



Tanzania Human Development Report

*The State of Progress in Human
Resource Development*

1999

February 2000

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. THE STATE OF AND CONTEXT FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

In 1999, the world's population surpassed six billion people. At the current growth rate, the global workforce will increase from three to almost 4.5 billion people by 2050, over 90% of them will live in developing countries and most of them are likely to have few or no skills. In the world's 50 poorest nations, the workforce will explode by about 235% over the next 50 years. In Tanzania, which in 1999 ranked 156 out of 174 countries in the Human Development Index (HDI), 53% of the population is below the age of 18, an estimated 600-650,000 job seekers entered the labour market in 1998 while only 33,000 wage sector jobs were created. Even with a sustained growth rate well-above current projections, Tanzania will be able to create wage sector jobs for only a tiny fraction of the labour force. Just to *maintain* the current high unemployment rate, it is estimated that Tanzania's economy must grow by 7% per annum. The focus, therefore, must be on developing the capacities of the great majority of Tanzania's people who are self-employed in agriculture, agro-processing and other rural industries, micro and small enterprises and petty trading in the urban informal sector. In Tanzania:

- 51% of the population live on less than \$1 a day;
- About half or 42% of these live in absolute poverty on less than \$0.75 cents a day;
- 81% of the labour force is rural;

- the majority of the urban workforce is underemployed and minimally skilled.

Box 1

Impact of Human Resource Development Failures on Youth

"Drug peddling and related crimes are on the rise ... with the proportion of women being higher now than ever."... The Director of Criminal Investigation said that a 20% increase in these crimes was recorded with most of those arrested being unemployed youths. "Our investigators have established that the boys use certain slogans to justify [their behaviour] and "call themselves survivors," he said. [By this]... "the boys meant it was their right to be drug peddlers alleging that they had been forgotten by society...this vice has unfortunately been taken as a substitute for job opportunities." [Daily Mail, September 10, 1999]

Although much progress has been made since independence, about one-third of Tanzania's children do not attend primary school, 95% do not attend secondary school (compared to 78% in Kenya) and there are only about 10,500 students (1% of the cohort) enrolled in the country's three universities for a national population of about 33 million. While there is a formal vocational training system, the number of graduates is small and many do not find jobs after graduation due to the structure of the economy and weaknesses in the vocational training system.

In reaction to this unacceptable state of affairs, government and donors are working diligently to develop master plans for primary, secondary, teacher and tertiary education. Public expenditure reviews regularly assess the ratio of public spending in the social sector and attempt to increase the resources available for education. For many years donors have worked to help

Tanzania reform its vocational training system. Despite this, educational performance statistics remain alarming, educational infrastructure in most parts of the country remains very substandard and progress has been frustrated by a wide range of issues that are examined in the main body of this report.

Government and donors assist the majority of youth who never attend or who leave school at the primary level through the National Poverty Eradication Strategy, through programmes for agricultural development, through technical assistance to micro-entrepreneurs, and through the COBET programme of education for school leavers, etc. While many programmes are well-designed and carefully monitored, there is no integrated Tanzanian strategy for human capacity development that considers a) how future generations of Tanzanians are to be educated in the broadest sense of equipping them with relevant and adequate knowledge and skills to assure sustainable livelihoods in the long term, b) how, specifically, the formal education system needs to work and interact with these other initiatives to achieve greater synergy and impact on the lives of its pupils and c) what strategy Tanzania would advocate for the optimal use of donor funds to raise the nation's relative overall position in the HDI.

This report focuses on human development as both the goal and the engine of economic growth because 40 to 60 per cent of growth rates in per capita GDP can be attributed to investments in human capital¹ and the increased productivity that results. Sustainable development cannot occur in the absence of human resource

¹World Bank. *Tanzania Social Sector Review* (Washington, DC: 1999), p. 39.

development. Ultimately, people with skills can generate incomes and wealth more effectively, efficiently and creatively than those without skills and will have fuller lives. This is the key to boosting the HDI and creating the jobs and incomes needed by the workforce of the new century.

Some key questions to consider with this in mind in the Tanzanian context include:

- to what extent does the primary school curriculum equip pupils with useable life skills if they only attend for 3-6 years? Are there sustainable ways to increase the utility of formal education for those who do not continue without jeopardising the needed improvements in education for those who do?
- how, in terms of specific actions, can secondary and vocational schools do a better job of reducing the number of students who leave and who graduate but still end up with poor income generation prospects?
- is the COBET programme, which expects to reach just 20% of the current 2.25 million out-of-school and unschooled youth within five years, adequate given the continued increase in this population group? What other bridges to the world of work can be created for youth by using existing education and training systems and linking them more effectively? Could COBET be expanded more rapidly with the use of new social sector funds expected to become available through the Multi-lateral Debt Fund (MDF)?
- is “success” in educational achievement culturally defined as being accepted into academic secondary schools, thereby

defining 95% of pupils as “failures” by default? Even if Tanzania is able to reach Kenya’s level of a 22% secondary school admission rate in several years, the majority of pupils still risk seeing themselves as “failures” if there are too few viable alternatives that can build human capacity and lead to income generation. Box 1 poignantly indicates the consequences in terms of the thinking of some youths. How can the psychology and reality of this type of thinking and its consequences be altered?

- is vocational education too often seen as a less desirable alternative to secondary school that is undertaken reluctantly by disappointed primary school leavers? How can this be changed?
- should the process of managing the education sector in government be made more inclusive? The ESDP Steering Committee is comprised exclusively of those responsible for the formal education sector. Are the proposed cross-cutting Technical Working Groups being established by the Steering Committee conceived broadly enough to address the questions posed above or should these Groups invite experts from outside the education sector to participate in a broader discussion of human capacity building and the role of the formal education sector therein?
- does the proportion or absolute amount of resources spent on formal education (current, projected and ideal as defined by government and donors) reflect the felt need for formal education in the hierarchy of priorities established by Tanzania’s people? If not, should they? To what extent should government -

with better educated officials who know the economic benefits to families of even one additional year of schooling² - determine resource allocations and to what extent should government be guided by the felt needs of villagers³?

- could Tanzania benefit from a National Human Development Audit where current and planned development initiatives in *all* sectors are reviewed for their impact on human development and analysed to see if modifications in objectives, methodologies, management styles etc. could increase the learning impact and skill outputs?
- will the opportunity to effectively infuse new resources into the education sector through the MDF be lost because of poor resource management and an inability to translate a now sound policy framework into concrete achievements?
- how can results-oriented management and dynamic and creative “governance” of the formal and vocational education sectors be promoted to ensure the optimal and sustained impact of MDF funds?

These are just some of the underlying questions that readers of the Tanzania Human Development Report (HDR) might ponder when reviewing the current state of human development in the country, the

² Ferreira, M Luisa, and Charles C. Griffin. *Tanzania Human Resources Development Survey: Final Report* (Washington, DC: The World Bank, 1995).

³ For example, the 1997 World Bank-funded Participatory Poverty Assessment for Tanzania asked villagers for their view of the causes of poverty in their lives. A remarkable 47% stated that their inability to farm productively was the major cause, followed by 15% who cited poor health services and just 6% who cited poor educational opportunities.

context in which it must be improved and the tools available to accomplish this.

Box 2: Primary Education is in Crisis

In a February 1998 survey of nine primary schools in Dar es Salaam, the Daily Mail newspaper found that there was "an average of 100 pupils per class... most of them sitting on the floor; 21 pupils had to share one desk" and the learning environment was so poor that "over 5100 pupils sat for the Standard VII primary school examination but during the past three years only 353 passed." [Daily Mail, February 9, 1998]

This Human Development Report focuses on human resource development (HRD). How this concept is understood, how that understanding is translated into policy and how that policy is implemented will determine Tanzania's future. Not just its future educational profile, but its future as a stable, peaceful, just and democratic society.

Through the collapse of social and political systems in many poor countries can be attributed to ethnic tensions, political rivalries and egregious colonial legacies, the fundamental cause in most instances has been the failure to provide the majority of citizens with even a modicum of hope that their lives will improve, that intense and pervasive poverty can be lifted, that opportunities to learn bankable skills can and will be made available for children eager for a better tomorrow, and that government is a just and honest steward. Building human capacity, therefore, should be seen as the foundation of nation's future.

There are several favourable elements of the human development context in Tanzania on which that future can be built:

A FAVOURABLE NATURAL ENDOWMENT AND POPULATION SIZE

- despite a rapidly growing population, Tanzania is exactly 2.5 times larger in size than Japan but, with a population of around 33 million in 2000, has only 26% of Japan's population.
- Tanzania has more than three times as much cropland per capita as Japan, a higher percentage of the country is arable and there are few earthquakes and no winters.
- Tanzania's birth rate is projected to decline from 3.1% from 1975-1997 to 2.3% from 1997-2015 so by that date the population will have reached about 47 million compared to 126 million in Japan today.
- Tanzania has immense renewable natural wealth that, if properly managed, could transform the country economically.
- Countries can progress and reduce the gap between themselves and more developed countries through more rapid economic growth and HRD. As noted in the Tanzania Social Sector Review, a six year old Tanzanian child today could, upon retirement at age 56, live in an upper middle income country with a per capita GDP of US\$5,891 if growth could be sustained at 7% per annum.

A GOVERNMENT COMMITTED TO THE CONTINUED IMPLEMENTATION OF STRONG MACROECONOMIC POLICIES AND STRUCTURAL REFORMS

- The historical context for development is favourable, since there seems to be a strong consensus both within government and the general public for economic liberalisation, free markets and improving the country's competitiveness. Despite some setbacks, economic growth has been increasing and inflation is finally coming under control (the rate for September 1999 eased to 7.3% from 12.1% a year earlier).

Tanzania's inflation rate is at its lowest point in over 20 years and is projected to decline further as a result of effective government management of the economy.

- With economic realism now widespread, many Tanzanians have come to understand that they must use market-based systems to generate the wealth needed to assure greater equity, less poverty and a more secure future.

A GOVERNMENT COMMITTED TO POVERTY REDUCTION AND HUMAN CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT

Tanzania is seeking to implement its National Poverty Eradication Strategy. Shifts in public spending reflect these efforts and key donors have made the fight against poverty and for human development the keystone of their development efforts.

A GOVERNMENT THAT IS COMMITTED TO DEMOCRACY AND THE RULE OF LAW

Tanzania has a legitimate, democratically elected government that promotes participation by civil society as a partner in the human development process. This, plus

greater predictability within a legal framework rooted in constitutional principles, provides a more solid foundation for human development than in the past.

2. THE TOOLS FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Public Expenditures

Social sector achievements of the 1960s and 1970s were seriously eroded because recurrent costs proved to be unsustainable. This remains a major risk today, due to the lack of integration of the development and recurrent budgets. Sector budgets are too often drawn up without reference to resource limitations, ministries do not know if committed funds will actually be disbursed, diversions of allocated resources are frequent and the majority of audits conducted on sector ministries and district governments receive adverse and qualified rulings by auditors.

In the education sector, funding for primary education has increased only slightly, funding for secondary education remain low at just 7% and university training remains more expensive than most African universities. Donors are being asked to support a sector approach to development and to contribute to the government's education budget, rather than provide project assistance. Many donors have been slow to respond, largely because of a lack of confidence in government accounting and financial management.

The positive aspect of public expenditures is that the Public Expenditure Review (PER), the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) and other management tools are yielding more fiscal discipline and this can affect education in a positive

manner, by improving the efficiency of the use of public financial resources.

The substantial new resources being made available through the MDF window make the sustained use of these expenditure planning and management tools even more imperative.

2.2 Donor Resources

Donors have developed long-term partnerships with government and are working to sustain the new financial management tools and promote their internalisation. While there are long standing differences between government and donors regarding aid administration and co-ordination, new venues for dialogue and debt relief have improved the relationship.

The amount of donor resources used for human development is hard to calculate since activities in many sectors contribute to this goal. However, there has been a sustained interest in the social sector, especially education, by key donors. These resources are critical if government is to achieve the enrolment targets and quality improvements envisaged. Without effective national leadership and improved governance of the social sectors, however, new resources alone will not be sufficient to achieve government objectives.

2.3 The Formal Education Sector

The sector has produced numerous policy statements, master plans, strategies, action plans and studies. Basic statistics on enrolments, teachers, physical infrastructure and costs are available and an ambitious school mapping programme funded by UNICEF is providing the kind of micro-data that is needed for effective planning and resource allocation at the local level.

The sector also has some innovative ideas (e.g., the COBET programme, bursaries for girls, restructuring of the universities) but all of these confront what is perhaps the greatest constraint on the sector - weak human capacity for governance at both the ministerial level and in the regions, districts and villages. Devolution of authority to promote local "ownership" of education is a key goal, but it will also face these limitations.

2.4 Vocational Education and Training

Vocational education has enormous potential in Tanzania and the need is overwhelming. The Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA), the national body responsible for the sector, has lost much of the past three years due to serious governance problems and ill-advised funding priorities. VETA has been unable so far to become the demand-driven service provider that is expected of it. The training levy paid by private employers is the main source of VETA's budget but, as has been recognised, the returns have been low. Unless the organisational performance of VETA can be altered and its budget priorities transformed, the government should consider exploring alternatives to maintaining VETA's monopoly on access to the training levy funds and perhaps examine the feasibility of allowing other training providers to compete directly with VETA for these funds.

Most vocational training is provided by NGOs, private firms and religious groups. These entities need more support, recognition and links to other education and training providers to ensure optimal co-ordination and opportunities for synergy. Informal trainers - urban and rural apprentice systems - also need to be

integrated into a common effort. This represents a major governance challenge, demanding effective and innovative leadership and institutionalised links to the formal education sector.

3. HUMAN CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT AND THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX⁴

This report attempts to profile current conditions in Tanzania's education sector and to expand the discussion to one about human capacity development, the pivotal role of formal education in that effort and the role of all types of learning in building the country's future. In the process, the HDR reaches several conclusions that are summarised here.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Government and donors are properly concerned about the egregious state of Tanzania's educational system and need to work in harmony to improve its quality and enrolment rates

2. Reversing the decline in the impact and effectiveness of government spending on education through better management of existing and new resources is the key challenge confronting government. Better governance of the sector is an essential precondition for the achievement of human capacity development goals.

3. Investing in human development has a multiplier effect: literate women choose smaller family size; educated people take preventive health measures; educated people make better informed voters and the social return on investment in education is higher even than for agricultural projects. In sub-Saharan Africa the returns to investment in primary education were

24.3% and secondary 18% compared to 3-17% for public agricultural projects and 10-15% for private sector ones.⁵

4. The impact of formal sector education initiatives could be enhanced by more fully considering their relationship to and impact on vocational and non-formal education. Specifically, the ESDP should include more links with the vocational and informal education sectors so human capacity development can be dealt with more strategically and holistically.

5. The new formal education management process machinery should also have more vocational and non-formal education inputs at the Steering Committee and TWG levels.

6. The needs of the disabled are not mentioned in the BEMP or the SEMP and their concerns seem highly compartmentalised. They need to be mainstreamed when possible and, when separate schooling is required, those institutions should be considered when discussing the needs of the sector as a whole.

7. Tanzania has achieved gender equity at the primary level and made progress at the secondary level, but serious challenges remain at tertiary institutions. This issue is highlighted in education sector documents and a girl's bursary programme has been launched for secondary schools. However, studies point to entrenched traditional patriarchal attitudes that permeate the traditional culture. These need to be addressed in the planned IEC campaign, in AIDS education and in vocational education where stereotypes prevail.

⁴ See Annex 1 for a definition of the HDI.

⁵ *Tanzania Social Sector Review*, op. cit.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired Immunity Deficiency Syndrome
BEMP	Basic Education Master Plan
CBO	Community-based Organisation
CDF	Comprehensive Development Framework
CEF	Community Education Fund
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
COBET	Complementary Basic Education Project
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DFID	British Aid Agency
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ESSC	Education Sector Standing Committee
EU	European Union
FTE	Full-time Equivalent
FY	Fiscal Year
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEI	Gender Empowerment Index
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GNP	Gross National Product
GTZ	German Technical Co-operation Agency
HDI	Human Development Index
HDR	Human Development Report
HPI	Human Poverty Index
HRD	Human Resource Development
ICBAE	Integrated Community-based Adult Education
IEC	Information, Education and Communications
IAE	Institute for Adult Education
JICA	Japanese International Co-operation Association
MCDWAC	Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children
MOEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MOF	Ministry of Finance
MOSTHE	Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education
MRALG	Ministry of Regional and Local Government
MTP III	Medium Term Plan III (HIV/AIDS)
MUCHS	Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences
NACP	National AIDS Control Programme
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for International Development
OECD/DAC	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development/Development Assistance Committee
PLHA	People Living with HIV/AIDS
PFP	Policy Framework Paper
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
RNE	Royal Netherlands Embassy
RVTSC	Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre
SC	Steering Committee
SDP	Sector Development Programme

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations (continued)

SEMP	Secondary Education Master Plan
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SMTP	Strategic Medium Term Plan (for HIV/AIDS control)
SSMP	Secondary School Master Plan
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
SWAP	Sector-Wide Approach to Programming
TANU	Tanganyika African National Union
TWG	Technical Working Group
UCLAS	University College of Lands and Architectural Studies
UDSM	University of Dar es Salaam
UNAIDS	United Nations – AIDS
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Analysis
UNICEF	United Nations Children Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VET	Vocational Education and Training
VETA	Vocational Education and Training Authority
WHO	World Health Organisation

Currency Exchange Rate as of January, 2000:

US\$1 = Tshs 799

* Source: BOT

Tanzania: Selected Key Basic Human Development Indicator

**Table 3: Education Sector Profile
Quantitative Summary**

Indicators - 1997/98	Number
Public primary schools (1997)	11,290
Public primary school pupils (1997)	4,051,713
Public primary teachers (1997)	109,936
Secondary schools (1998)	791
Secondary enrolment (1998)	250,027
Secondary teachers (1998)	12,759
Teachers' colleges (1998)	41
Teachers' college enrolment (1998)	8,377
Technical colleges (1998)	3
Technical college enrolment (1998)	1,827
Technical college teachers (1998)	222
Universities (1998)	3
University enrolment (1998)	10,553
University teachers (1998)	1,173

Table 1: Human Development Index**Basic HDI Indicators: Tanzania/Kenya Compared***

Indicator – 1997	Rate Tanz	Rate Kenya
HDI Country Rank	156	136
Life expectancy at birth (years)	47.9	52.0
Life expectancy female (years)	49.1	53.0
Life expectancy male (years)	46.8	51.1
Adult literacy rate 1997 (%)	71.6	79.3
Combined gross enrolment ratio	33.0	50.0
Real GDP per capita (PPP\$)	580	1,190
Life expectancy index	0.38	0.45
Education index	0.59	0.69
GDP index	0.29	0.41
Human Development Index	0.421	0.519
Real GDP per capita (PPP\$) rank minus HDI rank: a positive rank means HDI is higher than real GDP per capita	16	16

* Source: UNDP Human Development Report 1999 (New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1999)

Table 2: Demographic Profile

Indicators - 1997	Rate
Est. population (2000) (millions)	33
Est. population growth rate (1998) (%)	2.8
Total fertility rate (1998)	5.7
Under-5 mortality rate (1997)	143
Maternal mortality rate (per 10,000 live births) – 1996	592

**Table 4: Education Sector Profile
Qualitative Summary****

Indicator	Rate
Apparent intake rate: girls age 7 (1997)	50%
Gross enrolment rate*	76.8%
Net enrolment rate*	57.6%
Primary pupil-teacher ratio	1:36.2
Secondary pupil-teacher ratio	1:17
Primary school leaving exam pass rate - girls (1998) (%)	14.58

**Table 4: Education Sector Profile
Qualitative Summary (cont.)****

Indicator	Rate
Primary school leaving exam pass rate - boys (1998) (%)	25.79
Primary pupils per desk (range)	3-9
Secondary school "O" level results by division	
Divisions I, II, III (%)	30
Division IV	50
Fail	20
Number of qualified primary school teachers (1997) (%)	44

* GER: capacity of education system to accommodate all children who want a given level of education; NER: shows share of school age children actually in school

* Source: Education Indicators in Tanzania (Ministry of Education: March 1999).

Table 5: Health Sector Profile

Indicators - 1997	Rate
Infants with low birth weight (%)	14
Oral rehydration therapy use (%)	50
Malaria cases per 100,000 people 1995	7,942
AIDS cases per 100,000 people	281.4
Leading cause of death in Dar es Salaam ages 15-59: AIDS (%) 1995	40+
Population per doctor 1996	23,000
Population per health facility 1996	7,500
Number of communities with a village health worker (1996) (%)	33.8

* Source: UNDP *Human Development Report 1999* and Ministry of Health, Health Statistics Abstracts 1998.

Table 6: Child Survival and Welfare*

Indicator	Rate
Infant mortality (per 1000 live births) (1999)	94
Under-5 mortality (per 1000 live births) (1999)	145
Population under 18 (1998) (%)	53.4
Annual number of under-5 deaths	162,400
Maternal mortality (per 1000)	5.3

* Source: UNICEF

Table 7: Food Security

Indicator	Rate
Daily per capita calorie supply (1996) (USA is 3,350)	2,028
Food production per capita (1997) (1989-1991=100)	94
Per capita supply of protein (change 1970 to 1996) (%)	[-40.9]

* Source: FAO 1999.

Table 8: Employment and Income

Indicator	Rate
Adult labour force (18-59)	14.6 mil.
New job seekers per annum	600,000
Wage sector jobs created (1998)*	30,000
Rural/urban labour force (%)	81/19

* Source: VETA

Preface

The Tanzania Human Development Report (HDR) has three goals: 1) to present a profile of the state of human development for the general reader; 2) to place that profile in an historic, economic and physical context so it becomes more comprehensible; and 3) to consider the tools available to build human capacity and, thereby, improve the state of human development in the country. The audience for the report includes both government and donor officials, and civil society. The former need constantly to re-examine their strategies and activities for human betterment and the latter need to monitor progress and setbacks, ask questions and demand optimal performance from national leaders and the donor community.

The theme of this edition of the HDR is human capacity development through formal and non-formal education and training. This theme was selected because Tanzania has always placed a high priority on people-centred development and because improvement in the sector is among government's highest goals. At the time of independence and while the late President, Mwalimu Nyerere stressed that development meant "the development of people, not things...and that people could not be developed, they could only develop themselves." These sentiments are echoed in the first UNDP Human Development Report published in 1990 that stated: "the real wealth of a nation is its people. And the purpose of development is to create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and creative lives." South Africa's 1998 Human Development Report also makes this point eloquently by asserting that:

Human development is the end; economic growth a means. The purpose of wealth should be to enrich people's lives, to broaden people's choices and to enable every citizen, every child, every woman and every man to reach her or his full potential. Yet, as the experience of many countries has shown, economic growth does not automatically translate into human development.

What could be added, of course, is that human development is also practically impossible without economic growth and growth depends fundamentally on human capacity. This was recognised in Tanzania's *Development Vision and Long-Term Development Strategy* for the period up to 2025 which states that "the overall development policy thrust of the Development Vision is the centrality of human resource development in the country's wider socio-economic development process."⁶ It also stresses the need to assure the active involvement of the population in the development process and the eradication of abject poverty.

⁶ Government of Tanzania. *Tanzania's Development Vision and Long-Term Development Strategy*. (Dar es Salaam: September 1997). The Vision was prepared by a 19-member team of experts over two years through a consultative process with civil society aimed at developing a shared vision. HRD emerged as the key long-term goal from that process.

