INTERNATIONAL LABOUR
ORGANISATION

Strengthening Vocational Education and Training for Employment and Development in Tanzania

Background Reports and Summary of Vocational Education Training Workshop Findings

ILO/EAMAT Advisory Mission to
Tanzania 4th February - 8 March 1996

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PREFACE

In March 1991, the International Labour Organisation, through its Jobs and Skills Programme for Africa (JASPA), at the request of the Government of Tanzania, conducted an Employment Sector Review Mission. The mission was funded by the UNDP. The mission report titled, "Tanzanian Government - Meeting the Employment Challenge", covered among others, education, training and their effect on employment. However, the Government of Tanzania felt that there was a need for a specific study on vocational education and training (VET) and requested the ILO again to undertake the study. The Mission was funded by the UNDP under its Technical Support Services 1, TSS1 facility.

ILO, in accordance with its Active partnership Policy (APP), appointed the Eastern Africa Multidisciplinary Advisory Team (EAMAT) as the lead unit in the execution of the ILO TSS1 Mission. Accordingly, EAMAT put together a mission team which incorporated ILO officials from Geneva including national Consultants.

The terms of reference of the Mission as agreed with the UNDP and the Government were as follows:

1. To identify current employment and labour market trends, as well as national development objectives and investment programmes in which there is an evident training dimension.

2. To elaborate the role of the education system in relation to skill acquisition and more broadly, the links between education and training in Tanzania.

3. To review the country's current training system in terms of its relevance, effectiveness, efficiency and equity; to specify major constraints affecting system performance.

4. To analyse current training policies and indicate how they may address the country's socio-economic challenges and, if necessary, suggest policy options.

5. To develop an appropriate institutional framework for the co-ordination and the development of a more effective and efficient vocational training and technical education system.

6. To develop a non-formal training system to meet the needs of small and medium enterprises, small-scale enterprises including the informal sector.

7. To develop vocational training and technical education programmes to meet the specific needs of vulnerable groups such as the youth, the disabled, women and retrenched workers.

8. To suggest an appropriate management and administrative structure for a viable and sustainable payroll training levy funding arrangement for the modern sector training and the informal sector training.

9. To consider how non-farm training for self-employment in rural areas and in the urban informal sector should be promoted.

Composition of the Mission:

The Mission consisted of the following persons:

Mr. V. P. Diejomoah	-	Director of ILO-EAMAT, Addis Ababa, Chief of Mission
Mr. G. Ruigu	-	Senior Specialist, Employment Strategies, ILO-EAMAT
Mr. C. Dzakpasu	-	Senior Advisor, Management Development, ILO, Geneva.
Mr. T. Twigger	-	Senior Advisor, Vocational Training, ILO, Geneva.

Mr. S. Odera-Oteng	-	Senior Specialist, Vocational Training, ILO-EAMAT
Mr. M. Manyanga	-	Director General VETA
Ms. F. Minja	-	Gender Issues VETA

In its preparation for the ILO Mission, a number of background papers were commissioned to National Consultants in Tanzania. This document consists of the background papers prepared by the National Consultants as follows:

1.	Ahmed Athuman	-	Development in Technical Education and Vocational Training in Tanzania: How Institutions and Policies can be restructured to minimize the mismatch between supply and demand.
2.	Monji R.G.	-	Skill Acquisition For The Informal Sector
3.	H.K. Mwenisongole	-	General Education in Tanzania.
4.	Wilfred Y. Ogondiek	-	Developments in Technical Education and Training in Tanzania Toward the Year 2000 and Beyond (as part contribution to the Workshops 5-6th February 1996).Not commissioned paper.

The mission was preceded by a Workshop on restructuring of Technical Education and Vocational Training in Tanzania which was attended by stakeholders in the sector and was facilitated by the Mission team members. The Workshop was opened by Mr. J.L. Zayumbe, Director of Social Services in the Planning Commission. The Workshop findings form part of this document.

This document is compiled for record and reference purposes. While fully acknowledging the efforts of the consultants listed above, the views expressed in these reports do not necessarily reflect the views of the ILO mission nor those of the ILO.

Vremudia P. Diejomaoh
Chief of Mission
and
Director of ILO Eastern
Africa Multidisciplinary
Advisory Team, Addis Ababa.

WORKSHOP ON RESTRUCTING OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN TANZANIA

AIDE MEMOIRE

5 - 6th February, 1996
DAR ES SALAAM

TSS 1 - RESTRUCTURING OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION SYSTEMS 5 - 6 FEBRUARY, 1996

BACKGROUND:

The Workshop on restructuring of Vocational Training and Technical Education Systems in Tanzania will be held from 5 - 6 February, 1996 at the ILO Office, Alli Hassan Mwinyi Road, Dar es Salaam. The workshop is jointly organized by the Ministry of Labour and Youth Development, and the ILO/EAMAT. The major objective of the Workshop is to assist the Government of Tanzania to evolve policies and programmes which are relevant to the socio-economic needs of the Country and to find solutions to the improvement of relevance of Vocational Training and Technical Education Systems.

Tanzanian economy is in transition and like most Sub-Saharan African countries, is characterized by high un-employment. There are no upto date figures on the current un-employment situation however, it is estimated that the average rate of un-employment in the country is estimated at about 13 per cent, with considerable variation amongst groups and between rural and urban areas. Under employment rather than open employment, is the major problem in the rural areas, with the latter standing at only 22 per cent. Youth and women are bearing the brunt of the unemployment problem. Over 90 per cent of new entrants into the labour market consist of youth. Overall about 1.5 million youth or 25 per cent of the economically active youth are unemployed. Women are also greatly affected by the unemployment problem. In the urban areas it is estimated that 33 per cent of the women are unemployed. In the rural areas women are the backbone of agriculture production, working long hours and realizing low incomes. Among other vulnerable groups are the disabled, 70 per cent of whom are unemployed while 28 per cent are in self-employment and only 2 per cent in wage employment.

The employment challenge can be gauged by noting that the number of new entrants to the labour force is estimated to be 600,000, at least 500,000 being primary and secondary school leavers or dropouts, with little or no skills. Even if they had skills, they would have little chance of being absorbed in wage employment in the formal sector. In the mid-1980s about 30,000 modern sector jobs were created annually but this has since fallen to about 10,000 new jobs at present. The unemployment situation has, therefore reached alarming proportions, and the government is committed through the new economic policies to address it.

The development and promotion of small and medium scale enterprises has been accorded high priority by the government as one of the means of addressing unemployment, in this regard, the long-term Basic Industrial Strategy (1975 - 1995) placed emphasis on encouraging small and medium

industries in the rural areas as an integral part of the overall industrial growth strategy i.e., to broaden the country's production base. Within the current Economic and Social Adjustment Programme (ESAP), however, the emphasis has shifted towards the development of the micro enterprises and the promotion of the informal sector as immediate options to facilitate private initiatives that might create new opportunities for wage and self-employment. The informal sector has become an important part of the economy as an important source of income supplementation to both smallholder farmers and formal wage earners. Its contribution to GDP in 1991 was estimated to be 32 per cent.

The Technical and Vocational Training programme in Tanzania is large by African standards. Most of the training programmes are basically designed and oriented towards wage employment in the formal sector. These pre-employment training programmes are not targeted to labour market needs as they are not designed on the basis of pre-identified skills requirements. Lack of effective coordination has resulted in institutional weakness, such as under-utilization of installed capacity, mismatch between supply and demand, lack of cost-effectiveness. Training programmes intended for the informal sector are not integrated, taking into account technical, entrepreneurial needs of the learners and seem to be donor driven.

The Government of Tanzania in March 1994 took a bold and positive step towards improving skills development by amending the Vocational Training Act. The main aim of the amendment was to provide an effective flexible institutional framework for VET co-ordination implementation and funding. Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA), an autonomous organization has been established but is still in its formative stages.

However, beyond these policy pronouncements, there is still a need to develop coherent policies, strategies and programmes for Vocational Training and Technical Education with a view to meeting the employment challenge.

1. THE OBJECTIVE OF THE WORKSHOP

The workshop is intended to analyse the background papers prepared by national consultants and to:-

- identify issues affecting vocational training and technical education system on both supply and demand sides.
- propose possible solutions to the problems identified through the determination of factors that will improve relevance, efficiency and effectiveness of the training system.
- pay special attention to the development of small enterprise and support to the informal sector.

The output of the workshop will be an integral part of the mission report.

2. APPROACH AND STRATEGY OF THE WORKSHOP

The workshop strategy is to get from the stake holders, i.e. people involved in the planning, development and implementation of Vocational Education and Technical Training to present their views on the improvement of the systems. It is important that improvements are to be effective and durable, to generate a sense of local ownership in proposed changes and to ensure that constraints and special factors are recognized. This will facilitate the mission in coming up with realistic, practical proposals, strategies and implementation arrangements.

As this workshop is of Senior level personnel, the strategy of the meeting is to make it actively participatory. The three background papers:- General Education in Tanzania, skill acquisition for the Informal Sector and Vocational Training, Technical Education and employment in Tanzania will be presented and is immediately followed by one or two discussants.

The general discussion will then follow. A list of constraints and solutions on supply and demand sides will be produced. The organizers will pay a facilitating role as the secretarial.

3. THE VENUE OF THE WORKSHOP

The workshop will be held at the ILO Area Office, Alli Hassan Mwinyi Road.

OPENING SPEECH BY MR. J.L. ZAYUMBA, DIRECTOR FOR SOCIAL SERVICES IN THE PLANNING COMMISSION

The Director of ILO, Dsm,

Distinguished Guests,

Ladies and Gentlemen.

I feel greatly honoured for having the opportunity to open this important workshop on the restructuring of Technical Education and Vocational Training in Tanzania. It is a subject of considerable importance to us but which has not been given due emphasis in the past. The workshop therefore could not have come at a more appropriate time.

The provision of Technical Education and Vocational Training is an essential pre-condition for economic growth and development in the modern era. This has been recognized by our Government and that is why heavy investments have already been made in the development of Technical Education and Vocational Training since independence.

The indispensable role and importance of Technical Education and Vocational Training in a developing country cannot be over-emphasized. It is the training of people whose skills enable the material wealth of a nation to be built up. The availability of these people in the right number,

at the right time, in the right place and with the right balance of technical knowledge and practical skills determines the pace and direction of industrial development of a country. In Tanzania, we still experience a shortage of suitably trained skilled personnel and as a result of that plans for national development have been retarded and attempt to bridge the gap has resulted in dependence on expert personnel from outside. In the long term, this cannot be allowed to continue because we will fail to realize the rates of economic growth which we have set ourselves to achieve.

In assessing the cost effectiveness of Technical Education and Vocational Training, economists distinguish between the internal and external efficiency of these investments. It is possible Technical Education and Vocational Training to have high internal efficiency but low external efficiency because the training is not adequately utilised. Of late, this seems to be the case in Tanzania. Shortage of skilled personnel was identified, in the past, by planners as the principal reason for the low level of our development. The solution was, therefore, to expand national endowments of skilled personnel as quickly as possible. While it was generally recognised that the effective market demands for these skills was low, there was nonetheless a widespread assumption that simply supplying these skills would create its own demand. So obvious was the relationship

between human resource development and economic development that insufficient attention was given to the complex nature of this relationship in planning for Technical Education and Vocational Training. The result has been a marked non-correspondence between national manpower requirements as these have been estimated by the planners and the actual skill requirements of enterprises themselves. As a result of this, we have increasingly sought to delink Technical Education and Vocational Training provision from the labour market so that it becomes development driven rather than employer driven.

The common denominator of efficient training is tight linkage with employer. This has been difficult to achieve in many Public Training Institutions. Isolated from employers' needs, the Government has tended to take more and more reponsibility for the provision of training, devoting disproportionate resources to initial, pre-employment job training for which it has more control over selection and curriculum content. Skill upgrading, particurlarly with regards to the introduction of new technologies in key sectors, has therefore been relatively neglected.

I understand that one of the objectives of this workshop is to identify issues affecting Vocational Training and Technical Education and propose possible solutions. The issues I have addressed in this opening

note are but a few amongst many. It is my belief that the workshop will propose steps to be taken in order to make Technical Education and Vocational Training more responsive to labour market requirements.

With these few words, I now have the pleasure to declare the workshop open and wish you successful deliberations.

Thank you.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION

Workshop on the Restructuring of Vocational Training and Technical Education Systems in Tanzania

Dar es Salaam
5-6 February 1996

Welcome by the Director

Hon. Commissioner for Social Services,
Mr. J.L. Zayumba

Dear ILO Colleagues,

Distinguished Participants.

It is my very pleasant duty to welcome you here today to a workshop on the restructuring of vocational training and technical education systems in Tanzania. I am pleased to welcome our ILO colleagues and advisers from the East Africa Multi-disciplinary Team based in Addis Ababa as well as from ILO headquarters in Geneva who bring with them a high level of experience spanning the African continent and the global context. The list of participants is also extremely impressive, representing the key institutions and also employers who have the primary interest in and responsibility for molding the technical and vocational training institutions to adjust to the new realities under the changing economy of Tanzania. It is perhaps fitting that this august gathering of minds should be the first to exchange views around our new conference table today.

Over the past 10 years, Tanzania has undergone massive changes, political, social and economic. Liberalization and privatization introduced in conjunction with the structural adjustment programme have had massive repercussions on the labour market and led to an increase in open unemployment if not underemployment. Although Tanzania enjoys one of the largest networks of technical and vocational training systems in Africa, the major challenge is to upgrade and revise it to ensure that its graduates emerge with attitudes, knowledge and skills that are relevant to the emerging economy.

A major employment mission was carried out in 1991 by ILO's JASPA team which critically examined a number of issues that you will no

doubt be revisiting during your deliberations almost exactly five years later. Trends anticipated five years ago have taken concrete shape today, and we have all gained in experience, both good and not so good, that should enable us to arrive at conclusions and recommendations with far greater certainty and confidence than was possible before.

There are a number of significant new developments that now need to be taken into consideration in your deliberations. For example, the increasing choices that young people have today in acquiring technical training through the private sector: in-house training such as that offered by the Sheraton Hotel and the establishment other private training programmes, particularly in the area of computer skills. Even very poor people are somehow scraping together the resources to invest in this training which may be taken as evidence of their demand in today's employment market.

The private sector is also getting back into the education sector, from the primary to the university level, and both the government and the World Bank have declared quality education to be high on their list of investment priorities. We hope that this means, at least in the medium to long term, that those entering into technical and vocational training institutions will arrive with a higher level of basic education and new attitudes towards acquiring skills.

Of particular importance is the 1994 Amendment to the Vocational Training Act which aims to provide an effective and flexible institutional framework for VET co-ordination, implementation and funding. The introduction of a new tax is expected to raise considerable and dependable resources that will make it possible to implement the kind of changes that are required to meet the challenges of today and tomorrow.

Finally, I am glad to see that this workshop will also take into account issues related to the rapid emergence of the informal sector and its recognition as having a legitimate role to play alongside the formal sector in promoting employment and stimulating the growth of the economy. There are now several organizations of informal sector operators in Dar es Salaam, Moshi and other urban areas that can provide information and contact with this shifting and elusive sector. The real challenge here is to provide entrepreneurial skills and attitudes and possibly backup services for those who are intending to find employment or self-employment in the informal sector.

With these few words, allow me to conclude my remarks and let you get on with your debate on the very important issues that need to be addressed in the restructuring of technical and vocational training in Tanzania. My very best wishes for a successful workshop.

Thank you.

WORKSHOP ON THE RE-STRUCTURING OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN TANZANIA

PARTICIPANTS:

1. S.S. GAMUYA
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   DAR ES SALAAM

2. P.A. MAGANYA
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GENERAL MANAGER
MEIDA MAINTENANCE SERVICES LTD
DAR ES SALAAM

16. A MAENDA
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
ATE
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17. SAMWELI LYIMO
TFTU (OTTU) AG. HEAD OF EDUCATION
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18. J. KAJULA
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19. MR. MICHAEL CHAMBUA
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20. S. MWANGUNDA
SENIOR CONSULTANT
BUSINESS CARE SERVICES
DAR ES SALAAM

21. A. ATHUMANI
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR (VCTA)
DAR ES SALAAM

22. H.K. MWENISONGOLE
FORMER DIRECTOR, EDUCATIONAL PLANNING
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
DAR ES SALAAM.

