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*Education for All by 2015: will we make it?*

**Tanzania country case study**

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2007

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ACRONYMS

ABE  Adult and Basic Education
ACSE  Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education
BEDC  Basic Education Development Committee
BEST  Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania
CDTI  Community Development Training Institute
CIDA  Canadian International Development Agency
CSEE  Certificate of Secondary Education Examination
COBET  Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania
CSO  Civil Society Organisation
ECCD  Early Childhood Care and Development
EMAC  Education Material Approval Committee
EFA  Education For All
ESR  Education Sector Review
ETP  Education and Training Policy
EMIS  Education Management Information System
ESDP  Education Sector Development Programme
FDC  Folk Development College
FTI  Fast Track Initiative
GER  Gross Enrolment Ratio
GoT  Government of Tanzania
GPI  Gender Parity Index
HEAC  Higher Education Accreditation Council
HTEMP  Higher and Technical Education Master Plan
ICBAE  Integrated Community Basic and Adult Education
PER       Public Expenditure Review
POPSM    President’s Office, Public Service Management
PORALG   President’s Office, Regional administration and Local government
PPTTCs   Post-Primary Technical Training Centres
PRSP     Public Service Reform Programme
PSLE     Primary School Leaving Examination
PTR      Pupil Teacher Ratio
RVTSC    Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre
SACMEQ   The Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SEDP     Secondary Education Development Plan
SEMP     Secondary Education Master Plan
Sida     Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SMC      Senior Management Committee
SSA      Sub Saharan Africa
TEDMS    Teacher Education Development and Management Strategy
TEMP     Teacher Education Master Plan
TSh      Tanzania shillings
TIE      Tanzania Institute of Education
TLS      Tanzanian Sign Language
TRC      Teachers Resource Centre
TTC      Teacher Training College
UNHCR    United Nation High Commissioner for Refugees
UPE      Universal Primary Education
URT      United Republic of Tanzania
VETA     Vocational Education and Training Authority


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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Post independence gains in access to education could not be sustained during the 1980s due to the economic crisis, leading to low levels of academic achievement, declining enrolment and attendance rates for primary school pupils, declining literacy among adults, and poor skills provision. However, the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP, 1997) and two sub-sector programmes, the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) and Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) were an expression of commitment to meet Education For All (EFA) targets and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Education is guided by Tanzania’s Development Vision 2025, which identified the need to have a well educated and learning society, which also emanated from the National Strategy For Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP), or Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini Tanzania -MKUKUTA in Kiswahili. MKUKUTA puts poverty reduction high on the country’s development agenda and aims at quality education.

Since 2000, largely due to the introduction free primary education, there has been a massive 72% increase in enrolment (some 2.2 million additional learners between 2001 and 2004), enabling the government to achieve its target of universal access. A GER of 77.6% and a NER of 58.8% (2000) had improved to 117.7% and 96.1% respectively by 2006. At secondary level, where enrolment had been very low, a major improvement has taken place, with rates doubling; GER for 2000 was 7.1% and NER 6.0%; by 2006 these had risen to 14.8% and 13.1% respectively. Targets for 2015 are 60% GER and 45% NER. There is significant involvement by the private sector in the provision of secondary education, partly subsidised by government, but the proportion is decreasing as the government sector expands, so that by 2005, 32% of students were in private schools. The number in universities and other tertiary institutions is small compared to the population, but increased by more than 50% between 2002/03 and 2004/05, partly because of a double intake policy instituted to decrease the waiting time of secondary school leavers before they could enter universities.

For adult basic and non-formal education, there are two main programmes, one for out-of-school children and one for adult education. In 2005, about 480,000 school-age children were enrolled in NFE centres, and about 500,000 enrolled in community based adult education. Provision of early childhood care and education is still very limited, as is that for uneducated and illiterate youth and adults.

The high degree of equity in primary which existed has been maintained since 2000; there were 48.9% females and 51.1% males in 2005, with a GPI of 0.99 in 2006. Differences between males and females are greater at secondary level. There is close to parity of female teachers in primary, while in secondary there was an improvement from 28.2% to 34.9%. Since 2000 there has been a dramatic shift away from per capita expenditure on higher education towards primary and secondary. Overall, poverty is an important factor in school enrolment, affecting completion rates. The 2006 Education Sector Review stressed the challenge of providing access for children from poor families, orphans, other vulnerable children, and children with disabilities.
There is no specific policy on nomadic education and there are no effective strategies for attracting teachers to teach in remote and difficult rural areas.

The target of 54 000 new classrooms has been achieved, but the pupil/teacher ratio in primary has worsened from 1:46 in 2001 to 1:56 in 2005 and as many as 67% of classrooms were used on a double shift basis from 2002 to 2006; it was planned that the number of teachers on double shifts would increase from 11% in 2002 to 25% in 2006. This has nearly halved the teaching hours from six to 3.5. These and other pressures have impeded gains in quality.

Teaching methods are poor and there are shortages of materials. The number of dropouts from primary has decreased substantially but repetition has increased, with more than three-fold increases in the percentage of repeaters in Standard 1. In secondary, difference in enrolment between males and females is decreasing, but the difference in exam performance has increased.

Resource allocations to the sector have increased over time but these have been inadequate and most of the priority programmes have been inadequately funded. External financing constituted 26% of the estimated budget in 2005/6, and in 2005/06 the resource gap was approximately 24% after accounting for GoT and foreign commitments. The Government has circulated for consultation a Ten Year Costed Plan (2006-2015) which indicates a funding gap of $15,527,516,743, and anticipates that development partners will provide assistance. Tanzania has expressed an interest in joining the Fast Track Initiative (FTI), possibly in 2008.

Public sector reform has resulted in decentralisation of responsibility for the implementation of primary education; the functions of the central MoEC are now confined to policy making. The new, complex procedures introduced are taking time to be understood and implemented effectively and efficiently at local level. Harmonization of different sources of funding is important in establishing the financial gap and in avoiding duplication of activities. School Management Committees have a growing role.

As yet there is not a fully reliable Education Management Information System (EMIS). Attention is being given to the development of a Performance Assessment Framework (PAF).

In 2006 a major change was the introduction of a competency-based curriculum in both primary and secondary from the previous content-orientated one. This has necessitated serious financial and human commitment to the retraining and support of teachers, headteachers and other education professionals to ensure that they have the necessary competence and confidence. A new suite of textbooks and a different style of national examination are also required.

The education system of Tanzania has made commendable progress in the period since 2000, especially in the introduction of free primary education, in steps taken to broaden access to secondary, and in the introduction of competence based curricula at primary and secondary levels. However, there are still challenges to improve system performance in terms of inclusion, repetition and completion at primary level, and to expand opportunity at secondary from the previously very low base. The rate of
transition to secondary schools remains the lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa. Pre-service and in-service training have lacked the necessary coherence with each other and with the demands of changes in the system, especially of curriculum and pedagogy. The curriculum changes necessitate a sustained, well-structured and designed, system wide programme of training for head teachers, teachers, local officials, including advisers and inspectors.

A number of systemic changes are at a critical stage, including decentralisation, public service reform, strengthening of financial management and mainstreaming of ongoing project and programmes. The various measures and interventions introduced over the last few years have been uncoordinated and unsynchronised. Commitment to a sector wide approach needs to be accompanied by careful attention to securing coherence and synergy across sub-sectoral elements.
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Since independence, The Government of Tanzania (GoT) has recognised the central role of education in achieving the overall development goal of improving the quality of life of Tanzanians through economic growth and poverty reduction. Several policies and structural reforms have been initiated by the Government to improve the quality of education at all levels. These include: Education for Self-Reliance, 1967; Musoma Resolution, 1974; Universal Primary Education (UPE), 1977; Education and Training Policy (ETP), 1995; National Science and Technology Policy, 1995; Technical Education and Training Policy, 1996; Education Sector Development Programme, 1996 and National Higher Education Policy, 1999. The ESDP of 1996 represented for the first time a Sector-Wide Approach to education development to redress the problem of fragmented interventions. It called for pooling together of resources (human, financial and materials) through the involvement of all key stakeholders in education planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation (URT, 1998 quoted in MoEC 2005b). The Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) provided the institutional framework.

1.2 There were early gains, especially in adult literacy and expansion of education at all levels of education including provision of vocational courses. However, these achievements could not be sustained during the 1980s due to the economic crisis, and consequently, there was a rapid deterioration in the delivery of education services leading to low levels of academic achievements, declining Gross and Net Enrolment Rates for primary school pupils despite the population growth, declining literacy among adults, low attendance rates and poor skills provision.

1.3 Development and implementation of the Education Sector Development Programme (1997) and the initial two sub-sector programmes, the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) and Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) are an expression of commitment to meet Education For All (EFA) targets and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

1.4 This review is based on a range of documentation, both government policies and programmes including; PRSP Progress Report 2000-2001, Education and Training Sector Development Programme, 2001; the Primary Education Development Plan 2002-2006, the Secondary Education Plan 2004-09; the Draft ESDP Ten Year Costed Plan, 2006-2015; and also several very important reviews of the sector’s performance, notably a Education Sector Situation Analysis, (MoEC 2005b), and an Education Sector Public Expenditure Review, 2005, together with an Education Sector Review 2006, jointly undertaken by GoT and its development partners in 2006.