A well-educated, innovative and skilled population is the foundation as well as the goal of development. It is also the surest way to eradicate poverty. The parlous state of Tanzania's education and training systems jeopardises the future of millions of children and of the nation itself. This HDR is, therefore, a contribution to the search for the optimal path to sustainable Tanzanian development and the achievement of the nation's long-term Vision. It uses the Human Development Index (HDI) measurements (see Annex 1 for a definition of the HDI) for Tanzania as a point of departure and then attempts to highlight the implications for human development of conditions and initiatives in the formal, vocational and non-formal education areas and their impact on Tanzania's HDI ranking.

Work on this National HDR began in 1997. With UNDP support, a series of consultations were organised with stakeholders, especially in the education sector. Government, donors and representatives from civil society provided inputs to a sustained dialogue about how to accelerate human development in Tanzania and, thereby, improve the welfare of Tanzania's people.

Comments from stakeholders were incorporated into an initial draft document prepared in June 1998 by the Policy and Development Research Centre of Tanzania. The PDRC team was led by Dr. Peter E. Temu and included Ibrahim Kaduma, Leonard K. Msaki, Julius Amani Manjira and Raphael Korosso. This team also consulted widely with government and donor officials and assembled a great deal of data related to human development issues.

In order to benefit from UNDP's global experience and knowledge on preparation of national HDRs, the draft was also shared with UNDP headquarters. After careful review, it was suggested by UNDP and supported by Government that the draft could benefit from further analysis. In view of this, further consultations were made with the key stakeholders in the Government and donor partners through which the data were updated and additional comments affected. Having gone through the said consultative process, technical services of Gary A. Walker a partner at a U.S.-based consulting firm, Associates for Global Change, were employed to finalise the current TOR.

1. THE STATE OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN 1999

1.1 Demographic Profile and Trends

Tanzania had an estimated population of 30.1 million in 1998 with a growth rate of about 2.8% per annum. By 2000 that rate of growth yields a population of 32.6 million. The 1999 UNDP HDR estimated that growth would decline from 3.1% in the 1975-1997 period to 2.3% during 1998-2015, suggesting a population somewhat under 33 million in 2000. This report uses an estimate of 32 million in 2000 to account for the declining birth rate and the impact of AIDS. The urban population is estimated at 25.7 per cent for 1997, lower than neighbouring Kenya or Mozambique. As with most African countries, the population is youthful with 45% under age 15 and 65% under age 25. The dependency ratio⁷ is about 94.1, about the same as Kenya and Mozambique.

Table 9: Mainland Tanzania Population Distribution by Region: 1988 and 1998

Region	1988		1998	
	Total	%	Total	%
Arusha	1,348,428	5.97	1,908,345	6.17
Coast (Pwani)	636,482	2.82	779,968	2.52
Dar es Salaam	1,357,581	6.01	2,102,236	6.81
Dodoma	1,234,945	5.46	1,550,998	5.02
Iringa	1,206,010	5.34	1,559,889	5.05
Kagera	1,358,779	6.02	1,757,484	5.67
Kigoma	857,762	3.80	1,109,454	3.59
Kilimanjaro	1,106,036	4.90	1,857,217	6.01
Lindi	644,997	2.86	783,321	2.53
Mara	968,610	4.29	1,275,584	4.13
Mbeya	1,472,653	6.52	1,974,593	6.39
Morogoro	1,254,043	5.60	1,607,483	5.2
Mtwara	887,358	3.93	1,021,008	3.3
Mwanza	1,874,357	8.30	2,402,627	7.77
Rukwa	693,305	3.07	1,026,353	3.32
Ruvuma	781,445	3.46	1,066,825	3.45
Shinyanga	1,768,591	7.83	2,329,096	7.54
Singida	789,912	3.50	1,003,469	3.25
Tabora	1,033,804	4.58	1,301,532	4.21
Tanga	1,307,313	5.80	1,602,029	5.18
Total Mainland	22,582,411	100.0	30,019,511	97.12
Zanzibar			888,827	2.88
Total Tanzania	22,582,411	100.0	30,908,338	100.0

Source: Planning Commission Bureau of Statistics. *Tanzania Demographic and Health Survey, 1996 (1997)*

⁷The dependency ratio is the ratio between those under 15 and over 65 compared to those of working age from 15-64.

1.2 The State of Women

The Gender-related Development Index (see Annex 1 for definitions of indices) in the UNDP HDR for 1999 ranks Tanzania 126 out of 143 countries, slightly better than its HDI score. The gender index statistics are shown in the adjacent table. Overall, women are worse off economically and educationally than men but the gap is significantly more narrow than in many African countries, especially in the area of per capita income. Table 11 compares women's incomes in Tanzania and eight other countries. Despite the narrow gap, the fact remains that income for women in absolute terms is lower than for any of the other countries shown and the country ranks 171st out of 174 countries in GDP per capita. While women do worse than men (except in life expectancy) and equity continues to be an important goal, the major challenge is to improve the developmental levels and incomes of women and men with emphasis on raising family incomes that benefit everyone and changing the fundamental status of women to assure more equal opportunity (e.g., in particular for women household heads, widows).

Women have been shown to have different priorities from men⁸ and these must be recognised and accommodated by those trying to build human capacity. These are summarised below and their implications for human development are then highlighted.

➤ Women and Food

While men are primarily concerned with the *process* of farming and problems related to transport, fertiliser and other inputs, women in the PPA were more worried about the *consequences of poor farming* - that is, food shortages and its results: hunger, malnutrition, stunting of children, lack of energy and inadequate cash to purchase such staples as sugar and cooking oil.

➤ Women and Water

Women spend six times more time than men collecting water. According to women⁹, food shortages and access to water are their greatest concerns. Only about 22% of rural women have access to safe water and this is often seasonal or irregular. In more than two-thirds of

Table 10: Gender-related Development Index

Indicator	Female	Male
Life expectancy at birth	49.1	46.8
Adult literacy rate	62.0	81.7
Gross enrolment ratio	32.0	33.0

Table 11 compares women's incomes in Tanzania and eight other countries. Despite the narrow gap, the fact remains that income for women in absolute terms is lower than for any of the other countries shown and the country ranks 171st out of 174 countries in GDP per capita. While women do worse than men (except in life expectancy) and equity continues to be an important goal, the major challenge is to improve the developmental levels and incomes of women and men with emphasis on raising family incomes that benefit everyone and changing the fundamental status of women to assure more equal opportunity (e.g., in particular for women household heads, widows).

Table 11: Real GDP Per Capita (PPP\$*) 1997

Country	%**	Female	Male
Tanzania	11.5	549	612
Ivory Coast	168.0	991	2,656
Senegal	76.3	1,253	2,209
Congo Dem. Rep.	72.5	648	1,117
Sudan	220.5	741	2,375
Nigeria	134.0	553	1,293
United States	47.1	23,540	34,639
Japan	131.7	14,625	33,893

* Purchasing Power Parity is used to compare the purchasing power of US\$1 in domestic GDP compared to purchasing power of US\$1 in US GDP. It allows a standard comparison of real price levels between countries without exchange rate distortions. Nominal GDP per capita for Tanzania in 1998 was US\$249.

** of male income over female income.

⁸ Narayan, Deepa. *Voices of the Poor - Poverty and Social Capital in Tanzania, a Participatory Poverty Assessment* (Washington, DC: World Bank, 1997), p. 32

⁹ Ibid.

the villages studied by the 1997 World Bank Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA) that were recorded by the 1995 World Bank HRD study¹⁰ as having “access to safe water,” women said the lack of water was in fact a major problem. The 1999 HDR states that 64% of Tanzanians have access to safe water but the figure seems grossly inflated in light of the PPA and since many urban dwellers also lack clean water.

Oldadai, Arusha; “Women are most affected because they have to lose most of their time searching for water. During the dry season, from August to January when the springs become dry, we have to walk 2 km to Kishimbo to get water. When we reach there, we find so many people lined up for water it takes 6 hours to get one bucket of water.” *Voices of the Poor*, p. 33.

➤ Women and Credit

The PPA interviewed women in all parts of Tanzania and they indicated that money is usually handled by their husbands. Rural women save primarily by keeping small ruminants, storing grain and keeping small amounts of money in the house. The major savings mode for women was Upatu (small informal revolving credit group savings and loan schemes similar to *tontines* in francophone Africa). Some women in towns use formal savings and credit societies and postal savings accounts. Women have less access to credit than men and less money to save but could benefit from expanded micro-finance and training in its use.

➤ Women, Fertility and Education.

There is a clear correlation between education and fertility and between family size and family well-being. The more education a girl receives the more likely she is to desire a smaller family size and to use contraceptives. Table 12 demonstrates this point clearly. From a societal perspective, this clashes directly with the perspective of many rural people (and least educated women) as indicated below. Despite rising death rates from AIDS, Tanzania’s population will continue to grow at above 2.0% and smaller family size still translates into a healthier family with better prospects for education and income for all its members.

Table 12: Education and Fertility in Tanzania 1994

Category	Uneducated	Primary completed	Secondary or higher
Girls 15-19 Pregnant or a mother	39.9	30.1	9.6
Women 20-24 Mean No. of children desired	5.8	4.9	3.7
Women 15-49 Per cent using modern contraceptives	6.0	13.8	31.1
Percent of the sample	29.1	45.6	4.0

¹⁰ Ferreira & Griffin, op. cit.

➤ Women and Education

Women in the PPA survey saw education as having a low return on investment and were concerned about rising school fees. Only one per cent of men and two per cent of women cited the lack of educational opportunities as a problem compared to 50% for farming and transportation (men) and 41% lack of food and water (women). The World Bank HRD study noted that 20% of its sample expressed a preference for educating boys. Educating girls was seen as a poor investment since they would get married and leave home (25%), might become pregnant (24%) or did not bring in income (7%). The issue of education for girls is considered further in Section III.

➤ Women, Divorce and Widowhood

The PPA reports that in most parts of Tanzania “a woman lost everything in divorce and was said to be lucky to leave with her clothes.¹¹” The main reason for this is because “a man paid a bride price and owns ... the product of her labour and any children they

produce.” While some women were aware of their legal options, many did not believe the legal system would benefit them. If a woman is widowed she may remain as custodian of her children but all property is owned by the children and the father’s relatives assume and guard his rights to property. Often widows are simply made to leave the household and then become destitute. In extreme cases they are blamed for their husband’s death or are declared a witch. Grown children are able to decide that their mothers should remain with them despite any contrary views of the father’s relatives. In brief, except for the few better educated and mostly urban women and a few who have gained the attention and support of women’s organisations, the situation for many widows and divorced women is grim indeed.

➤ Female-headed Households

About 13% of rural households are headed by women with an average size of 5.1 household members compared to 6.8 for male-headed households. Female-headed households on average are poorer, less able to save (50% of women versus 60% of men are reported to have saved) and have less access to formal and informal savings groups according to the PPA. Female heads of households also had lower educational levels (2.8 years compared to an average of 4.5 years for men) and female farmers had dramatically less access to farm inputs. The primary reason given for not using fertiliser was the absence of funds with which to pay for it, cited by 46% of women and 30% of men. Therefore, the state of rural women who head households and their household members are significantly worse off than male households.

Table 13: Reproductive Health

Indicator	Rural	Urban	Total
Total fertility rate	4.1%	6.3%	5.8%
Contraceptive prevalence rate	29%	12%	16%
Births attended by trained personnel	40%	82%	47%
Births in a medical facility	40%	81%	47%
Maternal mortality (per 100,000)			5.29

Source: Tanzania Demographic Health Survey 1996 (Aug., 1997)

¹¹ Narayan, op. cit., p. 32.

➤ The State of Women - Conclusions

The conditions for women in Tanzania are very difficult because women are doubly burdened by poverty and by traditional cultural practices that modern Tanzanians understand as discriminatory and fundamentally unjust. While women suffer from higher levels of poverty and inequity, it should again be stressed that numerous studies have concluded that the most effective approach to raising the incomes and status of rural women is by working to improve the livelihoods of entire families. External projects that target women without fully understanding the context in which they live run the risk of numerous unintended consequences and have been known to provoke confrontations and, in a few cases, have led to the deaths of women who were supposed to be beneficiaries. This is not an argument about ends but a tactical issue that goes to the heart of the question of how best to improve women's lives in all the areas summarised above in order to advance human development.

1.3 The State of Children

Tanzania's Bureau of Statistics estimated that 53.4% of the country's population was under age 18 in 1998 and that the number would rise to 54% by 2008. This translates into approximately 17 million children in need of health care, education and life skills.

Child mortality rates have declined over the past ten years but are expected to worsen under the impact of AIDS. As noted in Table 6, infant mortality was 94 and under-5 mortality 145 per 1,000 live births as of January 1999. Rural rates are higher at 97 and 151 respectively, compared to urban rates of 83 and 122.

The key indicators in Tables 1-9 present a sobering view of Tanzanian children's prospects for life itself, but do not convey the full impact on a child's life. Consider, for example, that in Canada 7 children out of every 1,000 die before their fifth birthday; in Tanzania 145 meet that fate. Thus a Tanzanian child runs more than 20 times the risk of a Canadian child of dying before age 5. In Canada a child has 6 chances in 100,000 that he or she will grow up without a mother due to death during childbirth; in Tanzania the risk is 99 times higher. If a Tanzanian child falls ill and needs a doctor, the child must find one of the four doctors available for every 100,000 people; in Canada the child has a choice among 221 doctors per 100,000 people. During the first years of life the risk of stunting from malnutrition is 43.4% for a Tanzanian child; less than 1% for a child in Canada. As that child grows older in Tanzania it is a 95% certainty that he or she will not be able to enter secondary school; in Canada it is a 95% certainty that he or she will enter secondary school. Poor children die by the thousands of preventable diseases, thousands more are orphaned and increasing numbers are forced to live in the streets and cope as best they can.

A UNICEF study team of eight researchers recently did extensive participatory research primarily with children throughout Tanzania. They heard nine recurrent messages. The three most frequent messages were: 1) "Education is the key to and basis of life. It is the responsibility of parents, community and the government; 2) the capacity of families to meet the needs and fulfil the rights of children is small; and 3) government policies do not relate

to the current situation.¹² This accurately reflects government's own view that reform of the education sector is imperative, that expanding and improving educational opportunities is crucial and that families must participate in education as stakeholders in their communities but often have very limited means to help their children.

In contrast, a recent World Bank report¹³ that interviewed only adults found that just six per cent of respondents cited educational opportunities as the major cause of their poverty, citing constraints to farm productivity, access to clean water and illness as their major concerns. These findings may not be inconsistent, however, since children see education as their best chance to escape poverty in the future while many adults see low productivity and poor health as the immediate causes of poverty and view their priorities differently. The report also highlighted the need to take account of gender differences among children in the education sector and concluded:

...even though raising school fees may generate funds for quality improvements while enhancing local accountability, it is also likely to reduce the number of poor children, and especially poor girls attending school. The solution is not to abandon school fees but to target fee relief for the poorest families....the costs to society of large numbers of educated girls greatly exceeds any adverse effects of [abuse of any such system].

Girls are less likely to attend school at higher levels but Tanzania has achieved gender parity in primary education nation wide. Scholarships to pay school fees for girls at the secondary level are now being tried in Tanzania as part of a World Bank project. Overall, Tanzania's government recognises the importance of girls' education and has been taking action in this area within its limited means.

1.4 The State of the Disabled

In Tanzania "disabled" people are defined as those with mental retardation, physical disabilities such as from polio or amputation, hearing and speech disabled and albinos. Most Tanzanian parents surveyed by UNICEF in 1998¹⁴ thought disabilities 1) occurred after episodes of high fever, convulsions or crying and confused symptoms with causes, 2) thought disabilities were punishment for parental misconduct or negligence or 3) used modern medical terms without necessarily understanding their meaning. The first cause was given most often. There is a substantial use of traditional medicine to try to treat disabled people. UNICEF found that "most of the narratives of childhood disability ... catalogue poor treatment and preventable disabilities," a finding that argues for more preventive health care and vaccinations.

UNICEF also concluded that there seem to be no planned or integrated actions at the local level for disabled children, actions that are taken seem to depend on the visibility of the affliction and families rarely receive any help or advice from medical or rehabilitative

¹² UNICEF. *Children in Need of Special Protection Measures*. (Dar es Salaam: June 1999), p. 4.

¹³ Narayan, op. cit.

¹⁴ UNICEF. op. cit., pp. 49-56.

specialists. Children with disabilities tend to be isolated and are often not sent to school, even special schools for the blind and deaf, since they are either too far away or parents do not believe a disabled child can do well and compete with others.

Most services for the disabled are run by NGOs and most are at the primary school level. In 1995 the Ministry of Education reported that there were 114 special education units, 17 residential schools, 1 non-residential, 79 self-contained classrooms and 17 itinerant outreach services. A total of 3,253 youth (43% female) were served in these schools as detailed in Table 14. There are 12 secondary schools with special services. Teacher training to deal with disabled children is minimal and most teachers in rural areas have no training at all in this area. There is little or no screening of handicapped children in order to place them in the most appropriate institution. UNICEF could find no indication of the extent to which the “plethora of uncoordinated services” actually meet the needs of disabled people. UNICEF found that the staff of all specialised institutions visited struggle to provide basic services and suffer from food shortages, run down buildings, shortages of equipment (Braille readers, hearing aids), lack of financing and pupil-teacher ratios that are three times higher than the WHO standard for disabled children.

Table 14: Disabled Children Receiving

Type of Disability	Number Assisted
Visually impaired	1,236
Hearing impaired	900
Physically handicapped	309
Mentally retarded	791
Deaf-blind	3
Cerebral palsy	14
Autistic	14

In addition to children that receive some assistance in the schools listed above, thousands more are kept at home and are isolated from any assistance beyond what the family can provide. There are also polio victims who beg in the streets but are not necessarily homeless since they constitute a source of income for poor families with disabled members.

There are at least as many adults with disabilities as children but organised services for them are few. In addition to the categories for children listed above, there are also adults with disabilities caused by leprosy and elephantiasis and a higher percentage of blind people due especially to onchocerciasis in some parts of the country. Finally, in Western countries having AIDS is considered a disability since many victims are frequently unable to work due to opportunistic infections. If those with HIV/AIDS are considered disabled in Tanzania this would add a substantial number of people to this category (see Section 1.1 above).

Implications for Human Development 

better and more systematically address the needs of its disabled citizens. A process of rationalisation of the services offered by existing institutions could improve capacity and efficiency. In addition, the Ministry of Education should raise the profile of disabled children by including statistics on them in their various publications. For example, two basic reference documents from the Ministry, *Education Indicators in Tanzania* (March 1999) and *Basic Statistics in Education 1994-1998 - National Data* (June 1999) contain no tables and no disaggregated information about special education schools or disabled

It appears from the UNICEF survey that a needs assessment and programme of action are needed to enable Tanzania to

children. The Basic Education Master Plan (BEMP) is also silent on the needs of disabled children and, despite several other studies announced in the BEMP, none is planned for disabled children's needs. Human development for the disabled could be furthered if their needs were given more prominence and better data were available on which development planning could be based.

1.5 The Impact of HIV/AIDS on Human Development

➤ The Extent of the Crisis¹⁵

The precise extent and pattern of the crisis is unclear because of major data deficiencies. However, the National AIDS Control Programme (NACP) estimated that the cumulative number of AIDS cases by the end of 1996 was 450,000 and a year later had reached 520,000. By the end of 1998 that figure had risen to about 550,000. The number of cases, however, is a poor indicator of the situation since these are simply the number of cases reported by hospitals and extrapolated. For Dar es Salaam the figures are based on information from only two hospitals. Thus the case estimates should not be interpreted to mean a slowdown in the rate of infection between 1997 and 1998 but a decline in the accuracy and completeness of the reporting.

According to the Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children (MCDWAC), as of late 1998, despite widespread awareness of the problem "there is no clear trend toward safer sexual behaviour"¹⁶ and discrimination and stigmatisation of those with HIV/AIDS is reported as prevalent.

According to the NACP, the total number of adult infections is over 1.6 million people or about 10% of the 1999 adult population.

By the end of 1998 the NACP reported that:

- HIV-1 prevalence among pregnant women in rural areas in 1997 ranged widely from 7.3% to 44.4%; In a late 1998 survey in Moshi of pregnant women under age 24, 20.5% tested positive for the virus and those aged 25-48 were 19.5% positive.

¹⁵ See, inter alia, NACP. *Strategic Medium Term Plan III for HIV/AIDS/STD Prevention and Control* and Ministry of Community Development, Women's Affairs and Children, *Strategic Framework for the Protection of Women and Children against HIV/AIDS/STDs 1998-2002* (November, 1998).

¹⁶ On the other hand, an earlier study, the *Tanzania Demographic Health Survey* (1996), using 1995 data, states that sexual behaviour has changed and that 95% of women have sex exclusively with their husbands, 25% of men reported only one sex partner and 55% reported using condoms. The accuracy of these assessments is in some doubt since, if true, there should be evidence of a slowdown in the HIV infection rate by now.

Table 15: HIV/AIDS in Context

Number of AIDS cases per 100,000 people as reported by UNDP in the 1999 Human Development Report compared by selected countries.	
Zambia	530.1
Malawi	505.4
Tanzania*	365.0
Botswana	351.6
Ivory Coast	265.5
Uganda	249.0
Ghana	102.1
Cameroon	69.1
Canada	50.4
Senegal	22.6
Sweden	17.6
Japan	01.2

* Ministry of Health (later than HDR figure)

- HIV-1 prevalence among pregnant women in urban areas ranges from 22 to 36%;
- About one-third of children born to HIV-positive women are also infected and 4.5% of cumulative AIDS cases are children under the age of five;
- The HIV infection rate among blood donors for 1998 was 8.5% for males and 11.8% for females;
- Among adult male blood donors the highest rate of infection is in Dar es Salaam (19.8% in 1997 and 12.5% in 1998) and the lowest rate is in Lindi with 3.0%. The NACP cautions that the apparent decline in Dar es Salaam is caused by data anomalies not a declining trend in infection rates and that these figures should be used to gain a sense of the order of magnitude of the problem rather than as a precise measurement.
- The prevalence of other STDs increases the risk of AIDS transmission and women have 59.1% of all reported STDs. Effective management of STDs yields a reduction of HIV infection of 40%;

➤ The National Impact of the Crisis

Impact on Women: The HIV/AIDS crisis disproportionately affects women. Women are infected at higher rates, they are economically less able to care for themselves or ill family members, they can infect their new-born children and they are the ones who become primarily responsible for AIDS orphans. Many infected women are in the prime of life and urban rates for women are higher than in rural areas which removes substantial numbers of educated women from the productive labour force.

Impact on Girls and Young Women: AIDS case rates for girls and women under age 25 are estimated to be more than double the rate for boys and young men in the same age group.

Impact on Children: About 90% of HIV infected children contract the disease through mother to child transmission. Children and sexually active youth are at high risk due to a paucity of quality education about HIV/AIDS and sexual health. The rising death toll among parents is increasing the number of AIDS orphans. A study in Kagera indicated that stunting among orphans was higher (51%) than among children with two living parents (39%). There were an estimated 200,000 AIDS orphans in 1995 and the number is expected to reach 800,000 by 2000¹⁷.

