Dynamics of Education Policy Reforms in Tanzania: The Trend, Challenges and Way forward

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ABSTRACT
Tanzanian educational terrain has been characterised by changes in education policies with various episodes of events that have been affecting the quality of education in general. These episodes of events can be traced back from independence in 1961. Immediately after independence the education system that was inherited from the colonial masters was seen to be largely irrelevant to Tanzania and hence series of changes began taking place by way of formulating new education policies that could reflect the Tanzanian context. This paper, therefore, surveys the trend of education policy making and reform processes that have been taking place in Tanzania since independence. It presents various phases of education policy making and elucidates the achievements that were realised and the associated challenges. Also, the paper provides a brief description of the policy formulation approaches that dominated and their implications on implementation. Lastly it provides the way forward in view of improving the education policy making in Tanzania. The paper is largely based on the survey of literature by various authors and government documents. It is the author's anticipation that the contents of this paper will help university students studying public administration, development policy and education management in different higher learning institutions

Key descriptors: policy, policy reform, education policy, forward mapping, backward mapping, technocratic approach, top-down approach, bottom up-approach.

1.0 INTRODUCTION
Education has long been considered as a fundamental human right as it is the key to sustainable development and peace and stability within and among countries and thus indispensable means for effective participation in the societies and economies of the respective countries (Dy and Ninomiya, 2003). Committed to this perspective the United Nations launched a Declaration for Human Rights in 1948, in which the Article number 26 states:

> *Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.*

The commitment by the United Nations was in line with the fundamental contentions of the human capital theory that describes education as an economic good because it is not easily obtainable and thus needs to be apportioned. The theory argues that economic prosperity and functioning of a nation depend on its physical and human capital stock. In general terms, human capital represents the investment people make in themselves that enhance their economic productivity. Based upon the work of Schultz (1971), Sakamoto and Powers (1995), Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1997), human capital theory rests on the assumption that formal education is highly instrumental and even necessary to improve the production capacity of a population. In short, the human capital theorists argue that an educated population is a productive population. This contention has been espoused by different nations especially the Asian countries like Korea, Malaysia, India, Japan, Thailand and China. Tanzania also, has not been left behind in terms of efforts to educate people so as to facilitate the pace of development (Ndaro, 1980).

In order to ensure effective provision of education to people the concerned countries formulated education policies for guiding various activities during implementation of educational plans and programmes. In Tanzania there were formulated various education policies such as the Education for Self Reliance (1967), Universal primary Education (1977), Education and Training policy (1995), the National Technical Education and

Training policy (1996), and the National Higher Education Policy (1999). Implementation of these policies resulted in some successes though there were challenges that were encountered during implementation. The details are provided in the subsequent sections.

2.0 MEANING, FEATURES AND IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION POLICY

2.1 Definition of policy, education policy and education policy reform

The concept of policy has been defined variously by different scholars, though all definitions share the focus. In general terms, a policy is typically described as a principle or rule to guide decisions and achieve rational outcome(s). The term is not normally used to denote what is actually done, this is normally referred to as either procedure or protocol. Whereas a policy will contain the 'what' and the 'why', procedures or protocols contain the 'what', the 'how', the 'where', and the 'when'. Policies are generally adopted by the Board of or senior governance body within an organization whereas procedures or protocols would be developed and adopted by senior executive officers. Gupta (1990) defines policy as an established guiding canon premised on objectives, devised to govern the activities of the business enterprise and from which the basic precepts of conduct are derived. A policy is devised to guide the organisational members to deal with a particular recurring situation in a particular manner. It delimits the area within which a decision is to be made and assures that the decision will be consistent with organisational goals.

According to Koontz, O'Donnel and Weihrich (2006) policies are general statements of understanding which guide thinking and action in decision-making. They limit the area within which

decision is to be made and ensure that decision will be consistent with and contributive to objectives. Lasswell and Kaplan (1950:71) define policy as a projected programme of goals, values, and practices. Also, Anderson (2003:3) takes a more dynamic view of policy as a purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of in dealing with a problem or matter of concern. Easton (1953:129) argues that policy is the authoritative allocation of values for the whole society, while Dye refers to it as "what governments choose to do or not to do".