2. BACKGROUND

General

2.1 The area of Tanzania is approximately 886 000 square km, with a population which has risen from 34 400 000 in 2002 (2002 census), to a projected figure of 41 146 000 in 2008, giving an overall population density of 46 per square km. However, this figure conceals very considerable differences across the 21 mainland Regions, ranging from 160 to 12 per square km. According to the GMR 2006, 57.8% of the
population have below the poverty measure of US$1 a day (headcount ratio); the 2001 household budget survey recorded that 35.3% of the population were below the national poverty line of US$0.26 per day.

2.2 The 2000 PRSP identified both income and non-income poverty, with the first of these being found to be largely a rural phenomenon, concentrated in subsistence agriculture and with urban poverty also widespread and increasing; the youth, the old, and large households are more likely to be poor. Non-Income Poverty was defined in terms of (a) Education, with Tanzania’s literacy rate being estimated at 84% percent in 1997, with the rate for women being somewhat lower than that for men. (The overall net enrolment rate is, however, much lower (57%)); (b) Survival - high mortality rates (especially among infants and under-five children) and corresponding low life expectancy are an important dimension of poverty. In 1999, infant mortality was estimated at 99 per 1,000 live births, and under-five mortality was 158 per 1,000 live births, a rate improved considerably to 126 per 1000 in 2004 (GMR 2006). The leading killer diseases for infants and under-five children are malaria, anaemia and pneumonia.

The education system

2.3 The delivery of education is guided by the Tanzania Development Vision 2025, which identified the need to have a well educated and learning society in order to respond to development challenges and to compete effective at international levels, regionally and beyond. It is also nested in the National Strategy For Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP), known in Kiswahili as Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini Tanzania (MKUKUTA), as well as international commitments to Education For All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

2.4 MKUKUTA in particular aims at equitable growth, quality livelihoods, peace and stability, unity; good governance, quality education, and international competitiveness. MKUKUTA is a strategy that puts poverty reduction high on the country’s development agenda. It emphasises country ownership, effective participation of civil society, private sector development, and fruitful local and external partnerships in social and economic development. It also focuses on improving the quality of life and social well being of individuals; specific operational targets for ensuring equitable access to quality education and vocational training are also identified.

2.5 Primary education is seven years in duration, followed by four years in lower secondary, and two more years in upper secondary for those who pass the exam. The medium of instruction in primary is Kiswahili; in secondary it is English. In 2000, the secondary sector was one of the smallest in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA), constituting only about 6% of the age group (compared to 25-30% in the rest of SSA), but it is now more than double that figure, at 13.1%. Transition rates to secondary are around 25% compared with 50-60% in SSA as a whole. The secondary school system grew considerably from 1999 to 2004 mainly through the creation of new community-built government day schools. Expansion of the private sector slowed considerably during the same period, indicating that the demand for private education from those who could afford it had mostly been met. The construction of secondary schools by the
local communities, in the face of extensive poverty and very limited government support, has been indicative of the high demand for secondary education. Access to secondary education is extremely biased towards the urban areas. According to data from the 2000/2001 Household Budget Survey, enrolment rates at lower secondary for urban children were seven times higher than for rural children. There was also a seven-fold difference between enrolment rates for the richest and the poorest quartiles.

2.6 One of the greatest disincentives was fees, which until recently were 40,000TSh (40US$). This figure was halved in 2005 with the introduction of The Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP). Also, funds exist to help support bright children from poor families to attend secondary schools; these include assistance from the central ministry for orphans and children from poor families. Scholarships are designed to cover all of the costs of education, and not just the school fees. Many nongovernmental and faith-based organisations also sponsor secondary school students. However, major barriers still exist that prevent intelligent children from poor rural families from accessing secondary education. Low quality primary education means that few children from rural areas qualify for secondary education (Wedgewood 2005). SEDP was initiated with the aim of catching up on comparable nations, as “anything lower than 20% participation in secondary education will not help the cause of technical take off in a country”. (UNESCO, quoted in MoEC 2005b)

2.7 The secondary school sub-system has two levels, Forms 1-4 leading to a Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (CSEE) and Forms 5 and 6 which leads to the Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education (ACSE). Secondary schools have four types of ownership: government, community, private and seminaries. From 2005, private schools which admitted disabled students could receive public funds for provision of construction or modification of classrooms. Both the CSEE and the ACSE examination are highly competitive, as they are used to select students for the next level of education, that is, for entrance to Form 5 and entrance to university and other institutions of higher education which award degrees and advanced diplomas.

2.8 Primary school teachers are currently trained in Teachers Colleges and are awarded a Grade ‘A’ Teachers Certificate. But many finish their probationary period and are certified as teachers without sufficient professional support from mentor teachers or inspectors. In a previous phase teachers with the minimum level of primary education, or those that had completed two years of secondary education, were trained either through college-based or distance education mode, and were engaged as Grade ‘C/B’ teachers in primary schools. By the end of 2005 these teachers, now deemed to be under qualified, constituted 50,625 out of a total of 121,548 or about 45%, and are being upgraded.

2.9 A Teacher Education Master Plan (TEMP) put forward a vision of steering teacher education in Tanzania during the next twenty-five years, by defining a mission for the professional development of teachers during the next five years. It targets included raising minimum qualifications for primary school teachers to Grade ‘A’ by 2003, but the figures above show that this was not attained and the recent Situation Analysis (MoEC 2005b) indicated that so far there had been little progress towards translating
the TEMP into a Teacher Education Development Programme (TEDP). There have been further consultations between the Teacher Education Department in MoEC and consultants, about formulating a Teacher Education Development and Management Strategy (TEDMS). In the meantime the upgrading of teachers is carried out in a piecemeal and *ad hoc* manner.

2.10 Teachers for secondary education are currently being trained through five routes; (i) the ordinary diploma programme offered in public and private colleges; (ii) university degree programmes, some of which are concurrent degree programmes which combine subject content and professional preparation; (iii) the postgraduate diploma in education, for graduates with a general degree who want to join the teaching profession; (iv) short-term training of ex-Form VI leavers with good passes in A-level Examinations, before licensing them to teach in lower forms (I&II) in secondary schools and (v) a two-year diploma programme comprised of 50% content and 50% professional training, pilot tested in 2005-2006.

2.11 Several Ministries share in the management of the formal education system in Tanzania, primarily; (i) The Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC) is responsible for; pre-primary and primary education; adult and out-of-school education; secondary education; teacher training and management of the teaching force; support institutions for curriculum formation, examinations, promotion of Kiswahili, the arts and other cultural units such as museum, antiquities, national libraries; the Inspectorate although they work in and through the councils; other specialist facilities; (ii) The President’s Office – Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG), which oversees the work of the local councils, which in turn are responsible for the day to day operations of primary education such as resource mobilization, management of teachers, financing, payments of school supplies; (iii) The Ministry of Labour Youth Development and Sports (MLYDS), responsible through the Vocational Education and Training Authority for vocational education and training at post-primary level; (iv) The Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (MoSTHE), which handles university education and science and technical education, in addition to its broader science and technology remit. The latter also coordinates key quality assurance and control instruments, the Higher Education Accreditation Council and the National Council for Technical Education. Three other Ministries (the Prime Minister’s Office; Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children; and Ministry of Finance) are involved in different aspects of the formal education system; and there are several other Ministries, agencies and parastatals providing specific sector training in areas such as health, agriculture, tourism, and communication.

2.12 Formal responsibility for primary education has been decentralised, the functions of MoEC being confined to policy making (including designing and developing the curricula), capacity building, setting standards and quality assurance. PO-RALG’s role and mandate is to oversee and coordinate the delivery of services by LGAs and, specifically for primary education, to be responsible for the grant-based components.

2.13 There is a wide variety of arrangements for Technical Vocational Education and Training; these include government provided centres; community-based Folk Development Colleges (FDCs), established in 1975, which provide knowledge and skills to adult and youth producers of goods and services; a non-formal subsystem, usually providing non-certificated training; and Post Primary Technical Training
Centres (PPTTCs), run by several district authorities. The quality of facilities in the latter has been reported as very low. There is a long history of out-of-school vocational training, but technical and vocational training in secondary schools has recently been stopped (MoEC 2005b).

2.14 There are no clear policy guidelines on pre-primary education in the country (PER 2005). This has resulted in inadequate provision of physical facilities for pre-primary education (classrooms, desks, chalkboards, teaching/learning materials and poor learning environment) and low levels of awareness among communities and parents regarding the importance of pre-school. Policy guidelines and awareness raising among communities and parents on the importance of ECCD are lacking.

2.15 Non-formal education (NFE) may take place both within and outside educational institutions, and may cater for persons of all ages, covering adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children and vulnerable groups, life-skills, vocational-skills, and also cultural activities. Programmes are not necessarily structured at consecutive levels, vary in duration, and may or may not confer official certification of the learning achieved.