WORKSHOP ON THE RESTRUCTURING OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN TANZANIA

DISCUSSION DRAFT

Major demand side issues identified by the workshop

Issues	Symptoms	Causes	Effects	Solutions
Issue 1: Lack of coordination in policy-making	1. Lack of awareness 2. Duplication of programmes	1. Lack of interest in participation 2. Poor prioritization 3. Male domination throughout the system 4. Non-consideration of important assumptions	1. Misinterpretation of policies 2.Lack of gender-sound policy 3. Lack of participation 4. Less effective policies 5. Policies not environmentally sound 6. Unemployment of graduates 7. Mismatch between demand and supply 8. Less transfer of technology	1. Transparency and participatory policy-making 2. Effective dissemination to customers 3. Advocacy with time 4. Establishment of tripartite coordinating bodies at grass roots level 5. Ensure women's participation

Issues	Symptoms	Causes	Effects	Solutions
Issue 2: Mismatch between supply and demand	1.Unemployment of trained persons 2.Underemployment 3.Manpower shortages in certain skills 4.Underutilization of facilities and skills	1.Lack of labour market surveys 2.Lack of flexibility in the training programmes 3.Lack of monitoring and evaluation 4.inadequate involvement of employers, communities and other interest groups	1.Irrelevant training programmes and products 2.Increase in unemployment 3.Over/under production of certain skills 4.Marginalization of women 5.Misuse of resources 6.Inefficient training systems	1.Intensification of labour market training needs 2.Intensify the participation of communities (women, employers, disabled, workers, etc) 3.Train for self-employment 4.Rationalize training programmes 5.Intensify trainee tracer studies and follow-up

Issues	Symptoms	Causes	Effects	Solutions
Issue 3: Urban/rural focus	1.Greater migration into urban centres 2.Lack of skills in the rural areas 3.Lack of consumers in the rural areas 4.Nachinger..? culture in the urban areas 5.Lack of essential amenities	1.Lack of needs assessment in the rural areas 2.Low purchasing power 3.Closure of rural-based industries 4.Weakness of institutions 5.Traditional practices (women) 6.Not geared to self-employment 7.Poor infrastructure in rural areas 8.Lack of motivation to retrain	1.Rural/urban migration 2.Squatter living 3.Increased work load for women 4.Informal activities increase (+ and -) 5.Social resources strained in urban areas 6.Economic resources within rural areas depleted 7.Nachinger.. ? culture	1.Training programmes according to community felt needs 2.Empower rural people (gender-sensitize, train in use of local resources, make men and women stay in rural areas by providing a conducive environment, etc) 3.Change of attitudes and traditional customs 4.Create jobs

Issues	Symptoms	Causes	Effects	Solutions
Issue 4: Duplication of training programmes	1.As for Issue No. 2	1.Lack of coordination and planning 2.Meeting owner and donor needs 3.Lack of gender integration 4.Lack of utilization of survey information 5.Lack of needs identification surveys 6.Lack of adequate resources	1.Competition between institutions 2.Other effects as for Issue No. 2	1.Increase coordination for information on skill requirements in the area 2.Diversification of skill mix and needs 3. Other Solutions as for Issue No. 2

Issues	Symptoms	Causes	Effects	Solutions
Issue 5 The informal sector is not included in vocational training (the informal sector is not in the catchment area)	1.Limited skills of informal sector operators 2.Poor quality products 3.Lack of relationship between institutions and the informal sector activities	1.Rigid training programmes 2.Limited capital for the informal sector 3.Lack of skills in the institutions to meet the needs of the informal sector 4.Hostile business environment for the informal sector (eg credit)	1.A disorganized informal sector 2.Lack of informal sector credit 3.Continued poverty	1.Include the informal sector in training programmes 2.Reform policies in favour of the informal sector 3.Create a conducive environment for the informal sector

Note - Gender issues

Gender issues are common to all the issues identified. Gender considerations should be integrated into all programmes. The factors that need to be considered include:

Participation
Access
Invisibility of women
Division of labour
Needs (relevance)
Environment
Power
Cultural/attitudes
Use of gender disaggregated statistics

WORKSHOP ON THE RESTRUCTURING OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING
AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION SYSTEMS IN TANZANIA

DISCUSSION DRAFT

Major supply side issues identified by the workshop

Issues	Symptoms	Causes	Effects	Solutions
Issue 1: Quality of trainers	Low level of performance of the graduates from government, private and non-religious institutions.	1. 85 per cent of trainers have never attended a teacher training course; 2. The academic levels of trainers are very low; 3. There is no comprehensive policy on vocational training and technical education.	1. The output of the vocational training system is substandard.	1. Trainers should be retrained on-the-job or on in-house tailor-made training programmes.
Issue 2 Facilities and equipment	Inadequate and poorly maintained equipment.	1. Lack of finance to buy equipment; 2. Lack of maintenance capability; 3. Lack of workshop management skills.	1. The quality of training is hampered.	1. Adequate funds should be made available; 2. A preventive maintenance programme should be introduced; 3. Training in workshop maintenance should be given.

Issues	Symptoms	Causes	Effects	Solutions
Issue 3: Standard of trainees and graduates	1. Trainees cannot cope with the skills that are imparted.	1. Low levels of education.	1. There is a mismatch between supply and demand except in the informal sectors.	1. Curricula to be reviewed, enlarged and enriched; 2. Tailor-made and short courses should be introduced.
Issue 4 Management skills and sustainability	1. Lack of institutional master plans/ programmes, e.g. marketing plans, training plans, maintenance.	1. Lack of or poor training in management relevant to vocational training.	1. Programmes are not linked to the labour market	1. Training should be provided for managers, administrators and policy-makers.
Issue 5 Funding for training	1. Failure to buy and maintain training equipment; 2. Vocational training structure not optimal; 3. Low motivation; 4. Donor dependency	1. Low Salaries do not reflect the extensive responsibilities of the staff of the training system;	1. Programmes are not properly run; 2. There is a lack of creativity in the system.	1. Alternative sources of funding should be found (e.g. levy systems and cost sharing) 2. Training-cum-production units should be established.

Issues	Symptoms	Causes	Effects	Solutions
Issue 6: Structure of the vocational training system and the length of the training courses	1. The system does not respond to market needs; 2. There is a lack of employment opportunities for trained youth.	1. The mismatch between the vocational training programmes and the labour market needs.	1. Antisocial behaviour of the youths who have been trained; 2. No returns on the considerable investments in training.	1. Identification of training needs; 2. Short and tailor-made courses should be introduced; 3. Vocational training and technical education should be restructured.
Issue 7 Evaluation of training	1. Lack of placement data on graduates; 2. No linkages between the training institutions and the graduates; 3. Lack of gender sensitivity training equipment; 2. Vocational training structure not optimal; 3. Low motivation; 4. Donor dependency	1. No policy on training evaluation; 2. There is a male bias in the designing of the training programmes.	1. Lack of knowledge about graduates; 2. There is no feedback for curriculum improvement; 3. There is marginalization of women as co-beneficiaries.	1. Introduce tracer studies; 2. Trainers should go on industrial visits; 3. comprehensive information about graduates should be assembled; 4. Remedial programmes for gender sensitivity .

MANAGEMENT OF VET SYSTEM

1. GOVERNANCE:

1.1 Linkage and communication of Authority:

The organisation structure and job descriptions of Key personnel in the VETA system is shown in appendix 7.

1.2 **Boards:**

(a) Composition and size:

The Vocational Education and Training Board is compared of eleven members, one of whom is the Chairperson appointed by the President. The other ten members are appointed by the Minister upon being nominated by their respective organisations as follows:

(i)	Employers organisation	-	2 members
(ii)	Workers organisation	-	2 members
(iii)	Ministry of Labour	-	1 member
(iv)	Ministry of Industry	-	1 member
(v)	Ministry of Education	-	1 member
(vi)	Non-Governmental Organisations	-	3 member

(b) Function:

The main function of the Board is to develop policies on Vocational Education and Training and supervise their implementation on a national level as well as set the policies and procedures for the use of Vocational Education and Training Fund.

(c) Tentative:

Every member of the Board holds office for a period of three years and may be eligible for appointment.

(d) Compensation (incentives):

The incentives for Board members as approved by the Minister are as follows:

(i) Board Meeting allowance - Shs.60,000/= for the chairperson and Shs.50,000/= for Board members

(ii) Directors Annual Fees: - Shs.250,000/= for the Board chairperson and Shs.200,000/= for Board members.

(iii) End of term (three years) allowance: 20% of the total sum paid as sitting allowance during the period of memberships.

(iv) Each member is entitled to join one social club of her/his choice, the membership fee of which is paid by the Authority.

1.2.2 Regional Boards:

These have not yet been formed. They will be established by the National Board and each Regional Board will have a membership of not more than seven members consisting of the following:

(i) Chairperson appointed by the Board
(ii) Employers organisations - 3 members
(iii) Workers organisations - 2 members
(iv) Regional Administration - 1 member
(v) Non-Governmental Organisation - 1 member

The main function of the Regional Boards is to coordinate Vocational Education and Training Activities within the Region.

1.3 Relationship with the stake Holders (at VTC level)

The interface between the VTCs and the environment is through the Trade Advisory Committees which The Board may establish in respect of each Industry. Trade Advisory Committees are composed of not more than seven members consisting of:-

(i) Vocational Training Institutions - 1 member
(ii) Training Specialist - 1 member
(iii) Employees in the Industry - 2 member
(iv) One member of the Board is appointed by the Board as a chairperson of the committee.

1.4 Managerial autonomy:

Before the 1994 Act, the Centres as well as the NVTD itself were part of the Civil Service and as such were regarded as Government Institutions responding to Government rules and regulations. The 1994 Act gives an autonomous status to VETA as a body corporate. The managerial autonomy of VETA make Key decisions has been elaborated under section 4 (10 of the Act. Likewise the Centres' managerial autonomy have also been enhanced and elaborated under section 13 (2) of the Act.

1.5 Communications and Reports:

Centres are required to submit to VETA the following reports:-

(i) Monthly reports describing the progress made, problems encountered and solution.

The reporting is for both physical as well as financial.

(ii) Quarterly progress reports summarising the progress made during the quarter and plans for the next quarter.

(iii) Annual reports giving an account of what was achieved during the year against planned targets, shortfalls and their reasons and tentative plan for the following year.

2. Management:

2.1 Training Needs of clients

The system as it is to day is supply oriented, drawing its intake from school leavers. A small proportion of the students are sponsored by Employers which addresses the identified training needs of these employers. In order to train for the wider training needs of the market, the programmes will be re-oriented.

2.2. Programme development and delivery system:

The programmes and the deliver system will be developed along the following lines:-

(i) training needs analysed and short course programmes designed

(ii) analyse staff training needs and train them

(iii) develop and implement training programmes to meet the needs of the clients

2.3. Structuring the VTC

(a) Leadership/Chief Executive

The Chief Executive for a VTC is the Principal but under the 1994 Act, the National Board may designate any Vocational Training Centre to be a Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre for which a Regional Director will be the Chief Executive. Apart from being the Chief Executive of the Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre, the Regional Director will also be responsible for the coordination of Vocational Training activities in that Region.

(b) Recruitment

Recruitment of Staff (including Senior Staff) is done subject to availability of approved and funded establishments. Recruitment is based on merit and the Policy of VETA is to advertise such vacant positions so that all interested suitable candidates can apply.

(c) Motivation

VETA Personnel Policy is to attract, recruit and retain persons who are well qualified and who through VETA attractive salary structure and incentive scheme will be sufficiently motivated and therefore committed to achieve VETA goals efficiently. The new competitive VETA salary structure was approved by the Board during its 6th meeting held in Dar es Salaam on 28th November, 1996.

2.4. Financing VTC and Financial Management

Financing of the VTC is through the levy (60%) user fees (20%) and own income generating activities (20%). Financial management and discipline is ensured through the fulfilment of Board requirements governing accounting for which all centres are required for the purpose of funding to prepare:-

(i) activity based plans and budgets for the respective year.
(ii) quarterly financial reports in line with activity - based plans and budgets which enables the VETA Head Office to prepare a consolidated financial report to the Board.
(iii) financial statements to be varified by VETA External Auditors.

2.5. Management of facilities

Basically maintenance culture is lacking in Tanzania and one of the issues being addressed by the VTCs is to incalculate maintenance culture both among the staff and students. Each centre has a maintenance team and a preventive maintenance programme for equipment, buildings and the compound. A maintenance coordinator supervises the implementation of the preventive maintenance programme and the students participate in the maintenance as part of their training.

2.6. Internal Management of VTC.

(a) The Planning Process

The planning process at the VTC level starts with the surveying of training needs within the region in order to identify training needs for basic training, short courses and tailor made programmes. This is then followed by:

(i) the preparation of annual operational and development plan.
(ii) prepare activity based annual budget
(iii) prepare and execute training programmes according to plans
(iv) prepare annual reports accounting for the results achieved

(b) Organisation Structure

The organisation structure of a Regional VTSc is as shown in appendix 11.

(c) Personnel Policies

The policies for recruitment of staff compensation etc. are as explained under paragraph 2.3 above.

(d) Communication

Interpersonal relationship is based on the principle of participatory democracy through department meetings and monthly meetings involving the entire staff of the VTC. Grievances are dealt with in accordance with the disciplinary regulations and procedures as detanted in the VETA Personnel Manual.

(e) Costing Centres and Revenue

Expenditure Management is as described under paragraph 2.4 above. Revenue management is basically the levy fund administration which is ensured by:

(i) preparation of monthly and quarterly financial reports giving a true and fair picture of levy collection, fund balances and disbursements.

(ii) preparation of annual financial statements acceptable to external auditors.

Appendix lll shows a summary of the VETA interim budget (July-Dec. 95) highlighting the costing centres.

3. **Strategic Thinking/Planning/Management:**

Vision/Mission of VTC:

The VTCs will develop into a Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre with decentralized powers, responsibility and authority to undertake functions as listed in the VETA Act No. 1/1994, a.o,

- deal with selection of trainees in accordance to trade standards and admission requirements;
- conduct regionally based tracer studies and deseminate information
- conduct trade tests according to regulations laid down by the Board;
- act as a nucleus for Vocational education and training system development in the region,
- to promote and support the development of entrepreneurial skills, values and attitudes.

Long range goals;

- Develop the necessary institutional framework to enable them to perform new roles as demanded by the new policy.
- Develop a plan of operation involving the key players in the institution. Froms the Pop, the yearly plans will be elaborated and budgeted.
- Develop strategies for generating funds enough to finance 40% of the operational costs.

Strengths of VTCs:

- Some of the VTCs especially those which have been assisted by Donors have sophisticated equipment and know how which can be shared with industry.

Weakness (challenges facing VTCs:

- Need for Vocational Teachers to adapt to changes taking place in the labour market environment
- High cost of replacing equipment
- competition in hiring and retaining qualified staff.

Opportunities and threats:

- Same as the two described above under strengths and weaknesses

Strategic plans for VTCs:

One of the major activity for a VTC in its new role will be to develop a strategic plan (PoP) or PIP involving every one relevant at the local level - the Vocational Teachers, the VTC Management and the Regional Board when established and functioning. Plans for the VTC should not be developed at the central level. Only guidelines on cenrtain policy issues will come from the central level.

4. VTC AND CLIENTS RELATIONSHIP:

Apart from the Regional Board which will have functions as detailed in the VETA Act 1/1994 , each VTC whether it belongs to VETA or any other provider will have a school board where parents, trainees vocational teachers, representatives of industry have a role to play. This will be the forum where dialoque is sustained.

5. EXAMINATION OF INTAKES (TRAINEES) SELECTION:

The training system to be implemented will be mainly demand oriented which is a major departure from the long course traditional curriculum.

The young trainees will be exposed to broad based curriculum and counselled into selecting an area of specialization after an initial exposure. For example a young entrant will be selected into construction skills before he is guided and counselled to narrow down to carpentry bricklaying, plumbing or painting. After covering competently a particular module the trainee should be allowed to have and go out to apply the module which has been covered competently. An aptitude test together with a language and arithmetic test should suffice to measure the trainability of the trainee. In this respect whether it be a single module or series of modules no trainee should be allowed to move on unless he/she has been assessed as competent in that particular module and the competence has to be according to criterial set (it could be minimum standard)

SKILL ACQUISITION FOR THE INFORMAL SECTOR

SUBMITTED TO ILO/EAMAT

MONJI R.G
DAR ES SALAAM
JANUARY 1996.

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SKILL ACQUISITION FOR THE INFORMAL SECTOR (MICRO-ENTERPRISES)

1. Background

For over two decades, the main source of wage employment in the country has been the public sector. In the first long term plan, (1965-2000), it was anticipated that the public sector would create over 200,000 employment opportunities a year for the next twenty years, hence able to meet all employment needs. But the public sector has created far less employment opportunities than had been expected. During the whole decade of the 1980s, the public sector created less than 20,000 jobs a year, compared to a demand for over 300,000 jobs a year. By the 1990s, the rate of job creation in the public sector had become negative, while the annual demand for jobs increased to over 600,000 jobs a year.

The decline in the rate of growth of public sector employment in the 1980s and early 1990s came about as the result of the poor performance of the economy, and the relatively high rate of growth of population particularly urban population. The urban population grew at a rate of over 7 % a year between the 1978 and 1988 census period. The negative growth in public sector employment during the mid 1990s is related to the restructuring of the civil service and the privatization of the parastatal sector.