In general, policy is the term that may apply to government, private sector organizations and groups, and individuals. Presidential executive orders, corporate privacy policies, and parliamentary rules of order are all examples of policies.

Education policy is another concept that is defined in this paper. It refers to collection of principles and rules that govern the operation of the education systems (Bell and Stevenson (2006). In this paper education policy is defined as formal strategic decision-making processes engaged in by the governing and it refers to the more quotidian practice of problem definition and strategy making (explicit or tacit, viable or not) for resolving problems prevailing in education to achieve some desired goals and objectives.

Regarding education policy reform, Provenzo (2008) begins by arguing that 'Reform' is a complex concept. As a noun, the term is used to describe changes in policy, practice, or organization. As a verb, 'reform' refers to intended or enacted attempts to correct an identified problem. As an educational aspiration, its goal is to realise deep, systemic, and sustained restructuring of public schooling. Education policy reform therefore can be defined as the process of making changes in an attempt to correct the identified problem in the education system by providing more refined principles and rules that govern thinking, behaviour and activities related to education and for achieving educational goals and

objectives. Thus, education policy reform has always been regarded as a means of conceiving and enacting visions of the collective good that have far-reaching consequences in society.

2.1 Features of education policy

Education policy is designed to govern various actions in the education system in order to realise the set goals and objectives. In order for the education system to be successful the education policy is also supposed to be good. A good education policy, therefore, has to possess the following features as identified by Gupta (1990): First, it should represent the principle that will guide the actions as intended by the top education management; secondly, it should be a broad statement serve as a guide to practice now and in future; thirdly, it should be a long lasting tool formulated after taking into account the long-range plans and needs of the educational objectives; fourthly, it should be linked with educational goals and objectives for effective implementation of educational plans and programmes; there should be active participation of top management: Policy formulation calls for the serious thinking and participating of all the top executives. Policies live longer than people who formulate them. They are framed in such a manner that they apply to all members of the education system alike from top to bottom. The educational policies should have the approval of the highest authority in the country which is the government in this case; also, the education policy should be clear, definite and explicit. It should leave no scope for misinterpretation. Lastly, the education policy should also reflect the macro and micro-economic context of a particular country or society. Variables like human resource situation, per capital income, and GDP should be reflected in the policy.

2.3 Importance of education policy

Education policy is important as it plays a monumental role in the development of the education system as a whole. According to

Pires (2007) education policy is important in various ways as follows:

Firstly, it tends to prevent deviation from planned courses of action by providing rules and principles that guide human actions and behaviour; secondly, it ensures consistency of actions by specifying some standards to be attained in the implementation of various plans and programmes; thirdly, it promotes cooperation between members or stakeholders leading to smooth undertaking of various activities; fourthly, it facilitates coordination of actions to ensure quality of services and avoid duplication of efforts; also, it provides a guide for determining equitable personal relations; and lastly it furnishes a basis for determining the quality of executive actions. All in all, education policy is generally geared towards attaining excellence in the delivery of education in order that the graduates from the education system can possess requisite competencies required in performing various functions in society.

3.0 CONTEXTUALISATION, TREND AND CHALLENGES IN EDUCATION POLICY REFORMS IN TANZANIA
3.1Contextual analysis of education policy making in Tanzania

Education policy reform is a constant concern of UNESCO and its Member States. Countries have to find the appropriate response in the face of constant economic, social, and political change combined with rapid scientific and technological innovation The problems are often considerable and the allotted means limited. The difficulties are even more complex for nations facing the added challenge of administering a vast territory with diverse populations and a variety of institutional and educational systems (UNESCO, 2005).

