DEMOCRATIZATION OF EDUCATION

A TANZANIA CASE

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The views expressed in this paper are the responsibility of the author and do not necessarily reflect the point of view of Unesco.
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INTRODUCTION

Equal educational opportunity may be seen as equal amount of exposure to schooling which may mean equal number of years of schooling for everyone. It may also mean a uniform curriculum for everyone irrespective of differentials. Thus provision of equal educational opportunity may be concerned with provision of equal chances of utilizing resources or with fair distribution of the effects of the resources. But equalization of opportunity is only one aspect of equity. It is also one thing to provide equal chances of access and it is another thing to provide equal chances for achievement.

Democratization of education, defined in terms of equality of access and opportunity involves allocation of massive financial and material resources, development of policies designed to reduce social and economic inequalities, and to reduce costs of school attendance such as fees and costs of materials, development of relevant curriculum and devising appropriate selection procedures to higher level educational opportunities. It also involves prevention of political and economic influence in education for individual purposes, and its effects depend on how the school leavers will use their education to control their environment and to liberate themselves. What happens to the school leaver is a matter of concern from a pedagogical point of view just as are class-size, teacher-student ratio, availability of materials, and qualities of teachers and equipment. Moreover, factors which determine achievement should be taken into account in order to maximize and equalize opportunities for each child. Inequalities in education with regard to boys and girls and with regard to rural and urban areas should be tackled accordingly.

Distribution of educational opportunity is governed by cost constraints, limited by various factors and depends on where emphasis is placed. Thus it is often argued that due to limited resources it is not practical to have every child attend school. Similarly the structure of education is normally broad at the bottom and narrow at the top because of cost constraints. Achievement is limited by speed of learning a given subject while attitudes and aptitudes govern the amounts learnt under given circumstances. The quality of utilizing resources may be determined by the kind of methods used in measuring achievements. Moreover, although the delivery mechanics may be the same, the use of the mechanics is influenced by individual or the social group responsible for behaviour under given circumstances.

Giving priority to removal of disparities in access to basic education and literacy implies giving first place to provision of basic education for youth and adults alike. Emphasis on meeting manpower requirements leads to education planning based on manpower projections and emphasis on further education and training for employment. Emphasis on socialization implies that political education ought to be taught and that practical skills and productive work ought to be given place. For the purpose of integrating the school into the community curriculum should be relevant to the needs and schooling should be viewed as an end in itself rather than a preparation for subsequent levels of education.

The purpose of education should be stated clearly for successful implemention and to avoid ambiguity. Consider the statement that the purpose of education "is to transmit from one generation to the next the accumulated wisdom and knowledge of the society and to prepare the young people for their future membership of the society and their active participation in its maintenance or development".
(Nyerere 1967). This statement implies that education is a must in order to enable children to take their place in society. This education may be formal, non-formal or informal. Democratization of education should aim at equal access opportunity to all forms of education, although to many people education and formal education mean the same thing.

Basically democratization of education is a political issue. Political decisions have to be taken in the distribution of limited resources, development of policies designed to reduce social and economic inequalities and development of an appropriate and adequate education system.

This paper aims at outlining some aspects of inequalities in the distribution of educational opportunity and factors influencing educational development in Tanzania. Within the general aim the paper gives a historical overview of the educational development and discusses reasons underlying these disparities, policies made in response to demands for equal opportunity and the achievements in reducing disparities as well as innovative measures have been described. Finally the paper outlines some issues and problems associated with development and equalization of educational opportunity.

The approach is descriptive with data drawn from a variety of sources including the authors own experiences. The broad assumption is that disparities began with the introduction of formal education and that the prospects of alleviation lie within the expansion and reform of the school system. The basis of this view has been well stated by Huse‘n (1974) when he said:

"In recent years the lack of institutional adequacy as well as the formidable costs of running a conventional school system have resulted in various suggestions of introducing out-of-school alternatives to formal school education. Considering the type of economy and cost development in the developing areas, it has become increasingly obvious that in the foreseeable future, it is difficult to envisage the implementation of the Western type of elementary schooling of full-time instruction for all children over a period of five to seven years. The institutional patterns of wealthier nations are not applicable in most of the developing ones".