While the importance of the public sector in employment creation has declined over the years, the importance of the informal sector in employment creation has over the same period been increasing. The public sector which employed as much as 80 % of total wage employment in the mid 1980s, offered only about 50 % of wage employment in the mid 1990s. With the on going retrenchment programme, the sector is now likely to offer less than 50 % of total wage employment. The other 50 % is taken up by the informal sector.

The informal sector has provided employment to two major categories of the labour force. One such group is that of youths. On this account, the participants are mainly youths who have finished primary school education but could not continue with school, or find paid employment in the formal sector. These youths set up informal sector activities as a last resort as means of generating income. The second group of participants in the informal sector are households. The reason for the establishment of informal sector activities by households has been the increasing economic difficulties experienced by the household as the result of high inflation and declining real incomes. As a means of supplementing household incomes, families have initiated informal sector activities. Participants in this case have mostly been house wives. Informal sector activities as a secondary source of income have also been initiated by civil servants.

Despite the increasing importance of the informal sector in employment creation and income generation, it is only recent that the government began to pay some attention to the sector, and propose a National Employment Policy that acknowledges the importance of the informal

sector and aims at promoting the sector through providing a conducive environment for its development[1].

Though the informal sector is important in terms of income generation and employment creation, the sector experiences some constraints. These include low productivity and low level of output, low skill of the operators, low level of technology used, low capital usage, and as a consequence, a low level of income in relation to the income generation potential of the sector.

1.2 The Objective of the Paper

The main objective of the paper is to provide a detailed description of the informal sector aimed at understanding how the sector operates. This includes understanding :

- how operators in the informal sector acquire their skills,
- how and why skill acquisition varies among the various trades,
- the nature and extent of traditional apprenticeship, and,
- determining how and the willingness of the informal sector operators to pay for education and training, and
- determine how operators in the informal sector can be encouraged to participate in the provision of skill training for operators in the sector.

The expected overall outcome of the effort will be to indicate how to promote training and skill acquisition in the informal sector with the end objective of increasing productivity and higher output in the sector, and generate more employment opportunities.

2. A DESCRIPTION OF THE INFORMAL SECTOR

2.1 Employment Levels in the Informal Sector

The informal sector which became important in the late 1980s for economic reasons, has continued to grow in importance over the years. A recent survey of the informal sector indicated that some 1,570,000 representing about 33 % of total households in the country have informal sector activities, either as owner operators or employees in the sector. With regards to employment, the sector offers employment to about 2.4 million people. The following table gives an indication of employment levels in the sector.

---

[1] Ministry of Labour and Youth Development: The National Employment Policy Proposal, January 1995.

TOTAL INFORMAL SECTOR EMPLOYMENT Table One

Sex	Dar es Salaam	Other Urban	Rural	Total
Male	190,971	354,526	985,526	1,531,094
Female	124,587	279,619	433,680	838,286
Total	315,958	634,145	1,419,277	2,369,380

Source: The Planning Commission and The Ministry of Labour and Youth Development Tanzania The Informal Sector 1991 Table 2:1:1

The table shows that about 60 % of the people engaged in the informal sector are in rural areas. The remaining 40% are in urban areas of which 33 % are in Dar es Salaam alone. Given the fact the rural population is about 80 % of the total population, the 60 % participation of the rural population indicates that informal sector activity is largely but not exclusively an urban phenomenon.

The participation of the different sexes in the informal sector is also indicated in the above table. The table shows that males represent about 65 % of total employment in the informal sector, while females represent 35 % of total employment in the sector. These percentages show the under presentation of women in informal sector activities given that women are about 51% of the total population and 51.3 % of the total labour force.[2]

The following table shows the distribution of informal sector operators in the various industry groups:

INFORMAL SECTOR OPERATORS BY INDUSTRY GROUP Table Two

Industry Group	Male	Female	Total
Agricu/Fishin.	120,117	12,816	132,933
Mining &Quarri.	11,322	2,998	14,320
Manufactu.	307,399	118,940	426,339
Construction.	113,064	346	113,410
Trade/Restra.	429,784	480,837	910,621
Transport	48,662	0	48,662
C & P services	89,230	7159	96,389
Total	1,119,578	623,096	1,742,674

[2] Bureau of Statistics and the Ministry of Labour and Youth Development Tanzania Mainland The Labour Force Survey 1990/1991, table 1.4.3

Source: The Planning Commission and The Ministry of Labour and Youth Development Tanzania The Informal Sector 1991 Table 6.3

It can be seen from the table the most common industry group is trade and restaurant. About 52 % of the informal sector operators are in trade and restaurant related business. The sub sector accommodates about 77 % of women and 38 % of the men who are in the informal sector. The predominance of the trade and restaurant sector is to a large extent due the relative easiness with which operators can get into the sector. The relatively low level of capital required, the low level of skill needed, and the short gestation period of the activities etc. induce people to get into the sector.

The second common sector which has more operators is the manufacturing sub sector. About 27 % of the men and 19 % of the women are in the manufacturing sub sector. The popularity of the manufacturing sector is also related to the ability of operators to get into the sector fairly easily relative to other sectors. The implications of this sectoral bias on the design and execution of training programmes will be examined in the coming sections of the report.

The third important sub sector is agriculture and fishing. About 11 % of the men and about 2 % of the women who have activities in the informal sector are in the agriculture and fishing sub sector. These are mostly rural based activities.

2.2 The Extent of Paid Employment in the Informal Sector

Another picture of the informal sector which has an implication on the design and implementation of training programmes is the existence of paid and unpaid employment in the informal sector. Paid and unpaid employment in the informal sector constitutes about 26 % of the total number of people who have activities (operators plus employees) in the informal sector. The following table gives an indication of the level of paid employment in the various sub sectors.

The table shows that paid employment is about 43.5 % of total paid and unpaid employment, with about 20 % being part time work. The relative importance of paid apprentices in manufacturing and construction can be noted from the table. Equally important is paid employment in the trade sub sector.

The preponderance of unpaid employment in the informal sector is also seen on the table. The table below shows that 56.5 % of total employment in the informal sector is unpaid unemployment. These figures correspond to the known presence of unpaid family labour in the informal sector. The implication on training of this group will be discussed at a later stage.

INFORMAL SECTOR EMPLOYEES (%) BY INDUSTRY Table Three

Industry	Paid Apprent.	Paid Other	Paid P/Time	Unpaid Apprent.	Unpaid Other	Total
Agr&fish	0	3.08	5.08	0	8.35	16.50
Mining	0	0.02	1.12	0	0.03	1.18
Manufac.	1.99	2.71	3.67	3.2	4.37	15.94
Construc.	1.08	1.35	4.55	0.51	0.49	7.98
Trade	0.02	10.67	4.85	0.04	32.78	48.36
Transport	0.43	0.44	0.47	0.01	3.63	4.69
C&P services	0.44	1.16	0.70	0.53	2.51	5.33
Total	3.66	19.44	20.43	4.29	52.17	1000

Source: Calculated from table EMP.4 in the Tanzania Informal Sector Survey 1991.

An important consideration in the examination of the characteristics of the informal sector is the age distribution of the participants in the sector. An indication of the age composition of the informal sector operators and employees is in the following table.

INFORMAL SECTOR EMPLOYMENT BY AGE Table Four

Age Group	Male	Female	Total
10 - 14 Yrs	2	3	2
15 -19 Yrs	9	9	9
20 -24 Yrs	14	14	14
25 -29 Yrs	20	18	19
30 -39 Yrs	26	28	26
40 - 49 Yrs	15	17	15
50 -59 Yrs	9	7	8
60 + Yrs	5	3	5
Total	100	100	100

Source: The Planning Commission and The Ministry of Labour and Youth Development Tanzania The Informal Sector 1991 Table 2.4.1

For both men and women the most active participants in the informal sector are in the age groups of 20 to 49 years. At the younger age, they come into the sector mostly as employees, while at the older age they are mainly owners of enterprises. This pattern of participation in the informal sector is largely due to the inability of youths to start own activities because of capital constraints as well as skill and management limitations. Youths get into the informal sector initially as employees, and then as they gain skill and management experience and are able to accumulate some capital, they start their own enterprises within the same or related sub sector.

2.3 The Education Level of Informal Sector Operators

As part of the background information on skill acquisition in the informal sector, some information on the education level of the participants in the sector is important . An indication of the level of education of operators and employees in the informal sector is given in table five.

INFORMAL SECTOR EMPLOYMENT BY EDUCATION Table Five

	Employees	Operators	Total
No School	13	26	22
Primary Not Finished.	20	23	22
Primary Completed	65	46	51
Seco. (Form 2)	1	1	1
Seco. (Form 4)	1	2	2
Form 6 +	0	1	1
Total	100	100	100

Source: The Planning Commission and The Ministry of Labour and Youth Development Tanzania The Informal Sector 1991 Table 2.5.1

The table clearly shows that the informal sector provides employment to people with primary education or below. As the table shows only 2 % of the employees in the sector have an education beyond primary school education. 65 % of them have primary school education and about 20 % are drop outs at primary school level. The situation for operators is identical to that of employees. About 4 % of the operators in the sector have an education beyond primary education, 46 % have just finished primary education, while 23 % of the operators have not finished primary school and 26 % of the operators have not been to any school.

Given the low education background of the participants in the sector has implications on their trainability. It is generally more difficult for the participants to be trained for improved productivity, more difficult to adopt new and improved technology, and more difficult to adopt improved management techniques.

While it is generally known that the informal sector is a refuge for primary school levers, it is interesting to note whether the relatively more educated tend to go into particular sector. A survey carried on the informal sector in 1991[3] indicated that those engaged in hair braiding tend to be better educated than those in other activities. And those engaged in wood carving are in relative terms less educated. These features are reflected in the following table

FORMAL EDUCATION OF ENTREPRENEURS IN PERCENT — Table Six

	None	Primary incompl.	Primary complet.	Second incompl.	Second. complet.	A level + more
Mech.	5	11	51	5	22	5
Meta.	3	5	63	0	13	16
Carp.	9	16	62	0	13	0
Carv.	15	23	49	3	5	5
Tailor.	0	9	65	3	12	12
Hair	0	0	44	8	42	6
Food	8	17	50	0	22	3
Bloc.	9	12	55	6	15	3
Total(298)	6	12	55	3	18	6

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey". Table 16 B.

The table shows that on average, operators in the informal sector have primary education a fact which was also shown in the previous table. But sub sectors like mechanics, hair saloon, tailoring and metal works have entrepreneurs who are better educated.

The following table gives an indication of the family background of the operators in Dar es Salaam. The table shows that the majority of the operators have peasant background. Only a few have parents who themselves are/were artisans.

[3] The survey was carried by the then ILO/SDSR project in Mombasa and Dar es Salaam, examined informal sector operations in the two cities.

FAMILY BACKGROUND OF ENTREPRENEURS Table Seven
IN PERCENT

	Farmers	Artisans	Traders	Wage works	Others
Mechanic	73	3	8	14	3
Metal Work	71	8	3	16	3
Carpentry	78	11	2	7	2
Carving	54	33	3	10	0
Tailoring	65	3	0	32	0
Hair Braid.	42	0	14	44	0
Food Vend.	64	3	22	11	0
Bloc mak.	70	12	9	9	3
Total	65	9	7	17	1

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey". Table 14 B.

What is indicated in the table is the fact that operators in the informal sector do not inherit activities from their parents, hence do not acquire their skills from their parents. The only exception is with wood carving, where a significant number of the covers have parents who are also covers. This fact as will be evident shortly, is important in the structuring of the skill training for the informal sector.

An important observation for Dar es Salaam and other towns is that many of the operators in the informal sector are migrants into Dar es Salaam, and that the most common reason for moving into Dar es Salaam is to seek employment. The following table shows the various reasons why the migrants moved to Dar es Salaam.

MIGRATION OF ENTREPRENEURS Table Eight

	Migrants in Percent	Reason For Migration			
		With Parents	For Education	For Employ	Other
Mechanic	89	18	6	64	12
Metal Work	74	7	18	57	18
Carpentry	71	25	3	66	6
Carving	74	52	3	38	7
Tailoring	85	45	3	41	10
Hair Braid.	53	37	11	53	0
Food Vend.	67	25	0	46	29
Bloc mak.	73	33	8	58	0
Total	73	30	6	53	11

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey". Table 15 B.

The table shows that the overwhelming majority of the informal sector operators are migrants into Dar es Salaam, and the major reason for coming to Dar es Salaam is to seek employment (paid employment). When paid employment is not available as is often the case, they start activities in the informal sector as an alternative. These activities are started without adequate training, low level of skill, and a narrow capital base. The outcome is seen in the low level of output, the poor quality of the products and services, and the unsatisfactory performance of the enterprises.

3. SKILL ACQUISITION IN THE INFORMAL SECTOR

3.1 Sources of Skill Training for the Informal Sector

A critical element in the performance of the enterprises in the informal sector is the skill level of the operators. It is known from the above discussion that many of the informal sector operators have low level of basic and formal education. But the question to be answered is how do the informal sector operators get their skills and how and why do skill acquisition vary among the various trades. An indication of the sources of skills is given in the following table.

INFORMAL SECTOR OPERATORS BY SOURCE OF SKILL Table Nine
IN PERCENT

	Male	Female	Total
Self taught	57.3	65.6	60.3
Learnt s/s enterprise	29.5	29.0	29.3
Learnt l/s enterprise	2.7	1.5	2.3
Other on job	5.5	1.4	4.0
Tech/Voca.	2.8	0.9	2.1
JKT/TPDF	0.2	0	0.1
Other formal	1.7	1.2	1.5
Not stated	0.3	0.2	0.3
Total	100	100	100

Source: Calculated from table OP 9 of Tanzania The Informal Sector Survey 1991

The table shows self teaching is the most common way of skill acquisition in the informal sector. This is true for both males and females operators in the informal sector. The next important source of skill acquisition is being taught in another small scale enterprise. This is the apprenticeship system. Training in a technical school or vocational training center relative to other means of skill acquisition is less important. Only about 2 % of operators have received their skill training from a vocational or technical center. Though this may in part be due to the availability and accessibility of the centers, but it may as well be a question of preference, induced by cost and quality considerations.

The importance of vocational and technical centers as a means of skill acquisition varies between males and females. While nearly 3 % of the male operators have received their skill from a technical school or a vocational training center, less than 1 % of females operators have been to a technical center. This is largely due to the existing stereo type in the kind of activities females get into. Women are mostly in trade and restaurant activities which are not offered in technical or vocational training centers, except perhaps in a few Folk Development Colleges .

The relative usefulness of the various methods of skill acquisition from the point of view of the entrepreneurs in the various trades is indicated in the following table.

Table Ten

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS METHODS OF SKILL ACQUISITION

	Formal training	Apprentic eship	On the job	Basic Education	Other
Mechanic	49	27	14	11	3
Metal work	24	61	3	15	0
Carpentry	16	51	20	28	0
Carving	5	54	28	18	0
Tailoring	32	41	24	35	0
Hair braiding	11	39	19	32	6
Food vending	8	14	53	33	0
Bloc making	27	30	21	11	3
Total	21	40	22	23	1

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey". Table 24 B.

What comes out clearly in the table is that basic education is not considered the most useful training the operators have had. For mechanics, formal training in a vocational or technical school is considered most useful. Apprenticeship training is next in importance. On job training which usually compliments apprenticeship training is not considered so useful.

For metal works, apprenticeship training is the most common and considered useful form of training. The next in importance is training in a vocational training center. On job training is not an important source of training for this type of skill.

The situation for the carpentry skill is similar. Apprenticeship training is the most common method of training, followed by on job training. Basic education is also considered important for the carpentry skill. Formal training at a technical or a vocational training center is not so important for the carpentry skill.

Carving is not taught in any technical or vocational center. The skill is passed on from one generation to the next[4] through an apprentice or on job training. On job training is also an important source of skill acquisition for wood carvers.

Skill acquisition for tailoring is more diverse. While about 40 % of the tailors received their skills through apprenticeship training, a significant number got their training in a technical school. On job training is also an important method of getting tailoring skills.

Hair braiding skills are acquired mostly through apprenticeship training, and also through on job training. The case of food vending is more clear. About 53 % of the operators acquired their skills through on job training . Apprenticeship training is not such an important source of skill for food vendors. Training at a Technical school for food vending is uncommon, though some Folk Development Colleges provide training in domestic science, it is far from food vending.

The results in the taule conform to what is known of the skill acquisition situation in the country. Technical or vocational centers have over the years build up a reputation for providing skill training in motor mechanic, electrical works, tailoring and carpentry. There are no known technical colleges that provide training programmes for wood carvers, food vending or hair braiding. This therefore explains the non significance of technical training in these skill areas.

A point worth noting is the importance operators attach to basic education. Since the majority of the informal sector operators are primary school leavers, they do not seem to see that the education was very useful for them. Perhaps the major reason for this feeling is the failure of the education system to prepare then for self employment. Despite the policy of Education for Self-reliance, the education system does not generally prepare one for self employment in the informal sector. When students finish the primary school system, they begin afresh to learn self employment strategies. Hence the feeling that the basic education is not useful for informal sector activities.

