead of other forms of ODA, especially in Ghana where the funding for technical co-operation is the lowest. The reason for this is because technical co-operation projects foster greater opportunities for self-help to be consolidated within the communities they are implemented in. The two grant aid projects we looked at made a low impact as far as ownership promotion is concerned when compared to the technical co-operation projects; therefore, it would be advisable for Japan to largely maximise on implementing technical co-operation projects if they aim to prioritise ownership promotion in Africa. Japan has managed to get this right in Tanzania, but it still needs to make some ground in Ghana in technical co-operation funding.

Another suggestion one can make is that Japan should begin to exercise caution in its financing of ODA projects in these countries. By financing one is referring to the amount of assistance provided in a specific project. In some of the projects, there was evidence of recipient governments not making any initiative to meeting Japan halfway in financing a project. In its assistance, Japan should seek to assist recipient countries to establish a budget that can sustain the project during its implementation while also setting a foundation for the future sustainability of the project. It is important that a large emphasis is placed on teaching African countries on how to best formulate and plan a budget for development projects. Most of these projects hinge on financial capability, which places pressure on actors to plan a budget structure that will ensure sustainable development and fostered self-help. The transfer of knowledge during technical co-operation will ensure that African countries can take control of these projects. In all the projects one has looked at, the progress would be in vain if countries fail to pick up where Japan has left off and begin to assert responsibility for the continuity of these projects. All in all, the key lies in Japan transferring financial knowledge to African states during these projects.

In the case of TICAD as a platform for developmental growth in Africa, there needs to be a further dialogue between Japan and African states regarding development objectives and how they are to be achieved through ODA projects. It is imperative that Japan aligns the notion of self-help with African developmental objective and adopting processes that fully consult African states where necessary. The principle of self-help would resonate with Africa's very own New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) initiative. The African Union (AU) has also set some of its future developmental aspirations through the Agenda 2063 goals that Africa needs to have achieved by the year 2063. It would be strategic for Japan to further engage with the relevant issues faced by the continent and align its objectives with those of Africa, especially in the implementation of development projects. In doing this, NEPAD and Agenda 2063 would be the ideal frames of reference as far as Africa's development needs and implementation strategies are concerned. A strengthened collaboration between the AU and TICAD would go a long way in ensuring that both parties take a step towards propelling ownership within Africa. In essence, TICAD can be the best advocate of ownership if it begins to work towards allowing African countries to take the lead, especially on a platform such as the TICAD.

In the start, we looked at how TICAD as a platform seeks to promote ownership through ODA projects and established that the promotion of ownership is an important objective of this conference. By looking at these projects we were able to gain perspective of how TICAD as a platform fulfilled this objective through an institution like JICA. In doing this one has clearly indicated that TICAD has played a great role in thrusting African countries towards controlling their development goals asserting ownership of development processes. There is more work to be done on both ends of the table as previously mentioned, but fact remains that Japan has an impactful role to play in Africa, especially in its promotion of ownership. Much has been said on its successes and shortcomings, yet what this research has reflected is the prospect of a greater partnership between Japan and Africa in realising the objective of self-help throughout Africa, through the various challenges that will be faced.

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