Impact on Men: More than 86% of the reported AIDS cases for males occur between the ages of 20-49 thus

**Table 16: HIV/AIDS
Impact by Region (1998)**

Region	Rate per 100,000
Arusha	184
Coast	543
Dar es Salaam	674
Dodoma	167
Iringa	320
Kagera	444
Kigoma	222
Kilimanjaro	536
Lindi	395
Mara	119
Mbeya	989
Morogoro	355
Mtwara	280
Mwanza	300
Rukwa	125
Ruvuma	399
Shinyanga	186
Singida	195
Tabora	356
Tanga	288
Tanzania	365

Source: NACP/Ministry of Health, 1998

**83% of all AIDS deaths are in
Sub-Saharan Africa.**

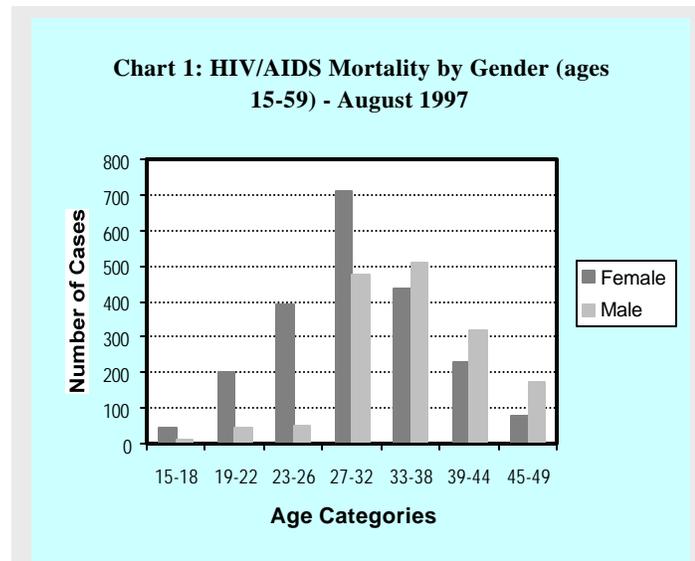
¹⁷ Office of the Vice President. *National Poverty Eradication Strategy*, June 1998, p. 9.

disproportionately affecting those in the prime of life. Men also risk losing their families to the disease and risk infecting them through unprotected sex.

Impact on the Economy: The World Bank estimates that AIDS will reduce real GDP growth from 3.9% without AIDS to 2.8% to 3.3% with AIDS during the period 1985 to 2010.

Overall, the HIV/AIDS epidemic has the potential to kill at least one-fourth of the country's entire adult population over the next 15 years if left unchecked.

It can devastate the already low human development indicators and drive down life expectancy by 10 years or more. In Zimbabwe life expectancy was 56 years in 1980, 61 in 1990 and 44.1 and falling in 1997 due to an AIDS case rate of 564.4 per 100,000 people. In Botswana life expectancy has fallen from 67 in 1990 to 47.4 in 1997 with an AIDS case rate of 351.6. With the critical mass of infected persons already present in Tanzania and little discernible change in sexual behaviour, the HIV/AIDS epidemic is probably the single greatest threat to Tanzania's future.



➤ The Impact of HIV/AIDS on Education and Vocational Training

The impact is serious and is likely to worsen in the next few years. Consider that:

- There will be increased illness and a growing death rate among teachers and school administrators representing a human loss and an economic loss of skilled people in short supply in the education sector. In Malawi and Zambia more than 30% of all teachers are already infected.
- There will be increased costs to recruit, train and replace teachers who have become incapacitated and died from AIDS.
- The rapid increase in the number of orphans will further stretch modest household budgets of those taking them in. There may therefore be a tendency to keep some children, especially orphans, home from school either for reasons of cost or because children are needed to care for ill relatives or do farm or other chores previously done by adults.
- As more HIV-positive children and teenagers enter the school system, there are dangers of more discrimination, ostracism and classroom disruption.

- As the death rate grows among young adults, funds spent on educating them will have been wasted in terms of the loss of their potential contributions to society.
- There may be extra financial pressures on the education budget (for sick leave, bereavement leave, re-training, etc.) just when, nationally, the HIV/AIDS crisis will put greater pressure on government to find more funds for AIDS prevention and treatment, possibly at the expense of the education budget and those for other sectors.

In summary, HIV/AIDS places the education system at risk of demographic, economic and equity problems due to higher teacher turnover, loss of experienced teachers at a higher rate, more orphans with special needs, fewer resources and problems of ostracism in the classroom. AIDS education is an essential aspect of teacher education and teacher re-training as well as a critical issue to be taught in all Tanzania's classrooms.

➤ *Government and Donor Response*

The National AIDS Control Programme (NACP) was established in 1988 and is currently implementing its third Strategic Medium Term Plan (SMTP) for 1998-2002 for the prevention and control of HIV/AIDS and STDs. The SMTP was supported by ten donors as of September 1999 and another six were considering whether to join this co-ordinated campaign to broaden and increase the impact of HIV/AIDS projects.

Table 17:
Donor Funding for HIV/AIDS
Prevention and Services 1999

Donor	Amount US\$m
DFID	\$1.5
RNE	\$2.6
NORAD	\$1.0
USAID	\$4.5
UNDP	\$1.9
UNFPA	\$1.47
UNICEF	\$1.25
Others	\$1.67
Total	\$15.9

Virtually every donor active in Tanzania is involved in some way with the fight against HIV/AIDS. There are 24 information, education and communication (IEC) projects, 15 service delivery and clinical facilities support projects and nine projects dedicated to research, institutional support and other areas. Within the IEC category, 18 projects target children and youth, 7 target women and 3 target political leaders. For service delivery projects, the general population is the target in 8 activities and women/mothers the target in three. The last category includes six projects for People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLHA) and three for orphans.¹⁸ The funding level for 1998/99 was \$15.9 million for the sector as broken down in the adjacent table.

Geographically the areas where the greatest effort is being made are Dar es Salaam, Mbeya, Morogoro, Tanga and Mwanza but six other regions also receive support from UNDP, USAID and the Netherlands. Donor involvement by category is summarised in Box 3

Box 3:
Donor Support to HIV/AIDS Projects

IEC Projects: CIDA, DFID, RNE, NORAD, SIDA, UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF, UNAIDS, USAID.

Service Delivery Projects: CIDA, EC, GTZ, Irish Aid, JICA, USAID, RNE, UNFPA, UNICEF.

Care, Social Support and Other Projects: CIDA, Danida, NORAD, UNICEF, USAID

¹⁸ Royal Danish Embassy. *Overview of Donor Supported HIV/AIDS Activities in Tanzania* (Dar es Salaam: August 1999).

➤ *The Response of Civil Society*

Effective government and donor actions are, above all, catalytic and empowering for local communities. The MTP III Strategy encourages multi-sectoral approaches based in local communities and using local organisations to raise awareness. A number of Tanzanian NGOs and CBOs have responded to the nation's manifest need for AIDS education and prevention activity. Three effective programmes are summarised in the boxes below as examples of what can be achieved. Their hallmark is simplicity, direct contact with stakeholders and replicability for greater impact. These types of initiatives should give cause for hope despite the grim statistics.

Box 4:
SWAAT Orphan Support

The Society for Women and AIDS in Tanzania is an NGO based in Dar es Salaam that works at the district level to reduce women's risk of contracting HIV/AIDS. The orphan support programme at Rufiji Village was initiated by the village women who wanted better care for the many orphans in their community. These *Mama Mkubwa* women receive training and some support from the MCDWAC. External support may not be sustainable so SWAAT is trying to mobilise communities by building local institutions and committees that can support orphans in specific ways over the long-term.

Of special note is the targeted nature of these and other HIV/AIDS control efforts that directly address the fact that women are more likely to be infected (59%) than men in Tanzania whereas globally the opposite is true with about 60% of cases world wide being male. The reason for the disparity goes to the heart of Tanzania's traditional culture of male dominance, to the fact that women can be more easily infected by the virus and that men tend to seek out sexual partners who are younger than themselves (see Table 17).

Box 5:
Youth Newspaper Delivers Straight Talk

Dear Doctor: Which is more dangerous - having sex with or without a condom? I have heard that a condom can get stuck inside a lady and then she dies.

Dear Doctor: If I have sex with a girl who is a virgin and has no bruises can I get AIDS?

Dear Doctor: Why don't mosquitoes transmit AIDS?

Letters come from all over Tanzania to the offices of Straight Talk/Sema Wazi Wazi, the bi-lingual monthly youth newspaper published by the Tanzania AIDS Project. From faithfulness to how to use a condom, the newspaper gives frank answers and distributes copies to secondary schools throughout Tanzania. Since 1994 this tabloid-style newspaper has helped young people avoid feelings of shame, embarrassment or fear by providing answers to questions they may not want to ask their parents or peers and it assures that accurate information is disseminated. The impact of the newspaper has led to the creation of Straight Talk Clubs where students meet weekly under the guidance of a teacher to talk about HIV/AIDS, relationships and the changing roles of men and women in modern Tanzania. (Source: Tanzania AIDS Project - USAID)

Increasingly, Tanzanian women realise that they are fighting for their lives, the lives of their children and the integrity of their families, but the message has yet to reach into many rural and poor urban areas. More funding for HIV/AIDS IEC campaigns and treatment are badly needed but unlikely to be made available given government budgetary constraints and donor limitations. For these reasons, low-cost grassroots strategies are needed to provide a clear, unambiguous and sustained message about vital behaviour changes that can save lives and build hope for Tanzania's future.

Box 6:
TANESA Risk Behaviour Mapping Programme

TANESA works to reduce HIV transmission at the local level by developing gender-focussed interventions. The project assumes that gender issues underlie sexual and reproductive health behaviour patterns and mobilise communities for social change through risk behaviour mapping. Men, women and youth together identify and act out scenarios and describe the places where risky behaviour occurs in their communities. Then they discuss the problems of avoiding such behaviour and propose actions for social change. The process tries to convert awareness into action by empowering women to explore their problems in a neutral setting but with men present. This low cost and effective grassroots programme is funded by the Netherlands.

➤ *Implications for Human Development: The Way Forward*

HIV/AIDS is incurable and likely to remain so for at least another decade. Extensive research and some human trials have been conducted in the search for a vaccine that could stop the spread of the disease but none has yet been successful. Advances have been made in treating patients' opportunistic infections and in reducing the viral load in the body through the use of AZT, protease inhibitors and a "cocktail" of other drugs. Unfortunately, it can cost over US\$1,000 a month to keep one AIDS patient alive. Very few Tanzanians can afford this type of expense and the government's entire health budget would be inadequate to the task even if all other health improvement activities were eliminated.

Clearly, there is no alternative to a thorough, sustained education campaign. Every primary, secondary and technical school needs to inform its students of the risks in ways that will be internalised. Every development project should integrate HIV/AIDS education into its other activities. Local radio, press, poster and television campaigns need to be sustained and the messages varied so they remain fresh in the public mind. Local health clinics, primary school teachers, religious leaders and others must be trained and enlisted at the village level to hold

Box 7:
Focus Areas for MTP III

- integrate AIDS issues in policy development;
- create a more favourable legal environment for AIDS control;
- integrate AIDS issues into sectoral and district plans;
- create a coherent institutional framework for multi-sectoral involvement in AIDS control;
- improve co-ordination;
- increase advocacy and participation by civil society in AIDS control;
- implement programmes for capacity building, monitoring and resource mobilisation.

public meetings - repeatedly if necessary - to get the message across and persuade people to convert awareness to action. PLWA should continue to be enlisted to share their experiences both to educate others and to reduce the stigma attached to having the disease that can develop from greater openness.

It is estimated that only 10 per cent of the illness and death that this epidemic will bring has been seen. The real impact on people, communities and economies is yet to come.¹⁹

There is no question that HIV/AIDS is having and will continue to have a disastrous negative effect on human development in Tanzania. But Tanzanians can work to minimise the damage, control the epidemic and focus on women and youth to gradually build among the young an “AIDS-free generation.” Uganda has been very successful in this regard, bringing the infection rate down in just eight years among 15-19 year olds from 32% to just 7%. Tanzania can - and must - do the same.

1.6 The State of Human Development in Tanzania Compared Regionally and Globally

Tanzania is ranked 156 out of 174 countries, with Sierra Leone ranked last and Canada first. As the table below illustrates, Tanzania is behind Kenya and close to Uganda in terms of human development. Tanzania ranks lower than the average for all sub-Saharan Africa in the areas shown except for adult literacy. Per capita income is especially low, being only slightly more than one-third the African average, suggesting there is less income inequality in Tanzania than in Kenya or Africa on average. Unfortunately, it represents a greater equality of poverty.

Table 18: Tanzania’s HDI in Context

Indicator	Canada	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	All Sub Sah. Afr.	S. Leone
Ø HDI Rank Û	1	136	156	158		174
Life expectancy	79	52.0	47.9	39.6	48.9	37.2
Adult literacy	99%	79.3%	71.6%	64%	58.5%	33.3%
Gross enrolment ratio (1st, 2nd & 3 rd levels)	99%	50%	33%	40%	44%	30%
Real per capita GDP (PPP)	\$22,480	\$1,190	\$580	\$1,160	\$1,534	\$410
Human Development Index	0.932	0.519	0.421	0.404	0.463	0.254

¹⁹ World Bank. *Intensifying Action against HIV/AIDS in Africa* (Washington, DC: August 1999), p. 5.

2. THE CONTEXT FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Tanzania's Historical Development Experience and Macro-Economic Reform

At independence in 1961 Tanzania's nine million people had a life expectancy of 38 years, a literacy rate below 10 per cent and a per capita income of around \$50 per annum. According to the 1957 census, only 2.7% of the people lived in communities of more than 5,000 people and Dar es Salaam had a population of 128,000. The economy was based mainly on subsistence agriculture and the production of sisal, coffee and cotton for export. Cotton and major staple crops had low yields and subsistence farmers were largely cut off from all but local markets. In the mid-1960s Tanzania had one mile of road per 61 square miles of land area compared to 119 for Uganda and 118 for Kenya and fewer telephones and radios than its neighbours. These conditions prevailed after more than 75 years of German and then British colonial rule, the latter under a mandate from the League of Nations.

Tanzania's first President, the late Mwalimu Julius Nyerere, understood independence in both economic and political terms and was determined to find an African path to development in the fullest sense of the word. He and his contemporaries in TANU, the ruling political party, understood development to mean economic betterment of the average person but also "an increase in the status and dignity of Tanzania; ... leaders believe that includes a psychic well-being which depends on national dignity..."²⁰ Thus in the 1960s Nyerere broke relations with Britain over its mishandling of Rhodesia despite its dependence on British financial and technical aid and saw its aid suspended; lost West German aid because it allowed a consulate office to be opened by East Germany and alienated the United States by maintaining close relations with mainland China before Nixon's reversal of American policy. While Scandinavian countries blunted the loss of foreign aid from major Western countries by making Tanzania a major recipient - a pattern that has been sustained over the decades - Tanzania's government accepted the economic consequences of a non-aligned foreign policy. Economic development - understood as growth - was also not always the primary consideration in domestic policy as, for example, Tanzania's leaders avoided increasing taxes on low income earners for reasons of equity and struggled to fashion a coherent basis for a national path to development.

That basis was articulated in the 1967 Arusha Declaration. The concept of African Socialism was rooted in the understanding of capitalism as an exploitative system of survival of the economically fittest. It was a revolt from colonial patterns of privilege for the few and poverty for the many and it was a rebellion from the West, from neo-colonial tutelage and the technological and racial hubris that pained Africans but was largely unperceived by Western leaders. Many aspects of the Declaration were logical reactions to the reality of an agrarian society with few resources. However, Arusha changed the primary economic goal from growth to equity and economic policy officially shifted to central planning, government control of the economy and a rhetorical in-ward looking self-reliance²¹.

²⁰ Bienen, Henry. *Tanzania: Party Transformation and Economic Development* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1967), p. 262.

²¹ In fact, the country's Five Year Plan (1964-69) was not to be financed from increased taxes, involuntary savings or mobilised "voluntary" labour but from a much more traditional source - government depended on foreign donor grants and loans for 79% of its budget. Another part of the self-reliance ethic was the fifteen year goal of the Plan to be "fully sufficient in trained manpower by 1980."

In practice, government quickly became aware that unsupervised “self-help” schemes were having a demoralising effect as poorly built roads washed away, new primary schools remained unstaffed, clinics had no drugs, etc. The strategy then shifted to “nation-building” through villagisation, a process designed to make it easier to deliver and supervise basic social services (e.g., primary schools, clinics, wells) to rural areas and improve government control of a scattered population. In the beginning local commissioners, formerly local TANU leaders and organising secretaries, made speeches, persuaded and sometimes coerced villagers into carrying out self-help schemes. But by 1964 “villagisation had come to mean primarily large-scale, relatively capital-intensive and technologically advanced [farm] projects. The focus was around pilot village projects controlled by the settlement division of the Ministry of Lands, Settlement and Water Development.”²² Most of these were funded under the Five Year Plan and locally initiated projects were given a lower priority often because they were not included in the central Plan budget.

Box 8: The Arusha Declaration

The Arusha Declaration can be summarised as a political manifesto stressing:

- rural and especially agricultural development;
- building co-operative and communal (ujamaa) villages rather than state farms or peasant homesteads;
- an education policy stressing primary schooling to prepare for rural life;
- nationalisation of the industrial, banking and trade sectors;
- development to be achieved through self reliance rather than foreign aid;
- social goals of equality are given primacy over economic ones.

For a time these initiatives improved social indicators and Tanzania made extraordinary strides in literacy and basic health services while maintaining greater equity than its neighbours (this phenomenon is still reflected today in per capita income differentials as shown in Table 11). By the mid-1970s, however, the fundamental flaws in economic policy became apparent and internal economic failures were exacerbated by a series of external economic shocks (summarised in Box 9). Internally, Tanzania did not fully appreciate that wealth needs to be created before it can be distributed, that central planning and the kind of bureaucracy it inevitably spawns leads to gross inefficiencies and opportunities for rent seeking and embezzlement of public funds, and that top down development decisions with overall production targets given to villagers (with little or no local input²³) can undermine the self-

Box 9

External Shocks to Tanzania's Economy

- Collapse of international commodity prices for exports affected farmers' incomes and foreign exchange earnings;
- Sharp oil price increases in 1973-74 and 1978-79;
- Break-up of the East African Community, a regional body whose common services had to be replaced;
- Cost of Tanzania's war with Uganda to oust Idi Amin; and
- Extended periods of drought.

Source: Dr. Omar Ali Juma, Vice President of Tanzania, in the preface to The National Poverty Eradication Strategy (June 1998).

²² Bienen, op. cit., p. 337.

²³ Village plans were supposed to be produced as part of the national Five Year Plans and were to include crop production targets and a list of self-help construction programmes. In the Bukoba and Karagwe District village plans for 1963, for example, 21 of the 31 projects were for TANU offices, a fact that reflected the desires of local officials more than the villagers. More than once, Nyerere commented at ground breaking ceremonies that a clinic might have been more useful and more desired by local people but did not act to alter

reliance that was the ideological underpinning of Arusha. In addition, the private sector restricted its activities to the informal sector and even petty trading was curbed periodically in cities, creating strong disincentives for personal initiative.

As a consequence of the combination of these internal and external factors and their impact on Tanzania's people, the government fundamentally altered its development path. Since the mid-1980s, Tanzania's macro-economic policy has been geared to stabilisation and then dismantling the commanding role of the state in the economy. In 1986 the first Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) stressed liberalisation in imports and the agricultural sector and monetary stabilisation. In the 1990s efforts were made to improve fiscal management and comprehensively reform the public sector through civil service reform and privatisation of the large state-owned sector. These measures led to an average economic growth rate of 3-4% from 1985-91 but inflation remained above 30%. By the middle 1990s, fiscal discipline weakened, both budget and external account deficits rose sharply and growth rates fell to just 1.3% on average during 1992-95. Structural reforms were slow during this period as the country worked to build a political consensus on the need for reforms.

A new government was elected in 1995 that reinforced macro-economic and structural adjustment policies advocated by the IMF and World Bank. The primary goal has been fiscal consolidation with reform of tax administration, further streamlining of the civil service and the use of a cash management system to contain expenditures. This has resulted in the reduction of the civil service from 355,000 to 270,000 people and divestiture of more than half of the 400 state-owned enterprises by the end of 1998. Divestiture and reorganisation of the mining sector, in particular, has led to this becoming the most rapidly growing sector of the economy. International reserves have been doubled to the equivalent of 3 months of imports, the Dar es Salaam Stock Exchange began operations in April 1998 and government-owned banks have been restructured and are being privatised. Economic policy reforms have also led to the decline of inflation to 12% by June 1998 (the lowest rate in 20 years) and a further decline to 7.6% by July 1999. Finally, changes in the economy should be kept in perspective by noting that about 28% of Tanzania's economy still remains outside the monetary sector compared to 1964 when the subsistence sector was estimated at 35%.

Table 19: Structure of the Economy 1998

Economic Sector	Share
Agriculture	28%
Crops	18%
Trade/Hotels	16%
Manufacturing	09%
Public administration	08%
Livestock	05%
Transport/communications	05%
Finance & business services	05%
Construction	04%
Mining & quarrying	01%
Electricity	01%

this. Most self-help projects were for primary schools, clinics, roads and wells but the national Plan overtook local plans when they fell outside the directive national Plan framework. Village crop production plans also were often unrealistic, reflected uneconomic choices and were often ignored at regional and national levels. Bienen, *Ibid.*, pp. 479-80.

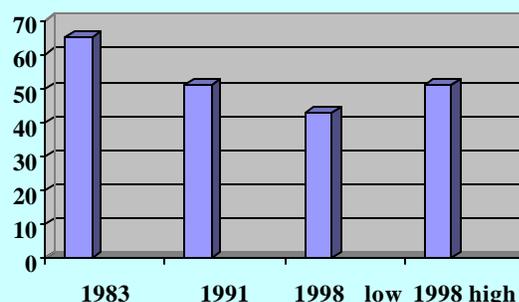
2.2 Implications of Macro-economic Reform for Human Development

The reform process began in the 1980s despite strenuous objections from a large number of the political elite. Reforms were viewed as capitulation to “international capital” and abandonment of Tanzania’s social ideals. Economic deterioration forced change in the 1980s and the advent of multi-party democracy in 1995 provided the government with a stronger mandate to accelerate and broaden its reform agenda. However, a sustained debate with implications for the sustainability of the reform programme has been ongoing and concerns the question of the degree to which the reforms help or hurt human development. So far, the results are mixed.

[Significant reductions in poverty seem to have been achieved](#) Economic growth was fast enough on average that real per capita income grew in the late 1980s and continued at a slower pace in the 1990s despite a 2.8% population growth rate.

A comparison of rural household income data²⁴ for 1983 and 1991 shows major improvement. In 1983, 65% of the population lived on less than \$1 a day compared to 51% by 1991. Those living in absolute poverty (less than 0.75 cents per day) fell during the same period from 51% to 41% and the absolute number of poor is thought to have declined during this period. According to one estimate, by 1998 those living on less than \$1 a day fell to 43% of the population but it was also estimated

Graph 2: Percentage of Tanzanians living on less than US\$1 per day (estimates for 1998 vary)



that the total number of people living below the poverty line had rebounded and was about the same in 1998 as in 1983 due to population growth²⁵. A clear implication for human development is that progress in poverty reduction is severely undermined by rapid population growth.

[Despite reductions in the poverty head-count, human welfare indicators have been slow to respond to the marked improvement in the overall policy environment since 1995.](#) Since the new policy measures are expected to have a positive impact on poverty alleviation, they will only begin to be felt in the early part of the 21st century. As indicated earlier, Tanzania’s HDI ranking dropped throughout the 1990s, though its human development index showed some signs of steady improvement. The low response rate of human welfare indicators to policy changes has been due primarily to the HIV/AIDS phenomenon, which has impacted negatively on life expectancy and mortality rates, and which when combined with a low level of income and population increases, has reduced overall human welfare. To guide further efforts at poverty alleviation the Government has adopted a National Poverty Eradication Strategy (NPES) and is in the process of institutionalizing a poverty monitoring

²⁴ World Bank. *Staff Appraisal Report: Tanzania HRD Pilot Project* (Washington August 1997), p. 1.