Method (1974) argued that:

"Clearly a very poor country cannot sustain an education system on the European or American pattern. However, more important than the argument that such a country can't afford the education system of an industrialized nation is the understanding that it needs a very different system, with its own scale, priorities and content".

In particular we assume that democratization of education is more of a political rather than economic matter. In order to provide equal opportunity, limited resources have to be distributed in a way which reduces inequality. Education policy which aims at reducing inequality presupposes a certain minimum amount of education as a fundamental right of all citizens. Beyond the provision of basic education it is a matter of equitable distribution of facilities. Compensatory re-distribution of resources results in quota systems which often involve differential standards of access for further education.
HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Pre-colonial African societies did not have schools as we know them today. Children were not subjected to formal instruction in classes. They learnt by living and doing. They were taught skills and values of the society in the home and on the farms. Young people were taught to conform to customs and every adult was a teacher to a greater or lesser degree. Thus children were educated in an informal manner. The education provided was directly relevant to the society in which the child was growing and it was for all.

Formal education was introduced at the end of the nineteenth century by missionaries and colonial rulers for different purposes from those of traditional education. Missionaries founded schools for evangelical reasons and to "civilize" the people. Later, colonial governments were induced to provide education in order to meet the need for cheap manpower to fill low-level public service jobs and to satisfy the desire to spread culture of the colonial rulers. Aims of education were determined by the goals of the colonial powers which ranged from assimilation of the French to incorporative strategies of the British. The educational system was modelled on the metropolitan system and was based on the colonial society. According to Clark (1968) "... formal institutions of education were founded in an effort to do systematically and effectively what (European) family and community had long done ...". Formal education introduced to Africa did systematically what the African family and community never did. It estranged Africans from their environment and in fact school life was in opposition to traditional cultural norms. Most schools were boarding and thus removed school-children from life of the community and from active participation. In addition, the evaluation and selection procedures of formal education were different from the people's cultural meanings which they cherished. Formal institutions of education were not established as institutions of social and cultural inheritance.

Formal education prepared young people for a new occupational structure which together with labour mobility and urbanization, weakened further the traditional bonds and mode of living. The concept and requirements of work were affected by the shift from manual to mental labour, from unskilled to skilled labour, and the change of economy from barter to cash and from agriculture to industrialization. Children of parents who were engaged in unsalaried employment took up salaried jobs. Although colonial education provided for industrial, technical or scientific studies, lack or shortage of funds and equipment and capable teachers led to the adoption of teaching methods which rendered science and technical subjects as literary. Moreover the early propagators of education were not professionally trained to be educators, and it is even doubtful whether they really appreciated fully the colonial policy on education let alone accept and co-operate in working towards achieving the objectives of the stipulated education.

Education became a passport to employment in the modern sector, thus offering material benefits to individuals, their parents and families. It also provided an exit from the toilsome subsistence agriculture and also a means of enhancing one's status. A good school certificate gradually became the minimum qualification for entry to most white-collar and technical occupations. Higher education was a sure means of getting into comfortable and well paid posts. Parents and students aspired to paid job orientation and urban life thus creating the problem of unemployment of school leavers. Every year large numbers of school leavers were not absorbed by wage employment contrary to their expectations.
Distribution of education was uneven. There were significant differences in access to education between Christians and Muslims, on account of the fact that education was largely provided by missionaries. Many Muslims were also suspicious of western-inspired schools which they associated with Christianity. Moreover, there were racial distinctions in the distribution of education. There were three types of school for European, Asian and African children respectively. European and Asian children had more chances and better educational facilities than African children. The 1956 enrolment of European, Asian and African children is shown below to illustrate the point.

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<tr>
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<th>1956 Enrolment</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Years 1-6</td>
<td>Years 7-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European</td>
<td>1,929</td>
<td>464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>11,461</td>
<td>5,386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>345,014</td>
<td>13,857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>361,404</td>
<td>19,707</td>
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In general, colonial education was inadequate and inappropriate in many aspects. The content of education was unrelated to the needs and experiences of the African. Basically education was an elitist education which divorced its participants from the society. Moreover it placed undue emphasis on book-learning and divorced itself from work. A change of the education system was necessary.