The following is a detailed examination of the major sources of skill training i.e apprenticeship training and formal skill training in technical/vocational training centers.

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[4] An earlier discussion indicated that operators who had carving businesses came from artisan families, suggesting passing the skill from one generation to another.

3.2 Apprenticeship Training

3.2.1 The Incidence of Apprenticeship Training

The most common way of acquiring skills in the informal sector is through apprenticeship training. An improvement in this method of skill acquisition will therefore have an immediate and significant impact on the informal sector. The incidence of apprenticeship training is indicated in the following table.

THE INCIDENCE OF APPRENTICESHIP Table Eleven

Skill Type	Have or Had Apprentices	Never Had Apprentices
Mechanics	97	3
Metal work	79	21
Carpentry	73	27
Carving	62	38
Tailoring	76	24
Hair braiding	53	47
Food Vending	42	58
Block making	70	30

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey". Table 29 B.

Despite the importance of formal training in a technical college for motor mechanics, 97 % of the entrepreneurs who have garages have apprentices. The high incidence of apprenticeship training is perhaps a reflection of a shortage of formal training facilities in motor mechanics and the desire of master mechanics to have apprentices as an additional labour force. There is also a high incidence of apprenticeship training in metal works, carpentry, tailoring and block making. There is relatively low incidence of apprenticeship training in food vending. In this sector as it has been hinted before, there is much more of on job training.

Some of the more common characteristics of the apprenticeship training are indicated in the following table.

Table Twelve

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS OF APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING

	Mean No. Apprentices Per year	Drop out %	Age Years	Kinship In %	
				Related	Not Related
Mechanic	2.8	42	21	55	45
Metal work	1.3	36	21	43	57
Carpentry	0.8	61	22	44	56
Carving	1.1	42	25	37	63
Tailoring	2.6	6	23	29	71
Hair braiding	1.2	20	21	43	57
Food Vending	0.5	60	23	43	57
Block Making	1.4	64	23	16	84

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey". Tables 33B, 34B, 35B, 36B.

The survey result indicates that the number of apprentices per enterprise in a year is very small. Mechanic and tailoring enterprises seem to have the highest number of apprentices, while food vending and carpentry seem to be less attractive to apprentices. The drop out rate for the various skills is show in the table. Carpentry, food vending and block making have the highest drop out rate of all the skills, and tailoring the lowest.

The high drop out of the apprentices is in part related to the poor attitude to training of the apprentices, but also related to the poor training programme and difficult conditions of the apprenticeship training programme. This include long working hours, accidents while on training (without adequate compensation), non provision of food and cash while on training etc.

3.2.2 Financing of Apprenticeship Training

A commonly held belief that apprentices are related to the master craftsmen is basically not uniformly true. The incidence of kinship between the master craftsmen and the apprentice is not as high as it is believed to be. The question then becomes what makes the master craftsmen want to have apprentices? and what forms of contractual relationships do they maintain? One possible motivating factor is the payment of fees, the other is the extra labour force of the apprentice.

The ILO/SDSR survey indicated that the percent of entrepreneurs who charge the apprentices fees ranged form zero in the case of motor mechanics, hair saloons and cement block making enterprises to a high of 11 % in the case of food vending. The amount of money paid varied from Tas 1,000 to Tas 2,800 per course. A more recent survey indicated that the amount fees charged by entrepreneurs ranged from Tas 2,500 per month to Tas 12,000 per month[5]. The fees charged varied between skills as well as among businesses in the same skill area. The fees are intended to cover the cost of materials used by the apprentices and a compensation for the time of the master craftsmen.

While the higher fees may cover the cost of training, the fees charged at the lower end of the scale do not probably cover the cost of the training. But, it has been pointed out that only a small percentage of the master craftsmen charge any fees. What then is the compensation for the training offered? The answer seem to be in the services the apprentices perform in the enterprises without adequate compensation. In the trades covered, the ILO/SDSR survey indicated the following services as being performed by the apprentices.

Table Thirteen

TASKS PERFORMED BY APPRENTICES WITHOUT SUPERVISION
IN PERCENT OF APPRENTICES

	Repair Tools	Handle Customers	Handle Suppliers	Set Price	Handle Cash	Keep Records	Train Others
Mech.	50	53	66	47	47	41	56
Meta.	52	74	74	65	65	48	30
Carp.	37	63	63	52	44	44	33
Carving	60	50	70	60	65	40	45
Tailor.	27	53	60	53	53	33	20
Hair	13	81	81	56	75	56	31
Food	22	67	78	33	33	33	33
Block	31	44	44	39	31	31	25

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey" Table 67 B

[5] N.B Mwaduma, F.B. Mukyanuzi and C.M.F. Lwoga "Vocational Training, Technical Education and Informal Sector Development in Tanzania. A research report produced for the Ministry of Labour and Youth Development and the Planning Commission, Dar es Salaam, March 1993.

What comes out clearly from the above table is that the master craftsmen use the apprentices in the production process as assistants and even as substitutes. The apprentices handle customers and suppliers, in some situations they handle cash and keep records without the supervision of the master craftsmen.

The compensation that entrepreneurs give to apprentices vary greatly among entrepreneurs and among skills. While some provide free accommodation, others provide free meals. Few entrepreneurs pay cash to the apprentices when they begin to be engaged in production. It is believed (though data is not available) that the value of the services of the apprentices to the enterprise more than compensates for the cost of their own training[6].

There are several other issues that are important in the apprenticeship training programme. These include contractual arrangement, training methodology and criteria for completing apprenticeship, employment after apprenticeship, and gender considerations in the apprenticeship programme.

3.2.3 Contractual Relationships

The relationship between the master craftsmen and the apprentices is generally determined by a mutual understanding. There are only limited cases where the relationship is defined by a written contract, in a few cases there is a verbal agreement between the master craftsmen and the apprentice. More often there is no consideration on the contractual arrangement and obligations of either party to the other. An indication of the percentage of entrepreneurs who make contractual agreement is indicated in the following table:

APPRENTICESHIP CONTRACTS Table Fourteen

	Do not make contracts(%)	Make verbal contract (%)	Write up contracts (%)
Mechanics	56	44	0
Metal works	61	35	4
Carpentry	59	41	0
Carving	75	20	5
Tailoring	40	53	7
Hair braiding	88	13	0
Food Vending	67	33	0
Block making	65	35	0

[6]This conclusion (inference) would be the only logical one given that the apprentices have no kinship relationship with the master craftsmen hence no family obligations are implied, and given the fact that few of them charge economic fees to compensate for the direct as well opportunity cost of training the apprentices.

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey" Table 39 B.

One of the difficulties of not having a contract is that there is no way of resolving problems when they arise. The lack of a legal structure makes it impossible to use the legal system to resolve problems. The high drop out rate of trainees is probably contributed by this problem as well.

3.2.4. Training Methods

Though apprenticeship training is an important means of skill acquisition, the ability of the master craftsman to teach remains low. The master craftsmen being themselves entrepreneurs have no teaching skills and have had no training in teaching. The most commonly used method of training is demonstration. The following table shows how the method used for training varies between various skills.

Table Fifteen

TRAINING METHODS USED BY MASTER CRAFTSMEN

	Percent of time used for demonstration	Percent of time used for trial & error	Percent of time used for instruction	Other training methods
Mechanics	53	19	22	6
Metal works	61	22	13	4
Carpentry	52	19	30	0
Carving	40	15	40	5
Tailoring	73	0	27	0
Hair braiding	75	0	25	0
Food vending	44	11	44	0
Bloc making	76	6	18	0

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey" Table 44 B.

The table shows most of the time is used for demonstration which essentially involves the apprentice watching what is being done. Some time is also used for instruction where the master craftsmen "tell" the apprentices what should be done. While there are variations in the instruction methods used among the various skills, the general pattern is common among them.

3.2.5 The Participation of Women in Apprenticeship Training

The last consideration in the apprenticeship training system is the question of gender. It has been pointed above that about 95 % of the women engaged in informal sector activities have either taught themselves or have learned their skills from other small scale enterprises. This compares to 89 % for men. The results of the ILO/SDSR survey gives an indication of the presence of female apprentices in the common informal sector enterprises.

Table Sixteen

GENDER OF SAMPLED APPRENTICES

	Women apprenitces as % of total
Mechanic	3
Metal work	4
Carpentry	4
Carving	5
Tailoring	33
Hair braiding	94
Food Vending	22
Block making	0

Source: ILO/SDSR "Skill Acquisition in the Informal Sector Target Group Identification and Project Feasibility Survey"Table 53 B

Women apprentices are significant in tailoring, hair braiding and food vending businesses. These are the traditional sub sectors where women predominate. The are fewer women apprentices in the other skill areas largely because women do not get into these businesses. This discussion implies that any efforts undertaken to promote informal sector training has to take into consideration the existing traditional division of activities between males and females.

3.3 Formal Skill Training

Though apprenticeship training is the predominant method f skill acquisition in the informal sector, there are a few operators in the informal sector who have received their training form formal institutions. An informal sector survey has indicated that about 4 % of the operators in the sector have received their training from formal training institutions. These include

technical schools , colleges and vocational training centers. But the capacity of the formal institutions to offer skill training is much larger than advantage is taken off.

A recent study of Vocational Training (Mwaduma, Mukyanuzi and Lwoga) has shown that there over 600 formal institutions which do offer skill training in the country, with a total capacity of about 40,000 students. The following table gives an indication of capacity utilization in the training institutions.

Table Seventeen

CAPACITY UTILIZATION OF TECHNICAL TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

Type of Institutions	Number	Total Capacity	Annual Enrollmen	Annual Output
Post Primary Technical Centers	300	11,000	5,243	3,570
Folk Development Colleges	52	3,600	2,600	2,210
National Vocati. Training Centers	17	2,926	2,926	2,140
Rural Development Centers	5	1,000	800	560
District Vocat. Center	4	480	400	350
Technical Secondary School	10	3,800	3,580	3,080
TAPA Technical School	20	8,000	2,000	1,700
Mission Trade School	30	800	700	665
Compa. and Para. Institutions	24	2,000	950	894
SIDO Training Centers	10	956	280	265
Vocational T.T.C	1	70	60	40
National Technical Colleges	4	1,905	1,905	1,550
University of Dar es Salaam Faculty of Engineering	1	612	520	400
Vocational Rehabilitation for Disabled	13	416	400	375
Private Company Training Center	3	140	135	130
NGOs and other Private Training Institutions	108	1,200	780	765
Total	602	38,905	23,279	18,694

Source: N.B. Mwaduma, F.B. Mukyanuzi, and C.M.F Lwoga Vocational Training,Technical Education and Informal Sector Development in Tanzania, Tables 3 and 4.

In the institutions which prepare participants for informal sector activities ie Technical secondary schools, Vocational training centers, and Folk Development Colleges, women are a small percentage of total admission. The same conclusion was made with regards to the participation of women in apprenticeship training. They are a small percentage of total apprentices. The implication is that women get into the informal sector without the benefit of training that males have had over the years. In practice what this means is that women get into activities which do not need rigorous training to manage. These activities tend to be low paying. As it has been shown above, the majority of women informal sector operators are in the traditional fields of food vending, cloth making and retail trade.

4. EDUCATION, TRAINING AND SUCCESS IN BUSINESS

An interesting aspect of education and training is how they are related to being successful in business. If a positive relationship can be established, training can be encouraged on the basis that it increases the chances of being successful in business. And informal sector operators who conscious of their utilization of time while at the same time able and willing to take opportunities, will readily agree to training as an investment. But if the relationship is weak or non demonstrable, rationality will make it more difficult to get them to agree to participate in a training programme. The opportunity cost will be higher than they are willing to bear.

The informal sector survey of 1991 attempted to establish a linkage between the level of education and the annual profit from their enterprises. The results are summarized in the following table.

Table Nineteen

AVERAGE ANNUAL PROFIT FROM ENTERPRISES BY EDUCATION

Education Level	Males	Females	Total
No School	73,600	53,800	63,900
Prim. not compl.	109,900	54,200	91,400
Prim. complete	131,300	77,900	114,800
Secondary+	252,900	189,800	238,400

Source: The Planning Commission and Ministry of Labour and Youth and Development Tanzania: The Informal Sector Survey 1991.Table OP18.

The table in general shows that the higher the level of education, the higher the average annual profit. If annual profit is an indication of being successful in business, then the table shows that there is a direct relationship between education and success in business.

But an important element not shown in the table is the type of activity one gets into. The level of profit is perhaps more dependent on the type of business as it is on the management of the business. There is no data which shows a direct link between the type of businesses which the educated establish and those generally established by the relatively less educated and trained. But ability to manage a business is directly related to the level of education one has. And to the extent that basic education and training helps in the development of the human resource, and sets a base for skill training, and to the extent that education and training exposes one to better and more productive technology, there is a positive relationship between education and training and being successful in business.

5. FINANCING SKILL ACQUISITION IN THE INFORMAL SECTOR

The discussion on skill acquisition highlighted a number of areas which needs improvement to make the training programmes effective.

5.1 Improving Skill Acquisition Programme

5.1.1 Apprenticeship Training

Apprenticeship training is the most common method of skill acquisition for the informal sector. About 86 % of male and 91 % of the female operators in the informal sector have been trained through the apprenticeship system within the informal sector. To the extent that the informal sector is going to remain important as a means of creating employment, apprenticeship training will continue to be important[8]. It is therefore imperative the apprentice system has to be improved. Areas that need improvement include:

5.1.1.1 Admission System

Admission into an apprenticeship system depends on the personal knowledge of the master by the trainee, or on kinship. There is no way an apprentice can systematically search for a master, apply for and get admitted into the system. The high drop out rate of the apprentice may be contributed by the initial mismatch between the master craftsman and the apprentice. Hence determining the "right" master craftsmen and apprentice the first time around may reduce the drop out rate, and get away from depending on personal knowledge as a selection criteria.

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[8] The Ministry of Labour and Youth Development has proposed an Employment Policy which includes a section on the informal sector. The government acknowledges the critical contribution of the informal sector, and defines an appropriate environment for its continued role in the promotion of employment.

5.1.1.2 Contractual Arrangement

The above discussion showed that only a small percentage of master craftsmen prepare written contracts defining the relationship between them and their apprentices. The preparation of a written contract defining the rights and obligations of either party to the relationship minimizes the chances for disagreements, misunderstanding and disruptions during the cause of the apprenticeship training programme.

5.1.1.3 Payment of Fees

The payment of fees in apprenticeship system is not a common phenomenon. Yet it is obvious that the master craftsmen do not train for free. The apprentices pay for the training through production for the master craftsmen without adequate compensation. To avoid exploitative situations it is better to encourage a systematic payment of fees. An entrepreneur taking apprentices will know what payment to expect, and the trainee will know what fees to pay. The fees should be sufficiently attractive to make the master craftsmen want to take on apprentices and do a good job of training them. But if the fees may be prohibitive to some trainees, an agreement can also be reached were a way of paying through production can be found and agreed upon between the two parties. The agreement will minimize the chances that the apprentice may be exploited by the master craftsmen, a situation not uncommon in the current system.

5.1.1.4 Training Method of the Master craftsmen

An area which needs immediate attention is equipping the master craftsmen with training skills to improve the training delivery. As it has been indicated above, many of the master craftsmen were themselves apprentices and are now owner operators of businesses. They have had no training in training methods. The method of training commonly used is demonstration, without being systematic. No training programme is designed and followed[9].

In the ILO/SDSR survey 87 % of the apprentices indicated that the master craftsmen needed training in how to train. This reflects a high degree of dissatisfaction in the quality of the training they get.

5.1.1.5 Skill Upgrading

A related area of training is skill upgrading for the master craftsmen. A survey of the informal sector apprentices[10] indicated that the quality of apprenticeship training was poor

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[9] What is being demonstrated at any particular time will depend on what is being produced on the day or what service is being undertaken. There is no deliberate training programme that is being designed and implemented.

[10] Monji R.G "Skill Acquisition and Training in the Informal Sector" for Interdepartmental Project on the Urban Informal Sector, Dar es Salaam Seminar 23-24 May 1995, Discussion Paper No.3.

also because the skill level of the craftsmen was in some cases low. Good quality training can only be given if the skill level of the master craftsmen is good. A master craftsman can at best reproduce himself. Hence an improvement in apprenticeship training will need an improvement (through retraining) in the skill level of the master craftsmen.

5.1.1.6 Linkage with Technical Training Institutions

To improve the quality of the training programme one of the surveys undertaken has shown that some of the apprentices upon realization of the inadequacy of the apprentice training programme attend technical training institutions on part time basis. The combination of the informal and formal training produces a much better apprentice; well tutored in the practical aspects of the skill and given an exposure to some theoretical elements of the skill. This is an excellent way of improving the quality of the apprentice programme. An institutionalized way of linking the apprentice system of the informal sector to the technical training institutions would therefore improve the quality of the apprentice programme.