²⁵ Graham Eele and Joseph Semboja, et. al. *Meeting the International Development Targets in Tanzania* (Dar es Salaam: Oxford Policy Management & REPOA, May 1999). Draft, p. 12. Eele and Semboja used household data and calculated the figure using the World Bank estimates of PPP so data would be comparable.

system that will assess the impact of various policies on poverty and human welfare, including establishing a poverty data bank.

The findings summarised above that link economic reforms to positive and/or negative human development indicators, and their seeming dichotomies, must be highly qualified due to problems with data. The greatest challenge for those wanting to determine whether the reforms of the past 15 years are bringing results and to what extent is to decide what weight to give to which indicators and to disaggregate the many factors affecting the trends in those indicators. If rural incomes increase, can this be attributed to the positive impact of economic reforms or to good weather or both and to what extent and over what time period? If inflation drops, is this caused mostly by greater government fiscal discipline or are exogenous economic factors also at play? Do those living below US\$1 per day in 1998 equal 43% of the population as estimated by one source and highlighted above or 51% as estimated by another source?

To address the issue of how to monitor the impact of economic reform on human development in Tanzania, UNDP has been working closely with the Office of the Vice President to develop a comprehensive set of poverty and welfare monitoring indicators.²⁶ Britain recently financed a study to help determine the poverty line, suggest poverty measurements and build models relating poverty indicators to independent variables.²⁷ The World Bank has conducted several comparative analyses between reforming and non-reforming states in Africa and concluded that the standard package of reforms recommended for states like Ghana, Senegal, Kenya and Tanzania do have positive macroeconomic effects that not only improve the fiscal and monetary health of government, but also stimulate growth of the sort that has raised rural incomes and created new economic opportunities for the urban poor. In Tanzania, the World Bank has also worked on poverty monitoring and developed poverty indices that were used as a basis for the British study's findings.

Regardless of data problems, government and donors recognise that significant reduction of the debt service burden is one of the most rapid ways to increase resources for the social sectors. While more resources are not sufficient on their own to resolve the development impediments listed above, they do provide government with a very real opportunity to reverse negative indicators by implementing the various strategic and master plans that have been developed for the social sectors.

In FY 1998-99 public debt servicing consumed about one-third of the government's budget. In 1997/98 government spent four times as much on debt servicing as on primary education. This represents a high social opportunity cost, since the World Bank has estimated that government would need to increase its education budget by 76% to finance investments that could result in universal primary education. If debt service levels were reduced by half and the savings allocated to primary education, the target could be achieved.

On October 6, 1999 the World Bank announced that Tanzania had become eligible to benefit from its Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) programme. For FY 1998/99 Tanzania expected budgetary savings of Tshs. 42.3 billion (US\$62.4 million), the bulk of

²⁶ See *Poverty and Welfare Monitoring Indicators*, (Dar es Salaam: Office of the Vice President, September 1999) for an explanation of the choice of indicators and their utility.

²⁷ Eele and Semboja et. al., Op. cit.

which will be used to protect the levels of social sector spending. In this regard, government has proposed priority for investment in rural infrastructure, agriculture, water, education and health that will use the funds made available through debt relief. Used effectively, these should bolster pro-poor policies and help improve the country's HDI.

The conclusion of government and most donors is to stay the course and increase targeted efforts at the policy and programming levels to assist the poor by building social capital.

There is a near consensus that Tanzania's macro-economic policies are sound and offer the best prospects for a better future for the vast majority of Tanzania's people. At the same time, there are short and sometimes even medium-term negative consequences of some policies. These are now generally recognised and both government and donors have been working together to do a better job at cushioning short-term negative effects in order to sustain medium and long-term gains. In effect, government has largely and correctly identified what needs to be done and now must focus on how best to do it.

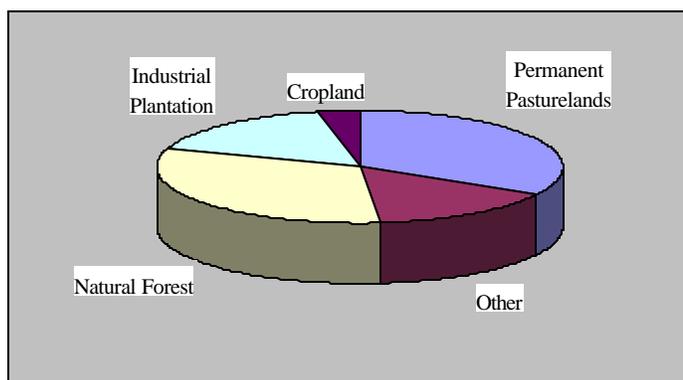
2.3 Tanzania's Natural Endowment as a Human Development Factor

➤ Overview

Tanzania has a rich natural endowment with high bio-diversity, ample forests, excellent agricultural potential, reliable rainfall in significant parts of the country and unrivalled wildlife. Tanzania has established 23% of its territory as protected areas to conserve its biological diversity, more than any other sub-Saharan African country. These include 12 national parks, 23 game reserves and 44 game controlled areas, including three classified as UNESCO World Heritage sites.²⁸

Tanzania's population density was 14 people per sq. km. in 1967, compared to 26 in 1988 and 35 in 1999. This is low by world standards and lower than Kenya (48 people per sq. km.), Uganda (89) or Rwanda (270), but slightly higher than Mozambique (23). Despite this, growing population pressures and very poor management capacity are seriously degrading these resources, endangering tourism, a major income source, and threatening the physical environment on which Tanzania's human development depends.

Graph 3: Land Uses in Tanzania



About 40% of Tanzania is covered with forests and woodlands. These include 14,000 sq. km. of tropical high forests and 320,000 sq. km. of miombo woodlands plus 154,000 ha. of industrial forest plantations. The rate of woodland deforestation is a modest 1.2% per annum, but the rate in the high forests is of great concern. The World Bank states unequivocally that "economic reforms have increased the incentive for the private sector to

²⁸ The statistics in this Section and pie chart were drawn from *Tanzania Environment and Natural Resources Sectoral Brief*, (The World Bank: 1999) and UN documents where specified.

invest in environmentally damaging activities.” The tobacco industry in particular has expanded in a major way over the past five years harming forests and woodlands directly through clear cutting and indirectly due to the greatly increased use of firewood for curing tobacco. The tobacco industry is, therefore, doubly harmful to human development since it destroys both the natural environment and the people who use the industry’s products.

To enhance human development, forests and wildlife must be conserved and managed. Community-based conservation is normally encouraged, but there are very few activities underway that are managed by rural communities. Donors are supporting mostly small projects with direct impact on specific problems because it is believed these are more effective than larger projects and because national management capacity is weak and has been paralysed by serious institutional rivalries.

There are two growing seasons in the north and one in the south and more than half the country has a growing season of at least 120 days with reliable rainfall. Soil fertility varies but is better than in many African countries. The minimal use of fertilisers and reduction in fallow time due to increasing population pressures are key negatives for agricultural productivity and, consequently, human development.

➤ Implications for Education and Human Development

Environmental awareness and knowledge of the links between environmental stewardship and human development are crucial if Tanzania is to protect its extraordinary natural endowment. In 1995 there were 15 NGOs working in the area of environmental education, including the Wildlife Conservation Society, the Jane Goodall Institute, Human Settlements of Tanzania and 4H Clubs. The need for such education is overwhelming and should be part of the curriculum at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, especially in teacher training colleges. The COBET programme for out of school youth could also usefully integrate environmental education into its curriculum. There also needs to be more links among NGOs to co-ordinate initiatives in this area since the reality is still that most NGOs have better links to donors outside the country than to each other. Tanzania was one of the most rural countries in the world at independence but urbanisation has been accelerating for 30 years. Issues of urban environmental management also need to be addressed in schools and by NGOs so urban dwellers become more aware of pollution, sanitation management and the consequences of poor urban planning.

2.4 Poverty and Tanzania’s Poverty Eradication Policy²⁹

Tanzania’s Poverty Eradication Strategy was adopted in June, 1998. The Strategy views anti-poverty efforts as actions to be taken by people in their communities with the support of government, donors, NGOs and others. By 2010 (some other documents use the year 2015) government hopes to reduce absolute poverty by half and eliminate it by 2025. It expects to increase the annual economic growth rate to 8-10% per annum, increase the share of GDP

²⁹ Office of the Vice President, Poverty Strategy. Op. cit.

from the manufacturing sector from 8.4 to 20% and diversify the economy even while providing greater support to agriculture.

In the education sector, the Strategy aims to achieve universal primary education, expand secondary education, increase the literacy rate to 90% and improve the quality of education. To achieve these goals, government has pledged to allocate more resources for education, encourage private sector involvement in the sector, encourage community participation and promote adult literacy programmes. More resources are to be allocated to local government authorities to enable them to work within their own communities to combat poverty.

The Office of the Vice President co-ordinates poverty eradication efforts and works with the Planning Commission and sectoral ministries to ensure that policies and programmes are evaluated from an anti-poverty perspective. A Poverty Eradication Advisory Committee has also been established that includes ministry representatives, donors, private sector representatives and NGOs.

The international baseline data for poverty in Tanzania is presented in Table 20. From these figures the country was ranked 54th out of 90 in the Human Poverty Index (HPI). This is significantly better than the HDI score and is ahead of countries like Ivory Coast, Senegal, Zambia, Ghana, Morocco and India. The difference between the HDI and the HPI (see definitions in Annex 1) is primarily due to Tanzania's higher score on literacy and access to safe water and health services. While the accuracy of these figures is in some doubt, so are the figures for other countries. These figures do reflect Tanzania's past emphasis on equity and more modest gap between rich and poor.

The policy framework for poverty eradication well-articulates the country's priorities and needs in light of the statistical overview in Table 20 and presents a broad strategy to eventually eradicate poverty. However, the ability to reach national poverty reduction targets and international development targets is dubious. The first problem is that there is no official poverty line and there are substantial statistical variations in different household and other surveys. Different methodologies, sample sizes and time periods further complicate comparative analyses. Without an agreed point of departure, it is very difficult to measure progress in poverty reduction and in human development.

The methodological problem bedevilled a May 1999 study that used a poverty line equivalent of US\$1 per adult equivalent per day in 1985 prices using purchasing power parities and then made adjustments based on the consumer price index and US dollar inflation. Even this effort led to significant variations with other efforts (e.g., World Bank and Penn World Tables) so caution in relying on the following estimates is advised.³⁰

Table 20: Tanzania Human Poverty Index

Indicator	Value
People expected to die before 40	35.5%
Adult illiteracy rate	28.4%
No access to safe water	34.0%
No access to health services	07.0%
No access to sanitation	14.0%
Under-weight children under 5	27.0%
Poorest 20% (PPP\$)	\$217
Richest 20% (PPP\$)	\$1430
Ratio of richest to poorest 20%	6.6

Source: UNDP Human Development Report 1999

³⁰ Eele and Semboja et. al., op. cit.

The study sought to estimate expected poverty levels in Tanzania in 2015 using different rates of growth in average incomes and starting from different estimated income positions, using different poverty lines and poverty elasticity estimates. Six alternative starting positions were derived from three different poverty lines and two poverty elasticities, calculated from household and grouped data respectively. Per capita income growth is obviously a key input for calculating the HDI and it affects other indices, since greater purchasing power can also mean improved health and welfare. The following table demonstrates how widely estimates vary depending upon growth assumptions and decisions regarding where to establish an official poverty line.

Table 21: Expected Population below the Poverty Line by 2015 with Alternative Simulations

Simulations	Average annual growth rates in per capita incomes				
	0.5%	1.0%	1.5%	2.0%	2.5%
1. US\$1 (WB) poverty line, elasticity 2.48, target rate of 25% by 2015	33.8	23.5	12.3	0.2	<0
2. US\$1 (WB) poverty line, elasticity 1.45, target rate of 25% by 2015	33.7	28.3	22.5	16.2	9.4
3. US\$1 (Penn) poverty line, elasticity 0.87, target rate of 33% by 2015	56.0	50.9	45.5	39.5	33.1
4. US\$1 (Penn) poverty line, elasticity 1.09, target rate of 30% by 2015	49.6	43.9	37.7	30.9	23.7
5. REPOA/CBS poverty line, elasticity 0.53, target rate of 38% by 2015	64.3	60.9	57.2	53.1	48.8
6. REPOA/CBS poverty line, elasticity 0.89, target rate of 35% by 2015	58.5	53.1	47.2	40.9	34.0

Source: Eele and Semboja, p. 15.

The study then analysed expected poverty levels with different hypothetical levels of change in income distribution with changes in the Gini Co-efficient varying from 1.0% to minus 2.0% and found that with constant average incomes, the impact on poverty levels was small. These findings were then combined using six different scenarios to try to estimate the impact of different growth scenarios on poverty in 2015.

The expected poverty level in 2015 from this exercise ranged from 20.2% to 48.4%. The study concluded that to achieve its poverty reduction targets the economy would need to grow between 3.8 and 5.3% per annum for 17 years. Between 1995-1997 the economy grew at 3.7%, the minimum that will need to be sustained.

To achieve national poverty reduction targets, Tanzania's economy will need to grow between 3.8 and 5.3% per annum for the next 17 years.

Government is also attempting to develop estimates of the level of effort needed to boost other elements of the HDI and HPI, including gender equity in education, infant and child mortality and maternal mortality. Projections derived from Eele and Semboja are reviewed briefly below and the overall prospects of reaching poverty reduction targets is then considered.

- Education and Gender Equality

The target is to achieve universal primary education (UPE) by 2015 and reduce gender inequality in primary and secondary school to less than 5 per cent by 2005. Gender equity at the primary level has virtually been achieved and there is progress at the secondary level with girls representing 44.5% of secondary school children in 1997. UPE can only be reached if the gross enrolment rate (GER) increases by an average of 5.3% per annum for the next 17 years.

UPE can only be reached if the gross enrolment rate (GER) increases by an average 5.3% per annum for the next 17 years.

This is much higher than the rate of the past 20 years. The World Bank (1998) estimated that the GER has been declining since the school age population continues to grow faster than the primary education system and suggests the 1997-98 rate of increase in the GER was about 1.2%, less than a fourth of what is needed. To expand the GER by the rate needed for UPE will require substantial - and currently unavailable - additional financial resources and there could be a risk of trade offs between more rapid expansion and improvement in the quality of existing schools.

- Infant, Child and Maternal Mortality

The target is to reduce 1990 rates by two-thirds by 2015 to reach an infant mortality rate of 31 and an under-five rate of 47. From 1967 to 1996 infant mortality declined from 155 to 88 (45%) and under-5 mortality by 43%, or declines of 2.0% and 2.3% per annum respectively. If the same rate of decline is projected to 2015, the two rates would be 61

Under-5 mortality in 1997 was 143 per 1,000 live births. The goal for 2015 is to reduce this to 47, requiring a rate of decline 2.5 times higher than what was achieved in the past 30 years. If AIDS infection trends continue, the rate could instead reach 160 by 2010.

and 92, about twice as high as the target. To achieve the target these rates must decline by 5.3% and 5.5% respectively. The key imponderable is the future rate of AIDS infections. A recent study by the U.S. Census Bureau concludes that the impact of AIDS on under-five mortality by 2010 - in light of current rates of infection and trends - would be to increase it to around 160 per 1,000 live births. The 1996 maternal mortality rate is 592 and the target is to reduce this by 75%. This target appears unrealistic, since a World Bank model for all of Africa has estimated that the rates should decline from 56-68% of 1990 rates, but that where countries are seriously affected by AIDS the rates will likely remain unchanged or worsen.

- Prospects for Poverty Reduction

Between 1985 and 1999 per capita GDP increased an average of 0.4% per year. With many macro-economic reforms now in place the prospects for increased growth have brightened even though the reality is that the economy is still growing only modestly. (See Section II, 2.1-2.2.)

Methodological inconsistencies have made it difficult to confirm trends in the incidence of poverty. However, when Eele and Semboja measured past poverty using the headcount ratio, a reduction in poverty from 0.65 to 0.43 over 15 years was suggested. With population growth of 2.8%, this would mean that the absolute number of people living

below the poverty line was about the same in 1999 as in 1983. The level of inequality (using the Gini Coefficient) seems to have lessened from 1983 to 1991 when there was little growth and then worsened through 1998 as economic growth recovered. Increasing inequality in income distribution also makes it more difficult to achieve poverty targets.

Implications for Human Development It is doubtful that Tanzania can reach international targets for poverty reduction and improved human development by 2015 or that it can reach the even more ambitious targets set out in the country's National Poverty Eradication Strategy. Some human development targets set at independence in 1961 have yet to be achieved and Tanzania is now faced with the AIDS pandemic. While prospects are mixed, the future basically is unknown. The AIDS pandemic could erase 30 years of progress or a cure could be found and the issue could become less daunting. The economy might grow as a result of a maturing democratic system, new technologies, new mineral discoveries and the more effective application of macroeconomic reforms. On the other hand, external shocks (droughts, floods, rapid changes in commodity prices) could cause major reversals. What is important in the above assessment is not the gloomy statistics but the fact that human beings can and are working to change conditions. As participatory development and local democracy take root, as lessons learned from past development efforts are internalised and as a steady and more effective government-donor partnership is forged, human development can and will continue in Tanzania and poverty rates will be affected as a consequence.

For each potential opportunity and every possible reversal there is, however, a common element that can enhance the former and mitigate the latter; that is, better management of resources for optimal effect, where adversities are anticipated, prepared for and minimised to the maximum possible extent. This is the one development variable where people have perhaps the greatest ability to exercise leadership and creativity.

3. THE TOOLS FOR HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

A. FINANCIAL POLICY AND PRIORITIES: EXPENDITURES FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

3A.1 Public Expenditure Policy and Objectives

Government is committed to expanding the share of the national budget devoted to education both as a percentage of the budget and as a share of GDP. Increasing government funding for education is to occur within the framework of the Public Expenditure Review (PER) process, whose principal goal is to strengthen the budget management process in order to use the budget as a more effective tool to advance Tanzania's development goals. Key objectives of the annual PER are summarised in the adjacent box.

The PER process is critically important for the education sector since it is likely to be a major beneficiary of improved budgetary control, not only in terms of increased funding but in improved management of education resources. For example, between FY95 and FY97 donor disbursements were from 62.6% to 79% below budget projections and government disbursements were from 26.3 to 79% below commitments.³¹ These gaps have several causes, including inadequate compliance with agreed disbursement conditions and non-disbursement of counterpart funds, but the end result is that budgets cannot be relied on by line ministries to predict the amount of funds likely to be available during the fiscal year. Consequently, planning suffers, reforms are deferred and shortfalls can cause delayed payment of teachers' salaries and other disruptive events that negatively affect an already weak education system.

During FY98, some 70% of donor assistance was disbursed outside the national budget framework because ministries negotiate separate agreements with willing donors, many of whom are reluctant to provide unearmarked budgetary support or even targeted budgetary support by sector due to a lack of confidence both in the budget management process and the financial and auditing control systems. In 1999 there were significant differences among donors over this issue, despite a general agreement in principle that a well-managed national budget is the preferred expenditure vehicle for donor assistance.

Box 10: Public Expenditure Review FY 1999

Key objectives of the FY 1999 PER are to:

- intensify a 3-5 year effort to strengthen budget management;
- improve the predictive value of budgets by enforcing a medium-term expenditure framework (MTEF);
- focus on budget sustainability to assure that sector programmes, when aggregated, are affordable in terms of future resources;
- increase the share of donor resources that are provided for general budgetary support;
- evaluate performance against approved budget and output targets to see if funds were spent as intended and, in addition: 1) prepare quarterly projections of donor financing; 2) mainstream quarterly reviews of adherence to sector priorities and 3) make evaluation reports more public by broadening stakeholder involvement in budget review meetings.

³¹ Ministry of Finance, *Tanzania Public Expenditure Review - FY99 Issues Paper*, p.3. (Unpublished)

Government recognises the need to build donor confidence in the probity of its financial management by reducing the diversion of resources and assuring that allocated funds reach their intended beneficiaries. This issue has become so critical because, as noted in the 1999 PER prepared for the Consultative Group meeting in May, 1999, “the majority of the accounts and statements prepared by ministries, regional governments and local authorities” were issued with adverse or qualified audit certificates due to the unavailability of bank reconciliation statements and receipts, causing the plurality of certificates to be adverse. The PER concludes by stating that “there is no discernible improvement trend in the quality of certificates issued by the Auditor General” and that budget and accounts management problems remain prevalent.

A study planned for 1999-2000 will trace funds disbursed for primary health care and education to determine the extent of loss through “leakage” and to recommend ways to minimise such losses. In FY00 the evaluation of the budget will include an assessment of output performance to better determine the effectiveness of the budget as a policy instrument. This is critically important for the education sector since public expenditures even at gradually increasing levels (see 3A.2 below) do not seem to be having the desired impact on human development, given that many education indicators are either very poor or actually deteriorating.

3A.2 Patterns of Public Expenditure for Education

As detailed in Table 22, during the past three years the share of the national budget devoted to education has increased annually. Over the past ten years, expenditure on education as a per cent of GDP has also grown modestly from 2.3% of GDP in 1990/91 to 2.7% in 1996/97³².

Table 22: Education Budget as a Share of National Budget (Source: MOF)

Year	National budget*	Education budget*	Share of national budget
1996/97	433,720	91,515	21.1%
1997/98	468,188	106,747	22.8%
1998/99	458,913	111,057	24.2%

* billions of Tshs

Relative budgetary allocations by education level have changed little over the past few years (see Table 22), but primary education has increased its share slightly from 64% to 65.6% (1998/99) of the total education budget, while the secondary school budget amount has declined from 9.5% in 1994/95 to 7.0% in 1998/99. Since Tanzania’s secondary school intake is so low compared to neighbouring countries (less than one-fourth), this is a worrisome trend and is considered in Section 3B.3 below. Table 23 provides details on education sector allocation trends by level. Government is committed to increasing spending on primary education, so recurrent costs per pupil will rise by 0.5% per pupil over the 1999-2002 period.

Table 23: Relative Budget Allocation by Education Levels (Source: PER 1998)

Year	Primary Total/%	Secondary Total/%	Teacher Educ. Total/%	Tertiary Total/%
<i>(in billions of Tshs)</i>				
1996/97	63,519/66.5	7,838/8.2	1,954/2.0	19,320/20.7
1997/98	68,896/64.4	7,894/7.4	2,639/2.5	22,914/21.4
1998/99	78,000/66.0	7,857/7.0	2,600/2.3	19,000/20.0

³² Ministry of Finance, *Public Expenditure Review 1998*.

Table 24 shows unit costs for education by level and the ratios between spending per capita at each level. Relative unit cost trends have been positive, with spending for university education dropping from 227 times the cost of primary education per capita in 1991/92 to 107 times in 1995/96. Similarly, the amount spent per capita on secondary education dropped from 13 to 6 times that of primary education from 1991/92 to 1996/97. The ratio for teacher education dropped by two-thirds from 24 to 8 times the per capita cost of primary education.

Despite positive relative unit cost trends at the tertiary level, the share of funds spent at this level remains too large given the highly inefficient university system. The 1999 PER compared Tanzania to Ghana, which has some of the best universities in Africa. Tanzania spends about Tshs 1 million (US\$1,350) more to train each university student. If the unit costs were the same as Ghana, government could save Tshs. 8 billion per year. High costs stem from low student-teacher ratios, low capacity utilisation rates and other inefficiencies. The university is undergoing a “transformation” and is trying to increase its enrolment and find ways to increase user costs to the beneficiaries of tertiary education. A student loan programme has also been tried with discouraging results. In 1997 Tanzania also had, at 42%, the highest number of students studying abroad at government expense of any country in Africa as a proportion of those studying in the country.