The Tanganyika African Parents Association (TAPA) was founded in 1955 as an organization under the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) to champion the cause for expansion of educational opportunities for African children. The Association was actually fighting for equal educational opportunity among racial groups. At independence (1961) TAPA had 20,500 pupils and in 1962 the figure had reached 40,000.

The Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa that was held in 1961 in Addis Ababa, set 1980 as a target year for achieving universal primary education. In the case of Tanganyika, that goal was rejected by the Unesco Educational Planning Commission Report of 1962 on the grounds that "the circumstances of the Addis Ababa Conference were clearly averse to extending primary education work to the detriment of the secondary phase". The Unesco Commission recommended that priority was to be given to secondary education in order to meet manpower requirements.

The Three-Year Development Plan (1961-1964) which was inherited from the colonial administration, aimed at "concentration on economic projects which would yield the quickest and highest returns in the near future". In education, emphasis was given to expansion of secondary and technical education. The plan did not include primary education expansion.

Corrective measures taken after independence included abolition of racial distinctions within education and an end to discrimination on the grounds of religions. Also education facilities were expanded to enable more children to attend
school and the content of education was changed with the object of making education more relevant to the needs of a free people who were expected to assume new dimensions in their thought, feelings, aspirations and actions.

The First-Five Year Development Plan (1964–1969) featured the expansion of secondary education facilities involving addition of new streams and abolition of the Territorial Standard X Examination to enable all secondary school students to take a full four-year programme. Primary schools were to be extended to Standard VI and Middle schools were to have double streams of Standard VII and VIII. In this way the four and Six-year selective cycles were to be phased out.

However these changes had little effect on enrolment. In fact there was an expansion of about 1.2 percent while population was growing at the rate of 3 per cent.

The Five-Year Development Plan was the first of three plans which, among other things, aimed at self-sufficiency in trained manpower by 1980. Naturally the plan was guided by manpower plans. According to Bennett (1972) "education was considered ... not as a social investment but as a necessary infrastructural investment. Thus the expansion of primary education had to be held back as much as possible".

In 1967 a policy statement of Education for Self-Reliance was issued. The statement analysed the main problems of education inherited from colonial administration and pointed out new educational objectives for future development of education in accordance with the policy of Ujamaa (Socialism) and Self-Reliance. It spelt out broad aims of education which fosters the growth of socialist values aspired to and expounded a basis and mechanics for action and implementation of a practical and relevant system of education ... Education for Self-Reliance also emphasized student participation in mental and manual activities. In particular it called for change in the "content of the curriculum" and the "organization of the school".

In the Second Five-Year Development Plan (1969–1974) emphasis was laid on expansion of primary education which was to lead to achievement of universal primary education by 1989. In an attempt to reduce the target year the ministry of education appointed in 1970 a committee to find ways of introducing universal primary education by 1984 or earlier instead of 1989. The Committee recommended an education expansion programme starting in 1972 with backward regions and leading to universal primary education by 1979 and that at the latest the introduction should be completed by 1984. Although these recommendations were not adopted by the government they nevertheless indicated the urgency of the matter.

At the end of the Second Five-Year Plan no significant strides towards the target of universal primary education by 1989 were noticeable. Besides, there were differences in expansion from one region to another. A concrete step to universalize primary education was taken in November 1974 when a Directive on the implementation of Education for Self-Reliance (The Musoma Resolutions) was proclaimed.

On universal primary education the Musoma resolutions boldly stated:

"Consequential upon the coming together of people in planned villages, the need for school places has increased spectacularly, every parent with a
child of school age wants his child to obtain a place at the village school. Hence it is going to be extremely difficult and indeed there will be no justification whatsoever for only a few of the children in the village to be given places while the rest are left out. Hence the National Executive is duty bound to give appropriate guidance to the government on how to handle this problem.

Accordingly it is hereby resolved that within a period of three years from now, that is by November 1977, arrangements must be completed which will enable every child of school age to obtain a place in primary school". (Nyerere 1974).