5.1.1.7 Introduction of Business Management Training

The expectation of some of the trainees (30 %) in the apprenticeship training system is to start own business. Yet to successfully manage a business requires more than technical skills. Some simple business management skills are also needed. The apprenticeship system as currently structured, does not expose the trainees to business management skills. There is therefore a need to build into the training system business management training. Perhaps a practical way is through the linkage with a formal technical institution where the infrastructure to teach business management can either be set up or in some cases is already existing.

5.1.1.8 Certification System

While 30 % of the trainees in an apprentice system want to start own activities, as many as 70 % want to be wage workers either at the same place where they receive training or elsewhere in the informal sector. To facilitate the transferability of the apprentices some form of an indication of the standards reached by the apprentice is necessary. This is more easily achieved if there is some form of a certificate indicating the level of training reached. A certificate will also facilitate the conducting of trade tests normally given only to students who have attended formal technical training institutions. The danger of a certificate is the illusion that the certificate creates that one can get wage employment in the formal sector. This will tend to promote apprentices to move to urban areas in search for non existent jobs.

5.1.1.9 Linkage with Established Businesses

One of the problems that the apprenticeship training system in the informal sector faces is in-breeding. The system does not get any new ideas from outside itself. As the result new technologies which could be adopted for use in the informal sector are not adopted, or new products which could be produced in the informal sector are not produced. To facilitate

exposure to the outside world (outside the apprenticeship system) some form of linkages with medium to large scale businesses could be developed and maintained[11].

5.1.2 Improving the Formal Skill Training Centers

The formal skill training institutions need to undertake some changes to improve their performance. Some of the needed improvements are the following:

5.1.2.1 Teaching Staff

The above discussion has indicated that many of the formal skill training institutions have low quality staff, hence unable to form the basis upon which good quality programmes can be built. To improve the programmes requires as a first step to improve the quality of the teaching staff. Hence a training programme for them would be necessary.

5.1.2.2 Equipment

Among the three major institutions that train people for the informal sector i.e the Vocational Training Centres, the Folk Development Centers and the Post Primary Technical Centers only the vocational training centres have in relative terms some equipment they can use for their training programmes. The other two types of institutions lack the most basic of equipment and other training tools to effectively manage training programs. An improvement in the training programmes requires equipping the centers adequately.

5.1.2.3 Relevance of the Programmes

Some of the programmes offered at the centers have little relevance to the local market[12]. This is partly due to the centralization of authority where decisions on curriculum are made at the center without consideration for the local conditions, and also due to standardization of curriculum. An improvement in the technical training programme will necessitate the changing of the curriculum and train students in skills that have an immediate market.

5.1.2.4 Business Management

It is now acknowledged that the technical training centers prepare trainees largely for self employment in the informal sector given the dearth of wage employment opportunities in the formal sector. But as is indicated earlier, the preparation for self employment requires an

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[11] There are two models which could be developed to provide the needed outlet. One is the training in industry programme that the Vocational training centers had developed and for a while managed. The other model is the industrial placement programme that the Association of Tanzania Employers is managing for people with disabilities.Such models with appropriate adjustment could be used to create and maintain linkages with industry.

[12] SIDO industrial Estate in Songea offered a course in foundry when the town has no industry which could make use of the skills. The nearest place where such training had a market was in Mbeya some 450 km away. Such examples are abound.

exposure to simple business management. Few technical colleges or vocational training centers have business management in their curriculum. One area of improvement therefore is the introduction of business management training in the institutions.

5.1.2.5 Linkage With Business

The National Vocational Training centers had a training in industry programme where trainees were placed in industry for field practice. The programme for a variety of reasons including finance which limited follow up activities of the trainers, and low participation of industries . Despite these problems, the scheme is in principle, a good one and should be developed and improved to the point where it can be successfully implemented. The training in industry programme gives an opportunity to trainees to experience the practical world and get exposed to new technology and better business management practices.

5.1.2.5 Increasing the Enrollment of Women

The enrollment of women in skill training centres ranges form about 6 % in Technical secondary schools to about 40 % in Folk Development colleges. While women constitute more than 50 % of total employment in the informal sector, women are under represented in these training programmes. The lack of training is reflected in the type of activities women get into (those needing less training) which also are low paying. Hence an improvement in the provision of skill to the informal sector requires opening up the centers for the admission of women trainees.

5.2 Financing Informal Sector Skill Acquisition

5.2.1 The Present Situation

Currently, there are two principal ways of financing skill acquisition in the informal sector, depending on which institution one gets the training form. In an apprenticeship training within the informal sector, the trainee meets the cost of training. This is either in the form of the direct payment of fees, or in the form of production for the enterprise. Though no data is available, there is no subsidy in the apprenticeship programme. The full cost of training is borne by the apprentice.

The other source of skill acquisition is training in formal institutions either government or privately owned. Students in both types of institutions pay part of the cost of training. The level of subsidy varies greatly among the various institutions, with the general observation that government institutions have a higher rate of subsidy relative to the subsidy of NGO managed institutions.

A survey in 1991/1992 indicated that the economic cost of skill training for a two year period was estimated to range from Tas 30,000 to Tas 50,000 per annum for motor mechanic, electrical works, metal works etc. During the same period Non Governmental vocational training centers charged fees ranging from Tas 8,000 to Tas 40,000 per annum. National

Vocational Training centers during the same period charged a fee of Tas 4,000 per annum for boarders and Tas 2,000 per annum for day schooling[13]. The amount of subsidy for the VTCs were even higher than those of the NGOs. In general the government has been able to provide the subsidies (though perhaps not to the extent needed)to allow the VTCs to provide reasonably good skill training.

The cost of skill training at Folk Development Colleges which are also an important source of skill training is estimated to be Tas 50,000 per annum. But these colleges do not charge any fees. But the students are expected to meet about 1/3 of the cost of training through production activities at the colleges. In practice this target is never met and the government is having to subsidize the cost of the training programme. Because of financial constraints facing the government, the subsidies are never given to a level required, consequently the FDCs are just not able to provide the training needed. The quality of the programmes have suffered greatly.

5.2.2 Financing Skill Training : The Future

How skill training in the future will be financed will in part be the function of the general policies of the government on education and training and its policies on the employment creation. One of the principles of the proposed education and training policy is that of cost sharing. Beneficiaries at any level of training are expected to pay a higher proportion of the cost of training and education. There will be less subsidies in the education sector. It is however acknowledged that there are some costs which will have to be paid by the government either because it is efficient to do so or because it is not feasible to let individuals meet those costs e.g the cost of training instructors.

Another element which is important in the future financing of the skill training is the formation of the Vocational Education Training Authority (VETA) which has a legal mandate to impose a tax on profit to meet part of the cost of skill training that the Authority manages.

With respect to the National Employment Policy, the government is going to continue to depend on the informal sector as a major means of creating employment. A supporting environment will be created to allow the informal sector to play an important role in the creation of employment. One of the considerations is the provision of skill training through the apprenticeship system.

What comes out of this discussion is the duality of the system of meeting training costs. On the one hand, one has those trained through the apprenticeship system who meet own costs of training. On the other hand there are those who go through the technical training system whose cost of training is in part met by the government. For equity reasons perhaps, the two systems need to be brought towards equality; where both systems should enjoy elements of subsidy in their training programmes. Having pointed out the above, the following can be said to be the possibilities:

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[13] The NVTCs have now increased the fee they charge to shs 60, 000 for boarding schools. This increase has been prompted by the reduction of subsidies the government was extending to the Vocational training centers.

5.2.2.1 Apprenticeship Training

Apprentices in the informal sector will continue to pay for their own training. The form of payment will continue to be in cash or in kind through production. But, what is needed is a system which allows for the payment of fees in kind without introducing exploitative elements. To improve the apprenticeship system, the trainees could attend at technical/vocational centres on part time basis on the payment of variable costs of the training programme, hence getting some kind of a subsidy on the overhead costs of their training programme.

With respect to existing businesses, surveys of the informal sector (sighted above) have all shown that the informal sector operators have indicated a need for additional training, and a willingness to pay for it. The amount of money the operators have indicated a willingness to pay range from Tas 2,000 to Tas 20,000 per course depending on the performance of the individual businesses. What is being considered here are short term training programmes. The instructors could be instructors from vocational /technical training centers or from large scale businesses. The advantage of using these trainers is that it allows the informal sector operators to get exposed to better and higher level of technology.

One of the difficulties that existing operators find in attending training is the time to do so. Many of the operators operate at the margin. Because of low productivity and low level of output many of them operate with a low profit margin and limited savings. Their survival therefore depends on their being able to work every day. The opportunity cost for not working any particular day is very high[14]. If the future benefits of additional training are discounted (with a high rate of interest) to the present, many of them do not find the economic sense to get additional training. The challenge is to meet the concerns of the informal sector operators and, at the same time be able to promote training. This includes flexible training programmes, folding the cost of training to some kind of a loan programme, meeting part of the cost of training,a scholarship programme etc.

5.2.2.2 Technical/Vocational Training Programmes

The financing of formal skill training will continue to be paid in part by the individual trainee and by the government through a subsidy programme on the overhead and development costs of the training institutions. Unlike the past, the level of subsidy will continue to be reduced, implying more and more of the cost will be passed on to the trainees. This is part of the new policy on cost sharing as a strategy to reduce government expenditure on social services.

What has been introduced recently in the financing of skill training, is a training levy on corporations. The training levy is charged on the total gross wages payable to the employees of the corporation[15]. The levy is intended to provide part of the funding for the Vocational

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[14] Looked from this point of view the demands of informal sector operators to be paid while being trained begins to make sense though not necessarily acceptable.

[15] Vocational Education and Training Act (1994) section 14.

Education Training Authority which has a mandate to develop, provide and coordinate the provision of technical skill training for the informal sector.

Other NGOs which provide formal skill training will continue to provide skill training while charging the trainees. The charges will be increasing in the future not only because of the increasing costs of training, but also because the whole concept of subsidies is now changing. Users of services are now increasingly being called upon to pay the economic cost of the service provided.

But what has to be pointed out is that while the variable costs of training can (perhaps should) be paid by the individual trainees, the overhead and development costs of training cannot be passed on to the trainees. They will be beyond the ability of the average trainee. These have to continue to be met by the government. But for reasons of equity and quality of the skill training programmes, these formal training centers should open up for individuals trained in the informal sector (through apprenticeship programmes) and provide some training for them. The cross fertilization of the apprentice and formal training programmes will allow for the improvement in the quality of the both training programmes.

GENERAL EDUCATION IN TANZANIA

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GENERAL EDUCATION SYSTEM IN TANZANIA

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1.0 THE SOCIAL ECONOMIC CONTEXT OF EDUCATION.

1.1 The population of Tanzania is about 25 million people with about 80 percent living in rural areas. The population growth rate is about 2.8% per year.

1.2 Charateristically about 47 percent of the population is in the age of 0 to 14 years band and about 51 percent of the total population are females.

1.3 The low level of economic development of the country, makes it difficult for the state to reach peripheries of the country, hence there is uneven development accross the country.

1.4 Ethnic and religious tension are not very pronounced but can be eruptive when there is a feeling that there is distributive injustice.

1.5 Setting education priorities has therefore to compromise, among other things, with population distributon, regionalism, periphery, centre, ethnicity, religion and gender.

2.0 EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Education promotes the productive use of labour which is one of the key factors in economic development.

2.2 Labour is the principal asset of the poor and education and training increases the value of this asset.

2.3 Education has impact on health, nutrition, population growth rate and leads to informed public.

2.4 Girls education has the greatest potential for heathier and manageable families.

3.0 MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Three main Ministries are responsible for management of formal education in Tanzania:

3.1 The Ministry of Education and Culture has the over-all responsibility for:

- Promotion of education in the country.
- Control and direction of the national education policy.
- Provision of comprehensive and nationally beneficial education servicce.

3.2 Prime Ministers Office through Department of Regional and Local Government is responsible for:

- Planning the expansion of primary education.
- Construction and maintenance of school physical infrastructure.
- Teachers salaries and emoluments.
- Procurement and supply of instructional materials.

3.3 The Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education, is responsible for:

- University of Dar es Salaam, Sokoine University of Agriculture, The Open University of Tanzania and Technical Colleges.
- Promotion of science, technology and higher education.
- Progressive development of institutions devoted for provision of science, technology and higher education in the country.
- Ensuring adequate supply of human resources for promotion of science, technology and higher education.

4.0 STRUCTURE OF FORMAL EDUCATION

4.1 The current formalized education system is characterized by 2-7-4-2-3+ year structure. This structure has two years of pre-primary school education which has been recently formalized under the new Education and Training Policy. The formalized education structure currently in existence is detailed below:-

4.1.1 Pre-primary education: While pre-school education exists for children 0-6 years, it is predominantly an urban service. It is of variable duration and is provided through nursery, day-care centres, and kindergarten. Pre-primary education for ages 5-6 years has been formalized and intergrated in the formal school system.

4.1.2 Primary Education: Primary education lasts for 7 years. This education is universal and compulsory to all school age going children in Tanzania. The primary school begins with Standard One at the age of 7 years on entry and ends with Standard Seven in the final year.

4.1.3 Secondary Education: This refers to formal secondary education consisting of two sequential cycles. The first cycle is four-year-Ordinary Level (O-Level) Secondary Education, while the second cycle is a two year programme of Advanced Level (A-Level) secondary Education.The O-Level secondary education begins with Form I and ends with Form 4, while the A-level has Form 5 and 6.

4.1.4 Tertiary and Higher Education: This is the third level of education after secondary education. Tertiary and higher education institutions offer academic professional training and award certificates, diplomas and degrees Tertiaryinstitutions train, prepare and produce middle level professional

cadres while higher education institutions produce high level human resource.

5.0 ISSUES AND PROBLEMS RELATED TO FORMAL EDUCATION

5.1 Since independence, Tanzania has made major advances in the provision of education services:

- There are primary schools in practically every village. The enrollment ratio of primary school age children rose from 48.9% in 1973 to a peak of 98 % in 1981.
- The majority of the population (84% in 1992) have attained basic literacy and numeracy skills.
- Secondary education has been made available on socially equitable basis.
- Access to education at all levels has been made equitable without regard to sex, colour, ethnicity, creed or economic status.
- Tertiary and higher education institutions provide advanced learning in all disciplines.

5.2 These achievements which were made in the first two decades of independence have to a large extent been threatened by economic crisis which started in the late 1970s caused by the following factors:

- Increase of prices in the world market.
- Decline in the prices of commodities from the developing world.
- Rapid increase in the prices of commodities from the developed world.

5.3 The main challenges and issues related to the provision of general education in Tanzania are:

5.3.1 Access:

- Falling rates of enrollments in primary schools. The gross enrollment ration has fallen from 98% in 1981 to 74% in 1994.
- High drop-out rates of 25% to 30% of primary school cohort.
- The gross enrollment ration for secondary education is only 3%. This percentage is far below the Sub-Saharan Africa with an average of 20%.
- Only 18% of primary school leavers get into secondary Form I, out of this cohort 0.7% get into Secondary Advanced Level and only 0.24% make it to University and about 0.3% get into tertiary non-university institutions.
- This is a very steep education pyramid to allow the nation to produce a critical mass of trained manpower required for a take-off into sustaining development.

5.3.2 Equity:

- There is almost complete gender parity in primary schools where the ratio is about 1:1. However, considering that females form 51% of the national population, the 1:1 ratio is a slight under representation.
- In the secondary and higher education women are under-represented. Despite the 1982 policy of eliminating imbalances in the allocation of places for girls and boys improvement has been very minimal. Female representation has moved from 34% in 1981 to about 44% in 1994 in secondary education Forms 1 - 6. While higher education institutions enroll about 16 - 20% only.
- The current liberalization and privatization of the provision of secondary education has lead to inequalities in access to this level of education.

5.3.3 Quality:

The quality of education entails an optimum mix and balance of good qualified teachers, edequate supply of teaching and learning materials and conducive teaching and learning environment. Attempts to provide a good general education at all levels is constrained by factors suchh as:-

5.3.3.1 Teachers: About 70% of primary school teachers are under-qualified and under-trained. Secondary schools are taught by under-qualified teachers. The optimum mix of diploma and graduates teachers is supposed to be 40% and 60% respectively. But the actual strength is that, we have only 17% graduate teachers in both Government and Non-Government secondary schools, while diploma teachers who are supposed to teach forms 1 and II constitute about 83% of the total teaching force .

5.3.3.2 Instructional Materials: Books, writing materials and equipment available for the provision of general education are inadequate at all levels of the education system.

5.3.3.3 Teaching and Learning Environment: Many children in primary schools sit on floors for lack of desks. Many day secondary schools constructed by communities have sub-standard infrastructure. In almost all schools facilities such as plant and buildings are not edequately maintained.There is a general shortage of staff houses in all secondary schools.

5.3.4 Management and Efficiency:

- Two Ministries are involved in the provision of primary education: Ministry of Education and Culture and Prime Ministers Office with diffused coordination.
- Accountability for performance is diffused for example DEOs are meant to be accountable to the district authorities but are recruited promoted and transferred by the central authorities.