Table 24:

Per capita cost of education in 1996/97 (Tshs)	
primary	13,450
secondary	80,188
teacher	112,622
tertiary*	1,176,104

* (1995/96)

The largest public expenditure for education, not surprisingly, is for teachers’ salaries which ranged from 61,600 Tshs per month for Grade IIB entry level teachers to Tshs 823,900 for a full professor at the university. The remarkable aspect of teachers’ salaries is how flat the pay scale is at primary and secondary levels - while a new teacher without a diploma earns Tshs. 61,600/month, a new teacher with a diploma earns 65,716, a first degree holder 70,168 and a graduate with a second degree earns 72,646 on entry. There is virtually no monetary incentive for a teacher to invest in his or her own education in hopes of improving income, yet there is widespread concern about the high number of unqualified and under-qualified teachers and the low pupil pass rates (see Table 4). This lack of incentive may be a legacy of Tanzanian socialism. Its effect needs to be examined urgently.

While there is a general consensus between government and donors that the pattern and ratios of government spending by sector are about right, given overall financial constraints and sector needs, the key concern has been the disparity between commitments and disbursements from the recurrent budget and the resulting dislocations. For some years now, budgets have been more indicative than a solid commitment based on likely revenues. For example, in 1997/98 resources actually available to government for recurrent expenditures and counterpart funds were 10% below target while donor disbursements were 8% above target during the first 8 months of 1998/99.

To address these problems government has moved to a “cash management” resource allocation system based on “strategic priorities” that include education, health, food security, roads, water, agriculture, energy and - starting in FY99/00 - the judicial system, food security and land issues. For FY 1998/99, priority sectors represented 33.6% of the total budget and during the first 8 months of FY98/99 the actual release of funds to these sectors was above the budget allocation. Funds released to non-priority sectors fell to

almost 20% below budgeted amounts on average. In effect, the “strategic priorities” expenditure device represents a de facto shift in government expenditure patterns in favour of education and the other social sectors. The question of sustainability of this system remains since “non-priority” sectors now seek to become “priorities” (as with the three added this year) and, overall, in FY97/98 recurrent expenditures were 4% and development expenditures 47% below budget. Government is also examining the idea of a “national education levy” and a “revolving fund” for textbook purchase, but their administration has yet to be worked out. The coming on stream of MDF funds is an important new factor in this regard whose impact will need to be measured and assessed for impact.

Budgetary shortfalls in the past, coupled with the fact that 96% of primary education funds (1997/98) and 80% overall are spent on teachers salaries, means that there is still little money - outside of donor funds - available for other critical education needs. Until the efficiency of the education system and its management is improved, more money can help but will not solve the underlying problems of quality, impact and sustainability which are, in effect, governance issues.

3A.3 Patterns of Expenditure for Vocational Education and Training

Since 1995 a tax deductible training levy of two per cent of the wage bill has been collected from enterprises with four or more employees. The National Security Fund collects the levy, retains five per cent for administrative costs³³ and transfers the rest monthly to the Vocational Education and Training Authority³⁴ (VETA), which has a monopoly on the use of these funds. In 1998, 4.2 billion Tshs. (\$5.6 million) were collected, representing about 60% of the potential total of around Tshs. 7 billion. VETA’s 1999 budget shows that 88.9% of all income is from the training levy with the balance from application, testing and other fees and miscellaneous sources.

There are about 350 private training providers in Tanzania that provide the majority of vocational education and training, perhaps as much as 90%. These include centres supported by religious institutions, NGOs and private for-profit centres. They are reported to have high trade test pass rates and placement rates, despite the fact that many are poorly equipped. Training at these centres often takes up to three years compared to a two-year programme at VETA centres. VETA assists these centres through accreditation, guidelines on standards and vocational teacher upgrading but reserves only just under one per cent of its budget for non-VETA centres. The rest is used for VETA recurrent expenditures, including salaries, office equipment, vehicles, study tours and infrastructure. The head office of VETA consumes 29% of the total budget. If Tshs. 4.2 billion in training funds were received in 1998 and 1% is subtracted for other institutions, the remaining Tshs. 4.158 billion can be divided by the 3,500 students trained (the higher of two 1995 estimates) yielding a per student cost of Tshs. 1,188,000 per pupil. This is a slightly higher per pupil

³³ Despite the fee collected by the NSF and the fact that the collection process is fully operational, the NSF is so far “unable” to produce statements for individual employers, on defaulters, on employer registrations by region, on amounts received by district or region, etc. This obviously makes any analysis of the levy itself almost impossible.

³⁴ VETA is discussed at length in Section IIIC of this report. VETA was established in 1994 as an autonomous government agency and replaced the National Vocational Training Department of the Ministry of Youth and Labour.

cost than for university training and is an astonishing amount when it is recalled that 86% of VETA's graduates (1996) could not be placed and ended up in the informal sector.

The vocational education and training sector is supported by Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Japan, the ILO and other donors. Over the past three years, as will become apparent below, VETA has experienced numerous difficulties in providing quality, timely and demand-driven services to trainees and to the enterprises that pay the training levy. These problems are exhaustively presented in several donor reports³⁵ and have been frankly acknowledged by the new leadership team at VETA. The prevailing view is that VETA can be sustainable financially but only if it substantially alters its spending patterns in the areas of construction, personnel emoluments, overhead and fees.

Implications for Human Development In view of the dubious spending priorities of VETA, its high overhead costs and its continued inability to meet quality and efficiency objectives, government should study the option of ending VETA's monopoly access to the training levy funds. There are several ways that the National Security Fund could be mandated to provide funds directly to other VET institutions or VETA could be instructed to pass on a certain minimum share of the training levy to other institutions on a competitive basis while having its head office budget restricted to a fixed percent of total funds received. In these ways government could increase the impact of these funds on human development and introduce some competition that may energise VETA to make more substantial reforms and at a faster pace. Some funds could also be used to support vocational training for the disabled and better equip special schools.

3A.4 Management and Co-ordination of External Assistance in HRD

In Tanzania external assistance has been substantial and sustained with a per capita aid figure of \$32.65 for 1997. Despite at least US\$800 million annually in external assistance for the past decade, of which about 25% has been spent on the social sector, Tanzania's human development indicators remain low, its relative position on the Human Development Index has worsened³⁶ and both its education sector and the vocational/informal training sectors are in crisis. The challenge, therefore, is to understand why external assistance has not had greater impact on human development and what can be done to assure the optimal sustained impact of these resources in the future.

An assessment of the quality, relevance or impact of the wide range of donor initiatives in education that have been under implementation for many years is well beyond the scope of this report. The focus here is on the co-ordination of external assistance, its relationship to Tanzania's national development effort and the factors that enhance or impede donor effectiveness in the education sector and with respect to human development in general.

³⁵ For a "before and after" perspective, it is instructive to read first the ILO's excellent report of February 1997 Strengthening Vocational Education for Employment and Development (3 vols.) setting out a detailed strategic framework and action plan and then the April 1999 DANIDA report Progressive Assessment of the Implementation of the Strategic Action Plan: VETA. The discouraging assessment in the DANIDA report is echoed in more recent reports from other donors. The key findings of these assessments are included in Section IIIC below.

³⁶ In 1992 Tanzania ranked 126th on the HDI, by 1996 it was ranked 144th, by 1997 149th and by 1998 it was 150th out of 175 countries.

Issues relating to donor financing in the education sector are also discussed in Sections 3A.1-3 above.

Improving the co-ordination of donor assistance and using resources more efficiently has been an issue in development assistance for over 30 years. As discussed in the section above on education financing patterns, government has endorsed the sector-wide approach and encourages donors to provide general budgetary support to education rather than design discrete projects. Since 1998, government has held quarterly consultations with all stakeholders on strategic and policy issues. The annual PER involves government (including parliament), donors, NGOs, the private sector, academic institutions and religious groups. The Medium-Term Expenditure Framework is reviewed during the PER and has improved the programming and co-ordination of donor resources. Government also set up the Multi-lateral Debt Fund (MDF) to co-ordinate donor support, linking debt relief with sector-wide development programming. The Fund received \$85.4 million in bi-lateral donor support as of July 1999, enough to cover 75% of multi-lateral debt servicing for the year. In May 1999, a government-donor meeting jointly endorsed the idea of a Tanzanian Assistance Strategy (TAS) to improve the programming of foreign assistance and link it to sector programming and local government policy reforms. These initiatives provide an improved policy environment for government-donor co-operation leading to eventual partnership based on mutual trust.

Unfortunately, a number of problems complicate efforts to strengthen co-ordination, ensure government ownership and leadership of the national development agenda and build capacity within government institutions that should be managing the process. These do not apply only to the education sector or only to Tanzania, but they affect both in major ways.

The Tanzanian government has cited as problems³⁷: 1) donor rigidity in terms of policy prescriptions; 2) unwillingness of some donors to embrace the sector-wide approach and local budgetary control; 3) hesitancy of some donors to untie aid; 4) excessive delays between commitments and disbursements caused by cumbersome donor procedures and; 5) continued interest in projects rather than programmes, either because donors want their country to be known as the donor for a specific activity or because they believe the targeted project will have greater impact than a broader programme. Government also pointed out that donor analytical work was often uncoordinated and resulted in sometimes conflicting policy advice being given to government by different donors. In the education sector, at least ten donors have produced analyses which - with more joint missions - could be better harmonised, less voluminous and help reduce statistical discrepancies.

The donor community has its own concerns, beginning with the weak capacity of government to manage and execute programmes and including: 1) weak accounting and auditing systems; 2) institutional rivalries between multiple ministries with overlapping responsibilities (e.g., in the environment and education); 3) the need to address corruption vigorously; and 4) capacity weaknesses and motivational problems among some poorly paid civil servants who are not fully focused on excellence in governance.

Donors and government agree on the need for improved co-ordination and a Tanzanian-designed assistance strategy. The challenge is to build greater trust between national and

³⁷ Government of Sweden. *Making Partnerships Work on the Ground*. (Proceedings of the two-day workshop in Stockholm on this subject August 30-31, 1999).

international development partners, as cited recently as a major pre-requisite for a more effective donor role³⁸. Trust, as noted by government and donors alike, can only be built on sustained performance where there is proof that funds are used as intended. Some donors will continue to prefer a project approach or will co-operate in a joint programming exercise, through retaining control of finance, until there is sufficient auditing and accounting capability to assure that aid reaches the intended beneficiaries.

For the education sector, therefore, the various master plans, budgets and policy statements can provide guidance and a framework for donor assistance and some donors will provide general budgetary support, but it will be some time before most donor funds are administered by government. In the meantime, donors can help government reach this goal through capacity building for improved governance in the MOEC, the MOSTHE and the MOF (including technical training, computerisation of financial accounts, workshops on best practices, etc.).

Overall, the role of external assistance in promoting human development is one of facilitation and empowerment through the provision of policy, financial, technical and management support within a national development framework conceived, managed, co-ordinated and “owned” by Tanzanians.

³⁸ Ibid.

B. THE FORMAL EDUCATION SECTOR

3B.1 Introduction

The regression in the gross and net school enrolment ratios, the extremely low pass rates at the primary school leaving level, the exceptionally low intake at secondary and university levels, the large number of unqualified teachers in the classroom, the appalling physical state of many schools and weaknesses in management and leadership in the sector have combined to create a genuine crisis in Tanzania's educational system. Section B examines the primary, secondary, tertiary and teacher education sub-sectors and then comments on government's efforts to provide a co-ordinated response to this crisis and considers the implications for human development.

3B.2 Primary Education⁴¹

The State of Primary Education

There were 11,290 primary schools in Tanzania in 1997 with 109,936 teachers. After expanding steadily in the decade after independence, primary enrolment rose dramatically to 95% by 1982 in keeping with government's objective to achieve universal primary education. Economic reversals in the mid-1980s and other factors made this achievement unsustainable and enrolments declined from 1984-89. Since then enrolments have increased to over four million pupils as shown in Table 25. The Gross Enrolment Rates for 1997 - the capacity to accommodate all children seeking education at a given grade level - was 76.8%, compared to a Net Enrolment Rate - the proportion of school age children actually enrolled - of 57.6%.

Table 25: Comparison of Primary School Enrolment 1994 and 1998

	1994			1998		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Total Enrolment	1,923,062	1,873,766	3,796,830	2,033,281	2,009,287	4,042,568
of which Private	1,890	1,739	3,629	3,852	3,507	7,359

Unfortunately, enrolment rates say very little about the quality of learning and impact of schooling on Tanzania's children. Table 26 and the boxes profiling Shinyanga region and Kyela district reveal an education system that is performing poorly even by African standards and in comparison with Tanzania's neighbours. Statistics only convey an impersonal aggregate impression of primary education and not the despair of parents, children and educators over the collective inability of the country to provide a reasonable standard of basic education to its youth. The case of Shinyanga Region in the following box provides both a profile and some context for understanding the problem, illuminating the links between education, culture and economics.

⁴¹ Unless otherwise noted statistics in this section are from MOEC, *Basic Statistics in Education 1994-1998* (Dar es Salaam: June 1998), MOEC, *Education Indicators in Tanzania*, (Dar es Salaam: March 1999) and MOEC, *Basic Statistics in Education Regional Data 1996* (Dar es Salaam: October 1997).

Box 11:

Regional Focus 1: The Case of Primary Education in Shinyanga

Shinyanga Region is in north west Tanzania near Lake Victoria. The education level of its 2.3 million people is low with a regional literacy rate of 32%, compared to a national average near 80%. A recent survey⁴² found that 51% of villagers interviewed had never attended school. Among those classified as “very poor,” 71% were uneducated and 29% had some education. Among those considered “rich” (by local standards), those who were educated and uneducated were each at 50%. Thus ability to pay is not the only variable in school attendance. Pupils cited absenteeism of teachers and pupils, alcoholism among teachers, girls getting married, lack of chairs, desks, chalk and teaching materials, school buildings with earthen floors and no doors and windows, pupils doing shamba (farm) work on teachers plots during school hours and attendance at ngomas (traditional dancing and drumming). Also girls are often kept home to do housework and boys herd cattle. Many village schools are unfinished and deteriorating: “Two years ago two classrooms and a headmaster’s office were built. These are made of mud blocks. None has a floor, one has a corrugated iron roof and two are thatched.” Teachers in many villages are unpaid and untrained volunteer village residents.

Girls are taken out of school more often than boys because the opportunity cost of girls education is higher for parents, since parents can receive a bride-price if they marry them off while young. Bride price is often paid in cattle, the most valuable possession in the region. The costs (fees) and opportunity costs of education are obvious to parents in the short-term, whereas long-term benefits are neither perceived nor guaranteed. As the Shinyanga survey concludes: Far from stemming from ... outdated cultural values, low participation in education appears as a rational response to its poor provision and high short-term costs.”

A farmer in Kagame village put the issue succinctly stating: “We, the poor, cannot increase production because our household labour is inadequate. Thus we have to pull our kids out of school to add to farm labour” and when teachers make pupils work on their own farms rather than attend classes they feel vindicated.

The education issue and related gender inequities in Shinyanga must also be understood in the larger cultural context which is described frankly by the Shinyanga government as follows: Patriarchal values are strongly upheld and there are strong beliefs in ... magic and witchcraft... Most people strongly believe in and practice their traditional religion and hold great respect for traditional healers and institutions on which most social networks are based. The effect of patriarchy is pervasive. It influences gender relations, the division of labour, resource ownership, inheritance patterns, power relations and household decision making. Patriarchal values have highly negative effects on the development process in general and on the empowerment of women in particular.

The economic and cultural insights presented above argue forcefully for a national integrated human development strategy, adapted to local conditions with education playing one role in a larger process.

In co-operation with UNICEF, the MOEC has carried out school mapping surveys to better understand the state of primary education and to assist in school location planning, initially in ten of Tanzania’s 123 Districts. These provide a grassroots view of the extent and depth of the primary education problem in Tanzania. The following profile illustrates clearly some of the reasons why many parents do not pay for schooling, do not believe their children learn very much and are unpersuaded of education’s long-term benefits. At the

same time, despite these deplorable conditions, there are other parents who understand quite well the value of education and many children who are passionate about learning and desperate for a chance to acquire the basic skills they need and, often, know they need for a better life.

Table 26: Primary Education Profile - A Tale of Three Districts⁴³

Indicator	Kyela District Mbeya Region	Bagamoyo District Coast Region	Serengeti District Mara Region
Number of primary schools	91	93	80
Per cent of 7-13 year-olds enrolled	44%	?	38%
Per cent of 7 year-olds enrolled	36%	23%	61%
Drop out rate per annum	8.0%	3.2%	10%
Classroom-pupil ratio (standard 1:45)	1:61	1:76	1:67
Latrine-pupil ratio (standard 1:25)	1:170	1:139	1:64
Per cent of schools with libraries	0	3	0
Per cent of teachers with houses	34%	19%	35%
Per cent of pupils with no desks	18%	40%	27%
Classrooms without a teacher's table/chair	65%	60%	98%
Under qualified teachers (primary ed. only)	61%	57%	58%
Head teachers with primary education	20%	?	53%
Classrooms without blackboards	36%	12%	21%

The profiles of Kyela, Morogoro and Serengeti Districts also reveal that none of the schools in Serengeti have clean water and hygiene is not taught in the schools. In Serengeti district, water is available at distance of 3 to 6 km from the schools and is brought by bucket. Parental participation is limited to disciplinary problems in all three districts. None of the schools in Serengeti had switched to the new curriculum adopted in 1992 as of July 1998, absenteeism is high and 12% of the children walk more than 6 km a day to and from school. In Bagamoyo, textbooks were only available for 20% of the children and teachers were found using teachers guide provided in 1982 and 1985. The following box examines one of these districts (Kyela) in more detail to place the above statistics in context.

Box 12:
Regional Focus 2: The Case of Primary Education in Kyela

Kyela is located on the floor of the Great Rift Valley at the northern end of Lake Malawi about 125 km south of Mbeya. In 1999, its total population was estimated at 183,791: 52% female, 26% under age 6, 20% between the ages of 7-13 and 12% between 14-19. Its per capita GDP is above average for Tanzania.

In 1998 there were 26,931 children enrolled, 11% of which completed primary school. Of this group, ten per cent were selected to enter secondary school in Form I - 218 girls and 229 boys. The NER was 44% and the GER 114% showing that many over-aged children are enrolled. About 9% were not enrolled.

⁴³ These profiles are drawn from UNICEF, *School Mapping in Kyela District*, July 1999; UNICEF, *School Mapping in Serengeti District*, October 1998 and UNICEF, *School Mapping Report on Bagamoyo District*, May 1998.

One textbook and one desk was available for every three children and almost all primary schools have access to piped water, 83% of it potable thanks to a donor that supports health services in the district.

There were 910 teachers in 1998 and 34% were female. About 40% of all teachers benefited from distance teacher training (34% of beneficiaries were women). Of the 39% of teachers who were considered “qualified” (i.e., graduated from Form IV), 30% were women. Teachers are expected to teach 31 periods per week, but Kyela has an average of 26 periods per week. Most teachers are also responsible for overseeing sports, student health, discipline and managing income generating activities for the school.

In 1998 an estimated 79% of primary school expenditures were paid by government and 98% of this amount was for teachers. District Councils are expected to provide 3% of their total revenue to education but the survey in Kyela was unable to learn the amounts actually expended. The balance of primary school budgets are funded by parents through school, sports and examination fees. MOEC has limited combined fees at primary level to Tshs 5,000 per year but contributions other than school fees are decided by local school committees. Since 1996 schools can retain all school fees and other fees for school development.

The needs of Kyela District have been calculated and sent to the MOEC as part of the national budgeting process and estimates of needs made to 2004. For 1999 the estimate was Tshs. 2.353 billion (\$4.3 million). There is, of course, no guarantee that budgetary needs can be met by government.

Policies, Plans and Priorities for Primary Education

In 1995 government produced an Education and Training Policy and committed itself in 1996 to a Sector-Wide Approach to Programming (SWAP), which led to the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) and the articulation of a Basic Education Master Plan⁴⁴ (BEMP) under the guidance of the Inter-ministerial Education Sector Co-ordination Committee (ESCC). The BEMP was developed consistent with the 1995 Social Sector Strategy, annual PERs and input from the Inter-Agency Group on Education, a government-donor consultative group.

The BEMP has specific goals, a clear policy framework and a set of strategic priorities and targets. These are summarised briefly below to provide a basis for assessing the approach, its prospects for success and possible impact on human development.

➤ The Goals of the BEMP and its Policy Framework

The first goal is to raise the standards and quality of primary education. Cohort progression rates are only 67% and repetition rates are about 19% per cohort. As noted elsewhere, girls under-perform compared to boys, access to textbooks is very limited, many teachers are under-qualified and millions of parents have lost confidence in the education system altogether.

⁴⁴ MOEC. *Basic Education Master Plan - Medium-Term Strategic and Programme Framework 1997-2002*. (Dar es Salaam: February 1997).

The second goal is to optimise the use of existing resources. Despite spending an equal or greater share of GDP on education compared to its East African neighbours, performance is lower in Tanzania, student-teacher ratios are too low in some areas, teacher workloads need to be rationalised and the whole system made more efficient. The BEMP goal is to shift salary: non-salary spending ratios from 93:7 to 80:20 by 2001/02 through redeployment of teachers and improving efficiency to the point where more funds are available for non-salary items. Optimisation is also to occur through “divestment of school ownership” to local authorities and a gradual shift to block grants to district schools with earmarked salary and non-salary shares.

The third goal is to enable institutional reform. Six main issues are to be addressed: 1) aligning central and local government and schools in policy formulation, management and monitoring of services; 2) developing a vision for MOEC for policy planning and performance monitoring; 3) ensuring effective co-ordination of quality monitoring bodies including the Inspectorate; 4) rationalising the roles of school officials; 5) establishing an effective institutional planning and budgeting framework; and 6) rationalising personnel management functions.

In carrying this out, the MOEC will be “re-positioned to help enable primary education service provision rather than act as a provider/supplier.”⁴⁵ The policy framework changes government from a sole provider to an enabler of public/private partnerships in the provision of primary education by delegating authority to local officials and encouraging the private sector to help finance and manage education at all levels.

➤ Strategic Priorities and Targets of the BEMP

The BEMP’s “broad strategic objective is to “raise Standards I-VII completion rates to 80% by 2002 and improve performance for girls and boys by 20%. Specific objectives are:

- increase instructional hours to 20 per week;
- improve availability of textbooks to one book per student per grade;
- expand the teacher upgrading programme to deliver 10 days training per teacher per annum;
- strengthen assessments and examinations by providing one school inspector per 12 schools;
- revitalise schools with 100% trained head teachers and one school inspection every two years;
- rationalise TTCs to improve efficiency and reform pre-service teacher education;
- redeploy trained teachers for more equitable distribution with 50% Grade A teachers per school;
- promote pupil health, gender equity and community participation via a media outreach effort;
- optimise use of classrooms with multi-shift teaching with a 1:45 teacher-pupil ratio and 30% increase in utilisation rates;
- rehabilitate 10,000 classrooms with greater community involvement;
- build 10,000 new classrooms based on the school mapping surveys in under-served areas;

⁴⁵ BEMP, p. 7.

- use targeted incentive schemes and boarding in remote areas to gain 250,000 more enrolments;
- expand adult literacy programmes to gain 250,000 more participants.

In addition, the BEMP envisages reforms at MOEC and at the district and community levels by revising legislation, improving personnel management systems, computerising data bases and instituting an annual performance monitoring system, including an assessment of the BEMP's progress in meeting its goals. The rest of the BEMP provides indicative budgetary figures and a financing plan that most donors have found unrealistic.