The resolution implied that the national primary school enrolment had to double within a period of three years for at that time only 50 per cent of the school age children could attend school. The existing teaching force of 25,250 had to be increased to the required number of 34,700. On the question of costs the Party said, "... we should change our thinking completely. Let us look at all those costs and see what they look like and then reject them, and still universalize primary education and in a shorter period". (Nyerere 1975). Nevertheless the government had to spend larger amounts of money on education than before.

Although it was not possible to enrol every child of school age, enrolment increased from 1,874,400 to 3,714,700 between 1975/1976 and 1978/1979 (Mwita 1980). The enrolment has now reached 93 per cent of the school age population. This was made possible partly by the villagization programme and by careful planning including a crash programme of teacher training through distant learning. Other methods used to solve the problem of shortage of teachers included recruitment of retired teachers, local educated volunteers, older children and secondary school students.

The introduction of universal primary education in November 1977 was an attempt to remove disparities in access to basic knowledge and literacy and to bridge the gap between the school age population and actual enrolment at the primary level. From a pedagogical point of view there were such matters of concern as class-size, teacher-pupil ratio, availability of materials, quality of teachers and equipment, and what happens to the primary school leavers. Standards used in the implementation of education and clarity of objectives of primary education were important for maximizing and equalizing opportunity for each child. Factors which determine achievement had also to be taken into account.

The introduction of universal primary education is typical of the Tanzanian revolutionary approach of "We Must Run While Others Walk". Likewise revolutionary methods were used in solving problems of implementation. In order to cover the gaps and to produce more teachers for effective implementation of the new programme, an out-of-college or distant learning training programme was introduced. The programme recruited students who had completed primary school two years earlier and who were between the ages of 17 and 23. Preference was given to students who had shown interest in teaching and community work at local level especially as volunteers for adult education. Additional requirements included commendable character and a pass in a screening test and interview.

The training programme involved correspondence courses, face-to-face instructions, radio programmes, teaching practice and residential training. At the end of the training programme there was a final written examination. During the non-residential part trainees were supervised by co-ordinators recruited from among experienced and competent primary school teachers who were also given short training courses. The courses were in mathematics, Kiswahili, teaching methods and educational studies.
although trainees also studied English, political education, history, geography and science. Teaching practice served to alleviate the problem of shortage of teachers.

The introduction of universal primary education in 1977 may be associated with similar developments in Africa at that time. Ghana had started the universalization of primary education in 1951 and later issued the 1975-1980 Development Guidelines whose objectives included "access to at least, formal education" by every child by the end of the plan. In Liberia, universal primary education was stipulated in the 1976-1985 Education Plan. Kenya included universal primary education in the 1979-1983 Development Plan. In 1976 Ethiopia came up with a Ten-Year Frame Plan for educational development with the object of "universal primary education within the shortest period of time". Nigeria declared universal primary education in 1954 for the western state and 1956 for the eastern state and later in the 1975-1980 Development Plan a free universal and compulsory primary education was stipulated.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION

Tanzania like all countries which were under the British rule, inherited an administrative structure and an educational system modelled on the metropolitan system. Education is organized in three principal levels: primary, secondary and tertiary. In addition there are programmes of adult education which complement the formal system of education. Pre-primary education is provided for some children mainly by voluntary agencies.

Primary education starts at the age of seven and continues through age thirteen. But children in urban areas and those who receive pre-primary education generally enrol in primary schools at an earlier age and children in rural tend to enrol at a higher age. The medium of instruction is Kiswahili throughout the primary school and English is taught as a foreign language from standard three.

Secondary education in Tanzania is offered to a small number of primary school leavers who are selected on the basis of a primary school leaving examination. In 1980 only 4.2 per cent of the primary school leavers were selected for entrance into public secondary schools. A four-year course is offered in secondary schools before students sit for an examination whose results are used as a basis for selection for training or direct employment. About 20 per cent of the students selected merit to pursue a further two-year course of secondary education. The 4-2 plan is supposed to make the best use of physical facilities, staff and instructional materials within the framework of the secondary school system.