- The inspectorate is accoutable to the centre and not to the authorities it is supposed to serve (i.e. regional and district authorities).
- Good teachers try to get out of the schools into the administrative cadres because of poor teaching conditions such as houses and supplementary allowances. .
- The implementation of Education for Relf Reliance has failed because there is little evidence that pupils leaving primary schools are self-reliant, either attitudinally or in the capacity to contribute to increased production. Some manifestation of this failure is the rapid migration into the urban areas and the emergency of the fomaous 'machinga culture'.
- Schools which emphasize discipline and self restrain tend to perform better than than those which don't.
- Schools which have better qualified managers e.g. Government schools perform better than non-government schools where most of the managers and administrators are not qualified.

5.3.5 Deployment and motivation of teachers.

- The deployment of all grades of teachers is uneven throughout the country. Poorest regions and disadventaged districts have the lowest proportion of Grade A teachers.
- Many urban areas are over-staffed and have higher proportion of Grade A teachers.
- The poor housing state is a major factor inhibiting teacher placement.
- Promotion of teachers, in general is through length of service and teachers are usually promoted regadless of competence.
- Lack of motivative incentives (such as decompression of salaries, competence hardwork, professional development, better facilities and promotions through competence) affects the morale, efficiency and retention of teachers.

5.3.6 Financing:

5.3.6.1 The share of the national badget for education has been around 13 to 14%. This situation contrasts very sharply with Kenya and Uganda, both countries allocate 27 and 22 per cent respectively, of their national recurrent budget. The real per capital to education has absolutely declined over the years due to inflation and price increases for educational resources.The under-funding of the education system can be described in three aspects:

- Public funding is inadequate for the supply of essential education services to meet current level of demand of these services.
- Public funding is inadquate to meet the Government own stated targets regarding the quality and coverage of education.
- Public funding is inadequate to sustain existing education facilities at an operational level for which they were designed,

5.3.6.2 The underfunding has been caused the folllowing factors:

- Deterioration of the Tanzanian economy during the late 1970s which was triggered by the dramatic increase in oil prices coupled with decline in prices of commodity exports
- The rate of population growth continues to be a burden to economic development.
- The burden of financing education was borne almost exclusively by the state.
- At secondary tertiary and higher education levels, all student places were provided on full board basis fully financed by the State.

6.0 EDUCATION POLICIES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Without short, medium and long term strategies for the development and revitalization of education system in Tanzania, there would be a great risk that thecurrent critical situation discussed above will further deteriorate. Therefore, the future framework for re-directing the education system include the following priorities and strategies which have been adopted by the Government :

6.1 Quality Improvement of Education:

- establishment of Teachers' Resource Centres;
- strengthening pre-service and in-service Teacher Training Programmes;
- improving schools/college physical facilities;
- strengthening research in education and training;
- streamlining the curriculum, examinations and certification.

6.2 Expansion of Education Across the Board:

- rationalization and maximum utilization of existing facilities and resources;
- liberalization of the provision of education and training;
- encouraging the establishment of new education and training institutions;
- promotion and strengthening distance and out-of-school education programme.

6.3 Access and Equity:

- making access to basic education available to all citizens as a basic right;
- equitable distribution of educational institutions and resources;
- screening for talented, gifted and disabled children so that they are given appropriate education and training;
- development of programmes to ensure access for girls education;
- development of programmes to ensure access to disadvantaged groups.

6.4 Promotion of Science and Technology through:

- intensification of vocational education and training;
- rationalization of tertiary institutions including the establishment of polytechnics;
- strengthening science and technical education;
- development of formal and non-formal programmes for the training technologists;

6.5 Decentralization of Education System:

- empowering regions, districts, communities and education institutions to manage and administer education and training.
- restructuring and trimming down sector ministries to small and efficient establishments responsible for policy fomulation planning, curriculum, setting stan
- dards quality control and training;
- empowering regions, districts, communities, and education inistitutions to manage finance and expenditure for education and training;
- improving institutional capacities for efficient management and administration.

6.6 Financing of Education and Training:

- cost sharing involving individuals, communities, NGOs, parents and end-users through measures of user-charges, earmarked taxes and community resource mobilization;
- increasing government allocation through direct financing and grants-in-aid;
- external financing through credits and grants.

GENERAL EDUCATION IN TANZANIA

1.0 Social Economic Context.

1.1 Tanzania is a republic on the east coast of Africa, a few degrees south of the equator. It attained its independence on 9th December, 1961 within the British Common Wealth of Nations and declared complete independence with republic status in 1962. In 1964, Tanganyika united with the newly formed Peoples Republic of Zanzibar, an island off the coast of Tanzania Mainland in the Indian Ocean to form the United Republic of Tanzania.

1.2 The population of Tanzania is about 25 million, with over 80 percent of the population living in rural areas. It has a surface area of 883,460 square kilometres with a population growth rate of 2.8 per cent per year and a fertility rate of 6.5. Characteristically about 47 per cent of the population is in the age of 0 - 14 years age band and about 51 percent of the total population are females.

1.3 From 1976 to about 1985 the country, under one political party; Chama Cha Mapinduzi (CCM) pursued a socialist ideology that involved the nationalization of all the major means of production and the provision of the social services. It has now emerged out from a one party state to that of political pluralism. The first multiparty general election has given overwhelming majority in Parliament to CCM party members. However, it is hoped that the presence o f the opposition parties will definitely call for more transparency and accountability.

1.1.4 The size of the country is very big for the population size, and the low level of economic development and productivity makes it very difficult for the state to reach the peripheries of the country. That is why the country is characterized by uneven development. This situation makes it extremely difficult in setting priorities in the provision of social services such as education and health given the limited budgets. For example, do you advance the less developed areas on the expense of better endowed areas or do you have to spread your resources equally but thinly and make no impact at all?

1.5 Tanzania has greatly succeeded in detribalization of the ethnic grouping during the egalitarian policies under the era of socialism. Ethnic tension are thus to a large extent extinct. Similarly religious tensions are not as pronounced as in many other countries. However it is true to say ethnic and religious tension do erupt whenever there is a feeling that there is distributive injustices.

1.6 Therefore in the provision of social services such as education and health , one has to compromise with the following factors, among others, regionalism, periphery, centres, ethnicity religion and gender.

2.0 Education and Development

2.1 There is now awareness in many countries that education contributes to economic growth, development of civic society, the exercise of democtratic franchise and good governance essential for implementing sound social and economic policies. It is evident that there is a close relationship between the level of social economic development of a country and the average education level attained by its populace. Countries with a higher proportion of educated people are invariably more developed and vice versa.

2.2 At household level research findings show that investing in education has impact on fertility rates, health, labour productivity, reduction of poverty and also education has impact on reduction of income inequalities especially in societies where education is democratized. Individual households in most societies see education as an investment. For most parents and students in the developing world, education is a means of improving their individual and collective welfare. In case of poor families, the expected benefits of education have to be calculated against the opportunity costs, that is, loss of labour to families.

2.3 Despite the pivotal role of education in socio-economic development and despite the rapid expansion of education over the past twenty to thirty years, human capital in developing countries has remained seriously under-developed. This is because those who have education often lack the skills needed to meet the demand for rapid economic development. For this reason the potential impact of new technologies cannot be realized in many developing countries due to lack of critical mass of technologists and skilled workers.

2.4 For education to be a key for social and economic growth it must be relevant to the vision of a country and to the global vision. In Tanzania, as we move towards the 21st Century, we are experiencing increasing inability of the formal sector to generate enough wage employment to cater for the growth of the labour force. The shrinking of employment opportunities in the public sector implies that a large number of youth will have to look for employment in the private and informal sector. At present the state is responsible for promoting interpreneurship by creating and enabling an economic and social environment capable of sustaining a dynamic and expanding private sector base.

2.5 There is in Tanzania a dramatic shift of the labour market brought about by Government liberalization policies. These policies have three implications for the development of the education system in Tanzania:

- Education must be designed to meet the demand of an open dynamic private based sector for workers who can readily acquire new skills.
- At tertiary and higher levels, education must be adjusted to produce graduates who are employment creators rather than employment seekers.

•Basic education has to improve the quality of basic competencies stressing science and technology.

3.0 Management and Administration of General Education.

3.1 Three Ministries are responsible for management of Formal Education in Tanzania, namely the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Prime Minister's Office, through the Department of Regional Planning and Local Government, is responsible for the establishment and management of primary schools. Specifically, PMO is the owner of primary schools and is accountable for:

•Planning the expansion of primary education

•Construction and maintenance of school physical infrastructure

•Teachers salaries and emoluments

•Procurement and supply of instructional materials.

3.2 The Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible for the provision of primary education through formulation of education and training policy, preparation of education programmes, curriculum development, of development instructional materials, teacher training, examination and certification, and monitoring the implementation of education programmes.

3.3 The Ministry of Education and Culture is headed by a Minister who has over-all responsibility for:

•Promotion of education in the country

•Control and direction of the national education policy

•Provision of comprehensive and nationally beneficial education service.

3.4 There is an Education Advisory Council. This Council advises the Minister on matters relating to the execution of the national policy on education. Under the Minister is the Principal Secretary who is the main custodian of the Ministry's finance and the over-all administrator of the process of provision of education in the country. The Principal Secretary also over-sees the operations of rendering support services to education of the following institutions:

•The Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE)

•The National Examinations Council of Tanzania (NECTA)

•The Institute of Adult Education (IAE)

•The Tanzania Library Services Board (TLSB)

3. The Commissioner for Education under the Principal Secretary, has responsibility for the general management and administration of all schools for whose management the Government is responsible and controls standards of education provided in both public and private schools. The Commissioner for Education is supported by programme directorates for primary, secondary teacher education, adult education and inspectorate. The Directorates for Education Planning and Administration and Personnel are directly responsible to the Principal Secretary.

3.6 The functions of the Ministry's directorates, except primary and adult education are currently centralized at the headquarters. The Prime Minister's Office (Department of Local Administration and Local Government) is responsible for management and administration of primary and adult education. Therefore, departments of Primary and Adult Education act mainly as coordinators in the provision of these types of education. Their contact at the regional level is the Regional Educational Officer (REO) who is administratively answerable to the Regional Development Director (RDD) and professionally to the Ministry of Education and Culture. At district level, the District Education Officer (DEO) is administrative responsible to the District Executive Director (DED) or Town Director and professionally to the Regional Educational Officer. Both REOs and DEOs are assisted by officers responsible for academic matters, logistics, statistics and adult education.

3.7 The Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education, an off-spring of the Ministry of Education and Culture, was established in November 1990. This ministry is responsible for management and administration of technical colleges, the University of Dar Es Salaam, Sokoine University of Agriculture and the Open University of Tanzania. The Ministry is headed by a Minister who is responsible for:

•Promotion of science, technology and higher education

•Progressive development of institutions devoted for provision of science, technology and higher education in the country

•Ensuring adequate supply of human resources for promotion of science, technology and higher education.

3.8 The Minister is assisted by the Principal Secretary who is the custodian of financial resources and the chief executive administrator for the Ministry. Under the current structure there is no provision for the office of the Commissioner for Education. There are, however, five designated posts for

Directors of Science and Technology, Higher Education, Personnel Administration, Technical Education and Planning.

4.0 Structure of Formal Education.

The current formalized education system is characterized by 2-7-4-2-3+ year structure. This structure has two years of pre-primary school education which has been recently formalized under the new Education and Training Policy. The formalized education structure currently in existence is detailed below:-

4.1 **Pre-primary education:** While pre-school education exists for children 0-6 years, it is predominantly an urban service. It is of variable duration and is provided through nursey, day-care centres, and kindergarten. Pre-primary education for ages 5-6 years has been formalized and intergrated in the formal school system.

4.2 **Primary Education:** Primary education lasts for 7 years. This education is universal and compulsory to all school age going children in Tanzania. The primary school begins with Standard One at the age of 7 years on entry and ends with Standard Seven in the final year. The main objectives of primary education are:

•To enable every child to understand and appreciate his or her human person, to acquire, value, respect and enrich our common cultural background and moral values social customs and traditions as well as national unity, identity, ethic and pride;

•To provide opportunity and enable every child to acquire, appreciate and effectively use Kiswahili and to respect the language as a symbol of national unity, identity and pride;

•To enable every child to understand the fundamentals of the National Constitution as well as the enshrined human and civic rights, obligations and responsibilities of every citizen;

•To enable every child to acquire basic learning tools of literacy, communications, numeracy and problem solving as well as basic learning content of integrated relevant knowledge, skills and attitutes needed for surval and development to full capacity;

•To provide the child with the foundations of self-initiative, self-advancement and self-confidence;

•To prepare the child for second level education (i.e secondary, vocation, technical and continuing education);

•To prepare the child to enter the world of work.

4.4 Secondary Education: This refers to formal secondary education consisting of two sequential cycles. The first cycle is four-year - Ordinary Level (O-Level) Secondary Education, while the second cycle is a two year programme of Advance Level (A-Level) secondary education. The O-level secondary education begins with Form 1 and ends with Form 4, while the A-level has Form 5 and 6. The main objectives of secondary education are:

•To condolidate and broaden the scope of baseline ideas, knowledge, skills and principles acquired and developed at the primary education level;

•To enhance further development and appreciation of national unity, identity abnd ethic, personal integrity, respect for and readiness to work, human rights, cultural and moral values, customs, traditions and civic responsibilities and obligations;

• To promote the development of competency in linguistic ability and effective use of communication skills in Kiswahili and in at least one foreign language;

•To prove opportunities for the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes and understanding in prescribed or selected fields of study;

•To prepare students for tertiary and higher education, vocational, technical and professional training;

•To inculcate a sense and ability for self-study, self-confidence and self-advancement in new frontiers of science and technology, academic and occupational knowledge, and skills;

•To prepare the student to join the world of work.

4.5 Tertiary and Higher Education: This is the third level of education after secondary education. Tertiary and higher education institutions offer academic and professional training and award certificates, diplomas and degrees. Tertiary institutions train, prepare and produce middle level professional cadres while higher education institutions produce high level human resource. The main objectives of tertiary and higher education and training are:

•To enable people with the requisite baseline qualifications to access and benefit from opportunities of higher levels of intellectual, professional and managerial skills;

•To prepare middle and high level professional human resource for service in the different sectors of the economy;

•To provide opportunities for intellectual, scientific and technological excellence and high level performance;

•To prepare the students to join the world of work.

•To produce trained and skilled youth and adults who will provide the needed labour for improved performance in industry and other economic and social service sectors;

•To provide young and adult persons with opportunities to acquire skills in production, service, enterprenuership and business managemnt;

•To enable the productive and service sectors to train and develop their human resources.

5.0 Issues and problems related to Formal Education

5.1 Primary Education:

Primary education has been compulsory since 1977 when educational authorities, teachers and parents were mobilized to implement the Musoma Resolution on Universal Primary Education (UPE). During the implementation of UPE, expansion of primary education was reflected in terms of construction of new schools and extention of existing ones. Enrollment have been increased from 486, 478 in 1961 to 3,732,942 by 1993. Primary education is the pillar of the whole education system. It has remained wholly public. Out of 363,404 primary school leavers only 13% find places in secondary schools. This is a very small number due to the fact that secondary education in Tanzania has remined comparatively small since indepence in 1961.

The main challenges confronting the provision of primary education in Tanzania are: **Access, Equity Quality, Managsement and Underfunding.**

5.1.1 **Access:** Tanzania has three main challenges with regard to access.

a) It has to stem the falling enrollment rations: UPE in Tanzania was supposedly achieved in 1981, with a Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) of 98 percent. The current situation is that the GER is falling. GER has fallen from 98 percent in 1981 to 74.9 percent in 1993. (see table 1 below)

TABLE 1: FALLING GROSS ENROLLMENT RATIOS.

YEAR	NO. OF PUPILS	GER
1981	3,530,622	98.0
1982	3,503,729	94.8
1983	3,553,144	93.0
1984	3,483,944	88.4
1985	3,160,145	85.5
1986	3,155,812	80.5
1987	3,159,726	78.1
1988	3,165,133	76.1
1990	3,379,000	73.6
1991	3,512,347	74.4
1992	3,603,488	74.2
1993	3,736,734	74.9

Source: Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (Best) - various years.

b) It has to stem the high attrition rates:: Coupled with the falling enrollment ratios, Tanzania primary schools show very high attrition rates ranging from 25 to 30 percent of the primary school cohorts.

c) It has to raise enrollment rapidly: The declining enrollment has to be reversed. Tanzania must raise primary school enrolments rapidly if it has to achieve UPE within a reasonable time frame.

The main reasons for the falling enrollment rates and high drop-out rates are:

•Inability to enforce universal free and compulsory education;

•Parental frustation with the role and value of primary education in terms quality, relevance and perceived future benefits;

• Low quality of infrustructure as reflected by poor quality of buildings, inadequate furniture and teaching learning materials;

• Poor teaching and learning process due to underqualified teaching force;

• Low intake to secondary schools due to the existence of very small secondary education system.