➤ The COBET Initiative

The Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET) programme responds effectively to one of the themes of this HDR, which is how Tanzania's formal, vocational and informal education systems can best address the needs of those who leave the education system as well as those who remain within it in order to broaden the sector's long-term impact on human development. COBET offers a second chance for the more than 2.25 million children who have dropped out or never enrolled to gain education and skills. The programme plans to be open to children aged 8-18 with a flexible time table to address their time constraints due to farming and other chores.

COBET is well-integrated into the ESDP and does not attempt to create a new system parallel to primary education. It offers tailor-made educational instruction based on needs assessments and stresses gender balance as a goal. Thus it can provide life skills (nutrition, hygiene, AIDS prevention), literacy and vocational training and offer a route back into the formal education system when the timing is appropriate for the individual child.

Box 13: COBET's Goal

COBET will be phased into five wards in each of Tanzania's 115 districts within 5 years. The goal is 60 children in each of 5 centres per ward or 1500 children per district. After the pilot phase in two districts, COBET will expand by 15 to 25 districts per year. At the end of 5 years 444,000 children will have been reached or about 20% of those estimated to be in need as of 1999. Ward selection in the pilot districts was based on school mapping that

The school mapping project provides an excellent basis for identifying areas where COBET will be most needed and can be integrated into the formal education system while also promoting co-operation with NGOs and others working in the informal education sector. COBET centres can increase the capacity utilisation of school buildings. One challenge for COBET will be to find capable instructors since COBET will face the same problems that the primary system has with under-educated teachers. A training programme for COBET will, therefore, support the initiative and help make it sustainable. Since COBET staff will be paid by government rather than donors, their pay scales and pay system can also be integrated into the larger system. COBET is to be managed at the district level by the Adult Education Co-ordinator and locally by the Ward Education Co-ordinator. Very few of these are women which presents a problem of gender equity, and which is a key concern of UNICEF, its funding partner.

Assessing the Development Prospects of Primary Education

The conceptual basis for primary education sector reform is sound and the targets set by the BEMP are desirable goals. The transformation of primary education depends upon how successfully government and its private sector partners can achieve two underlying goals: re-energising and motivating ordinary people to want to participate more fully in the education of their children and effectively devolving authority and resources to the local level in ways that change local systems and empower local people - especially women - to have a greater impact on the primary school sub-sector. Much of the recent documentation on primary education makes general statements about the need for participation and decentralisation, but devotes much more space to the more concrete issues of funding, school repair, provision of textbooks, etc. Without addressing these underlying issues successfully, however, government should expect repaired schools to again fall into disrepair, textbooks to be lost or not well cared for and funding to have less than an optimal impact on pupil examination pass rates and school outputs generally.

➤ Participation

An information, education and communication (IEC) outreach programme is being planned to better inform parents of recent primary school reforms, to encourage them to donate labour for the construction of classrooms and teachers' houses and to explain the need for school fees to be paid and for schools to have income-generating projects. The IEC will need to be carefully designed to present these concepts effectively and in the best possible cultural context. Exhortation is ineffective if the message is not understood or believed. The IEC must be designed with the active participation of selected parents, tested on sample groups, revised, tested again and then used widely. The IEC has a difficult challenge because it is not introducing a new idea but seeking to reverse negative attitudes to past failures and to persuade people that their own best interests lie in areas and in the expenditure of their limited resources in ways that are not apparent to many of them. The IEC will need to use innovative village-based techniques, involve CBOs and NGOs and find culturally acceptable ways to reach both adults and children directly, both to get input and to deliver the message about the critical importance of literacy and education.

➤ Decentralisation

The experience with decentralisation has been very mixed in the increasing number of African countries that have committed themselves to this approach. The key problems have been that : 1) weak central ministries of education are attempting to devolve authority to even weaker regional and district governments; 2) school headmasters have been used to hierarchy and central decision making and either find themselves without guidance in the new system or assume they now have absolute decision making authority over their schools and discourage local school boards and PTAs, viewing them as threats to their new authority; 3) local school boards often end up being male only or mostly male or being a new type of council of elders where people are chosen based on seniority or status rather than for what they might contribute to school affairs; 4) once funds are managed locally those with an interest in benefiting from those funds are attracted to and become leaders of school boards and decide to pay themselves sitting fees and transport allowances, and organise meetings over free lunches or otherwise dip into resources that should be dedicated to school improvement. Obviously, the severity of these problems varies by school and by district but they are depressingly common. The challenge of the IEC will be to link its

communications efforts with locally-based groups and individuals with leadership capacity and then to ensure that the IEC is followed up with specific actions and contacts at the local level, so such people remain engaged and feel supported and part of a larger effort.

➤ Governance

Underlying participation and decentralisation is the quest for improved governance of the sector which, in turn, is assumed to be critical for improved efficiency of both inputs and outputs. That is, improved pupil-teacher ratios resulting from better management can free up funds (inputs) for other needs while better trained teachers and a more relevant curriculum should improve test scores and equip pupils with knowledge and skills more directly relevant to their lives (outputs).

➤ Synthesis

The past few years have witnessed the development of a sector wide approach to planning and programming, the preparation of sub-sector master plans, improvements in educational budget management, sustained donor support for the sector, new leadership at VETA and signs that - through COBET and other initiatives - out-of-school youth are also becoming a priority. These actions are beginning to create a critical mass of innovation and change that, in combination, offer the potential for a far-reaching impact on the prospects of Tanzania's children for basic education. The sector-wide approach can produce new opportunities for synergy within the sector but even more benefits can occur from greater inter-penetration with other sectors, especially vocational and non-formal education and training initiatives (and centres) in agriculture and in public administration and management.

**Primary School:
Implications for Human Development**

The impact of basic education on human development is so obvious as to be self-evident. However, the specific impact of primary education on the human development of an individual child can vary enormously depending upon the quality of education offered, the condition of that child to receive what is being offered and the opportunities for children to then apply what they know. The average age at entry of a child into primary school is 7 or 8 years compared to age 5 in the West. There are few or no pre-school opportunities for children aged 3-7, except for wealthier parents in urban areas. Whereas children in developed countries benefit from programmes like Head Start in the United States. Some children have learning disabilities due to stunting from malnutrition or are handicapped in some way, but there are very few resources available to address the special needs of such primary school children and they are not specifically mentioned in any of the basic education documents. Far more children have very real obligations to herd cattle, do housework, help farm, care for ill relatives, etc. leading to high absenteeism rates. COBET will try to address this issue for out-of-school youth. Perhaps the regular primary schools can examine how well COBET is able to function with flexible schedules and adopt some of their innovations to reduce absenteeism in a concrete expression of the kind of synergy discussed above. Basic education is the foundation of human development - a weak foundation risks stagnation and can even cause the collapse of a nation. Thus the priority placed on basic education is well-founded.

3B.3 Secondary Education⁴⁶

The State of Secondary Education

There were 814 secondary schools in Tanzania in 1999, 439 government and 375 private - including seminaries. These schools enrolled 250,027 pupils in 1998 in Forms I-VI. By comparison, Kenya, with only a slightly smaller population, had 2,632 secondary schools in 1992. In 1999 government schools enrolled 52% of all pupils. Secondary education suffers from problems of quantity, quality, access and participation as summarised below:

➤ Quantity: Enrolment Levels

Although secondary enrolment almost doubled from 1988 to 1998 (from 118,810 to 226,903 in Forms I-IV), the gross enrolment rate is just 5% compared to 26% in Kenya, 28% in Zambia and 44% in Zimbabwe. The transition rate from primary to secondary levels is 18% compared to 53% for Kenya and 29% for Uganda. This suggests that Tanzania is unable to enrol the great majority of primary school completers. The transition from Form IV (“O” level) to Form V (“A” level) is also very competitive, with about 21-25% of students entering Form V and about 20% of this group entering university.

➤ Quality: Teaching, Curriculum, Results

Poor English language instruction at primary level results in a much reduced learning capacity among secondary school pupils, whose language of instruction switches from Swahili to English in Form I. This is further aggravated by secondary school teachers who switch between the two languages in the classroom, leaving many secondary school leavers unable to communicate effectively in the country’s official language and the essential language for higher education. The use of under-qualified teachers also has a major impact on quality. Of 6,292 public secondary school teachers in 1998, just 824 (13%) were graduates while 23% of private secondary school teachers were graduates. In addition, school libraries lack even basic textbooks, only some 25% of government secondary schools have received any maintenance in the past 15 years, instructional materials are in short supply and the curriculum needs a thorough review. Not surprisingly, the results of secondary education are disappointing and the majority of students who do not continue to tertiary level are ill-equipped for the world of work. Curriculum relevance to pupil-skill needs is a major issue that is not adequately reviewed in sector and sub-sector planning documents.

➤ Access: Gender and Special Needs Students

Girls represent 45% of lower secondary and 44% of teacher training college pupils. However, their enrolment declines rapidly at “A” level to 32%. The Secondary Education Master Plan (SEMP) does not mention disabled students or the growing number of students infected with HIV/AIDS. While there are specialised institutions for some disabled students (see Section I, 1.4), no mention has been found of their relationship to mainstream schools

⁴⁶ Information for this section has been drawn especially from the *Secondary Education Master Plan 1999-2004*, April 1999; the *Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) Appraisal* of March 1999; the *Medium-Term Expenditure Framework for 1999-2002* of the ESDP and from the MOEC/UNICEF school mapping project.

or what efforts are being made to co-ordinate their activities and move some disabled students into regular schools.

➤ Participation: School Planning and Management

The majority of School Board vacancies are unfilled and most Boards with members only meet during crises. The poor quality of education over many years has seriously eroded parent confidence in the education system, thus making it more difficult to involve parents in the schools. The management system is very centralised leading to poor staffing and low use of school infrastructure, especially because there are only three hours of classes per day. Most head teachers have no management training and most schools have no school development plans.

Policies, Plans and Priorities for Secondary Education

Government policy, stemming from institutional and financial reforms, is to serve as an “enabler and a key strategic provider” in quality control and assurance, standard setting and becoming a qualitatively better provider. The SEMP has five priority programmes:

- **Programme for Increased Access.** The first SEMP priority is to double Form I intake over the plan period and to increase the primary school transition rate from 18 to 25%. This is to be achieved by converting under-used post-secondary facilities into rural secondary schools; construction of 420 classrooms in under-served areas; increased enrolment by moving from two to three streams in community schools; assisting some private schools by paying for seconded teachers and some instructional materials; and by encouraging construction of one community school per district per year. These measures are expected to add 66,400 students by 2004. In addition, government plans to increase “A” level enrolment by 2,100 per year.
- **Programme for Increased Equity.** The goal is to achieve gender parity and increase enrolment from poor families and under-served areas. The strategy is to introduce means testing for scholarships to help poor families, target aid to girls and analyse gross and net enrolment ratios by district and other factors to broaden access by income level and geographic area.
- **Programme for Increased Quality.** Quality is to be improved by strengthening pre-service and in-service teacher training; revising the curriculum; improving an instructional materials system with book grants to poor families; improving training of trainers at Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs); improving school inspections and enforcing minimum teacher qualifications; improving language learning and teaching; rehabilitating schools physically with community participation and improving sports and cultural facilities.
- **Programme for Increased Efficiency.** The SEMP aims to increase student/teacher ratios; improve teacher deployment and management; rationalise the number of subjects; increase the share of boarding costs paid by users; revise legislation to empower local authorities to plan and deliver secondary education; improve counselling and motivate communities to build student hostels near community schools to reduce the drop out rate (e.g., among nomads).

- **Programme for Increased Autonomy.** The current centralised education system is one reason why school boards have atrophied and participation of parents is marginal. Government intends to devolve all financial and operational management authority to autonomous school boards of management by 2001. Heads of schools and board members will develop and implement plans and accountability will be enhanced through the inspectorate and by reviewing the recruitment and promotion of existing school heads.

Programme sustainability is a major concern and is to be addressed by increasing the share of the government secondary school education budget from 7 to 15% by 2004; partnering with private sector initiatives and setting up an education levy at the national level while encouraging similar local funds. The entire programme is to be monitored for outputs and impact using verifiable indicators. Finally, the SEMP recognises that “there will be neither funding nor capacity to implement all the programmes at the same time” and urges that specific priorities be established within the broader priorities set out in the Plan and that those reforms that do not require additional funds be tackled immediately under a Senior MOEC Officer who would be put in charge of co-ordinating plan implementation.

Assessing the Development Prospects of Secondary Education

The 1999 ESDP Appraisal Team observed that the SEMP assumed “a linear expansion of secondary education (e.g., one school per district per year) with heavy reliance on community and private sector financing and initiative.” The Appraisal team added that improvements are assumed to flow from more inputs, without fully addressing the more fundamental issue of the “modernisation of learning processes and outcomes.” In Section II, 2.1 of this report it was noted that the goal of Tanzania’s first Five Year Plan was to be “fully sufficient in trained manpower by 1980.” As such, some of the goals in the SEMP appear to be unrealistic.

The SEMP projects a 25% transition rate by 2004 whereas the assessment team concludes that funds “are not likely to be available” for even a modest increase at 20%. The SEMP makes enormous assumptions about capacity at the local, district and national levels that are not borne out by experience. The SEMP itself at the end recognises that “there will be neither the funding nor capacity...” yet the bulk of the document makes recommendations and projections based on resources known to be unavailable. Thus the SEMP is as much a “wish list” as a “master plan.” It can be used as a thoughtful point of departure for further consideration of issues, but as a “plan” it is inadequate because the gap between goals and means is excessive.

In view of the above, what are the alternatives for secondary education? The Assessment Team made five recommendations:

- improve access using alternative delivery modes, including distance and correspondence learning;
- modernise the curriculum, its structures and processes;

- accelerate devolution of authority on a progressive basis tailored to the capacities of each school;
- support capacity-building for school empowerment to manage learning; and
- improve the targeting of limited resources to under-served areas and review the use of means testing as an approach.

The Assessment Team focused on training of trainers (TOT) for TTCs and the curriculum. They argued that the curriculum needs to be transformed and not just updated or revised and that TOT should focus on “the learning that teachers actually require to become good teachers” rather than on demand, capacity and resources needed to raise teacher output; issues they believe are already well-addressed. Overall, the Assessment Team was most concerned about quality, decentralisation and equity. They felt the first was addressed at the margins and the second did not take into account the enormity of capacity deficiencies at the local level in terms of the skills of local administrators, likely local school board members, etc. The equity question centres on disadvantaged groups other than girls; in particular: the disabled; street children; orphans; refugee and internally displaced children; children with HIV/AIDS; working children and children excluded from school because of abuse. A comprehensive “master plan” needs to address the needs of these special groups as well as the general student population, but none is mentioned in the SEMP.

Stressing “the fundamental issue of the modernisation of learning processes and outcomes” sounds appealing and implies a means to enhance the SEMP, but this may be unclear to some. The recommendation to “promote learner participation at all levels” is also vague and could be mistaken for a platitude. In fact, the argument behind these two phrases are pivotal if Tanzania is ever to address the issue of quality and - by extension - deal more forcefully with how secondary education impacts human development.

**Secondary School:
Implications for Human Development**

Education systems almost by definition focus on those who are enrolled. They have prescribed syllabuses, required texts, standard examinations and the

overwhelming criterion of “success” is whether the child moves to the next level. The system’s goal, legitimately, is to educate as many children as possible to the highest possible level. Tanzania’s secondary schools will be considered “more successful” if they enrol and retain ever larger numbers of pupils and if they increase their “O” level pass rates. Rarely is a secondary school judged by how well school leavers are able to perform in the workplace. Consider a parable of two secondary schools:

The North School has a 60% retention rate through Form IV and a 50% “O” level pass rate, whereas the South School had only a 30% retention rate and a 40% pass rate. The North School and its pupils will be viewed as more successful regardless of what happens to the other 40-70% of the pupils who leave these schools. If the South school had managed to impart useable life skills leading to self-employment and sustainable livelihoods for 80% of its school leavers while the first school sent away mostly dejected youngsters who believe they have failed, shamed their families and ruined their chance for a decent future, the North School would still be viewed as more effective in terms of meeting the goals of the school system.

When the Assessment Team talks about learner participation it is suggesting that - while maintaining and even raising its standards - the secondary education system examine the goals of the learner and the relevance of the curriculum to those goals. Many secondary pupils will aspire to attend university or go abroad or become President, but many also have more realistic goals - finding a way to earn an income, to help support their families, to marry and raise their own families. The 75% of secondary students who do not advance to Form V will be very interested in learning that advances these kinds of goals, as will their parents. Thus the degree to which skills that are needed are reflected by those that are offered becomes a question of paramount importance. The answer depends upon curriculum content.

The Assessment Team also refers to “modern learning processes” which go to the issue of pedagogy. The modest educational levels of many teachers, the traditional curricula of TTCs and teachers’ own experiences as students in Tanzania a decade or more ago tend to reinforce rote learning at the expense of efforts to stimulate creativity, encourage those with unorthodox ideas and allow open debate and intellectual curiosity in the classroom. The challenge of MOEC is to find ways to alter the educational dynamic, so that creativity and innovation are valued and so that incentives and rewards go both to those schools whose pupils excel academically and to those doing the best job to prepare the rest for entry to the workplace, vocational training or self-employment. In short, for most secondary students, learning about small business management and AIDS prevention is probably more valuable than several elements of the current curriculum and responds more directly to the goals of learners.

3B.4 Tertiary Education

Overview and Policy Goals

Tanzania has more than 150 tertiary training institutions. Fifteen of these are accredited as institutions of higher education, including three universities. Some of the others are considered in Section III, C below on vocational training. Higher education institutions enrolled 16,500 students in 1997/98, of whom 10,553 were in universities. Of this number, 6,500 were attending public universities. The higher education institutions have the lowest staff-student ratio in East Africa with ratios of 1:6 for the humanities and 1:8 for sciences compared to the UNESCO standard of 1:12 and 1:9 respectively. Enrolment rates of just 1.0% are among the lowest in the world.

Box 14: Higher Education Policy Goals

1. Broaden private sector and community involvement in higher and technical education;
2. Double higher education enrolment to 33,000 students by 2004;
3. Increase efficiency;
4. Improve quality;
5. Promote research and consultancies for academic staff; and
6. Increase resource levels.

The 1998 National Higher Education Policy paper sets out the six goals shown in the adjacent box. To achieve these goals government has committed itself to the following key strategies:

- encourage private companies, parastatals and individuals to invest in areas near institutions of higher learning in order to develop linkages between education and business;
- increase the budgetary allocation to higher education by 3% by late 1999;
- introduce user fees at the higher education level beginning in September, 1999;
- decentralise decision making and grant full autonomy to higher education institutions in 1999;
- redress gender imbalances in higher education.

In addition, the policy aims to rehabilitate infrastructure and build new facilities; review course curricula; complete a higher education law to liberalise higher education; encourage more students to live off campus; strengthen higher and technical education accreditation councils and retrain academic staff to give them a more market orientation when considering their course content. To improve efficiency, the government hopes to rationalise institutional offerings regarding what is taught where, conclude teaching contracts stipulating the minimum level of student-teacher contact time and course loads and reduce the number of full-time non-teaching staff, replacing them with part-time workers and paid students.

The University of Dar es Salaam - Overview⁴⁷

The University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) was the only institution of higher learning in Tanzania at independence and remains the country's flagship university. It has three campuses with 12 faculties. The main campus houses arts and sciences; commerce and management; education; engineering; law; and science. Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences (MUCHS) has faculties of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy and nursing. The University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UCLAS) has two faculties: architecture, quantity surveying and urban planning; and land surveying, land management and environmental engineering. There are also twelve research centres and institutes. There are 20 undergraduate and 52 master's programmes plus PhD degrees are offered in most faculties. Following is a brief summary of key issues confronting the university and a discussion of strategies and options to address them. The implications for human development are then considered more broadly in the following sub-section.

➤ Access and Gender

Gender is an issue in admissions and with respect to faculty. In 1998, 91% of the staff were male. For academic year 1997/98, just over 18% of undergraduates were women as were 58 of the 198 post-graduate students.

⁴⁷ The statistics in this sub-section have been drawn from *University of Dar es Salaam Facts and Figures*, a publication of the Institutional Transformation Programme UDSM 2000.

➤ Staff Qualifications and Levels

Almost 60% of the main campus staff have PhDs, but only 8% of these are women. At MUCHS and UCLAS 20% of the teaching staff have doctorates, 77% have master's degrees and 17.9% are women. While the PhD is the standard qualification for a university teaching position, it is not essential to being a good or well-informed teacher so this is viewed as just one measure of staff qualifications. There has been a hiring freeze on new lecturers so the average grade of teachers has risen as a result of promotions with 63% working as senior lecturers and lecturers and 10% as full professors.

Table 27: Academic Staff and Student Profile

Faculty	1997-98 Staff	1998-99 Students*
<i>\ UDSM Main Campus</i>		
Arts & Sciences	167	1390
Commerce/Management	35	719
Education	43	408
Science	105	870
Engineering	101	1342
Law	33	477
Institutes	110	-
<i>\ MUCHS (Health)</i>		
Medicine	122	630
Dentistry	15	
Pharmacy	20	
Nursing	8	
Institutes	34	
<i>\ UCLAS (Lands and Architecture)</i>		
Both faculties	68	629
All campus total	861	6465

* Undergraduate - projected

These figures raise a variety of questions that the university's rolling strategic plan must confront, including: the ideal mix of staff qualifications, the link between paper qualifications and performance, how teaching as opposed to academic skills are assessed, whether the few women faculty members are used optimally in non-teaching areas (e.g., on admissions committees), whether more adjunct lecturers who may already be employed full-time elsewhere might reduce costs, etc. The implications of the answers to these questions then also need to be assessed. For example, if adjunct lecturers could be attracted to teach say one course and some were willing to accept a reduced payment or volunteer their time would this help the university control costs or lead to resentments by full-time faculty who may fear for their positions?

➤ Staff-Student Ratios, Student Output and Performance

Ratios: Full-time equivalent (FTE)⁴⁸ staff-student ratios have improved from 6.07 in 1992/93 to 8.47 in 1996/97 due to increased enrolments and declining staff size. These are still below international norms. At MUCHS the situation is dramatically worse with a 2:1 FTE ratio.

Output: From 1992-1998 there were 6,225 graduates at the undergraduate level and 951 at the graduate level. The annual rates were stagnant in 1992-93 and declined in 1994, but the output rate has now almost doubled.

Performance: While the statistics indicate an inefficient staff-student ratio, smaller class size should lead to improved student performance. Unfortunately, this does not seem to be the case since in 1998 there were only 15 first class degrees out of 982 graduates. The majority of students were in the lower second class division in all faculties. This reflects problems of

⁴⁸The FTE student-staff ratio measures contact hours per staff week and is a more accurate indicator than a simple division of number of staff by number of students.

poor preparation, poor teaching, inadequate effort by students, lack of materials and other deficiencies and financial constraints. It is very worrisome given the amount spent by government per student at the tertiary level compared to other levels (see Table 23).

➤ Demand for Admission and Admission Patterns

The university accepts about 20% of all applicants. Of interest is the ratio of applicants to admissions and its relationship to gender imbalance. For example, during the 1995/96 academic year, for the Faculty of Education, 532 males and 450 females applied, while 130 males and only 22 females were admitted. For a general B.A. in the same year, 571 males and 393 females applied, while 357 males and 51 females were admitted. Thus, in education, females represented 46% of applicants, but just under 15% of those admitted. For the general B.A., females were 40.7% of applicants and 12.5% of those admitted. The ratios are even worse in the sciences and in engineering.