Secondary schools are national institutions and selection for entrance is on a national basis. Secondary school places however are allocated on district basis in an effort to provide equal opportunity by distributing equally the effect of the resources. Thus advantage is given to districts which under normal circumstances would not compete favourably for secondary school places. This is tantamount to going half way towards providing equal chances of utilizing resources.

The medium of instruction in secondary schools is English and Kiswahili is taught as a language. But preparations have begun for replacing English with Kiswahili as a medium of instruction. Appropriate technical terms in various subjects are currently being compiled and it is hoped that it will not take long before Kiswahili is used for teaching all secondary school subjects except for foreign languages. The use of Kiswahili as a medium of instruction is expected not only to facilitate the teaching process but also to strengthen national culture and to ensure that people are rooted in their origins.
Most secondary schools have boarding facilities because most students come from distant places. All secondary schools situated in rural areas are boarding. The quota system and the central control of secondary education necessitate for the existence of boarding schools. For historical reasons there are boys' secondary schools for boys only, girls secondary schools for girls only and co-educational secondary schools for both boys and girls. Most boarding schools are either for boys only or for girls only, a factor which has to be reckoned with in equalizing opportunity. Due to existence of day schools in towns, urban children have more chances (three times as much) than rural children. (Omari 1977).

Another source of inequalities of access to secondary education are the fee-paying private secondary schools. In the first instance they counteract efforts made by the government to equalize opportunity. Secondly, private secondary schools are a source of differential access to secondary education because 75 per cent of students in private schools come from within the region and many of them are day schools. Regions with many private schools have therefore more chances of access. Samoff (1979) observed that in Kilimanjaro, where the ratio of private to public secondary schools is 22:9, enrolment was 11 per cent of the age group while the national enrolment was 3 per cent. Disparities between boys and girls are aggravated by the fact that parents prefer to pay fees for boys rather than girls in the private schools.

Tertiary education includes post secondary education and training for employment of secondary school leavers. It is the apex of the education pyramid. The number of places at higher institutions depends on manpower projects and are governed by cost constraints.

The structure and organization of education in Tanzania may be represented diagrammatically as shown on the following chart.

**CURRICULUM**

Developed countries are very advanced in technology, infrastructural amenities and the quality of lives of their people. Their primary preoccupation is centred around the process of adapting historically evolved institutions to the rapidly changing functions that reflect the unprecedented increase in man's knowledge that ensued from the scientific revolution. Their strategies for solving social, economic and political problems are different from those of developing countries. In the field of education their emphasis is on the search for modernization of curriculum or educational improvement. In Africa and other developing countries there is an urgent quest for national identity and re-establishment of indigenous cultures and values. They are searching for educational systems which are appropriate and adequate for the newly independent states. Although they cannot extricate themselves from the modernization process, their major task is to change the content of curriculum and the organization of schools. Developing countries need an educational reform or innovation.

In Tanzania, the government is responsible for determining and developing school curricula. There is a national curriculum prescribed by the Ministry for National Education for all school levels of education and teacher training. An institute of education was established by an act of parliament in 1975 with the object of developing and implementing curricula and syllabuses to be taught in schools and teacher-training colleges. The institute is empowered to assume responsibility for curriculum development through formulation of objectives and evaluation of courses.
of study and practices on the basis of such objectives; to initiate innovation and experimentation leading to development of curricula, forms of organization and practices in accordance with the national policy on education; and to collect and make available to the government and other public authorities in Tanzania, information on teaching, content of courses of study and current technological developments in education. The institute also undertakes research and evaluation and develops teaching/learning materials as well as textbooks.

Education is viewed as a preparation for life and work. It is a preparation for doing things, for activity, for work and is experimental. Education has therefore to expose children to work as part of life. Work in this context does not only refer to wage employment but emphasizes a much broader concept which embraces attitudes to work in all aspects as part of life. Because hard work and intelligent work are regarded as effective means of promoting transformation it is therefore important that hard work is directed and that peasants and workers are stimulated to increase levels of production.

Each stage of education is intended to be complete in itself. Basic education is regarded as base on which to build lifelong education. It is regarded as the first phase of lifelong education which prepares the learner to deal with the environment in a practical and confident way. Basic education should enable the learner to develop knowledge, understanding, skills, values and attitudes which will enable him to cope with rapid changes in life and environment.