5.1.2 Equity: One of Tanzania's great achievements in primary education is that there is almost complete gender parity in enrollments, some form of a school exist in literally every village. Evidance shows that gi enrollments in recent years have not dropped faster than for boys. However, it is in the area of academic achievement where girls perform poorest. The reasons are not necessarily gender-specific: poor teaching, lack of a conducive learning environment, shortage of learning materials all of which have differential impacts. Gender specific factors could be the heavy workloads at home, a male dominated school culture, social pressures such as for marriage and initiation ceremonies. Other forms of inequities that need to be watched include regional and district disparities, ethinic and class differentiations, and cultural marginalization.

5.1.3 Quality: Quality means, achievement. A good school, for a parent and a student, is one that provides the necessary skills and knowledge to enable its graduates to either (a) progress successfully to the next level or education, or (b) gain employment. Quality means more to the educator, it means providing the school with all the necessary inputs to allow teachers and students engage in 'learning activities'. Tanzanian primary schools do not provide the basis for quality education. Too many children sit on the floors, there is one textbook per thirteen pupils, over 70% of the teaching force are underqualified and undertrained, most of the funding available goes into salaries and allowance at the expense of quality inputs, and students are learning very little.

One of the most worrying aspects of primary schooling in Tanzania is the amount of time devoted to learning, commonly called the 'time for learning' factor. Many parents complain that self-reliance work takes precedence to learning in schools. Absenteeism by teachers and pupils is high.

Improvement in quality thwn will require a massive increase in those inputs which include well-maintained schools, desks, textbooks and qualified teachers that provide the enabling environment for learning but these will not be sufficient conditions for leanring. changes will have to take place in the

Improvement in quality thwn will require a massive increase in those inputs which include well-maintained schools, desks, textbooks and qualified teachers that provide the enabling environment for learning but these will not be sufficient conditions for leanring. changes will have to take place in the system of assessment and examination, in making the school accountable to the community, in setting up programmes that concentrate on excellence and high performance.

5.1.4 **Management and Efficiency:** The Tanzanian primary education system can be said to be considerably inefficient internally and externally. Internal efficiency refers to the degree to which available resouces, human and financial are put to maximum use. In the case of primary education, two ministries are involved; MOEC and PMO/MRALG with diffused coordination. Donor aid, is neither coordinatored nor transparent, resulting in scattered projects of considerable high unit costs, randomly and thinly apportioned in various parts of the country. Accountability lines for perfomance are greatly diffused. Managment powers are concentrated at ministerial levels yet the implementation is a matter of district authority.

•The inspectorate has failed to arrest the declining quality of education mainly because it is not accountable to the schools, communities and authorities which it is supposed to serve. It is accountable to the centre.

•District Education Officers are meant to be accountable to the district authorities but are recruited, promoted and transferred by the central authorities.

•There are thousands of ward education officers, Teacher Service Commission officials and others who have no clear function in the educational system with respect to improving the system.

•Good teachers try to get out of schools into the administrative cadres because of poor teaching conditions, housing and a lack of supplementary allowances.

External efficiency refers to the outcomes of the system. Tanzania made this a high priority with the introduction of the Education for Self Reliance Policy in 1967. While there are many arguments as to whether this policy was implemented as intended or not, the fact is that today there is little evidence that pupils leaving primary schools are self-reliant, either attitudinally or in basic cognitive skills or in the capacity to contribute to increased production.

There is evidence to show that the ability to perform 'problem solving' skills or higher order cognitive tasks are extremely limited, because they are not taught. Much of the physical work at schools is either a repetitive burden or punitive action rather than an opporunity to understand nature and develop skills that would eventually help young people to move from subsistence to productive farming. Some manifestation of this failure is the rapid migration into the urban areas and the emergence of the famous "machinga" culture.

5.1.5 Financing: Right from the begining of the universalization of primary education it was clear that the central government could never be able to finance the implementation of UPE. The good intentions of UPE were greater than the ability to deliver on the part of the government. For the last 15 years the allocation to the primary education sector has been declining at alarming rate. The unit cost for primary education is about Shs.65,000 a year per pupil .The government currently finances only Shs.5,000 per year per pupil. The under financing of primary education is around 90 percent of the actual requrement per pupil.

5.2 SECONDARY EDUCATION

The main challenges facing the provision of Secondary education in Tanzania include the followings: **Access, Equity, Gender, Quality and Management.**

5.2.1 Access: The needs for public workforce determined the expansion rates of this levels of education. This manpower approach policy constrained the enrollment rates. For this reason Secondary education in Tanzania is among the smallest in the World. The gross secondary enrollment ratio of 3 percent is far below the Sub-Saharan Africa with an average of 20 percent. As a result of this policy there is a serious scarcity of qualifies middle level manpower. It is estimated that only 4 percent of the labour force in Tanzania has had secondary education. This low education attainment adversely affects the productivity of the labour force.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, due to the deterioration of the Tanzania economy, it become apparent that the state was unable to meet the social demands for secondary education hence from 1985, there has been a massive expansion of private secondary schools known officially as Non-Government Schools. (See table 2)

(TABLE 2) EXPANSION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND ENROLLMENTS: 19980 - 1992

YEAR	GOVT. SCHOOLS		NON-GOVT. SCHOOLS		COMBINED	
	Schools	Enrollment	Schools	Enrollment	Schools	Enrollment
1980	83	38,830	71	26,466	154	67,296
1981	85	38,292	82	29,310	167	67,602
1982	85	38,983	82	30,162	167	69,145
1983	85	39,737	4	31,536	169	71,273
1984	85	40,617	85	33,591	170	74,208
1985	86	42,323	104	40,775	190	83,098
1986	95	43,363	124	48,279	219	91,642
1987	103	45,821	142	58,225	245	104,046
1988	113	50,584	175	68,256	288	118,840
1989	124	57,482	195	75,003	319	132,485
1990	152	66,986	213	83,314	365	150,300
1991	158	73,946	247	92,866	405	166,812
1992	164	78,660	258	97,116	422	175,776

Source: Basic Education Statistics (BEST) - Various years.

In spite of these private efforts secondary education, is still extremely inadequate, the government has to resolve the challenge of expanding secondary education to increase the middle manpower requirements in both the public, private and informal sectors of tthe economy.

5.2.2 Equity : For the last three decades central government planning has guided the provision of public social services including education. The policies that guaranteed equity to education without regard to sex, colour, ethnicity, creed or economic status were enforced fairly and effectively. For example access to secondary education was through the quota system which was introduced to ensure district and gender parities. However, the current liberazation and privatization of the provision of

secondary education has lead to inequalities in access to this level of education because admission to these schools is based on the purchasing power of parents.

The possible strategies to address this problem may inlcude the following measures:

• Undertaking strategic planning for the establishment of education institutions;

• Making it an offense to deny any child access to education due to sex, creed, political persuasion or socio-economic status;

• Identifying sector service distribution and complementing or assisting in those areas where is a deficiency;

• Encouraging the establishment of Education Trust Funds in order assist schools and individual children;

• Encouraging individuals, communities, NGOs and public institutions to establish, manage and administer educational institutions.

• Establishing more secondary schools and where it is shown that elements of inequity persist, expanding existing secondary schools to ensure more access to education for children from disadvantaged groups and areas.

5.2.3 Gender: Considering that females form 51 percent of the national population, there is a slight under representation in primary schools where the ratio is about 1:1 In secondary and higher education women are seriously under reprented. Despite the 1982 policy of eliminating imbalances existing in the allocation of places for girls and boys in secondary and higher education, improvement has been very minimal. Female representation has moved from 34 percent in 1981 to 43.9 percent in 1993 in secondary education Form 1 to 6.

TABLE 3. Women Enrollment as Percentage of Total Enrollment

EDUCATION LEVEL	1981	1986	1991	1994
Secondary Education				
Form I	35.7	41.2	45.2	45.8
Public	33.6	37.2	43.1	45.3
Private	38.3	44.6	46.7	46.2
Form IV	33.7	37.9	42.5	43.4
Public	31.3	32.6	39.1	41.1
Private	36.6	42.4	45.3	45.3
Form V	22.4	22.0	25.5	31.6
Public	23.1	21.5	27.5	31.8
Private	19.1	23.7	21.6	31.4

Form VI	22.3	20.3	24.3	27.1
Public	22.9	20.2	26.0	28.7
Private	14.3	21.0	25.7	24.2
Form I - VI	34.0	38.4	43.2	43.9
Public	31.	33.3	40.2	42.3
Private	37.3	43.1	45.6	45.1
Teacher Education	42.4	39.8	44.8	50.8

Sourse: BEST Various Years

There are research evidences that show that there is a strong relationship between education of mothers and that of their children, their health, readiness to learn and join shcools. It is therefore neccessary for every developing country to have public policies and strategies that bring about gender parity in education.

In Tanzania we have the following policies for girls education:

•The establishment of co-educational and girls'secondary schools shall be promoted and encouraged.

•Government shall not deboard existing girls' government boarding secondary schools.

•Government shall establish girls'day streams in existing government secondary schools in communities where girls' secondary education is severely adversely affected.

•Government shall establish special educational financial support shcemes for girls and women in education and training institutions.

•Adult education programmes shall be designed to encourage and promote the enrollment and attendance of women.

•The school curriculum shall be reviewed in order to strengthen and encourage participation and achievement of girls in mathematics and science subjects.

•Education and school systems shall eliminate gender stereotyping through the curricula, text-books and classroom practices.

•Special in-service training programmes shall be designed and implemented for women teachers.

•Government shall encourage the construction of hostel/boarding accommodation for girls in day secondary schools.

5.2.4 Quality : The quality of education entails a optimum mix and balance of provision of: good teachers, adequate supply of instructional materials, and conducive teaching and learning environment. Attempts to attain good quality secondary education is constrained by various factors such as:

•Inequitable distribution of school teachers and learning materials

•Insufficient working facilities and poor teaching and learning environment

•Shortage of trained and qualified teachers.

a) **Teachers:** Secondary school students are taught by diploma and graduate teachers. Diploma teachers are supposed to teach Forms I and II while Graduate teachers Forms II to VI. Under this arrangment on average a secondary school is supposed to have about 35 percent diploma teachers and 65 percent graduate teachers. But as illustrated in table below for 1994 the situation is completely different.

TABLE 4 SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHING STAFFBY QUALIFICATION IN 1994

QUALIFICATION	GOVT.	NON-GOVT	TOTAL
Graduates	908 (15%)	925 (20%)	1, 833 (17%)
Diploma	4,744 (82%)	2, 228 (46%)	6, 972 (66%)
Others	166 (3%)	1, 641 (34%)	1, 807 (17%)
TOTAL	**5, 818 (100%)**	**4,794 (100%)**	**10, 612 (100%)**

Source: BEST 1990-94

In Government Secondary schools only 15% are graduate teachers while 85% consists of diploma holders and those below diploma level. Non-government secondary schools have a similar situation with about 20% graduate teachers and 80% diploma holders plus those below diploma level who are most untrained Form 6 leavers.

The low secondary school performance, among other factors, is attributed to the fact that only 17% of the secondary school teachers are graduate while the bulk of the teaching force of about 83% are diploma and untrained teachers.

(b) **Insructional Materials:** The quality of education also entails a balanced supply and availability of instructional materials. Books and writing materials produced and available for secondary schools are inadequate. For example, one textbook is being shared among 10 students. Other shortages include science equipment and chemicals for practical activities.In general Government secondary schools have more and better learning and instructional materials than non-government secondary schools. However, even within the Government secondry schools, urban and boarding schools are better supplied than rural and day secondary schools. furthermore, seminaries have an even better advantage in this regard than non-government secondary schools.

The existing variation in the avilability and supply of instructional and learning materials is also a reflection of the differences in financial inputs and resources. Government secondary schools and seminaries are guaranteed of reasonably adequate financial support compared to non- government schools.

(c) **Teaching and Learning Enviroment:** The Ministry of Education regularly issues rules and regulations regarding the types of school infrascture and facilities required before any secondary school can be registered. These infrastructure include: general classrooms, administration block, staff rooms, teachers houses, laboratories, dining halls, toilets and dormitories.

The infrastructure of community established day secondary Schools deviate considerably from the set requirements. This situation has resulted in sub-standard schools, and a decline in the quality of secondary education.

The existence of buildings alone is not a guarantee of good school quality and performance outcomes, other facilities have also to be made available such as adequate and appropriate equipment and materials, as well as water and electricity. School location, likewise, may have positive and negative effects on performance. For example, students in urban areas have access to libraries which is denied to those students in rural areas or isolated secondary schools.

Studies were conducted in 1993 by Ndabi and Waane to relate school infrastucture and performance. The results shown in Table 5 below indicate the following:
•Government and Seminary Secondary Schools which have far much better infrastructure out-perform non-govenment community secondary schools which have inferior infrastucture.

TABLE 5: PERCENTAGE OF SHOOLS RANKED IN THE TOP 25 %

YEAR	TOP 25%			
	GOVT.	SEMINARIES.	NON-GOVT	TOTAL
1988	66.2	32.3	1.5	100
1989	65.2	31.9	2.9	100
1990	71.1	27.6	1.3	100
1991	65.1	27.9	7.0	100
1992	61.8	24.7	13.5	100

Source: Ndabi and Waane (1993) - School quality and performance

•The top 25% secondary schools in the country consecutively through 1988 to 1992 are mostly Government and Seminary schools. On contrast schools in the botton 25% are almost exclusively Non-government community established schools.

5.2.5 Management: Good school infrastucture, better qualified teachers, good quality students and adequate resourcing are not in themselves a quarantee of good school performance; these variables have to be matched with good and effective school management and administration. Schools which emphasize discipline and self-restraint tend to perform better than those which don't. In this respect, seminaries, which normally emphasize these qualitites, perform consistently better than other schools. Similarly, schools which have better qualified school managers, for example, government schools, perform better than non-government schools where most of the schools, managers and administrators are not qualified.

Students in boarding schools (especially Government schools) perform better than those in day secondary schools. This difference in performance could be due to the fact that students in boarding schools are in relative confinement where rules and regulations can be enforced effectively. In constrast, students in day schools, on completion of classes, immediately merge into the community

where the norms and requirements of normal community life may be inimical to school descipline and demands.

5.2.6 Financing : Tanzania adopted, as indeed a number of Africa countries, a diversified secondary school curricu;lum which has contributed to high costs system with crowded syllabuses. Because of the high operation costs public secondary schools continue to absorb the second largest share of the recurrent education budget.

TABLE 6: BUDGET ALLOCATION 1992/93 TSHS IN '000"

TYPE OF SCHOOL	TOTAL BUDGET	STUDENT WELFARE	SALARIES	TEACHING MATERIALS	OTHER SERVICES
Secondary Technical	914,025	460,756 (50.4%)	145,556 (16%)	70,481 (8%)	
Secondary Commercial	1,979,930	1,066,528 (53.9%)	646,849 (33%)	55,425 (3%)	
Secondary Agric + HE	2,068,276	1,017,092 (49.2%)	782,469 (38%)	20,280 (1%)	
TOTAL	**4,962,231**	**2,544,376 (51.0%)**	**1,574,874 (32%)**	**146,816 (3%)**	**696,165 14%**

Source: 1992/93 Budget Book

•Total student welfare which include catering expenses, transport and boarding expenses take about 51% of the secondary school budget.
•The total secondary teachers' emoluments bill comprison of 32% of the secondary school budget.
•Parents pay fees for secondary education. This accounts for less than 10% of the catering costs per student.

For several years now the Government has been able to fund only about 20% of the actual costs for providing secondary education. This has result in poor quality of secondary education. The following critical measures are now being taken to address the underfunding problem in secondary schools:

•Deboarding of secondary schools

•Adjusting school-fees up-wards

•Direct costs : feeding and transport costs are being meet by students themselves.

5.3 Tertiary Education. Tertiary Education includes :

•Vocational or paraprofessional training cum-education admit candidates after their completion of level Form 4 secondary education.

•Higher level non-university education and training admit candidates after completion of advanced level Form 6 secondary education,in which instructions are prepared to persue career directly relevant to middle and intermidiate function positions in the society.

•Higher-level university education is provided at universities as the top most educational cum-training institution, to candidates who successfully complete 'advanced-level Form VI secondary education with proven advanced-level passes in a combination of subjects or disciplines relevant for particular academic and professional specialisations and careers.

In this section we shall use the word Higher Education to mean tertiary education comprising of Higher level non-universty and higher level universty education.

There are four basic problems relating to the provision of Higher Education in Tanzania:

5.3.1 Enrollments : By comparison with the rate of student enrollment at primary and secondary education levels and by comparison with the level of popular participation in formal education in other countries, the higher education subsctor in Tanzania lags far behind. Out of about 850,000 primary school school leavers, only about 13% manage to get into secondary school Form I, out of this cohort 0.7% get into secondary advanced level class Form V and only about 0.24% make it to university and some 0.3% get into teriary institutions. This is clearly too steep an education pyramid to allow the nation to produce the "critical mass" of trained manpower it requires for a take-off into self-sustaining development.