2.16 Non formal education is offered by many different providers, both government (under several ministries) and non-government (mainly NGOs). There are three target groups for NFE in Tanzania; (i) primary school age children (11-13) who are currently out-of-school due to limited space - the PEDP focuses on the initial enrolment of children who are currently 7–10 years old; also included are disadvantaged children aged 7-13 (from nomadic communities, street children, children with disabilities and orphans); (ii) Youth (14-18) who have never received primary education or who dropped out before completing the primary education cycle; and (iii) functionally illiterate adults, especially younger adults and young mothers.

2.17 The Government’s intention for the first two groups is to bring them into school, or at least enable them to catch up to the level of the complete primary education cycle. For the third group, literacy is seen as a fundamental human right, but it is not presumed that they will be able to reach any specific level or certificate. The two main programmes are Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET), for out-of-school children, and Integrated Community Basic and Adult Education (ICBAE), for adult education. In principle, the Vocational Education and Training (VET) sub-sector covers all forms of organised vocational education and training. There are 764 centres of which 21 are Regional Vocational Training and Service Centres (RVTSCs) are managed by Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). The Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children (MCDGC) manages Folk Education with 58 Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) and four Community Development Training Institutes (CDTIs).

3. PROGRESS SINCE 2000

Access
3.1 Since 2000, there has been a major expansion of access to primary schools, constituting a 72% increase and enabling the government to achieve its target of universal access to primary education. In 2004, more than 7 million children were enrolled in primary school, an increase of nearly 2.2 million children as compared to 2001 (a 44% increase in pupil enrolments in three years). In 2000 there was a GER of 77.6% and a NER of 58.8%. By 2006 these figures had risen to 117.7% and 96.1% respectively (MoEC 2006b), representing the strong effort made by government to achieve full education for all at that level. The target for 2012 is 99%.

3.2 A major target of the PEDP was the achievement of UPE and the MDG for education. The programme, aligned with the ESDP, drew upon the broader national and international policies; nationally the Tanzania Development Vision 2025, which sees education as “a strategic agent for mindset transformation and for the creation of a population equipped with the knowledge needed to competently and competitively solve the development challenges that face the nation”; and also the national anti-poverty strategy MKUKUTA. Internationally, the Government accepted the challenge of the subscribes to several international declarations such as the Education For All (EFA) goals adopted at Dakar and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The abolition of school fees, beginning at the commencement of the 2002 school year, has been a very important factor in boosting primary school numbers, but there has also been an element of compulsion; reportedly some of those parents who have not enrolled their children in school have been fined and/or imprisoned. (CEO quoted in MoEC 2005b) It is also reported that the actual enrolment rate is sometimes lower than that stated in the official statistics; the campaign to rapidly expand enrolments during the PEDP led to registration of children who were not actually enrolled, because there were insufficient classrooms or insufficient teachers. In order to ensure that all girls and boys could be enrolled in schools, the Government established a special National Education Fund to pay for the education of children from disadvantaged groups, including AIDS orphans (PEDP, 2002-2006)

3.3 In 2001 the PEDP highlighted the difficult situation faced by the system, even before the rapid and dramatic boost to enrolment as a result of the abolition of fees. The contributing factors were crowded, poorly furnished and unfinished classrooms with many teachers poorly qualified and poorly deployed but often trying to do a good job with meagre resources for teaching and learning, with a curriculum seen as too diverse and too irrelevant for the needs of most learners, and with many teachers, heads and support staff poorly equipped for their management and quality assurance tasks (PEDP 2002-2006).

3.4 At secondary level, a major improvement in enrolment has taken place, with the rates doubling, albeit from a very low base (BEST 2000-2005). The GER for 2000 was 7.1% and the NER 6.0%; by 2006 these had risen to 14.8% and 13.1% respectively; thus in 2001 there were 289,000 students and in 2005 there were 524,325. Targets have been set for 2015 of 60% GER and 45% NER (MoEC 2006c).

3.5 Overall, the number of students in universities and other tertiary institutions is relatively small compared to the population; total enrolment is 44,691 (excluding pre-university foundation course students in the Open University). However, enrolment increased by more than 50% between 2002/03 and 2004/05, with all types of institution except technology/technical colleges experiencing steady growth. This
steep increase in enrolment is partly explained by the double intake policy instituted to decrease the waiting time of secondary school leavers before they could enter universities (MoEC 2005b). Under MKUKUTA, the target is that by 2008 the enrolment would be 30,000 full time, 10,000 part time and 15 000 distance students, for a total of 55 000 (MoEC 2006c).

3.6 For adult basic and non-formal education, there are two main programmes, Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET), for out-of-school children and Integrated Community Basic and Adult Education (ICBAE), for adult education. With the abolition of school fees the numbers of out-of-school children fell dramatically, with over 1.6 million school age additional children enrolled in primary schools. The number out-of-school was expected to decrease further, following the Government’s efforts to enrol 365,963 out-of-school children (240,280 boys and 125,683 girls) in various Complementary Basic Education Programmes. In 2005, about 480,000 school-age children were enrolled in NFE centres, and about 500,000 enrolled in community based adult education. However, there were indications in 2005 that although enrolled, many were not attending because the district councils had not yet received funds for programme. (Louis 2005, quoted in MoEC 2005b) By mid 2005, 15 000 COBET facilitators 1 120 ICBAE facilitators had been trained, but this number was inadequate to meet the planned enrolment.

Equity

3.7 A high degree of equity in primary has been maintained since 2000. In pre-primary and primary education, enrolment is approximately equal between girls and boys. In primary schools in 2000, there were 2,212,473 females (50.5%) and 2,169,937 males (49.5%) out of a total number of 4,382,410 pupils. In 2005, there were 3,685,496 females (48.9%) and 3,855,712 males (51.1%) out of a total number of 7,541,208 pupils in primary schools and by 2006 the GPI was 0.99 (10 yr plan). In pre-primary, there were 271,537 girls out of 547,543 pupils (49.6%), and in 2005, there were 313,028 girls out of 624,204 pupils (50.1%).

3.8 The differences between males and females are greater at the secondary level. In 2000 there were 54.1% males and 45.9% females enrolled. By 2005, there was a total of 524 325 enrolled, 53.4% males and 46.6% females, and by 2006 the GPI was 0.89, so that overall gender equity has changed little over the period. In Forms 1-2, there are about equal numbers of boys and girls, but by Forms 5-6 girls make up only about 33% (the 2004 figure).

3.9 Poverty is an important factor in school enrolment. While figures for initial enrolment are high for the country as a whole, completion rates are not. Children are routinely co-opted into household and economically productive tasks, resulting in poor attendance and drop out. Children leading nomadic lives find it difficult to attend regular formal schools, as do street children, who tend to be resistant to the highly structured approach of regular schools. As the system tends towards achievement of the UPE target, the focus will increasingly be on improving retention and completion, and on providing viable and worthwhile alternative opportunities for those unable to attend formal schools.
3.10 The World Health Organisation estimates a total of 3.5 million people living with disabilities in Tanzania. Although the policy of mainstreaming means that all schools have started enrolling children with disabilities, it is unclear how many schools are adequately equipped with facilities e.g. ramps for wheel chairs, special toilet facilities etc. By 2004, the number of special schools and units was 182, and the numbers of disabled pupils enrolled to 16,339. If the WHO estimates of the proportion of people with disabilities is correct, then the percentage enrolled is actually under 3%.

Quality

3.11 Approximately 30,000 new classrooms were constructed between 2002 and 2004, with a further 20,000 under construction, meaning that the Government was close to its target of building a total of 54,000 new classrooms during the PEDP. However, many of these classrooms were actually replacements for old and dilapidated rooms, so that there is still a shortage of good quality rooms.

3.12 The pupil/teacher ratio in primary has risen from 1:46 in 2001 to 1:56 in 2005. To achieve the PTR based on the policy guidelines of 1:45 (URT, 2005), there was therefore an apparent shortfall of 33,855 teachers in primary schools in 2005. PEDP proposed that “67% of the classrooms will be used on a double shift basis from 2002 through 2006”, whilst “it is intended that 11% of the teachers will teach on double shifts in 2002, 18% in 2003, and 25% from 2004 to 2006.” (MOEC 2001, quoted in Davidson 2004). The effects of double shifting have included a serious reduction in teaching hours from six to 3.5. The combination of classroom shortage, pressure on rooms and teachers by the need to have double shifting, shortage of textbooks and other learning materials have combined to jeopardise gains in quality.

3.13 Davidson’s research in Morogoro research showed that double-shift systems were being used within a majority of the fifty schools visited, especially in lower standards (where enrolments were highest). He concluded that although it was evident that the use of double-shift systems reduced the average class sizes and enabled more efficient use of the limited number of classrooms and textbooks at the schools’ disposal, double-shifting also compromised the quality of education. It necessitated that timetables be re-written, with each shift receiving between one quarter and one third fewer periods per week than would be the case with a single-shift system, with implications for the teachers’ ability to cover the syllabus and for the pupils’ level of learning. It was also very unpopular with teachers, resulting in more periods going untaught than before. The PEDP annexes did contain an explicit budget line for incentives to teachers who did double-shift teaching, but Davidson found no evidence of this either within the schools he visited nor in the various PEDP reports and reviews he consulted.