If the reason for these vast differences in admission are entirely due to lower scores achieved by girls in “A” level examinations, the MOEC and the MOSTHE should jointly consider what initiatives may be taken to improve the bridge from “A” level to the university. A one-year intensive skills upgrading preparatory year for some of the girls denied admission could be offered by the university or bursaries could be provided for female “A” level candidates to repeat a year and take the “A” levels again. There may also be biases on the part of admissions personnel who may assume that girls are less-well prepared or more suited for certain types of careers or the admissions criteria may be too rigidly based on “A” level scores alone. The critical issue is that gender inequity at university level could be reduced significantly if a larger share of female applicants were able to be admitted. The causes of the current situation need to be studied thoroughly and soon and recommendations made to alter the pattern.

**University of Dar es Salaam:
Implications for Human Development**

To better address the university’s many issues, a Five Year Strategic and Rolling Plan was first adopted in 1998. This has

provided university administrators with a better and more dynamic framework in which to assess university needs and priorities. The current “institutional transformation programme” has recognised the issues raised above and is assessing options within the limits of its financial and human resources. Being a university, of course, should provide the institution with a critical mass of talent able to work through these issues to improve the quality of education, its efficiency and its management. Unfortunately, the university has experienced a number of difficulties related to efforts to preserve professional prerogatives and job security; disagreements over the direction the university should take in the future and the degree to which it should become more work-place oriented and private sector friendly; the extent to which students’ views should be considered regarding university operations; the degree to which specific actions can or should be taken to increase female enrolment; how limited funds should be allocated between faculties, campuses and institutes; etc. These are normal debates for any university, but how they are resolved can profoundly affect the capacity of UDSM to affect human development in Tanzania.

One area with great potential impact on human development is the UDSM's Continuing Education Centre that offers practical skills to university graduates and has helped more than 8,000 graduates. A second promising area is in the Faculty of Commerce and Management where, with Dutch bilateral aid, it is planned to set up an Entrepreneurship Programme that will offer skills training to those outside the university community.

Universities and Business - Partners or Adversaries?

It is not unknown for academics to suspect that business people are more interested in money than ideas and learning. Universities often bridle at the notion that their job is to prepare students for the world of work rather than to educate them in a pure sense of the word. Business people also sometimes view academics as impractical and isolated in their proverbial "ivory towers." Gradually, these stereotypes have been fading with the emergence of business schools and the explosion of business research needs in technology, marketing, etc. Universities increasingly see the business sector as a potential ally and partner in the common endeavour to develop human capacity. The Entrepreneurship Programme at UDSM is one manifestation of this trend. In many countries this concept has advanced much further and is an area that the UDSM may want to examine in much more detail as one way to begin to lessen some of its financial constraints and to enhance the placement prospects of its graduates.

The following box provides one example of a promising concept that was accepted by the government of Congo (Brazzaville) for a pilot effort at the Marien Ngouabi University in the mid-1990s. Congo had been one of the most orthodox Marxist states in Africa and business was viewed with great suspicion until the former Lissouba government undertook some economic reforms. While the project was aborted by civil war, the concept remains valid.

Box 15: Building Entrepreneurial Talent in the University

Thousands of young people graduate annually from UDSM and some have trouble finding employment, especially those with general arts and social science degrees. Each month that each graduate remains idle is a loss for the individual and an economic cost to the nation that paid to train him or her. A University Enterprise Centre (UEC) is designed to provide useable skills and a bankable plan of action to UEC participating students that can lead to self-employment upon graduation. A UEC is based on four principles rooted in advanced preparation for work in a business career. These are the development of: 1) job-seeking skills; 2) employment-enhancing skills; 3) an entrepreneurial mind and 4) business start-up skills.

A UEC first holds Future Entrepreneur Workshops to brief interested students and begin an initial screening process to identify those with the greatest interest and aptitude. The UEC only accepts students who are 2 full years away from graduating and entry is competitive and selective. The UEC essentially provides the equivalent of a no credit "business lab class" in addition to the students' normal course load. A certificate is awarded to those who complete the programme but that is not the incentive to take on extra work. The unique aspects of the UEC are:

1) that skilled career counsellors with private sector experience are made directly available through the UEC; 2) the UEC instructors are normally business people engaged to lead one or several inter-active group sessions by a project co-ordinator; 3) the UEC promotes the formation of peer teams as the nexus of new business partnerships; 4) those partnerships that develop bankable business plans will be helped to secure start-up funding through the UEC loan guarantee programme; 5) UEC participants may also form partnerships with non-students who are already in business and want to expand or redirect their business with the involvement of a UEC student; 6) in this case the UEC can work with the UEC participant to help them secure their share of funding with the other parties bringing their own resources to the venture. Some UEC participants will graduate and be employed by existing firms and their chances of finding and keeping a private sector job will be much enhanced by the skills learned at the UEC. Following is a summary of a sample curriculum for a UEC:

1. Realities of the Tanzanian Job Market

- prospects for public employment
- private sector opportunities as an employee

2. Developing Job Seeking Skills

- establishing job and income skills
- advance planning
- systematic job seeking
- job interviewing
- preparing a resume
- satisfying a new employer
- on-the-job learning
- effective communication in groups
- team playing and leadership skills
- decision making skills

3. Developing Employment Enhancing Skills

- developing technical skills (computer, sales, management)
- developing attitudinal skills (innovation, creativity, productivity)
- resource identification skills (finding and using credit, partners, expertise, etc.)

4. Develop Self Employment Option Skills

- pros and cons of entrepreneurship
- identifying business opportunities
- business planning/market assessment
- how to start a business or an NGO
- how to become a partner in a business
- how to start a construction company
- how to start rural & agricultural enterprises

Other Initiatives in Higher Education

In the past few years private universities have been set up in Mwanza, Iringa, Kilimanjaro, Zanzibar and elsewhere. Most have started with business subjects and Kilimanjaro is focused on medicine. The Higher Education Accreditation Council is responsible for inspecting these institutions and certifying their capacity and quality of instruction. This is a very positive development for several reasons:

- the overall capacity to educate Tanzanians at tertiary level will expand;
- private sector resources are entering the higher education sub-sector;

- smaller and new institutions will be better able and quicker to experiment and innovate in curriculum development and may be more open to serving the perceived needs of the learners as well as satisfying standardised requirements for diplomas;
- competition from private universities could help energise UDSM and stimulate the flow of new ideas in both directions;
- multiple universities in areas outside Dar es Salaam can have a positive impact on the communities where they are located by bringing educated people into these communities and possibly making them more attractive to potential investors in need of more skilled personnel;
- this phenomenon will also help strengthen Tanzanian democracy by broadening civil society's institutions.

Finally, there are numerous public tertiary technical training institutions attached to various ministries and parastatals that are managed independently of each other. There is very little co-ordination and some are very ineffective according to a recent government survey which recommended that: 1) the cost-effectiveness of institutions be assessed and some closed or restructured; 2) private sector participation be invited in the provision of training in some of these areas; 3) user fees be introduced at the remaining institutions for at least part of the costs and 4) performance be improved with new government incentive packages for the remaining institutions. How these institutions can best be integrated into a comprehensive human development planning process remains an open question since they are not involved in the formal sector education management process (see Section 3B.1) and do not seem to work with VETA, the government supervision body for vocational training.

3B.5 Teacher Education

Teacher education suffers from excess capacity, with only 33% of the number of pre-service students in 1998 compared to 1993. The 35 teacher training colleges (TTCs) had an average of 225 students and 25 teachers. Fifteen schools would be adequate for the number of students being taught. The rapid reduction in numbers was caused by the introduction of boarding fees of Tshs, 80,000 per year (about \$100) and the hiring freeze on new teachers as government tries to boost student-teacher ratios at all levels. If a 1:45 primary student-teacher ratio is achieved, this could cut the number of teachers by 10,000.

Student-teacher ratios at TTCs fell from 1:16 in 1995/96 to 1:9 in 1997/98 and per student emoluments to teachers have risen 2.5 times as a consequence. Government now plans to rationalise the system, close some colleges and use the facilities for other purposes, including the COBET programme. The MOEC expects that some recent TTC graduates affected by the hiring freeze could be used as COBET instructors on a short-term basis.

A TTC Cost Efficiency Analysis was completed in March 1998.⁴⁹ It underscored "grave data discrepancies" making it "impossible" to establish past enrolment trends and outputs or even to track the number of teachers entering and leaving the TTCs. The consultants recommended an urgent college by college analysis as a basis for recommending changes.

⁴⁹ Jackson Mwaga and Peter Williams, *TTC Audit and Cost Efficiency Report*. (Dar es Salaam: March 1998).

The management and administration of the TTCs was described by the Cost Efficiency Analysis consultants as “chaotic, lacking any semblance of orderliness in the way individual colleges are resourced” and managed. They added that “basic elements of sound administration need to be put in place” at the TTCs, including standardisation of teaching contact hours, establishing intake levels, defining conditions of enrolment, maintaining basic records, etc.

On the whole, the need seems to be for fewer and better teachers. The TTCs have a role to play in teacher upgrading and could be used more for in-service training with short, tailor-made courses to get at specific teaching deficiencies. The remaining TTCs could become more specialised with some producing secondary school teachers and others focusing on Grade A primary teacher development. Analysis of the teaching capabilities of TTC teachers is also needed so the best ones can be retained and the student-teacher ratio increased. Given the shocking condition of the TTCs and apparent near absence of administration at some of them, the sub-sector clearly requires a total reorganisation and house cleaning.

3B.6 The Process of Managing the Education Sector

To better co-ordinate a unified response to the crisis in education, in September 1999 government announced formation of a Steering Committee (SC) comprised of four ministries: the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), Ministry of Finance (MOF), Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (MOSTHE) and the Ministry of Regional and Local Government (MRALG). The SC will meet quarterly and its secretariat is situated at the MOEC. The SC will help to establish an Education Sector Standing Committee (ESSC) that reports directly to the Minister of Education.

Box 16: Steering Committee Tasks

- oversee educational sector development policy and planning;
- decide on overall and sector-specific allocations for education;
- negotiate with donors on funding for the sector;
- ensure implementation of the ESDP
- co-ordinate the sector to include training that is currently outside mainstream education sector activities. (emphasis added)

It will meet monthly as “a focal point for education sector joint planning, financing, monitoring and evaluation, and capacity building”³⁹ in the context of Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) targets and indicators. The ESSC will work through three cross-cutting Technical Working Groups (TWGs) for 1) educational policy planning and management, 2) financial planning and management and 3) monitoring, quality assurance and evaluation. Due to the urgency of the situation, three task forces are also being established for 1999/2000 only for: 1) capacity building and human resource utilisation, 2) the education management information system and 3) procurement and disbursement of facilities, textbooks and equipment. After 2000 they will be integrated into the TWGs. Finally, vertical TWGs will be established for each sub-sector (primary, secondary etc.). The ESSC and the TWGs include appropriate level staff of the four

³⁹ United Republic of Tanzania. *Education Sector Development Programme - The Process Management System* (Dar es Salaam: unpublished paper, September 2, 1999), p.4.

ministries plus representatives of donors (rotating), private sector education providers, an NGO and in some instances a representative of a CBO.

The management machinery described above began operations only in the last quarter of 1999, so its effectiveness cannot yet be assessed. The concept of the SC, ESSC and technical working groups does, however, suggest a degree of compartmentalisation in government thinking with respect to education. While defining the parameters of the formal education sector in traditional terms as primary, secondary and tertiary education in schools makes planning and management easier, the ESSC and especially the TWGs should also consider the relationship between formal education and the vocational and informal education and training undertaken by VETA, SIDO and other such groups.

Implications for Human Development ^ê Human development is enhanced whenever synergies occur that lead to new ideas, more intense co-operation and a sharing of knowledge and resources. To this end, a VETA representative and perhaps 1-2 others from training institutions could be invited to join the SC management machinery to broaden the debate and help identify areas where more co-ordination is needed between the formal and vocational/informal education sectors.⁴⁰ The SC might also invite the head of VETA to become an SC member since the tasks and decisions made by the SC can affect vocational training (see Box 4 summarising SC tasks and note the last area of responsibility in this regard). As discussed in Part IIIC below, there should also be opportunities for formal education sector representatives to become more aware of and involved in the planning and strategic development of the vocational and informal training areas.

In some other African countries that have attempted to develop similar consultative, management and analytical working groups, the key constraint has been the very same management, skills and motivational deficiencies that have hampered the MOEC and other ministries as well as the education sector itself. While national commissions, steering committees, sector standing committees, horizontal and vertical technical working groups appear to be logical responses to the wide range of problems besetting the education sector, the challenge will be to establish this machinery and make it work. In some other countries such groups have, in turn, each sought to have its own secretariat that in due course asked for donor-financed consultants to carry out the work of the secretariat that was delegated by a given committee. Furthermore, quorums have been difficult to arrange when donors refused to pay "sitting fees;" and when meetings finally were held more time was spent discussing non-substantive issues.

The key requirements to make the education development process machinery work in Tanzania are leadership and strategic planning. The heads of committees and working groups will need to lead by example. This involves developing clear and specific goals for the process, agreeing on what outcomes and impacts constitute achievement of the goals, deciding how progress toward goals is measured and by whom and involving all stakeholders in the articulation both of outcomes and of the strategic approach and priorities to be adopted. The implications for human development of a multi-level, multi-tasked but inefficient and unfocused change management process will be the further erosion of public confidence and deterioration of the education system. If the process can be made to work, it

⁴⁰ This would be in addition to VETA's membership in the tertiary education vertical TWG.

offers a chance for Tanzania to improve its standing in the Human Development Index by boosting its education indicators and benefiting from the improved health, productivity and family planning indices that result from having a better educated population.

3B.7 Formal Education Sector: Implications for Human Development

This HDR provides a synthesis and interpretation of the key findings of several recent documents that review the conditions, strategies, priorities, financing and programmes of the formal education sector at the primary, secondary and tertiary level in order to provide a basis for considering the link between that sector as a whole and human development.

Education and human development are so closely linked that they are sometimes confused with each other, but they are not the same. Education is the principal means and human development is the central goal or end of the process. In Tanzania, as shown above, the formal means to this end is weak indeed. Problems seem overwhelming and progress is slow and uneven. This is why some

**Table 28: Keeping a Sense of Perspective
Enrolment Rates Then and Now**

Year	1961	1998
Population	9 million	33 million
No. of pupils		
primary	484,470	4,042,568
secondary	11,832	226,903
higher	811	16,500*

* higher includes 15 institutions compared to one in 1961.

perspective is needed as in Table 28. This table shows that despite Tanzania's population increasing 3.67 times since independence, primary school enrolment has grown by 8.34 times, secondary by 19 times and higher education has grown by a factor of 20. This in no way lessens the very real challenges and disappointments Tanzania has experienced in educational development, but it is sometimes useful to recall that progress has been made and more Tanzanians in absolute numbers are literate today than ever before. The challenge, of course, is to build on and accelerate that progress and to recover from the deterioration in the 1980s and early 1990s. There is no quick solution but it is possible for Tanzania to make steady progress in the education sector, buttressed by a growing economy and donor support by:

Despite Tanzania's population increasing 3.67 times since independence, primary school enrolment has grown by 8.34 times, secondary by 19 times and higher education has grown by a factor of 20.

- anticipating and planning for the inevitable problems that will occur as the education system becomes more decentralised and ownership of the education process moves downward to wards and villages;
- looking for new ways to address education and training holistically at the policy level and through increased involvement of the vocational and non-formal training providers in the formal education policy, programming and change management process;
- looking outside the formal education sector and outside Tanzania for imaginative and unconventional ways to address educational issues such as -

- can business be brought into the university through an entrepreneurship centre;
- can regular primary school hours be made more flexible to accommodate herd boys and girls who must tend to household duties;
- can the schools be moved to the children if the children cannot walk to the school through mobile schools in buses in nomadic areas;
- can a poorly functioning student loan programme be privatised;
- can handicapped children - such as polio victims - be offered jobs in primary schools rebinding worn textbooks in exchange for school fees;
- can Tanzania get a volunteer organisation like UNV, CUSO or the Peace Corps to launch a training of trainers programme to spread better teaching techniques in rural schools.

C. THE VOCATIONAL AND INFORMAL EDUCATION SECTOR

3C.1 Vocational Training

In 1997 about 45,000 students received vocational training in Tanzania in 446 registered vocational centres. Of these, 239 were in the technical trades, 93 were commercial and 36 were based at private companies with the remainder in the hotel industry (69) and agriculture (9). While company-based training centres are fewer in number, they have a training capacity of over 10,000 people. The adjacent table details the number of trainees as of 1995.

Table 29: VET Enrolment in 1995

VET provider	Trainees	Per cent
Mission trade schools	14,600	31%
Private VET centres	16,440	35%
Company centres	10,309	22%
VETA training centres	3,500	8%
Government	1,840	4%
Total	46,689	100%

Of those trainees that attended the 17 Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) centres in 1996, VETA estimates that 14% found work after completing training. VETA placement in prior years is equally dismal with 13% placed in 1995, 20% in 1994 and 40% in 1993. The VETA enrolment numbers are also in some doubt, since the figure in Table 28 of 3,500 for 1995 in one VETA document is shown elsewhere for the same year as 2,986. Vocational training in 446 institutions (1997) for 46,689 students (1995) can be compared to the fact that in 1997, some 225,607 pupils were enrolled in 721 public and private secondary schools. Thus about twice as many secondary schools serve just under 5 times as many students, suggesting that many VET centres have small enrolments with average enrolment of 133 trainees if the 1995 enrolment figures and 1997 centre census is used.

VETA and Strategic Planning for Vocational Education

When thinking about vocational education in Tanzania, certain realities, VET goals and government policies need to be recalled, namely:

- The great majority of those who receive vocational training will not find modern wage sector employment. There should be no assumption that if a VET institution successfully imparts a technical skill to a youth who then passes a trade test, the institution has achieved its objective. If the training has been more theoretical than practical, if entrepreneurial and management skills have not been taught alongside technical skills and if there is no effective placement and self-employment facilitation process, the institution has failed to meet the key objective of its learners which is to secure an income through the use of the skills learned.
- The goal of government is not to develop a large, costly and top heavy vocational training programme that targets the small minority of students who will find wage sector employment. The goal is to increase the technical skills of Tanzania's people as broadly as possible, so that new skills can be translated into sustainable livelihoods.

- The funds for training generated by the training levy are not earmarked exclusively for the use of VETA in its own institutions but is supposed to be expended in the context of a strategic plan to assure the greatest impact on the greatest number of students.
- Government is committed to equity in all educational areas, including vocational, and expects to see progress in gender equity and in support to disabled people.

To improve vocational education and training, in 1994 government amended the Vocational Training Act, removed vocational training from the Ministry of Labour and Social Services and created an autonomous Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). Government adopted the following policies:

- those benefiting from training should be more involved in the system and help finance it;
- a simple labour market monitoring system was to be created to help plan vocational training;
- capacity utilisation was to be increased by rationalising training at the centres;
- a training evaluation system was to be developed and introduced;
- more on-the-job training was to be provided, especially short courses for the employed.

These goals were well summarised by church mission trade schools that asserted that “training should be directed to the needs of communities, entrepreneurship should be part of the training curriculum, women’s participation should be enhanced, quality should be improved, training should be provided for the informal sector and the linkage between training institutions and employers should be enhanced and teachers and managers should be trained.” This is sound advice and provides a standard against which to measure VET performance.

A Strategic Action Plan (SAP) for 1996-1999 was adopted by VETA and had five components: 1) to establish a VETA Board and head office; 2) to ensure that regional centres (RVTCs) were operating; 3) develop a new modular training and testing system; 4) develop the Morogoro vocational teacher training centre and 5) develop a VETA long-term strategy.

The SAP was more a plan for setting up a VET system than a plan about how the system would operate. It was unclear whether VETA was to be mostly a provider of services or a facilitator or both and in what areas and for what purposes. Informal sector training and rural training were not included nor were the issues of gender equity and training for disabled people. These omissions are surprising in light of the realities of Tanzania’s socio-economic structure and they greatly limited the potential for VETA to have a major impact on human development during the SAP period. The narrow view of VETA was noted in 1997 by the ILO that recommended inclusion of rural training in food processing and storage, produce marketing, crafts and technology and similar areas. The ILO also stressed the need to introduce entrepreneurship training for self-employment, increase practical training and break down rote learning patterns that do not promote a culture of enterprise and initiative. Unfortunately, the ILO’s recommendations were not followed.

The 1994 VETA Act also mandated the establishment of regional VET Boards to decentralise policy implementation and administration. The Boards and the VETA head office were also to develop a programme approach to management skills development by working with management development institutes in Tanzania (such as the Institute for Development Management in Morogoro). Overall, VETA was expected to lead the shift from a supply to a demand-driven orientation, ending the system whereby formal education sector school leavers would take VET classes and then be expected to find wage sector employment. Those who failed to find such employment were deemed unlucky or macro-economic reforms would be blamed.

From the vantage of early 1997 the ILO saw a promising new structure (VETA) that was unable to reach the broader goals of VET and instead concentrated on building its own institutional resources. It also noted that VET in general was uncoordinated, rigid, unrelated to market forces and not connected to the formal education system. The ILO found problems with relevance (courses were based on what could be taught not what was needed), effectiveness (curriculum development was centralised and did not respond to users needs, equipment and materials were depleted, etc.) and efficiency (rationalisation of teaching among institutions and decentralisation were needed). The ILO concluded:

Tanzania ... needs a population that has a good general education, with a sound basis of science and technology and which is capable of being readily mobilised to meet and adapt to changes in technology....A population with the required characteristics could be achieved if government would put in place a comprehensive human resources development programme in which VET would be an important part. VET is a means of developing marketable and entrepreneurial skills and is also a driving force for development.¹

The VET Situation in 1999

Reports prepared by different donor agencies in mid-1999 provide a profile of progress and disappointment under the 1996-1999 SAP. VETA grew as an institution to 800 full-time staff with a head office recurrent budget for 1999 that was three times as large as the combined budgets of regional offices and regional RVTSC staff. Most of the training levy was spent on “bricks and mortar,” new equipment, training and per diem for VETA staff, etc. Problems of fiscal integrity led to replacement of the VETA Director and Board and an 18-month hiatus during 1997-98 while new personnel were recruited, vetted and hired. A new SAP is being prepared for the period 2000-2005. Support from Sweden and Ireland Aid have been withdrawn, but GTZ and DANIDA continue to support VETA, and Japanese aid has been added. The new Director and his new staff seem determined to make reforms. In 1999 VETA produced a report about informal sector training and indicated its interest in offering training for the informal sector in the future. It has also completed a fairly large sample survey of formal sector employers to determine their training needs and their views of VETA. VETA now sees those who pay the levy as their clients and realise that those who are paying ought to gain some benefit in the form of better skilled workers. Overall, it appears that VETA’s current leaders have read the highly critical and frank donor

⁵⁰ ILO. *Strengthening VET for Employment and Development*, Vol. 1 (February 1997), p.2.

assessments and agree in principle on the basic changes that VETA must make to become a flexible, demand-driven organisation that provides some training and facilitates the work of private and NGO trainers that train most students.

In April 1999, DANIDA listed what it saw as VETA's most urgent tasks to be considered in the design of the new SAP. These include: 1) assess the national labour market, 2) assess what other training providers are doing and learn from their experience, 3) assess specific needs in the informal sector, 4) mainstream into the curriculum gender equity, occupational health, entrepreneurship training and a culture of maintenance, 5) assess cost recovery prospects, 6) develop transparent personnel and recruitment policies, 7) install a comprehensive quality assurance system, 8) install a new College Board for the Morogoro Vocational TTC and assess its many needs and 9) revise the certification and trade testing system jointly with employers. Possibly the most important point in the DANIDA report is the statement that the consultants "having been involved in a continuous assessment of the implementation of the SAP", are convinced that "VETA staff and boards now are genuinely committed to the task of reforming the Authority in line with the intentions of the VETA Act." The lack of leadership and simple malfeasance have been at the heart of VETA's problems and the negative effect of this (see the adjacent box) will take time to overcome.