The situation in Tanzania sharply contrasts with that in Kenya, which has roughly similar demographic and resource characteristics such as the population and and gross national product. While the apex of the education pyramid in Kenya has a University going student population of about 40,000, Tanzania has a combined university student population of only about 4,500 in her three universities. The situation in Tanzania is similarly challenged by that in Botswana, with a current university student enrollment of 3,000 against a population of only 1.5 million. Other similar challenging proportions are presented by Ethiopia, Namibia and a few other neighbouring countries in Eastern and Southern Africa.

Table 7: University Admission 1989/90 To 1994/95.

UNSTY	1989 /90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	Total
UDSM	1037	994	1081	1136	1243	1147	6638
SUA	160	234	294	308	309	310	1615
OUT	*	*	*	*	*	766	766
Total	1197	1228	1375	1438	1552	2223	9019

Source: UDSM, SUA, and OUT.

5.3.2 Science Based Programmes: Tanzania is still far behind in effecting a policy aimed at producing a critical mass , trained and knowledgeable in science and technology . The fact that only one third of the students are enrolled in science-based disciplines has resulted in our failure to produce a critical mass of scientists in the society. This has partly been attributed to lack of scientific tools, such as laboratory equipment and trained science teachers . There is a necessity for a deliberate policy not only of encouraging school pupils into the science based streams in their school career but also of a built in reward system for best performing students in sciences.

5.3.3 Gender disparity: There is an imbalance in the enrollment of famale and male students in the institutions of higher learning This situation is worse for science based disciplines. Higher education institutions enroll about 16 to 20%.

5.3.4 Financing: Tanzania is one of the Southern African Countries that allocates very meagre financial resources to institutions of higher learning. For example as shown in Table 8,there is always substantial difference between proposed financial request to the government and actual allocations by the government.

TABLE 8

University of Dar es salaam Government Financial Grants 1985/86 To 1992/92 In TSHS.

Financial Year	Budget Required	Actual Amount Granted	Percentage
1985/86	418.9m	325.8m	77.8
1986/87	503.3m	455.5m	90.5
1987/88	821.8m	501.0m	61.0
1988/89	1,235.4m	801.3m	64.9
1989/90	2,417.6m	1,302.7m	53.8
1990/91	4,801.5m	2,003.7m	41.7
1991/92	6,645.9m	2,640.5m	39.7
	9,40.3m	1992/93 3,295.6m	35.1

Source: University of Dar es Salaam files

The general decline in financial grants dates back to the late 1970s and early 1980s. It is in view of these financial problems, that issues have arisen in search for income generating, cost-cutting, cost-recovery as well as cost-sharing ventures in order to make the intellectual industry of higher education viable. The new approach to finance higher education includes the following measure:

- Introducing a students' loan scheme.

- Arresting the decline in the quality of higher education due to underfunding by requiring beneficiaries to make contributions towards their higher education and by shfting public resources from students welfare to provision of education.

- Encouraging private sectors to support higher education through the following measures: tax exemption on money given for awards and tax relief on any education materials imported into the country or produced within thecountry.

5.3.5 Uncoordinated establishment of tertiary institutions: In the middle of 1970s, there have sprouted a number of tertiary institutions. These have been set up either by individual government ministries or parastatal organizations without central coordination or long term planning, mutual consultations on the kind of institutions in demand and due regard to the nature, range or level of course programmes already in place within other training institutions.

Surveys by the Eastern and Southern African Universities Research Programme (ESAURP), have shown that in 1982/83 there were only 42 tertiary training institutions in the country, but by 1992 there was a total of 142 such institutions. This large number of institutions has caused the following concerns:

•Many of these tertiary training institutions have been based on very limited and short-run objectives as unilaterally determined internally by the sponsoring ministry, department or parastatal organization.

•Many institutions have been initiating and running courses which are offered by others, thereby duplicating efforts and wasting resources.

•The dispersion of tertiary institutions, coupled with the lack of coordination of the establishment of these institutions, has had serious variations in the quality of the output.

The Government is now considering the establishment of the Higher Education Council (HEC) with the general purpose of coordinating the provision of higher education in the country. The following are the objectives and functions of the HEC:

•To advise the government, private sector and individuals on the establishment of higher education institutions.

•To accredit and monitor higher education institutions and programmes.

•To co-ordinate the long-term development and planning of higher education institutions.

5.4 TEACHER EDUCATION

5.4.1 Training of Teachers: During the past two decades the Ministry of Education and Culture has been engaged in the training of a great number of teachers to fill the gaps created through nationalisation of schools, diversification of secondary education and the introduction of Universal Primary Education.

5.4.2 Primary School Teachers The political policy to implement UPE between 1974 and 1977 magnified the need for primary school teachers. Due to time and financial constraints the Government had to break away from the traditional residential approach of teacher training to Distance Teacher Training (DTT) The Distance Teacher Education Approach or Village Based Teacher Training was of three years duration. It used many pronged strategies such as; face to face instruction; correspondence course lessons; practical teaching, radio broadcast; audio-cassettes programmes and six week residential training in teacher training colleges at the end of the final year.

The adoption of this approach had several advantages:

•The DTT meant that the teachers would be exposed to real life situations, they would face concrete, real problems for which they are bound to find solutions.

•The educational theories and methods could be directly complemented by practice and vice versa throughout the training period and this would reinforce learning.

•The relative advantage and capacity of distance education to cater for large numbers over a short period of time.

•Costs would be minimised since teachers would work during their training period and boarding costs were borne by parents.

TABLE 8: DTT ENROLLMENTS 1979 - 1984

YEAR	NO ENROLLMENT	PERIOD	OUTPUT
1976	13,510	1976—1979	12,470
1977	13,747	1977—1980	10,005
1978	18,277	1978—1981	12553
SUB TOTAL	45,534	1976—1981	35,028
*	*	1983 —1984	2,970
GRAND TOTAL	*	*	37,998

SOURCE: TEACHER EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

The quality of these Grade B/C teachers have been questioned by many observers and indeed the low quality of primary education is attributed to the presence of these teachers.

In addition to the massive DTT programme efforts were made to increase the output from the residential teacher training colleges as shown in table 9

TABLE 9: TEACHER EDUCATION ENROLLMENT 1990--1994.

YEAR	DIPLOMA	GRADE A	GRADE C/B
1990	2,994	8,625	2,870
1991	3,241	7,391	848
1992	2.537	7,391	848
1993	2,366	8,057	3,491

SOURCE: BEST 1993

The present trend, from 1994 is to phase out the training of Grade C/B teachers in fovour of training Grade A teacher for primary schools.

5.4.3 Secondary School Teachers and Tutors for Teachers' Colleges.

Teachers for secondary schools and teachers colleges are prepared by Diploma level colleges and the University of Dar es Salaam. In both institutions candidates offer foundation and major in one or two subjects. During their period of training the trainees will go for field clinical teaching which they must pass to qualify as teachers. At the end of their training period, the trainees sit for final written examinations. At the diploma level the examinations are set and administered by the National Examinations Council while the graduates are examined and certified by the University of Dar es Salaam. As mentioned earlier there is a critical shortage of graduate teachers in both secondary schools and Teachers' Colleges.

5.4.4 In-service Training Programmes .

(a) Grade B - A up-grading: This is for serving teachers who have passed O-Level. A teacher with three credit passes can be admitted to the course. Course duration is two years. Successful candidates are awarded Grade A Certificate.

(b) In-service Diploma Course: This is a two years course undertaken by serving teachers who have passed the National Form VI Examination as private candidates.

(c) In-service Course for Special Subjects: This is a two year course leading to a Diploma or special Certificates in the following subjects: Home Economics, Music, Physical Education, Theatre Arts, Fine Arts, Commercial Subjects,Agriculture and Technical Subjects.

5.4.5 Main issues in teacher education are:

5.4.5.1 Science Teachers: Science Teachers are in short supply. Some critical subjects such as physics, chemistry and mathematics are not taught in some schools for various times due to lack of science teachers. Unless measures are taken with regard to policy on student enrollment in science subjects, it is clear that the supply of science teachers will continue to be inadequate. Judging from the recent research on science teaching in government secondary schools (July 1995), there are clear evidences that many school and college have inadequate laboratories and workshops and are deprived of essential teaching materials and tools that would enhance meaningful scientific experimentation. Partly because of the lack of these vital resources and partly because of conservativism, the teaching learning methods used in science education is teacher dominated that is giving lectures rather than fact-finding learner activity. Therefore the effectiveness of increased enrollments in science subjects will mainly depend to a large measure on how well schools and colleges are supplied with the basic tools needed to initiate and sustain classes in active science work.

Quality of Teachers: A well-trained and qualified teaching force is a key issue in improving the quality of education. In Tanzania the whole teaching force for primary, secondary and teacher education levels comprise of 64 percent of teachers who have had only seven years of primary education, 27 percent with secondary education, 9 percent post secondary education including university training. Because of their low academic background, most teachers are qualitatively inadequate. This situation is also worsened by the fact that their preparations in teacher training collages is inadequate due to lack of competant tutors and professional thrust.

In order to improve the quality and to increase the number of qualified of teachers the Government has adopted the following policies for teacher education and recruitment:

•The establishment and ownership of teachers' colleges shall be liberalized to meet the increasesing demand for qualified teachers for pre-primary, primary, secondary, vocational and technical education levels.

•Owners and managers of teachers' colleges shall ensure the availability and access of standard infrastructure, facilities, equipment, libraries, instructional materials and well trained tutors needed for optimum and effective pedagogical and professional development and improvement of teachers.

•Minimum qualifications for a primary school teacher shall be possession of a valid Grade A Teacher Education Certificate.

•The minimum qualification for secondary school teachers in both government and non- government schools shall be possession of a valid diploma in education obtained fromr a recognized institution.

•Owners and managers of secondary schools shall train, have access to and ensure the availability of well trained teachers, conducive and attractive working conditions, and further professional development and improvement of teachers in their schools.

•Government teachers' colleges offering courses leading to Certificate in Teacher Education or Diploma in Teacher Education shall continue to fall under the ministry responsible for primary and secondary education. Teacher education courses leading to a degree in education shall be designed and offfered by institutions of higher education and training.

•Admission into courses offered in teacher education institutions shall take into account the necessity for teachers of childdren with special needs in education.

•Minimum admission requirements for the teacher education certificate course shall be Division III of the Certificate of Secondary Education Examination, while for the diploma teacher certificate course, minimum entry qualification shall be Division III in the Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education Examination.

•The medium of instruction for teacher education at certificate level shall be Kiswahili, and English shall be a compulsory subject while for diplma and degree level teacher education and training, English shall beused, except for foreign language teaching, which will be in the relevant languag itself and Kiswahili shall be a compulsory subject.

•Counselling and career guidance shall be compulsory subjects for all teacher trainees.

•In-service training and re-training shall be compulsory in order to ensure teacher quality and professionalism.

•Minimum qualification for tutors at certificate and diploma level teachers' courses shall be the possession of a valid University degree, with the necessary relevant professional qualification and specialization.

5.4.3 Deployment: The deployment of all grades of teachers is uneven throughout the country , this causes shortages of teachers in some district rural areas. Many urban areas are over staffed and have higher proportions of Grade A teachers than in rural areas. Urban areas are strongly preferred. There is a high correlation between placement of teachers and the wealth of district. The regions having the lowest proportion of Grade A teachers and are those poorest regions and generally the worst disadvantage districts. New teachers are often assigned far from their home districts in an effort to have an even distribution, but many teachers appear not to take up their posts in remote districts. The poor state of govermnet housing for teachers is a major factor inhibiting teacher placement.

5.4.4 Motivation: Salaries of school teachers are too low to sustain the average household, for this reason many teachers have income generating activities. Motivation of the teachers is strongly linked to present salary, social status and quality of the school administration. Increasing salaries of teachers alone could not have much bearing on their motivation without better school facilities, greater professional development and promotion opportunities. The teaching profession does not attract the highest achievers. It is amongst the last professional choices of able secondary school graduates. The status of teachers is in decline and many are attracted away to better paid jobs outside education and few school leavers are entering teacher colleges. Promotion in general has been through length of service, and teachers are usually promoted regardless of effort or competence. There are three official types of promotion processes-through years of service, through obtaining qualifications [upgrading and or professional training] and lastly through promotion into non-teaching grades. In reality the promotion of teachers is through advancement through the grades by accumulated years of service.Every three years , advancement through the levels is automatic. Promotion through upgrading is done at strict entry points. There is lack of formal procedures in the processes used for selection, promotion of head teachers, and other high education positions and a lack of openness and

transparency transparency in the process. The lack of promotional incentives and opportunities for the more competent teacher effects the morale, efficiency and retention levels of teachers.

6.0 CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

6.1 Curriculum development for pre-primary, primary secondary and teacher education is the responsibility of the Tanzania Institute for Education (TIE). In filfilling this role, TIE operates through a system of subject panels and curriculum boards. A subject panel examines and recommends for the approval and use in by the Commissioner for Education, the selection and organization of the subject matter of a specific subject at the different levels of education.

6.2 From 1990 to date TIE, inconsultation with the Ministry of Education and Culture, has made significant changes in the design of the curriculum and number of subjects offered at the primary, secondary and teacher training levels. The major thrust has been on the reduction of the number of subjects for easy management by the students and teachers and on the methods of improving instruction. The lesser the number of subjects the more manageable the production of the study books and other teaching materials. In making the curriculum reform the following key issues have been taken into account:

•The demands by parents; students, teachers and employers in education.

•Research findings,

•Contemporary theories and practices in education.

•Trendsof curriculum reforms which have been taking place in other countries in the 1980s.

•The philosophy, goals and objectives of Education in Tanzania as reflected in current government policy and statements.

•The national socio-economic and cultural policies and policy changes.

6.3 Pre-primary and primary education: The curriculum for pre-primary education has been developed to cater for cognitive, psychomotor and social development of the learners. The subject fields and elements considered appropriate for early childhood education include language, mathematical and scientific skills and attitudes, fundamentals of linguistics, mathematical, scientific, moral and cultural development of children. Good health habits and elements of personal hygiene recieve special priority in the early education of young children.

The size of the curriculum package for primary schools, which formerly comprised of 13 subjects, has been reduced to only 7. Subjects are shown in Table 10 below:

TABLE: 10 PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

NO	OLD CURRICULUM	NO	NEW CURRICULUM
1	Kiswahili	1	Kiswahili
2	English	2	English
3	Mathematics	3	Mathematics
4	Science	4	Science
5	Geography		
6	History	5	Social Studies
7	Civics		
8	Games/Sports		
9	Art and Craft		
10	Music	6	Life Skills
11	Home Economics		
12	Agriculture		
13	Religion	7	Religion

This has been achieved through the integration of some of the existing subjects with the addition of new and contemporary topics and the introduction of new ones. This move is intended not only to make the implementation of the curriculum more manageable and the subject elements taught more relevant to the present and future needs of the learners but also to reduce the cost of materials production and their distribution.

Secondary Education: The secondary school curriculum package has also been streamlined in order for it to respond to the needs of the students and the community and to the changing and shrinking potential for youth employment nationally. Other considerations include:

•The need to balance theoretical content and practical skills and to diversify the provision of vocational life skills in every school and so to give the students a wider choice of subjects to pursue through a definition of core, obligatory choices, work oriented and optional subjects, a student is allowed to take 9 or 10 subjects as shown in table below:

•The need to ensure that every young person is given an opportunity to learn basic science so as to benefit from technological developments in the world, unified science and computer science and computer studies have been introduced as one of the means of meeting this goal.

TABLE 11: SECONDARYSCHOOL NEW CURRICULUM SUBJECT PACKAGES FORM I - VI

CATEGORY OF CHOICE	ART STREAM	SCIENCE STREAM
Compulsory Core Subjects	Kiswahili English Mathematics	Kiswahili English -Mathematics
Obligatory Core Packages	Unified Science Geography History Civics Religion	Social Studies Physics Chemistry Biology Religion
Work Oriented Optional Package	Basic Agriculture Home Economics Commerce & Business General Engineering Artistics	Basic Agriculture Home Economics Commerce & Business General Engineering Artistics
Additional Options	Computer Science Foreign Language Additional Maths Bible/Islamic	Computer Science Foreign Language Additional Maths Bible/Islamic

6.6 **Teacher Education:** The curriculum package for the teacher training programme has been redefined and streamlined. The package has directed more emphasis on students in the principles of education and teaching, education psychology and counselling, teaching methods as well as field teaching practice. This move which is intended to improve the quality of teachers calls for a change in entry qualifications for teacher trainees as outlined above in this paper.

6.7 Following the approval of the new curriculum packages by the government, the Institute of Curriculum Development has now embarked on the revision of syllabuses, instructional materials, equipment lists, charts and other audio visual aids. Since only a few teachers in the field participate in workshops dealing with curriculum innovation, teacher induction and orientation into the new content and materials has been planned for all teachers.