Education for self-reliance seeks to integrate education with productive work and to reconcile the school and work in an effort to evolve a form of education which is closely linked with life, environment and social realities. This strategy is similar to those strategies adopted elsewhere where work experience is considered as a possible alternative although objectives for work experience are stated in various ways under different situations. For instance in Mexican rural schools work-related programmes were introduced to help in breaking through the seemingly trap which held back its rural communities. In another situation, India developed basic education programmes with the view of providing a viable work skill for every school leaver and as a means of covering educational cost by pupil output and as a way of developing positive attitudes to rural life and rural reconstruction. China, Cuba, and the People's Democratic Republic of Korea are said to have had great success in combining education and production and in maximizing the social, economic and pedagogical benefits of such experiences. In these countries learners are workers and workers are learners. Education is lifelong.

African countries want educational systems which are adapted to the cultural context and needs of social-economic development. The concern to link education more closely to life is dictated by the desire to ensure that people are rooted in their origins. In certain cases, radical changes must be introduced in the education system in order to achieve the desired goals.

An effective programme of political education is required in preparing youth for life and work. Political consciousness as well as strong ideological commitment are essential for social and economic transformation. Education must therefore provide a sound ideological consciousness, deep knowledge and strong physique which is required to accelerate change. Moreover, newly-independent states have to offer civic training and ideological training in order to foster national identity and to disseminate values and norms. Syllabuses, textbooks and teaching aids should be skillfully prepared and classroom and extra-curricular activities should be carefully organized in order to effectively implement the programme of political education.
The effectiveness of political education programs also rely largely on the congruence of what is learnt and what is observed in society and also on the capabilities and attitudes of teachers.

In order that children and adults alike may be able to make a more constructive contribution to national development, education should be provided for children as well as adults. It is important to wipe out illiteracy and to raise people's political consciousness and technical level in order to enable them to participate fully in the social and economic transformation. Political consciousness helps to maintain political enthusiasm and support in building the new society. It is equally important to train people who can manage the state, build an independent economy and raise the technical level.

Successful implementation of the change requires careful planning including a good information programme. Teachers, parents and administrators should fully understand the rationality and feasibility of the proposed change. A conversion programme is required to change the norms and values of persons appointed to effect the change. A good strategy of disseminating information should be deployed. Under normal circumstances a gradual process of dissemination through recruitment and induction of convinced change agents is appropriate. But where circumstances militate against gradualism, intensive staff-development programmes should be instituted in conjunction with carefully formulated training programmes and deployment system for effective and efficient performance. Both pre-service and in-service teacher-training programmes should be re-examined in order to meet the demands of change. In particular, the training process should be elevated from generalities to awareness of the problems of introducing new approaches to curriculum and changes in the organization of the school and to ways of solving the problems.

EVALUATION

The need for examinations which are more appropriate to local conditions and realities was felt even before independence. In 1961 the Government of Tanganyika requested Mr. J. Deakin, then Registrar, West African Examinations Council, to advise on the functions of an Examination Board and on the legislation, staffing, equipment, financing and procedures for its early establishment. In his report of March 1962 Mr. Deakin recommended the establishment of an Examination Board which would conduct all civil service, educational and professional examinations in Tanganyika. The government accepted these recommendations. But the Unesco Education Planning Commission influenced the government to rescind this decision on the argument that establishment of the Board at that time could be an indulgence in luxury and that there should be complete separation of the responsibility for school and similar examinations from those examinations which affect appointments and promotions in the civil service.

In 1964 the University of East Africa appointed the Creaser Committee to look into the relation of national needs to entry requirements to degree courses at the University. The Committee reported that:

"There is strong pressure for the early establishment of an East African Examinations Council to take over from the Cambridge Syndicate, the external school examining body at Form 4 and Form 6 levels. Such a step can be justified on both educational and political grounds."