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1 Davidson, E (2004) Report of doctoral studies to explore the progress of PEDP between 2002-2004, with respect to the plans to expand the primary education system and the issues related to quality; based on visits to 50 government primary schools in Morogoro Region, hundreds of formal interviews and informal discussions with teachers, pupils, parents, community members, representatives of non-governmental organisations and education officials; lesson observation
3.14 Several micro-research studies have shown that teachers in government schools had poor teaching methods (Shoo, 2004, quoted in MoECb), in contrast to the programmes initiated by some NGOs, in which teachers have been trained and supported to improve their teaching methods. Given the wealth of directly relevant experience in those projects, it is important to review them, focussing on the issue of how practicable it would be to take them to scale.

3.15 There is a generally held view that the push for UPE was the major cause of a deterioration in quality at all levels of education in Tanzania (Wedgewood 2005). ‘UPE’, pronounced ‘oopy’, became a colloquial term associated with low quality education rather than with universalisation. There were even jokes that the letters UPE stand for Ualimu Pasipo Elimu (teaching without education). Expansion of primary was not accompanied by expansion of secondary, leading to reduced transition rates, which was perceived by parents as reflective of reduced quality of primary schooling. The expansion of primary also caused a high demand for teachers, to the extent that there were not enough secondary graduates to supply the demand, and primary teachers were drawn from populations who had not attended secondary school.

3.16 There appears to be a vicious circle undermining quality. The limited secondary education system led to a very limited pool from which to draw teachers for both secondary and primary levels. Many of those have gone into teaching have passed through a very weak education system, achieved low academic grades themselves, and so the cycle of poor teaching continues.

3.17 One symptom of parents’ lack of faith in public school quality has been the increase in private tuition. This has been exacerbated by poorly paid teachers who feel that they need to subsidise their salaries with extra work. There are reports that some teachers deliberately “under-teach” in order to coerce pupils into attending their private tuition classes (Wedgewood 2005). Schools in wealthier areas also tended to attract the better qualified teachers. The disparity between the quality of schools in rich (generally urban) and poor (mainly rural) areas is very marked (Davidson 2005). The pupil teacher ratio worsened from 46:1 to 59:1, and is as high as 74:1 in some regions (URT MoEC 2004). There have been reports of class sizes as large as 200. Many schools have adopted double shift teaching to cope with the increased enrolment. This has led to a reduction of teaching hours per day from 6 to 3.5.

3.18 Although PEDP provides for US $10 be given to each school, per pupil, per year, to buy textbooks, other teaching and learning materials and to pay for other essential school expenses related to quality improvement, there have been shortfalls in provision (Davidson 2004). The need for a full new suite of textbooks arose in 2006 with the change in curriculum from a content-orientation to being competency-based. This has also strained the ability of the system to provide sufficient books at the target ratios. Substantial efforts have been made in curriculum reform, but inevitably the PSLE still has a large influence and it will be essential to ensure alignment between the curriculum, pedagogy and examination. There has been an apparent leap in quality as far as the results of the Primary School Leaving Examination (PLSE) go, with 40.1% passing in 2003 compared with 27.1% in 2002 and 19.9 % in 1999 (Wedgewood 2005) However, this may reflect changes in the examinations more than changes in the quality of education.
3.19 The number of dropouts from primary has decreased substantially from 69,173 in 2000 to 41,760 in 2005; however, repetition has increased, with more than three-fold increases in the percentage of repeaters in Standard 1 and a smaller increase in Standard 4 (MoEC 2005b).

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Source: BEST, 1995-2005, Table 2.5

The PSLE pass rate has increased but this is difficult to interpret because of changes in the marking regime.

3.20 In secondary, the differences in total enrolment between girls and boys are narrowing, but the differences in exam performance between girls and boys may be increasing. In 2001, 87.0% boys passed the new Form 2 examination compared to 73.2% girls. By 2004 the gap had widened to 75.7% boys compared to 56.8%. In 1999, 55.3% of candidates from boys-only schools obtained Division I-III in the Form 4 examination (CSEE), compared to 37.6% of those from girls-only schools, and 26.1% of those from co-ed schools. By 2003, the percentages obtaining Division I-III were 65.8%, 56.1% and 35.0% respectively (and in 2004, 44.9% of all boys obtained Division I-III compared to 30.5% of all girls) (MoEC 2005b)

3.21 With regard to the effects of decentralisation on quality, it appears to have had an effect on the availability of funds reaching the schools. Disbursement of the capitation grant from the central level to the districts has been in line with plans, with on average Tsh8,700/- per student per year (MoEC 2005b). Disbursement of the development grant has been of the same magnitude, whilst the transfer of the capacity building grant had only been about half that planned. However, at school level, while the recorded inflow of the development grant was 84% of central level disbursement for 2003-03, the overall capitation grant (cash and monetary value of textbooks) received at the school level was in the range of 54%-64%. Also, there were huge variations at the school level, from Tsh1,600/- to Tsh8,700/- per student per year. The book part of the grant was the main source of leakage in the transfer of the capitation grant; only 28% of the central level disbursement for 2002 and 2003 was recorded. (According to MoEC 2005b, these figures have been disputed by PORALG)

Finance including donor assistance

3.22 While resource allocations to the sector have increased over time, the resources were still inadequate and most of the priority programmes have gone without being adequately funded, creating pressure for reallocation with deleterious effects on project implementation. Key sub-sectors like Teacher Education and Secondary Education are grossly under funded. Critical programmes have had to be delayed or postponed until funds are made available. The downward revision of the budget estimates and approved budgets further complicates the already precarious situation. This has forced Ministries, Departments and Agencies to either restructure the
implementation of programmes or to accept specific stalled projects. There is a need for capacity building at all levels, including for School Management Committees (SMCs) which has been undertaken but may require more, as some SMCs are not working effectively and some communities have limited understanding of their roles. There is a discontinuity between the formula-based financing mechanisms for Local Government Authorities (LGAs) (now formula-based for education) and staffing practices under the Public Service Act. Council resource ceilings are formula based, yet MoEC is still able to post teachers to local governments without commensurate resource increases.

3.23 The Government has developed a Ten Year Costed Plan (2006-2015) in anticipation that G8 member states and other developed countries and multilateral donors will support it. Based on 2005/06 resource estimates, external financing constitutes 26% of the budget, mainly allocated in the development budget. Government allocations are higher, but budget outturn analysis indicates that only slightly more than 60% of what is estimated is actually spent. In 2005/06 the resource gap was approximately 24% after accounting for GoT and external commitments. The PER indicated that financing of post-primary education and pre-primary education will require additional resource mobilization, even although the economy is growing at more than 6%. (The Draft 10 Year Costed Plan is still in the process of consultation, as part of a broader revision of the ESDP.)

3.24 Given the costed requirements identified in the projected Ten Year Plan, a total of US$ 24,410,703,416 is required to enable the GoT to implement the plan. With a projected level of economic growth at 6%, the Government expects to be able to contribute US$ 8,882,889,436, leaving a funding gap of US$ 15,527,516,743. The PER suggested that this gap could be closed through strengthened public-private sector partnerships, mobilization of resources from NGOs and communities, and development partners, among others. Other innovative efficiency measures could include improvement of teacher utilisation, especially at secondary school level and rationalising PTR and teaching load (MoEC 2005a). Tanzania has expressed an interest in joining the Fast Track Initiative (FTI), possibly in 2008.

3.25 There is still major ongoing debate about sub-sectoral allocations, particular the relative shares for secondary and tertiary sub-sectors.

Summary- progress and challenges

3.26 Great progress has been made on enrolment at primary level, with full gender equity and the government UPE targets being virtually met. However repetition and drop out are still issues to be resolved, as is provision for the many young people who are still out of school, including the disabled, the extremely poor and those with a nomadic lifestyle.

3.27 Challenges include the considerable shortage of classrooms, a shortage of well qualified and expert teachers competent to lead their learners through the new competency based curriculum and learning styles, and the absence of an assessment and examination regime able to reinforce the new approaches and reward students for their ability to demonstrate what they know understand and can do. At secondary level there is a need to expand facilities necessary as a result of increased transition rates.
3.28 A major challenge is the funding gap, but the GoT is calling on its development partners to honour the commitments made at Dakar, Abuja, etc, to respond positively to its draft Ten Year Plan.

4. POLICY ENVIRONMENT

EFA goals

4.1 Determined efforts were made mainly with the support of bilateral donors to expand primary education sector in Tanzania during the late 1960s and 1970s. As a result of these efforts, which included Universal Primary Education (UPE) before the onset of the economic crisis in the early 1980s, Tanzania managed to have the highest primary school and literacy rates in Sub-Saharan Africa. (Sida) Tanzania renewed its committed to Education for All in 1990; based on its Education and Training Policy (ETP) agreed in 1995, the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995. In 1997 the government produced its first sector-wide Education Sector Development programme (ESDP) (MoEC 2005a) to address the problems the country was experiencing with education provision, including in meeting the EFA goals, to face the new challenges it was experiencing following economic reforms initiated in 1986, together with an increasing demand for human resource development in line with rapidly changing economic development.