Box 17:
VETA's position at the end of 1998

- trade advisory committees were not functioning
- performance appraisal system was not developed
- financial management systems "much delayed"
- computerisation way behind targets
- very poor reporting hampers budgeting and follow up
- reporting from regions is slow and irregular
- other training providers are largely neglected
- demand-driven training not introduced
- centres have been refurbished but at high costs
- despite better buildings, machinery and teaching materials are still very deficient
- teaching staff skills need to be upgraded substantially
- effective planning and management systems not introduced
- training modules very long delayed and when presented were not suitable for use without "substantial revision"
- the Morogoro vocational TTC has been upgraded with Sida funds (staff training, course development, training materials, new education centre) but "severe problems" remain and capacity use is below 33%
- the VTTC also has "serious management problems" with "a lack of forward planning and a 1999 work plan that is "not of acceptable quality."

Source: *Assessment of the SAP* (April 1999)

VETA is the statutory body that is supposed to provide leadership, quality assurance, guidance on testing and co-ordination to vocational education and training throughout the country. In fact, it has been inward looking and has spent large sums of money inefficiently while training small numbers of students and doing it poorly. Now a new SAP is in the works and will need to re-define VETA's priorities, strategies, staffing pattern, budget and goals for the next five years. The best hope for VET in Tanzania is that the SAP development process at VETA becomes fully participatory with inputs from employers, NGOs, church trade training centres, students and those outside the VET sector (e.g., leaders of COBET, ICBAE, SIDO, the MOEC, MOSTHE and others).

The key challenge will be to *not* develop the SAP in isolation from the broader human resource development effort in Tanzania. As the ILO concluded in the quote above and as the theme of this HDR has reiterated throughout, *an integrated human capacity development strategy is needed to optimise the use of existing resources, reduce duplication and improve efficiency in both the formal and VET sectors.* In this regard, consider briefly three areas of primary concern to VETA that are also primary concerns for Tanzania's development as a whole: training for the informal sector, decentralisation and gender equity.

Vocational training for the informal sector majority

As noted above, the modern wage sector creates about 30,000 jobs per year while at least 600,000 people entered the labour force in 1999. The 1994 VET Act required VETA to serve both the non-formal and formal sectors. In 1999 VETA produced a study considering what was needed. Recent proposals to integrate non-formal training into VETA's portfolio have been completed and four pilot activities were identified in mid-1999 in food processing for women, hotel and catering in Dodoma, butchers training in Tanga and edible oil pressing in Dodoma. These were developed based upon lessons learned from an ILO apprenticeship training project. As VETA enters this area, sustained contacts with NGOs, SIDO and others that have carried out similar training is essential. There is also a wealth of training materials available from U.N. agencies (especially ILO, FAO and UNIDO) and international NGOs that could be consulted.

Decentralisation

As with government decentralisation generally, the process of moving decision making closer to local people is desirable but needs to be accomplished in light of local capacity limitations and potential. Some decision making has been devolved to the regions by VETA (budgeting, priority-setting, trainee selection), but curriculum development and instructor training are still centralised. Most regions are reported to be poorly prepared for new tasks such as labour market monitoring and the ability to translate labour information into viable training programmes.

Gender Equity

Gender disparities are much more pronounced in vocational education than in primary or secondary schools, mostly because of cultural attitudes linking gender and occupations. In 1990-1993 women were less than 7% of students in technical training centres run by

MOSTHE (no figures have been compiled more recently). In the VTSCs, males greatly exceed females in auto mechanics, fitter mechanics and welding, while women exceed men in tailoring and catering. A VETA survey indicated that 87% of VETA trainees were accepted into their first occupational choice and speculated that parental preferences also play a strong role in gender disparities.

In each of the above three areas VETA and VET in Tanzania generally can benefit if there is a comprehensive and integrated approach to the problems of 1) skill-building for the informal sector, 2) effective decentralisation that does not overwhelm local organisations and officials because multiple entities all decide to decentralise at once and place unsustainable demands on the local level, and 3) gender equity that examines the issue on several levels, e.g. institutional, occupational and sector-wide.

3C.2 Entrepreneurship Training

The Second Five Year Plan of July 1969 estimated the number of new manufacturing jobs in 1967 as 33,000 with industrial output being 8% of GDP⁵¹. In January 1999 VETA estimated that the number of wage sector jobs created in 1998 was 30,000, meeting the income needs of less than 5% of new entrants into the labour market that year⁵². Even this tiny figure is progress, when it is considered that between 1982 and 1992 the average number of new wage sector jobs is estimated at only 3,000 per year.

To the extent that VETA is focused on serving formal sector employers who pay the training levy, it is in effect one of many training providers addressing the needs of 5% of job seekers. The other 95% are in the informal sector. The National Informal Sector Study of 1991 estimated informal sector employment absorbed about 2.4 million people or 21% of the labour force as a time when the labour force was 40% urban. A June 1999 VETA study⁵³ stated that “no reliable statistics on Tanzania’s labour market are available” and used the 1991 estimates as a basis to consider its role in informal sector training. The 1991 survey portrayed a fairly typical situation with millions of micro-entrepreneurs working at very low productivity levels. Two-thirds of the women and 12% of the men never completed primary school and most complained about the lack of credit and markets. Few realise their own skill deficiencies but most are open to considering whatever help is offered.

Box 18:

An Entrepreneurship Development Opportunity

Zanzibar is one example of a location where entrepreneurship services could satisfy growing demand for micro and small enterprise development skills. Zanzibar’s tourism industry has been developing rapidly and about 10,000 people now depend on tourism for their incomes. Since 1986 more than 75% of all investments in Zanzibar have been in tourism, with the number of hotel beds doubling to 6,000 in 1998.

In Tanzania the Small Industries Development Organisation (SIDO) provides training support to micro and small enterprises. It provides or arranges for credit, offers entrepreneurship and business management skills, acts as an advocate for self-help

⁵¹ Bienen. op. cit., p. 411

⁵² VETA. Labour Market Survey, Ibid., p. 6.

organisations, strengthens umbrella organisations of business associations and, in some cases, provides premises for start-up businesses, direct marketing support and promotes appropriate technologies. SIDO has 25 offices throughout Tanzania and receives technical support from GTZ (German bilateral aid). SIDO provides training in participatory management and planning; how to hold and manage a meeting; business skills and marketing; training of business trainers; how to strengthen self-help and other membership-based organisations; how to develop strategic plans, form associations and build work teams.

SIDO's experience should be of direct relevance to the ICBAE and COBET programmes within the MOEC and to VETA. Inter-institutional and inter-ministerial dialogue on informal sector training and entrepreneurship development can help these programmes by exchanging ideas and co-ordinating their efforts, thereby increasing the effectiveness of all of them. For example, the task force set up in 1998 by VETA and the Ministry of Labour to better link trainers and employers has been helpful. This initiative has now been taken over by the Tanzania Network and Advocacy Group with support from the joint UNDP/ILO global "Jobs for Africa" project. This is another example of where a holistic approach to human capacity development issues and programming and greater inter-penetration between the formal and vocational education sectors.

3C.3 Functional Adult Literacy

Adult literacy test results for ages 13 and above have been conducted periodically for over twenty years. Illiteracy rates for selected years are: 1977-27%; 1981-20%; 1983-15%; 1986-10%; 1992-16%; and 1997-16%.

There has been a rise in adult illiteracy and a decline in literacy classes for adults over the past decade. For this reason, the Institute of

Adult Education expects to increase its enrolment from 12,000 to 30,000 by 2004 by using existing primary and secondary school facilities where possible. This goal may be difficult to meet, since government allocated only Tshs. 306 million (US\$400,000) for the Institute in 1997/98.

Ineffectiveness of literacy programmes has been caused by programme objectives that were determined by the central government, a formal style of learning, subject matter developed by subject area specialists rather than responding to the interests of learners, absenteeism and lack of understanding of the benefits of literacy on the part of sometimes reluctant participants. There was a lack of participation by learners at all stages of programme development over many years. The programmes also were financially unsustainable, did not have permanent teachers, lacked teaching materials and subjected learners to national tests that were probably unnecessary and caused stress and withdrawals from the programme.

Box 19: Adult Education in Iringa

The Iringa Regional Education Officer during Adult Education Week, September 2-9, 1999 noted a serious decline in attendance at adult education classes in Iringa Region. She noted that in 1977 there were over 163,000 learners compared to just 24,000 in 1997.

Source: Tanzania Daily News, September 10, 1999

⁵³ VETA. A Consolidated Report on Skills Development for the Informal Sector, (June 1999).

As a result of the numerous lessons learned from previous adult literacy initiatives, the Integrated Community-based Adult Education (ICBAE) programme was designed. After being pilot tested in four wards, an impact assessment was conducted in 1997 that found illiteracy reduced in the project area from 25% to 12%. ICBAE integrates literacy training with self-help income generating projects such as chicken raising, fish ponds, gardening and others.

ICBAE uses primary school buildings to deliver literacy education and training for literacy facilitators. It is attempting to tie the programme to revolving credit schemes so peer group lending can be provided to the literacy groups when they also engage in income-generating activities. The idea is to tie the concept of literacy to the idea that literacy can translate into increased earnings, thereby having economic value. ICBAE has as a target to reach two million people in 47 districts by 2003. ICBAE also reflects the revised role for the MOEC and the IAE as entities for policy formulation, planning, quality assurance and monitoring rather than as delivery agents.

The private sector is also being engaged by government and urged to support literacy campaigns. For example, the Tanzania Petroleum Development Corporation provided a grant of Tshs. 1 million in September 1999 to increase the number of adult education centres in Kinondoni District which had 218 centres with 34,375 learners (59% women) and over 1,000 trainers.

Functional literacy is important and deserves a higher profile since literacy efforts often build on the modest learning of those who may have had 1-4 years of primary education but did not gain sustainable literacy skills. Thus literacy education helps to recover government's initial investment in primary education for those who return to try to improve their skill levels. It can also improve adult productivity and employability and helps answer the question of what can be done for school leavers and those who have never entered school.

ICBAE is under the supervision of the MOEC as is the COBET. COBET deals with children aged 8-18 and ICBAE deals with youth and adults. Presumably ICBAE will work with those aged 19 and over. Co-ordination between these two programmes will be essential since both aim at out-of-school youth, both offer literacy and both seek to link what is learned to essential life skills. Some of those helped by COBET may even subsequently find themselves as adult learners in ICBAE, suggesting a need also for standardised methodologies and attention to areas of curriculum complementarity.

4. HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT AND THE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT INDEX: THE WAY FORWARD

The Tanzania Human Development Report reviews the state of, context and tools for human development by presenting a range of statistics, interpreting them in light of the nation's goals and limitations and illustrating their impact on people in a series of text boxes. While the nation's slippage in its HDI ranking is of great concern, progress has been made. The HDI, as a relative measure, suggests that Tanzania's progress has been slower than many other countries, not that there has been a positive decline in all sectors. What is most critical is that Tanzania assesses its human development achievements compared to its own past performance. From this perspective, Tanzania has invested several years restructuring its macro-economy in order to create a foundation for sustained growth and accelerating human development. At this level, the nation has made substantial improvements as macro-economic indicators and growth rates demonstrate.

Despite structural improvements, privatisation of many parastatals, banking reform, greater fiscal discipline and budgetary management, a liberalised trade regime and a more focused and better co-ordinated effort to build social capital, the human development foundation on which further advances depend remains very weak. This reality jeopardises the ability of Tanzania to attract foreign investment in non-extractive industries other than tourism. This is of enormous concern because of what it says about the potential for higher levels of sustained economic growth.

A recent investment by Intel, the computer chip maker illustrates the critical nature of this point:

In 1996 Intel's Chief Executive Officer was interviewed by the Wall Street Journal and asked why after more than a year of assessments Intel decided to invest more than US\$1 billion in Costa Rica and not El Salvador or Nicaragua, the two competing sites. All three countries had offered tax holidays, special rates for utilities, unrestricted export of profits and other incentives to lure such a major industry to their small countries. The CEO stated, "the deciding factor for us by far was Costa Rica's superior educational system. We need both current and future workers in the decades ahead. Costa Rica has both a basic education and technical education structure that can assure us the workers we need and that can adjust to our future requirements." One billion dollars and thousands of jobs went to Costa Rica because of its human development capacities. Such an investment will produce thousands more jobs and enterprises as spin offs to serve the needs of Intel. If Intel were to consider investing in East Africa this year, it would be most unlikely to locate in Tanzania based on these priorities.

Thus improvement in the HDI produces a "virtuous circle" where the more competitive macro-economic framework makes investors consider Tanzania while skilled workers and the capacity to produce them leads to positive investor decisions. Investment is a foundation of growth and growth is essential for improved incomes and human development. Direct support to the social sectors for poverty reduction and greater social capital in education, health, sanitation, water, etc. are vital and can help boost the HDI in sustainable ways, but they cannot alone serve as the engine of economic development that will eventually pull Tanzania into middle income country status or higher. Over the next decade and more,

therefore, Tanzania needs to raise its standing in the HDI not just for the intrinsic well-being of Tanzania's people, but also to build the single most critical element of that "virtuous circle" - human beings with the knowledge and skills needed to be productive and, thereby, improve their economic and social situation.

This national HDR has shown that improved human development indicators depend fundamentally upon more rapid and better quality human capacity building. It asserts that key impediments to this are found in the weak governance of the formal, vocational and non-formal education sectors and in inadequate policy and planning co-ordination among these areas leading to gross inefficiencies at all levels. Government is aware that internal efficiency indicators have worsened and that increased expenditures are having little impact because of the underlying governance issues considered throughout this report.

"From FY 92/93 to FY 97/98 a 50% real increase occurred in per student recurrent government expenditure on primary education. Despite this, primary enrolments did not keep pace with population growth and internal efficiency indicators actually worsened considerably."

Source: Tanzania Education Sector PER (February 1999), p. vi.

The challenge for Tanzania now is to implement policies that produce:

- greater transparency and accountability in sector and national financial management to reduce the misallocation and misappropriation of funds,
- more participation by stakeholders in all facets of human resource development (including parents, teachers and learners),
- more and better management training and streamlined management structures and processes to speed up the execution of the many plans and programmes that have been debated, developed and fine-tuned but not yet carried out and
- accelerated movement toward a comprehensive, integrated human capacity development strategy as the anchor both of Tanzania's national development strategy and its strategy for the optimal use of external assistance.

Without significant and early progress in these areas, there is a major risk that new resources, expected to become available through the Multilateral Debt Fund or HIPC, will fail to have any real and sustained impact on human development. The consequence of this would be to ensure that Tanzania remains near the bottom of the human development index and that the great majority of its people continue to be denied the economic betterment and human dignity to which they are entitled.

Annex 1

Definitions of the Human Development Index and Related Indices

and a

Technical Note: Computing the Indices

Human Development: Conceptual Issues and Definitions

Since UNDP's first *Human Development Report* appeared in 1990, the notion of human development has evolved and been refined to become a widely accepted concept used by the international community to consider how governments and societies meet the basic needs and aspirations of their citizens. At the heart of the concept of human development is the "process of enlarging people's choices." Previous development theories often gave exclusive attention to economic growth, assuming growth would ultimately benefit everyone. Human Development offers a broader and deeper perspective. Economic growth is vital but not sufficient. It must be translated into improvements in people's lives. Economic growth is not the *objective* of human development, it is but one *means*.

If human development is about enlarging people's choices, then the range of choices can vary enormously depending upon the individuals concerned and the country in question. Human development is not just a concept affecting developing countries, it applies equally to middle and upper-income countries. In all countries three fundamentals should be available to people. They should be able to lead long and healthy lives, acquire knowledge, and have access to the resources needed for an acceptable standard of living. If these essentials are not available, many other opportunities remain inaccessible.

Additional goals sought by many people include political and social freedom and opportunities to be creative and productive, accompanied by self-respect and human rights. Thus human development has two facets. One is the formation of human capabilities, such as improved health, knowledge and skills. The other is the ability to use these acquired capabilities both for productive, economic purposes and for being active in cultural, social and political affairs.

Two other elements have become important in defining human development. These are equity and sustainability. Human development is impossible without gender equity. As long as women are excluded from or marginalised in the development process, development will remain ineffective and skewed. In addition, human development has come to emphasise the sustainability of the development process. Equal opportunities must be available to both present and future generations. Development must be carried out within the carrying capacity of the environment, giving high priority to environmental regeneration in order to protect the opportunities of future generations.

In sum, as the 1995 *Human Development Report* pointed out, there are four major elements in the concept of human development: productivity, equity, sustainability and empowerment. Through expanded capabilities, the creativity and productivity of people must be increased for them to become effective agents of economic growth. In turn, economic growth must be combined with equitable distribution of its benefits. Equitable opportunities must be available both within and across generations. And all people, women and men, must be empowered to participate in making and implementing key decisions that influence their lives.

The Four Essential Components of Human Development

Productivity. People must be enabled to increase their productivity and to participate fully in the process of income generation and remunerative employment. Economic growth is, therefore, a subset of human development.

Equity. People must have access to equal opportunities. All barriers to economic and political opportunities must be eliminated so that people can participate in, and benefit from, these opportunities.

Sustainability. Access to opportunities must be ensured not only for the present generation, but for future generations as well. All forms of capital -- physical, human, environmental -- should be replenished.

Empowerment. Development must be *by* people, not only *for* people. People must participate fully in the decisions and processes that shape their lives.

Human Development and Poverty Reduction

The 1997 *Human Development Report* sought to clarify what had been an often confusing debate in international discussions of human development, namely, the relationship between human development and poverty reduction. As pointed out in the 1997 HDR, if human development is about expanding people's opportunities as well as raising their level of well-being, then poverty means that opportunities most basic to human development are denied. The poor lack the ability to lead a long, healthy life or to enjoy a decent standard of living, and they may lack dignity. The contrast between human development and poverty reflects two different perspectives on social change. The former focuses on advances made by all people in a given community or society, while the latter is concerned with the conditions in which the poor and deprived, as a distinct group, find themselves within a larger community.

The international debate over poverty has highlighted the fact that poverty is too complex to be captured by a single dimension or characteristic. By and large, however, three different approaches are commonly used to define or measure poverty. The first is an income or consumption-based definition of poverty. A person is poor when he or she falls below a certain pre-determined poverty line as measured by household income or expenditure. The second involves a "basic needs" approach; poverty is the lack of material requirements to meet minimally accepted needs, including food and basic social services. A third concept, put forward in the 1997 HDR, is a "capabilities perspective." In this view, poverty lies not merely in the impoverished state in which a person lives, but also in the lack of real opportunity to lead a valued and valuable life due to social constraints as well as personal circumstances. The capabilities approach builds on earlier analyses of poverty which sought to understand local self-definitions of poverty and social exclusion. For developing countries, issues of poverty involve hunger, illiteracy, lack of health services and safe water, poor housing, lack of productive employment opportunities and lack of physical security.

Three Perspectives on Defining Poverty

Income Perspective. A person is poor when his or her income or consumption level fall below a defined poverty line. In many countries, the cut-off line is defined in terms of having enough income for a specified amount of food.

Basic Needs Perspective. A person is poor when deprived of material requirements for a minimally acceptable fulfillment of human needs, including food, income, basic health and education, and other essential services.

Capabilities Perspective. A person is poor in the absence of some basic capabilities to function, where functioning is defined in physical terms (lack of adequate food, clothing, shelter, health and education) and social terms (lack of opportunities for social and cultural participation).

Source: 1997 *Human Development Report*

Measures of Human Development and Poverty

To ensure that development planning is directed towards human needs, the 1990 *Human Development Report* introduced the human development index (HDI). The HDI was envisioned as a tool to help policy makers and planners determine how well they were doing in meeting the fundamental needs of their citizens. The HDI is a quantitative measure that combines indicators of national income, life expectancy and educational attainment. These indicators were chosen as a way to combine economic and social indicators to give a composite gauge of human progress. The HDI does not measure absolute levels of human development. Rather, it ranks countries in relation to each other, according to how far they have come from the lowest levels of achievement and how far they have to go to reach the present highest level of achievement on each indicator. It is important to recognise that the HDI examines the average condition of all people within a country; distributional inequalities for various groups or regions of a country are not captured by the HDI, but have to be calculated separately.

As greater attention began to be paid to the gender dimensions of human development, two other aggregate indicators were developed. These are the gender-related development index (GDI) and the gender empowerment index (GEM). The GDI measures gains made in the same basic categories as the HDI, but takes note of inequality in gains between men and women. The methodology imposes a 'penalty' for inequality, such that the GDI falls when the achievement levels of both women and men in a country go down or when the disparity between their achievement increases. The greater the gender disparity in basic capabilities, the lower a country's GDI compared with its HDI. The GEM examines whether women and men are able to actively participate in economic and political life and take part in decision-making. While the GDI focuses on expansion of capabilities, the GEM is concerned with the use of those capabilities to take advantage of life opportunities.

UNDP's Measures of Human Development and Poverty

Human Development Index. The human development index (HDI) measures the average achievements in a country measured in three composite variables- life expectancy, educational attainment (adult literacy and combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment) and real GDP per capita.

Gender-related Development Index. The gender-related development index (GDI) measures achievements in the same dimensions and variables as the HDI, but takes into account inequality in achievement between women and men. The greater the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower a country's GDI compared with its HDI.

Gender Empowerment Measure. The gender empowerment measure (GEM) indicates whether women are able to actively participate in economic and political life. It focuses on women's involvement in key areas of economic, social and political participation and decision-making.

Human Poverty Index. The human poverty index (HPI) measures deprivation in the same dimensions as the HDI. The variables used are the percentage of people expected to die before age 40, the percentage of illiterate adults, and a composite economic variable consisting of the percentage of people without access to health services and safe water, and the percentage of underweight children under age five.

Attention to human development and poverty also resulted in a fourth indicator being developed by UNDP in 1997, the human poverty index (HPI). The HPI attempts to bring together, in a composite index, different characteristics of deprivation in the quality of life in order to arrive at an aggregated determination of the extent of poverty in a country (or community). The HPI concentrates on the deprivation of three essential elements of human life already reflected in the original HDI -- longevity, education, and standard of living. In the HPI, the first deprivation concerns the vulnerability to death at a relatively young age; the percentage of people expected to die before age 40. The second deprivation is measured by the percentage of adults who are illiterate. The third is a composite of three variables that attempt to capture economic access. The three sub-variables are the percentage of people with access to health services and safe water, and the percentage of malnourished children under five. Health and safe water were seen as representative of access to public economic goods while the prevalence of under-five malnutrition was seen as representative of private economic provisioning. For planning purposes, the HPI was seen as a useful complement to income measures of poverty and for identifying areas of concentrated poverty within a country.

The Human Poverty Index

As noted above, the human poverty index defines human development from the perspective of deprivation where development is measured by the way the poor and the deprived fare in each community. The HPI differs from HDI in that the latter focuses on progress in a community as a whole, while the former focuses on the situation and progress of the most deprived people in the community. HDI measures the overall progress of a country in human

development but does not capture the unequal distribution of that progress or show the breadth of poverty.

In closing, one should recognise the utility and limitations of the HDI, HPI and other indices noted above. Different data sources can lead to considerable differences in the estimated outcomes. But these indices can help policy makers understand the general thrust and direction of human development and poverty trends. As data collection improves on basic social and economic indicators, the reliability of these indices - used with other kinds of indicators - can be of even more use in shaping public policy debates and decisions.

Annex 2

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