A national education policy sets the major objectives and orientations while defining the government's priorities and strategies to achieve its goals. UNESCO's role is to supply technical assistance in order to implement the national education

policies. This technical support is varied and depends largely on demand. It can vary from design and implementation of regional and national policies to focusing on a single area or specific programme (UNESCO, 2005). UNESCO support is available when Member States request it. These requests emanate from three types of countries:

- Member States wishing to undertake global education reform (long-term outlook and far-reaching change);
- Member States whose education system is in flux and in need of targeted change;
- Member States whose education system is in rehabilitation (emergency situation and short-and medium-term priorities).

The above explanations imply that educational reforms are inevitable since education systems are operating in a dynamic context dictated by changes in science and technology at a global level. These changes have forced various countries to keep on reforming their education systems by changing their education policies from time to time to address the changes. These changes are in line with the UNESCO's (2005) contention that;

> *Education has a major role to play in achieving sustainable human development. It is up to governments to establish coherent education policies. UNESCO can supply needed technical and programme design assistance.*

As far as Tanzania is concerned, since independence in 1961, the education system has been characterised by various changes coupled with educational policy reforms. These reforms have been dictated by macro and micro economic and political contexts both at local and international levels. At a national level education policy formulation in Tanzania has been undertaken in tandem with shifts in the national economic periods that have influenced

the paradigm shift in education policy making and implementation (Mosha, 2006). These national economic periods are: (i) Independence to Arusha Declaration (1961-1967) in which Tanzania declared to pursue socialism and hence there was nationalisation of major means of production; (ii) Arusha Declaration to Liberalisation period (1967-1986) when Tanzania experienced economic crisis that compelled the Tanzanian Government to seek participation of the private sector in the economy. Liberalisation of economic activities took place in 1984; (iii) the economic reform programme era (1986-202) when there was intensification of reforms that began in 1986. It is during this time that Tanzania experienced positive and high economic growth rates; and (iv) the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP)-MKUKUTA era (2005 to date).

3.2 The trend of education policy reform and paradigm shift

The development of education policy in Tanzania since independence in 1961 has gone through a series of distinct phases reflecting major shifts n macro policies and development paradigms (Mushi, 2009). Four phases can be identified to include: the first phase (1961-1967), the second phase (1967-1978), the third phase (1980's -1990's) and the fourth phase (1990's to date). The details are provided as follows:

3.2.1 The first phase (1961-1967)

This was the period ranging from independence in 1961 to Arusha Declaration in 1967. During this period one finds that with the attainment of independence, the Tanzanian government inherited a colonial education system (Omari, 2002; Mushi, 2009). This system was elitist in nature as it was designed for the minority distinguished by race, economic status, geographical location, and religious denomination. The government of Tanzania that time was so concerned by this appalling situation, hence decided to make changes which can be called as first reforms. Realising such

an inimical situation, in 1962 the Education Act No.37 was passed to repeal and replace the 1927 education ordinance and system established by the colonial government. The aim was to break away from the colonial economic and political legacy and thus lead Tanzania to a new form of political, economic and social development. The focus was to abolish all sorts of segregation and discrimination based on race and religious affiliation (URT, 1995; Omari, 2002). In terms of race, there were exclusive schools for Indians, Goans, Africans, and Europeans. African schools were least provided in terms of teachers, facilities and capitation grants; European schools were the best provided. In terms of religion, there were schools for Lutherans, Catholics, Anglicans and Muslims; and government secular schools (Omari, 2002). This situation called for immediate reform by enacting the education Act of 1962.

These changes took place in the context of the Three-Year Development Plan (1961-1964). This plan had a component of reforming the education system by expanding secondary education, establishing a new university college to meet shortage of manpower and the University of Dar es Salaam was opened in 1961. Teacher education received more attention due to the decision to give priority to the development of primary education and to improve quality. In order to improve the quality of teacher education, the Institute of education was developed as part of the University College.