4.2 Under the ESDP, the Primary Education Development Plan (2002-2006) and the Secondary Education Development Plan (2004-2009), the country’s efforts to achieve the EFA goals and the MDGs have been maintained and intensified. The major focus has been on achieving UPE, but expansion of the secondary sector has also been prioritised. In primary, the UPE target has been almost achieved in relation to access, apart from some relatively small but significant elements including children who are disadvantaged or disabled. Gender equity has been achieved in primary and is improving in secondary. There is still a considerable challenge in securing provision of the necessary arrangements for early childhood care and education, and also for uneducated and illiterate youth and adults. The largely successful push for access has however succeeded at the expense of quality, as large class sizes, double-shifting for classroom spaces and teachers, and a shortage of learning materials have made it difficult to secure the necessary improvements. While a more relevant and appropriate curriculum has been introduced it has not as yet changed the classroom teaching and learning situation required.

Links to poverty reduction

4.3 The policy framework for Education is guided by the country’s National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP/MKUKUTA) (2005). In particular MAKUKUTA aims at quality education, among other key dimensions. Within the MAKUKUTA cluster II, there are operational targets for ensuring equitable access to quality education and vocational training. These include targets, not all of which are specific enough, for an increase in the number of children prepared for school and life though Early Childhood Education, an increase in gross and net enrolment at primary and secondary levels, including of those with disabilities and OVCs, increased enrolment in higher and technical education, effective HIV and AIDS education and
lifeskills in all primary and secondary schools and Teachers’ Colleges, and adult and non-formal education.

Public sector reform

4.4 The current Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP) focuses on performance improvement in the delivery of goods and services. The scope and nature of decentralisation and devolution of power to local levels is determined by the Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP), in itself an integral part of the wide public sector reforms and the main mechanism for the delivery of education at primary level. The Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) is set firmly within this decentralised framework.

4.5 There are several public service reforms that have influenced the development and implementation of the ESDP, including the Public Service Reform Programme, the Local Government Reform Programme, the National Employment Policy and the Financial Management Reform Programme. Only about 50% of civil service employees have the level of education required by the Public Service Reform; a major upgrading programme has been undertaken.

4.6 Decentralisation has been a significant factor in the delivery of primary education services. The functions of the central MoEC are now confined to policy making (including designing and developing the curricula), capacity building, setting standards and quality assurance). PO-RALG’s role and mandate is to oversee and coordinate the delivery of services by Local Government Authorities (LGAs) and, specifically for primary education, to be accountable for the grant-based components. There is a complex system of disbursement from the central level to the councils, involving three Ministries (MoEC, MoF, PO-RALG), and this has led to some inefficiency and confusion, which has impacted negatively on schools, for example in disbursement of the appropriate portion of the capitation grant. The new procedures are taking time to become well understood and streamlined. School Committees have been formed at primary level and School Boards at secondary level, but it appears that systematic implementation of the policies regarding the involvement of civil society and the private sector in primary education has not yet occurred. (MoEC 2005b)

The role of civil society

4.7 Harmonization of different sources of funding is important in establishing the financial gap and in avoiding duplication of activities. In Tanzania, NGOs provide teacher in-service training, and several have been involved with pastoralists over recent years, experimenting with mobile schools and other non-formal alternatives; they have also set up pre-schools in collaboration with the community, and report that the children perform better in primary school as a result. Many nongovernmental and faith based organisations also sponsor secondary school students. Participatory classroom approaches have been piloted successfully by INGOs; given the new emphasis on a competence-based curriculum these should be reviewed to ascertain the practicability of taking them to scale. Many NGOs and CSOs are strongly involved in HIV and AIDS awareness raising, capacity building and monitoring.
4.8 Most NGO schemes have not had clearly defined guidelines for their operation; in some cases the activities and services provided are not known to the district authorities. While the government welcomes the NGO sector in contributing to service delivery, it does not always take sufficient account of its role in planning. For example, the Draft Ten Year Costed Plan does not mention the contribution which the NGO sector will make. There have been several small-scale programmes, usually run by NGOs, to train head teachers, improve inspection, and regenerate school management committees. NGOs have made considerable effort to support government initiatives in providing education opportunities to out-of-school children and youth, but linkages among these organisations and between them and the government are weak. Most have not clearly defined operating guidelines, including a specific curriculum.

*Private sector especially in secondary*

4.9 There has been significant involvement by the private sector in the provision of secondary education. As the Government has expanded the public secondary education has expanded, the proportion of students attending private schools has decreased from about 42% in 2001 to some 32% in 2005. Currently, private schools make up about a third of total secondary school stock (544 out of 1746). However, the high fees charged by private schools put them out of the reach of the majority, and it would be helpful to find ways in which the government could alleviate some of the costs incurred by private schools, such as providing scholarships or subsidising teachers’ salaries. Prior to 2004/05, private sector schools received no government support but from 2005, those schools that provide access for disabled students can receive support (MoEC 2005b). In the dimension of textbook supply, the Government has introduced ring-fenced capitation grants for non-salary recurrent costs of secondary education, which will be disbursed to schools for use within agreed criteria. This will create sustained textbook demand which should stimulate a market and supply response by private publishers (MoEC 2005a).

*The role of donors*

4.10 The education sector is supported by a range of development partners, including the World Bank, The African Development Bank, EU, UN organisations, DFID, CIDA, Irish Aid, Sida, and USAID. The PER (2005) found that development resource allocations had remained below the sector planned financial requirements, with both recurrent and development budget subjected to significant revisions. For the development votes, revisions were necessary partly because donors’ pledges had been relied upon rather than firm commitments; there is now a realisation that only firm commitments by donors ought to be factored in the sector budget. The PER also acknowledged that it had difficulty capturing the full extent of the development expenditure because some donors disburse funds directly to institutions without passing through the exchequer system. Overall, the education sector experienced both under and over expenditure in development budgets. (Year 2001/02 and 2003/04 were characterised by an overall under expenditure of $2.2 million and US$12 million respectively, while year 2002/03 recorded a substantial over expenditure of US$55.7 million.) The over spending was mainly attributed to the fact that donors released more resources than what was provided for in the revised/approved budgets,
indicating either weak coordination of donor support or uncertainty about it (MoEC 2005a).

4.11 There is now a move towards General Budget Support but this will require a considerable shift of approach at the highest levels and substantial dialogue with donors.

**Monitoring and evaluation**

4.12 There is regular collection of statistical information across the system, but its use has been hampered by a lack of ICT equipment and skill, the absence of a robust, fully reliable Education Management Information System (EMIS) and the difficulty of synchronising data from the four main ministries which share responsibility for elements of the education system. Tanzania has participated in international monitoring activities, including the second programme of The Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality, between 1999 and 2002 (SACMEQ II).

4.13 A mechanism has been established for the regular monitoring of achievements and challenges in the system through Joint Education Sector Reviews (ESR), between government, donors, and representatives of other key stakeholders; the first of these was conducted in 2006. These deliberations are designed to lead to modifications in the workplans and budgets of the relevant Ministries. There is still considerable work to be done to strengthen the dialogue structure, and Tanzania could usefully establish links with its regional neighbours to develop more fully its analysis of the best ways to structure dialogue within government and between government, its development partners, and major stakeholders.

4.14 Additional monitoring is conducted through Public Expenditure Reviews (PER), specially commissioned studies and research, such as the 2005 Education Sector Situation Analysis, and as a contribution to review of performance of the PRSP process. From 2005, a routine PER Education Sector Working Group has provided a forum for inter-sector collaboration and consultations for institutions that are relevant to education services provision. The group draws players from MoEC, MoSTHE, MoCDGC, MoF, PoRALG, PoPSM, NGOs and CSOs and Development Partners.

4.15 Attention is being given to the development of a Performance Assessment Framework (PAF) for the sector, which would provide a coherent and reliable monitoring tool to measure progress against MKUKUTA’s outcomes’ based approach.

**5. POLICIES AND STRATEGIES ON EQUITY**

5.1 Equity has been a guiding principle in Tanzania since Independence, reinforced through the MAKUKUTA/NSGPR. Goal 3 is ‘ensuring equitable access to quality primary and secondary education for boys and girls, universal literacy among women and men and expansion of higher, technical and vocational education’. While Tanzania has a commendable record for the achievement of gender parity at primary school level (though there has been a slight reduction in the proportion of girls), the
emphasis on expansion over the period since 2000 has sometimes led to less attention being paid to equity issues generally.

5.2 By 2005 there was a reduction in inter-regional variations in ratios of resources and equipment, including pupil/classroom ratios and PTRs, The success of the 2001 Government policy in bringing pupils into school at the official age has achieved considerable success. The increase in repeaters observed nationally for Standard 1 occurs in every region but there are very large increases in some. Nationally, the proportion of female teachers had increased slightly from 45% to 47%. Numbers in Forms I-IV have more than doubled between 2000 and 2005, both for boys and girls, with no change in the lead of around 12% for boys; the government has developed a bursary programme to facilitate the access of poorer students, especially girls, to secondary education. At Forms 5-6 there has been a considerably larger increase of 61% for girls over 37% for boys, albeit from a much lower base. In the same period, there has also been an increase in the proportion of women teachers in secondary from 28.2% to 34.9%. Since 2000 there has been a dramatic shift away from per capita expenditure on higher education towards primary and secondary.