The East African Examinations Council was established in 1967.
The policy statement of Education for Self-Reliance issued in March 1967 stressed that education must be related to the conditions and needs of Tanzania and that the examination system had to change in order to fit the education provided. It became increasingly obvious that an education which encouraged the development of values and knowledge required an examination system which took into account not only the academic achievement but also attitudes, interests, social adjustments and motor skills. Academic examinations had to be supplemented by a range of criteria assessment which covered the main areas of educational evaluation corresponding to the major domains of educational objectives. Subsequently the government of Tanzania decided to establish national examinations with effect from 1971 to replace external examinations. The National Examinations Council of Tanzania was formed in 1973. In an attempt to improve the examinations, a system which combines academic assessments with assessment of character and attitude towards work was introduced in secondary schools in 1976. The system is based on cumulative assessment of the student. Assessment of academic achievement is based on cumulative assessment by the teacher and the final examination conducted by the National Council of Tanzania. Continuous assessment of character and attitude towards work is assessed by the teachers. Both academic achievement and character and attitude towards work are used in determining the student’s final award.

The divergence of structure and content of formal and non-formal education necessitates divergence in assessment procedures. For instance in non-formal education individual achievement and character should be looked into deeply rather than merely interpreting it from group performance. Appropriate and adequate methods of assessing education, in its broad sense, should be developed.

Increased enrolment and levelling out of differences in the quantity of education poses new challenges. Techniques used to assess achievement may foster social inequality because educational attainments depend on social background and examinations have a discriminative nature. Furthermore examinations invariably do influence curricula and teaching methods mostly because of administrative needs for the ease and speed of machinery rather than as a result of educational needs. The curriculum content becomes increasingly distorted because teachers tend to teach towards examinations while students study according to anticipated examinations.

Continuous assessment has played an important role in water ing down the supremacy of final examinations.

ISSUES AND PROBLEMS

Education is perceived as a basic human need through which people acquire a broad base of knowledge, attitudes, values and skills for life and work in an independent state. Through education people are provided with the potential to learn, to respond to new opportunities, to adjust to social and cultural changes and to participate in the political, cultural, social and economic activities. Education is also viewed as a means of meeting other basic needs. It helps combat the other two cardinal enemies: Poverty and diseases. Such services as clean water, health, nutrition and housing make an important contribution to better life if they are supported by education and understanding of the users. Moreover, education plays an important role in sustaining an accelerating overall development. In addition to preparing and training skilled workers in every sector of the economy, education facilitates advancement of knowledge and raises consciousness of people so that they can deal with environmental issues. Education also provides individuals with the
ability to identify themselves with the rapid economic growth, technological advancements and social changes which continuously transform the relationship between the individual and the society. Education is viewed not merely as a social service but also as an important economic investment.

The formal education system introduced by missionaries and colonial administrators subjected children to a dual system of socialization and culturalization. According to parents who gave priority to obedience in the traditional school had spoiled children in terms of traditional culture because they (children) learnt to despise customary life by showing alien or bad behaviour. Parental goals did not match with what went on in the school. When middle schools were established in the 1950s for the purpose of teaching woodwork and other manual skills in urban schools and agriculture mainly in rural areas people looked upon these schools as a deliberate effort of the colonial government to retard social and economic advancement. People were opposed to middle schools and politicians took advantage of this discontent and actually demanded their abolition. The abolition of middle schools implicitly eroded respect for manual work and created favourable conditions for school leavers to run away from rural life.

In the 1960s education plans and programmes were aimed at expanding enrolment rather than changing the character of education. Although efforts were made to replace foreign elements in the curricula with content related to Tanzanian culture and conditions, other aspects of the education system were not significantly altered. For instance, the structure of cycles, school calendar and teaching and examinations system remained more or less the same. Nevertheless qualitative objectives emerged with the concern for social equity, development of science and mathematics teaching, improvement of school organization, relevance of education to national needs and aspirations and building national capacity for management and research in education.

Emphasis was placed on making education relevant, using the national language and establishing planning, research and development units. Relevant education was intended to meet the need of identifying and sustaining historical, cultural and traditions and fulfilling the country's needs as a modern changing society. This involved rethinking of the content of education and the organization of the school. In 1963 Kiswahili was made a medium of instruction in primary school. At the moment preparations are underway for shifting from English to Kiswahili as a medium of instruction at the secondary and higher levels of education. Work on generating Kiswahili technical terms is in its advanced stages.