Generally, the planning approaches that were used during this time were human resource and manpower approaches governed by the theory of human capital. The need was to ensure that Tanzanian population gets education in order to attain fast development (Galabawa, 1998). Under human resource approach to planning the aim was to educate every person in Tanzania to raise productivity in the production process and the manpower approach aimed at enhancing training of people to work in

specialised areas as professionals such as engineers, teachers, medical doctors, agricultural extension officer, lawyers and judges, and nurses (Mushi, 2009).

Other policy changes that were made during this period included abolishing fees in all schools as they discriminated against the children of the poor, introducing Tanzanian history in the school curriculum, Kiswahili language was given more priority as a national language and became the medium of instruction throughout primary schools replacing the English medium, the curriculum and examinations were streamlined to provide uniformity, and eliminating the division between lower and upper primary school by introducing a full eight year course for all primary schools (Omari, 2002; Mushi, 2009). Furthermore, the education system operated according to one national curriculum, private schools could still be registered provided they fulfilled the government conditions for the provision of education, which was centrally planned; and lastly, new governance structures were established that included: Local education authorities, school committees, and boards for managing primary education in their local areas (Cameron & Dodd; Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995).

In March 1967 the late President Julius Kambarage Nyerere issued the first of his 'post Arusha' policy directive on education, the Education for Self Reliance. This directive expressed the need to institute educational revolution by recasting the education system in the light of Tanzania's needs and social objectives (Galabawa, 1998). As a policy paper, the Education for Self Reliance became the basis for all major educational changes in the country. It also guided the planning and practice of education in the country. The Education for Self Reliance (ESR) was, therefore, geared toward establishing the education system designed to inculcate the culture of socialism into the minds of

Tanzanian people. According to Omari (2002), the Education for self-reliance as an education policy, had the following objectives:

a) To prepare young people to play a dynamic and constructive part in the development of a society in which all members share fairly in the good or bad fortune of the group; and in which progress is measured in terms of human well-being, not prestige buildings.

b) To inculcate a sense of commitment to the total community, and help the pupils to accept the values appropriate to our kind of future, not those appropriate to our colonial past. It was emphasised that, education must counteract the temptation to intellectual arrogance; for this leads to the well-educated despising those whose abilities are non-academic or who have no special abilities but are just human beings.

c) To prepare young people for the work they will be called upon to do in the society which exists in Tanzania-a rural society where improvement will depend largely upon the efforts of the people in agriculture and in village development.

d) To prepare for their responsibilities as free workers and citizens in a free and democratic society; albeit a largely rural society. This means to prepare people to be able to think for themselves, to make judgements on all the issues affecting them, to be able to interpret the decisions made through the democratic institutions of our society, and to implement them in the light of the peculiar local circumstances where they happen to live.

Thus, the policy paradigm that characterised the Education for Self Reliance was the need for people in Tanzania to be self-reliant in terms of being able to think independently, understand

their immediate problems, solve the problems on their own, and even become committed to the well-being of the whole community.

According to Machange (2004) and Mushi (2009) the Education for Self Reliance policy had the following strengths:
Firstly, it enhanced the integration of theory with practice. In this case, what pupils learnt in the classroom was practised outside in the field and in the community at large. In fact, schools established Self Reliance Projects and school farms where pupils could go and work. The integration of theory and practice even made the learning process become meaningful and memorable.

Secondly, there was introduction of agricultural secondary schools. Some government schools became agricultural schools so as to set an example for implementing the policy. Examples of agricultural schools are Ruvu, Ifakara, Kibiti and Kantalamba. Agriculture was also taught at Iyunga secondary school. In these schools students learnt crop production, livestock husbandry, agromechanics, and agricultural economics.

Thirdly, workshops were established in schools. In workshops, students were obliged to learn various vocational skills that could help them in life after school especially for self-employment rather than depending. Students had an opportunity of acquiring various skills pertaining to carpentry, masonry, pottery, and sewing.