Specific challenges, programmes and strategies

5.3 As a poverty reduction framework, MAKUKUTA has operational targets for ensuring equitable access to quality education and vocational training. Although these identify appropriately the main sub-sectoral elements of ECCD, increased GER and NER at primary and secondary, including OVCs and the disabled, adult and basic education (ABE) and teacher education, the targets are not sufficiently specified with regard to actual measurable improvements in the indicators.

5.4 This requirement was further elaborated by the 2006 ESR, which stressed the challenge of providing access for children from poor families, orphans, other vulnerable children, and children with disabilities, including development and use of Tanzanian Sign Languages (TSL) for deaf children as well as training and use of TSL teachers and interpreters.

5.5 The PER specifies a target to increase number of vulnerable children enrolled, attending and completing primary education from 2% in 2000 to 30% by 2010 (this has not been disaggregated to the various specific types of vulnerability) (MoEC 2005a)

Girls and women

5.6 MKUKUTA Cluster II sets operational targets for improvements in the period 2004 to 99% in 2010, including for early childhood education, primary and secondary and higher enrolment; greater achievement as measured by national examinations, provision of qualified teachers, and adult and non-formal education. However, in only one of these areas, that of adult education is the target disaggregated by gender (MoEC 2006c). There is no specific gender strategy for education, and this gap was identified in both the ESR 2006 and the Draft Ten Year Plan for the Education Sector (2006-2015), which identified as a cross cutting issue the challenge of “Developing a gender strategy for education and helping girls to fulfil their potential and perform equally with boys at all levels” (MoEC 2006c) In itself this is not an adequate target
when viewed against the needs of women and girls at all levels; it needs to be expanded to capture the full range of inequitable arrangements and situations in which females find themselves within the education system.

**Rural areas including nomadic populations**

5.7 Poverty in Tanzania is primarily a rural phenomenon where the vast majority of households exist at a subsistence level. Some areas have very low population densities of 12 per sq km, creating special difficulty in making adequate education provision and accessing it. A study of nomadic education in Tanzania (Mwegio and Mlekwa 2003) estimated the nomadic population at 6 million, representing about 15% of the population, and nearly 1 million of those aged 7-13. For impoverished households the non-monetary opportunity costs of sending their children to school are often a decisive factor: distance from school is an additional constraint. While Tanzanian parents are responding to the mix of encouragement and coercion at local level by sending children to primary school, it remains difficult to sustain this investment over time, as children get older. Therefore progress up through the grades carries ongoing costs and often results either in drop-out or an inability to take up even those opportunities which are available.

5.8 ESDP had as one of its main objectives, ‘To provide teacher housing as a deployment incentive, with priority given to female teachers in remote and rural areas.’ The MoEC PEDP report ‘Strengthening Institutional Arrangements’ (2001) stresses the need for extensive capacity building measures and the use of incentives for specific purposes, including for those working in remote rural areas. (sit an) However, there are no effective strategies for attracting teachers to teach in remote and difficult rural areas, where the working and living conditions for teachers are very poor; this in turn affects the availability and quality of basic education in such areas (MoEC 2005b) The strategy used to fill rural posts has been to send trainees to these areas for their in-school training year, hoping that they will stay. This results in the trainees being put in the schools with the fewest resources for supporting them leading to teachers with poor professional development and potentially could lead to many teachers dropping out of the profession. In 2003 the President’s Office approved the recruitment of 11,651 teachers but only 9,711 (83%) new teachers reported to their workstations (URT 2004a). In some regions 20% of trainees absconded from their placements (MoEC 2005b) Additionally, this trend could result in rural schools becoming largely staffed by inexperienced trainees with a high turnover, thus reducing quality of education in these schools and increasing the quality divide between rural and urban schools.

5.9 There is no specific policy on nomadic education in Tanzania; several NGOs have been involved with pastoralists over recent years, and experimented with mobile schools and other non-formal alternatives (MoEC 2005b).

**Children with disabilities**

5.10 The 2002 census identified about 138,000 children with different kinds of disabilities, about half of whom were physically disabled. Under its Policy for Disabilities (MLYDS, 2004), the government aims to provide services to people with disabilities, integration of people with disabilities into the community, and their
involvement in decision-making. The draft policy pays special attention to women, children and older persons with disabilities, and recognizes the following categories of disabilities: physically handicapped, visually handicapped, hearing handicapped, mentally handicapped, multiply handicapped, albinos, and ‘others’.

Children who work

5.11 It is estimated that up to 400,000 children aged below 15 years are out-of-school and engaged in commercial agriculture, mining, domestic services and the informal sector (ILO, 2001a, quoted MoEC 2005b). According to UNHCR data, there are about 160,000 refugees between the ages of 5 and 17 in various camps in the country. Although the Tanzanian Government has welcomed refugees, their education is the responsibility of the UNHCR, and there is no attempt to integrate them into the mainstream.

5.12 The new capitation formula managed at District level is based on the numbers of school age children in the area, not on the numbers in school. This system is transparent and relatively straightforward to operate, but offers no incentive to District officials to recruit and retain those who are out of school.

Urban slums and street children

5.13 In the past decade several studies, mostly qualitative, have been done about children living on the street in Tanzania. Most of these are qualitative studies, with an analysis of the situation of the children rather than quantitative analysis of their numbers and age distribution. Various estimates of their number give figures as high as 12 000 (MoEC 2005b). Some research has argued that within the context of national levels of poverty, cost-sharing in health and education sectors, and the AIDS pandemic, poor families in Tanzania are under considerable pressure, and increasing numbers of girls and boys are consequently seeking a living independently on the streets of towns and cities. Also that some children orphaned by AIDS are subject to rejection and exploitation by the extended family after the death of their parent(s); and are exposed to considerable risks of abuse, sexual violence and HIV within the street environment (Evans 2002).

Children, youth and adults affected by HIV/AIDS, including orphaned children

5.14 In Tanzania HIV/AIDS has been declared a national disaster, but the study concluded that “it appears that there is much talking, but as of yet little action in the fight against HIV/AIDS” (Kauzeni 2004). An important research project on the impact of HIV/AIDS in the education sector was conducted in 2002-2003 as a collaborative venture between MoEC and the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP). The study found gaps relating to policy, leadership and advocacy were found at all levels and proposed measures to deal with them.

5.15 Subsequently, the Draft Ten Year Plan for the Education Sector 2006-2015 noted that MAKUKUTA Cluster II had as an operational target for “Effective HIV/AIDS education and lifeskills programmes offered in all primary, secondary schools and teachers colleges”. It also accepted the challenge identified by the 2006 ESR of “assessing and addressing the impact of HIV and AIDS…(deaths of teachers and
pupils: and absenteeism due to illness)….ensuring that education plays a role in addressing HIV and AIDS”. The plan also stressed the inadequate capacity of existing education system to address cross cutting issues: HIV and AIDS and adopted it as one of seven priority areas.

5.16 In Tanzania, with high rates of poverty as well as HIV/AIDS, the term Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) may not be very useful as it includes nearly all children. However, orphans do have additional financial vulnerability, and may find that the financial burden on those who care from them may prevent their engagement in education, they have little support or encouragement from adults, and may find working more attractive than schooling.

5.17 In 2003 it was estimated that there were some 2 110 000 orphans in the country, but there are no national level studies or special programmes for orphans in Tanzania, although there are projects organised by the Department of Social Welfare and supported by UNICEF in various districts. (NACP Surveillance Report No 18, 2004 in MoEC 2005b)

Youth and adults who are not literate

5.18 Most recent statistics on literacy rates in Tanzania show that 28.6 % of adults are illiterate and three million young people are not in school, despite the significant achievements in basic education. A greater proportion of both the poor and non-poor living in the urban areas are literate compared to those in the rural areas, because they are more likely to have access to literacy learning facilities and opportunities.

5.19 The government expects that illiteracy will be eliminated by 2010 (MoEC 2005a) The government target is to enrol 365,963, including 125,683 girls, out-of-school children in COBET (Complementary Basic Education Programmes). ICBAE (Integrated Community Basic and Adult Education) will target orphaned children; child labourers; school dropouts; street children; and illiterate youth and adults. The main challenges faced by these efforts include: inadequate quality of the provision; lack of coordination; limited data on enrolment; participation and performance; and inadequate teaching and learning resources.

5.20 While the various groups identified above probably constitute the majority of those who are missing formal schooling and who need to be provided for. However, the statistical information is not always sufficiently reliable, as for example in the case of children brought to school and registered but not enrolled. Also, figures for out of school children and deprived families has often been based on estimates, leaving considerable potential scope for error.

5.21 While Tanzania has achieved a very commendable level in expanding primary education to a very high percentage of the target population, it is clear that the task of capturing the last few percent will not be straightforward. People in remote areas, with nomadic lifestyles; families and children who live on the street and who are outside the normal social networks; and children with severe disabilities, will need special measures if they are to receive an adequate and education appropriate to their needs. These will need to include flexible systems of education, including for example, mobile schools, education by open and distance approaches, and some
expansion of boarding facilities and also incentives for teachers to work in difficult and remote environments. Such provision is liable to prove costly and apparently uneconomic, but this needs to be accepted as a necessary input to the achievement of the MDG.