Education policy-making is limited by the nature of underdevelopment and the structure of colonialism. Programmes of expansion of education facilities are influenced by limited human and natural resources. Shortage of competent and adaptable education administrators and teachers militate against efforts to introduce qualitative changes in education. At the same time political pressure dictates more educational facilities and training of highly educated and skilled indigenous manpower. The problem of uneven distribution of educational opportunity among groups of people needs to be solved.

Reliance on inherited standards and conservative attitudes of parents, teachers, pupils, educational administrators and politicians tend to hinder radical changes. The problem is complicated by the fact that teachers, educational administrators and political leaders who are expected to act as main change agents are themselves products of the system which they are required to change.

Choice of priorities is not without influence of recommendations and advice of consultants. In this way the long term development plan (1964-1979) was influenced by the study on middle and high level manpower undertaken by Mr George
Tobias and sponsored by the Ford Foundation. Mr Tobias urged that development of secondary education should be given priority. However his projections of manpower requirements were later modified in the process of preparing the Development Plan which was geared to self-sufficiency in manpower by 1980.

As a result of disparities in the provision of education, realities of economic underdevelopment and overt political consideration and cultural and social differences, decisions have to be made about conflicting demands.

The colonial system subjected pupils to a dual process of socialization and culturalization with the school on one side and parents on the other. There is a belief that any meaningful educational change should aim at making the school share with parents the responsibility of socializing and culturalizing children under conditions acceptable to parents. Useful lessons may be learnt from experience of such countries as Israel and the People's Democratic Republic of Korea, where ideology has been successfully applied to educational reform. Based on the core values of its ideology, Israel integrates formal education into the kibbutz. Similarly the People's Democratic Republic of Korea has successfully applied a coherent ideology to its educational reform. It appears that core values underlying the educational system should be defined and then the core values thus defined should be adopted by the government and the people.

The economy and future developments are adversely affected by vagaries of nature affecting agricultural production, a decline in world market prices of major export commodities, and ever rising prices of imports. Drought conditions lower the subsistence agricultural income and the production of a number of major cash crops. A slump in the world market prices of cash crops has serious effects on the national economy. Imports tend to increase while exports decrease. The fall in prices for exported commodities limits the capacity to import essential goods for development.

The implementation of development plans is affected by lack of professional and technical staff. Problems of implementation are compounded by short supply of resources. Expansion and extension of education cannot be undertaken according to needs and plans. Sometimes expected financial assistance is not forthcoming or is withheld as it happened to Tanzania in 1956 when the United States of America and Britain cut off funds to which development programmes were tied.

Universalization of primary education should be accompanied by allocation of necessary financial and human resources. Giving priority to primary education should be reflected in recurrent annual budgets and development budgets. Low allocation of funds from the central government means that local efforts have to make up the differences. This may result in regional differentials in standards of physical facilities which in turn may affect quality of education. It is generally acknowledged that physical structures and equipment are conducive to healthy school attainment. Since quality structures and quality education implies more expenditure on education, primary education should have in its favour differential re-allocations of funds.

Special effort should be made to identify and deal with elements which may appear to work against universalized primary education. Some parents may not place great value on formal education because of beliefs or obsessions with some kinds of value systems. In particular special attention should be given to problems of handicapped children, especially the mentally and socially retarded. In the past, problems of handicapped children have not been given serious consideration. Where
some action has been taken it is mainly in connection with physically handicapped such as the blind, deaf, dumb and crippled. Little has been done for the mentally and socially retarded children. Universal primary education should reach everybody.

Finally, formal education cannot be isolated from non-formal and informal ways of learning especially since learning takes place from a variety of information sources. The concept that formal, non-formal and informal education are complementary activities within a single system of education is commonly acknowledged. Formal, non-formal and informal education may be seen as more characterizations of education. They are concerned with approaches to learning. Children are exposed to education as well as to economic and political forces and each has an impact on them. Consequently formal education cannot be isolated from non-formal and informal education and training systems.
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