Impact, sustainability and cost-effectiveness

5.22 The greatest impact on equity is the achievement of almost equal rates of enrolment in primary of girls and boys. The near-achievement of full primary enrolment overall also means that very large numbers of rural, poor children are now attending in response to the launch of free primary education. As these children progress through the system, and are hopefully retained within it, demands for both physical (classrooms, teaching and learning materials) and human resources (teachers, other educational professionals and support workers) will increase.

5.23 The general success of the government’s efforts to achieve full access to primary education has taken considerable pressure off delivery systems for children of school age who are not attending. However, there is still a need to provide compensatory education to large numbers of young people who have either not enrolled or who have dropped out before completion of the full cycle. A genuine effort to meet their needs will require considerable investment of human effort and financial resources.

5.24 As enrolment tends towards universality at primary level, greater effort will be required to access the hard to reach minority. More carefully targeted schemes will be needed to bring into the education system those on the margins who for various reasons, extreme poverty, remoteness, lifestyle, would find it very difficult to enrol in a formal school. At education levels beyond primary, the challenge is to encourage participation of girls in greater proportions right up through the system to Higher and Tertiary levels. This may require measures such as financial and other incentives, preferentially lower academic requirements, and additional support form mentors and tutors.

5.25 The government has set a very ambitious target in terms of eliminating illiteracy by 2010, and this too will require very considerable effort. To achieve the target ratio of tutors to students in COBET and ICBAE, at least 13 000 additional tutors need to be recruited and trained. This has cost implications in terms of the training and also the recurring salary costs.

5.26 To sustain literacy there needs to be availability of a wide range of reading material ranging from newspapers and other ephemeral material to booklets, books and pamphlets on practical subjects which would be read for information, and others which would be for pleasure. If such material is not available in an affordable and accessible way, then there is a significant danger that many would sink back into illiteracy again, representing a high potential waste of resources and human capital.

6. POLICIES AND STRATEGIES ON QUALITY

6.1 Tanzania has implemented several major policies which have a bearing on quality. Firstly, there has been a major increase in enrolment following the announcement of free primary education in 2003, leading to an increase in the numbers of teachers
required and for all other resources. Teacher recruitment and professional
development have not kept pace with the expansion in the system at either primary or
secondary levels. In primary the PTR has worsened from 1:46 in 2001 to 1:51 in
2005, rather than the target ratio of 1:45. Accepting that this average has a
component from small classes in rural and thinly populated areas, and in upper grades
due to drop out, the consequence is that many classes especially at the lower grades in
well populated districts have very many more children than the average, militating
against high quality teaching and learning. While the policy for book provision in
primary is 1:1 for all subjects it has not proved possible to meet this target. As noted
above, leakage of financial resources for textbooks and other materials in the transfer
of funds between centre and schools has undermined schools capacity to provide
sufficient texts; also, the need for a full new suite of texts for the new curriculum in
2006 has created a bulge in demand or new books. A further challenge is the level of
repetition, while drop out often represents a failure to provide a worthwhile
educational experience for those learners who leave the system too early.

6.2 The second major challenge which the system has embraced is the move to a very
different type of pedagogy from 2005 onwards (for secondary) and 2006 (for primary)
from that which has traditionally been operated. This necessitates serious financial
and human commitment to the retraining and support of teachers, headteachers and
other education professionals to ensure that they have the necessary competence and
confidence. In turn these inputs have to be matched by concomitant changes in the
organisation and style of the national examination. While the new curriculum
represents a very positive step, the necessary improvements in quality can only occur
if there is synergy between all the key dimensions of the system - sufficient numbers
of well qualified and supported and supervised teachers, in adequate classrooms, with
appropriate teaching and learning materials of sufficient quantity and quality, and a
sound curriculum, pedagogy and assessment regime.

Learning inputs

School and classroom construction

6.3 The 2003 introduction of free education at primary level had to be matched by the
construction of additional classrooms and an aggressive rehabilitation programme,
resulting in a large increase in the use of development expenditures. Very many
schools are in poor condition, with inadequate sanitation facilities. In the current
programme, much of the financial resources are allocated to rehabilitation and
expansion of school infrastructure, while major construction will only be undertaken
in critical shortage areas and after considering school distribution (MoEC 2005a).

6.4 The plans for expansion of the secondary phase are also making major demands
on funds. Under SEDP, communities are expected to contribute towards secondary
school development and management through participation in various construction
works, while Government will provide one quarter of the capital costs, and support
expansion and major rehabilitation. However, community participation in the
construction of secondary school buildings and classrooms has been very low, and
below expectations, compared to primary school construction, possibly because there
is a lack of sufficient mobilization within the community, and lack of sensitisation on
the part of regional, district and ward level authorities and stakeholders (MoEC 2005b).

Learning materials

6.5 Considerable efforts have been made to provide textbooks to schools and the pupil-to-book ratio has improved. Government has committed a US$10 per capita allocation per child under PEDP; textbooks and other school materials account for a big share of this capitation grant (MoEC 2005a). However, the ESR 2006 reported inadequate teaching and learning materials and equipment at all levels and identified as a priority the procurement of appropriate teaching and learning materials at all levels including relevant textbooks, reference and supplementary books. Primary education enrolment is projected to increase from 7.5 million pupils in 2005 to about 8 million pupils by 2009, implying additional spending on primary capitation grants for books and materials. However, the actual full capitation grant target has never been reached due to budgetary constraints. If the target book per pupil of 1:1 is to be reached, along with other quality inputs, additional financial resources will need to be mobilised. A new problem with availability of books arose in 2006 when the curriculum changed from a content-orientation to being competency-based. This has required the creation and publication of a full range of new books in the primary phase.

6.6 At the secondary level, one target of the Secondary Education Master Plan SEMP was the establishment of a sustainable instructional materials system with a target of one book per student per subject by 2005 and the SEDP has sought to create a sustainable system for ensuring good quality teaching and learning materials in secondary schools. Under a strengthened Education Material Approval Committee (EMAC) the policy on open private sector textbook publishing has continued, and schools made responsible for the purchase of teaching/learning materials. The Government planned to introduce ring-fenced capitation grants for non-salary recurrent costs to be disbursed to schools for use within agreed criteria. The intention is to create sustained textbook demand which will stimulate a market and supply response by private publishers. Eligible non-government schools will receive half of the capitation grant for textbooks. There is a phased, time-bounded targeted approach to quality improvements, including the design of the curriculum, textbooks and other materials and the examination system, with an annotated list prepared by 2006, and textbooks by subject provided at a student-book ratio of 1:1 by 2009.

Adult and non-formal education

6.7 Government adopted the ambitious target of reducing the number of illiterate people from 3.8 million to 1.5 million by 2007/8; assisted by expansion of secondary which has absorbed many who would otherwise have been in the COBET system. There are also plans to provide a large scale course by Open and Distance Learning (ODL) to provide a parallel secondary Form I-IV for those outside the formal system.

6.8 Improvements of quality in all aspects of adult and non-formal education have been called for by many reviews; such improvements will depend on commitment of energy, finance, human resources. Training is needed for many more facilitators and tutors to provide for more than a million who enrolled in COBET and ICBAE.
programmes; financial allocations are needed on a regular and predictable basis to Districts to enable them to pay the facilitators. In addition to the Adult Education Diploma course run since 1969, new courses for an Advanced Diploma and a Certificate were planned to start from 2005 and 2006 respectively.

**Approaches to learning in school**

**Curriculum**

6.9 Major changes have taken place to the curriculum for both primary (from 2006) and secondary (from 2005) cycles. The curriculum change in primary is one of the most significant to face the system since the introduction of free primary education, and the demands it places on the system should not be underestimated. The government vision is that “Education should be treated as a strategic agent for mind set transformation and for the creation of a well educated nation, sufficiently equipped with the knowledge needed to competently and competitively solve the development challenges which face the nation. In this light, the education system should on promoting creativity and problem solving” (MoEC 2001b). The new approach shifts the orientation of the content largely, but not exclusively, away from the rote memorisation of factual knowledge to a competence based learning, which focuses much more on the understanding of concepts, and the acquisition of skills and competences. This calls for a very different approach to teaching, learning and assessment. This is based on the reality that now that there is education for all, the reality is that there is the widest possible range of ability and aptitude within any one class, calling for a differentiated approach to the setting of learning and assessment tasks. This latter is especially important when the move towards inclusivity for pupils suffering from various types of disadvantage and disability.

6.10 This new approach is very demanding of teachers, who need to have considerable skill to match the curriculum to the learners, and thus it will require significant modification to the curriculum of the Teacher Training Colleges and also calls for intensive, widespread in-service training for all those already teaching. It will also require a whole new suite of textbooks and other learning materials well attuned to the approach and content of the new curriculum. Major adjustment is also necessary both in school based assessment and in the design of the national examination, the PSLE. It is crucial that by its content and style the national examination reinforces the new classroom approach to the curriculum. If it is not realigned to the objectives of the new curriculum it will impede confuse teachers and impede them in their efforts to come to terms with the new requirements.

6.11 The new secondary curriculum represents both a streamlining in terms of reducing the subject load to a manageable amount, and to move towards a more participatory teaching and learning process.

6.12 As for primary, this will demand a major in-service training programme for teachers to help them to reorient themselves to the new requirements, not only in terms of subject content, but more particularly to a style of teaching and learning with which they are unfamiliar, have never experienced themselves, and which is very different from what they were trained to do previously.
6.13 In both primary and secondary cycles it is essential that head teachers, advisory and supervisory staff are full conversant with the rationale for the new approaches so that they can support and encourage the teachers in their delivery.

Assessment:

6.14 The role of assessment is crucial to the improvement and measurement of quality, but it was overlooked in some of the key documents, implying that this dimension was not featuring with sufficient prominence in the discourse about the challenges and priorities in the system. While the need for a new curriculum and pedagogy has been identified and acted upon, the related assessment aspects appear to have received little attention. There was however recognition that there needed to be communication between the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) and the National Examinations Council of Tanzania (NECTA) to resolve the issues connected to the question of changing the PSLE. It is of paramount importance that NECTA ensures that the PSLE corresponds to the changes in the form of the curriculum and the way the curriculum is delivered (MoEC 2005b).

6.15 In its current form PLSE is an unsuitable vehicle for the examination of candidates who have been educated in a competency based curriculum. Very different forms of assessment are required to test skill and competence, as compared to the traditional testing of factual knowledge. This challenge is complicated by the fact that if retention is improved, quite soon a full range of pupil ability will be represented in the final year of primary school and will be need to have an examination which is capable of measuring the abilities of that full range. Such an assessment is much more complex and subtle than the traditional system. School based assessment may need to contribute a component of the eventual examination result, requiring significant changes to the classroom situation. The ESR Aide Memoire Workplan (2006) identified this as a priority, requiring that the sector “Assess the current examination system with a view to reflecting current curricular reforms and promoting a learner-centred approach”. This will require a more fundamental and urgent overhaul than what is implied here.

6.16 Assessment at secondary level will also require significant modification to reflect the competency based curriculum.

Governance and quality assurance

6.17 School Management Committees have a growing role; some have worked well, particularly when supported by NGOs. A small scale study (Hape, 2005) has found that, at least in some schools, many communities have very little knowledge about their planning, financing and academic roles at schools, although they were fully aware of their role in constructing school buildings; also that there was no strategy for making filling this deficit. The organisational structure of MoSTHE has been revised so as to focus more clearly on policy-making, regulating, approving and monitoring standards, and general monitoring. The quality assurance and accreditation process of tertiary, technical, and higher education institutions through NACTE and HEAC is already in place.

Teachers
6.18 A number of Government documents, including ESDP (2001), TEMP (2001), and SEDP (1995), have identified teacher training as a priority and indicated steps that were required to provide for a well educated, professional and skills teaching force. However, to date much of the required interventions have not taken place (MoEC 2005b). Infrastructure of teacher training colleges is quite good, allowing for some to be readily upgraded to university colleges of education, but in general pre-service has been uncoordinated, underfunded and poorly staffed. Many Teachers Resource Centres (TRC) have been established to provide inservice training, mentoring and peer support, but they are not well used. Upgrading of teachers tends to be on an ‘ad hoc’ basis and is often used by teachers as a device to help them to move upwards within the system or out of it altogether.

6.19 Nationally the number of teachers has increased from 107,111 to 135,318, a 26.3% increase; however, the proportion of less well qualified teachers has risen. Nationally, the proportion of female teachers had increased slightly from 45% to 47%. The focus, while implementing the PEDP, has been on better conditions at school level and not so much on content or pedagogic capacities of the teacher. This was commented on in the PEDP Reviews of 2003 and 2004: and by others, e.g. ‘The teaching and learning process needs to be transformed to become participatory, interactive, gender-sensitive, child-focused in safe and supportive school environments’ (HakiElimu, 2005, p.19).

6.20 There is now an urgent need to revitalise the entire teacher training sub-sector, to enable teachers to operate in the new curriculum environment at primary and secondary levels. There needs to be: a holistic programme for teacher education and development; establishment of a teacher accreditation system to ensure equivalence of standards and qualifications; account taken of the inclusion in the education system of a full range of learners, including those with special needs and traditional lifestyles; and carefully designed experiments in teacher education and training (MoEC 2005b).

6.21 Government has accepted the need to boost the competence of teachers, and the PER estimated that pre-service training would require a doubling of funds between 2005/6 and 2008/9. Other required measures included; retaining and motivating competent teachers in (public) schools, rural and A-Level; upgrading the skills of untrained and under-qualified teachers’ at all levels (especially in languages, mathematics, vocational and sciences) and ensuring appropriate support; helping new teachers by fitting their (in-service) training to new curriculum demands, and by improved supervision and mentoring during teaching practice and probation; and optimising the use of well-established TRCs (MoEC 2006a).

6.22 The Situational Analysis (2005) recommended that there should be: urgent collaboration between all concerned stakeholders in teacher education and development to develop a holistic programme for teacher education and development, to be implemented by various agencies and institutions; a teacher education accreditation system/body to ensure that all the institutions offering teacher education programmes produce teachers of equivalent qualities and qualifications; training programmes in teacher education should include consideration of those with special
needs, traditional and nomadic groups; experiments in Teacher Education, e.g. 1 year in college followed by a 1-year in-school induction programme, to be preceded by sufficient preparations to ensure feasibility and effective implementation; improvement of teaching and learning conditions of teachers as well as remuneration packages as a topmost priority, in order to elicit their commitment to their job as they strive towards attainment of high quality education, with salaries to be differentiated, taking into account years of service and performance; curricula review in schools should be done collaboratively with implementers so as to ensure that teachers, managers and supervisors are prepared to implement it.

Teacher supply and deployment

6.23 There has been an impressive improvement in teacher supply (MoEC 2006a). In the period between 1999 and 2005 there was a three-fold increase in the number of trainees at TTCs, (PER) from 8,252 to 24,015, with almost equal numbers of women and men in the latter. However, while official figures for 2005 indicated a shortage of only 852 teachers for the primary phase, but the primary system phase had a PTR of 1:56. At the target PTR of 1:45, there is an apparent shortage of around 33,800 teachers.

6.24 One of the main causes for teacher attrition is death: in the year 2001/2002 there were 1,046 deaths of teachers, with 517 deaths for the first half of 2002/2003. At the end of 2001 there were 14,449 cumulative AIDS cases. Most cases fall within the 20-49 age group, with the highest number of reported cases in the 25-34 and 30-39 age groups for females and males respectively (Kauzeni 2004). If it is assumed that the attrition rate of 2.2% per annum included death due to HIV/AIDS, it will result in an annual attrition of about 3,200 in 2004 (MoEC 2005a).

6.25 The ESR 2006 identified a need at secondary level to address the acute shortage of teachers at diploma and graduate teachers for ordinary and advanced level teaching. The improvement of living and working conditions, including housing and other incentives, were also stressed as an encouragement to teachers to take up posts in disadvantaged or remote areas (MoEC 2006c).

7. POLICY CONCLUSIONS

7.1 The education system of Tanzania has made commendable progress in the period since 2000, especially in the introduction of free primary education, in steps taken to broaden access to secondary, and in the introduction of competence based curricula at primary and secondary levels. However, there are still challenges to improve system performance in terms of inclusion, repetition and completion at primary level, and to expand opportunity at secondary from the previously very low base. The relatively small proportion of children who are still out of school will require special measures (mobile schools, incentives for teachers to work in remote areas, specialised schools for severely disabled children) which are likely to be more costly than straightforward formal schooling.

7.2 Recent reviews show that the rate of transition to secondary schools remains the lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa, despite the growth of private secondary schools (MoEC 2004 quoted in MoEC 2005b). It will be necessary to find additional ways to expand
the secondary sub-sector and to restrain costs, including through more efficient use of teachers, and possibly by slimming down the number of subjects and their curriculum requirements. Additional opportunities to expand the system can be taken at many levels through well designed and managed Open and Distance Learning (ODL).

7.3 Pre-service and in-service training have lacked the necessary coherence with each other and with the demands of changes in the system, especially of curriculum and pedagogy. The curriculum changes necessitate a sustained, well-structured and designed, system wide programme of training for head teachers, teachers, local officials, including advisers and inspectors.

7.4 Much of the provision for the range of measures and interventions introduced over the last few years have been uncoordinated and unsynchronised. Shared responsibilities across Ministries and other agencies require that sub-sectors need to be well coordinated to optimise linkages and reduce overlaps. It is essential that the reforms in the curriculum at primary and secondary levels are reinforced by the concomitant changes to the examination system. Commitment to a sector wide approach needs to be accompanied by careful attention to securing coherence and synergy across sub-sectoral elements.

7.5 Given the strong pro-poor commitments of MKUKUTA, particular attention needs to be paid to equity.

7.6 There needs to be a comprehensive policy and a supportive institutional and legal framework for Early Childhood Care and Development, backed by clarification on supervision and coordination of the sub-sector.

7.7 A number of systemic changes are at a critical stage, including decentralisation, public service reform, strengthening of financial management and mainstreaming of ongoing project and programmes. These need to be pursued vigorously and implemented fully. A prioritised strategy for capacity building is required for these and all other major dimensions.

7.8 The attention given to development of a Performance Assessment Framework should be maintained in order to design and implement an effective monitoring and evaluation system for the sector.
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