Lastly, graduates from the education system were self-confident and could take various developmental roles in society immediately after school. Those who could not be employed for white collar jobs were able to lead their life as carpenters, masons, and farmers. At the same time the graduates had high sense of patriotism for Tanzania.

In fact, even in the current time, some of the aspects that were promulgate by the Education for Self Reliance are still relevant as they encourage upholding good virtues that are instrumental in the development of the country. It is no doubt that various stakeholders would like to see the graduates of the current time solving their own problems by being creative and innovative thinkers. These are the aspects that were advocated by the Education for Self Reliance policy.

Apart from strengths, the Education for Self Reliance policy had the following weaknesses:

Firstly, it lacked proper interpretation due to the way it was formulated. It was formulated through the top-down approach (forward mapping as termed by Elmore, 1984) as it was the thinking of the president and hence brought it down as a presidential directive (Machange, 2004). This made people misinterpret it as majority thought that it meant agricultural works and broad projects rather than linking theory and practice. Some schools, especially agricultural secondary schools had large farms in which students could take quite a long time working at the expense of classroom studies.

Secondly, in schools, decisions were not democratic enough as pupils and students were not involved in discussions. The decisions were made by teachers and were supposed to be implemented by pupils or students. This tendency is still prevailing even today especially in primary schools.

Thirdly, school achievement was looked upon in terms of passing written examinations and not how well one did in practical terms. Because of too many preparations for examinations, there was lack of time for both study and active involvement of learners in the real life problem solving (Nyirenda *et al.,* 2002).

Lastly, the policy failed to address some problems like illiteracy and dropout. At the same time few people were in the education system and hence implementing it was a problem. In fact, even the problem of elitism was still prevailing among the Tanzanians who got education (Nyirenda *et al.,* 2002).

3.2.2 The second phase (1967-1978)
Several changes took place between 1967 and 1978 in as far as implementation of the Education for Self Reliance policy was concerned. Self-reliance work was made integral art of the education system and the education policy emphasised that primary schooling was the cycle of learning rather than selection a mechanism for advancement to secondary education (Mushi, 2009). This was the time when the government launched second five-year development plan (1969-1974) and the planning approach that was adopted was Human Resource Development Planning Approach (URT, 1995). It was during this time that the education Act of 1969 was enacted and then mandated the government to nationalise all government assisted voluntary agency schools to make education provision the sole responsibility of the state. This aimed at ensuring that education opportunities were provided to all children without reference to their religions, gender and ethnicity (Galabawa, 2001).

During the second phase and especially after the introduction of the second five-year dvel0pment plan, the efforts were geared towards changing primary schools into community education centres, which in addition to providing education by functioning a primary schools, would take care of the educational needs of out of school youths and adults. In this way, formal and non-formal education was to be integrated at the village level. In nomadic areas like masai-land, schools entailed boarding services to encourage pupils to study at school and away from the domestic chores particularly cattle grazing (Chonjo, 1991). Abiding by the theory of utilitarianism that advocates enhancement of benefits for

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the majority in society and in the bid to promote egalitarianism the government in 1971 abolished school fees at primary school level so as to give equal opportunities to Tanzania children to access education (Mpogolo, 1980).

Other changes that took place during this phase were as follow: In 1973, the workers' education programme was launched for all workers without any reference to their religious affiliations. The policy directive provided for continuing education for all without discrimination after completion of basic education (Chonjo, 1991). In 1974, the Musoma Resolution took place and placed emphasis on expansion of primary and secondary education as well as integration of education with work. The Musoma Resolution aimed at increasing the number of schools for disabled children and special schools for the handicapped (blind, deaf and the crippled) were constructed in Mtwara, Mwanza, Singida, Mara, Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Lindi, Rukwa and Morogoro. Furthermore, it is in 1974 that the government of Tanzania launched the Universal Primary Education Policy (UPE) (URT, 2001). UPE was introduced as one of the deliberate efforts to attain universal primary education in Tanzania. With this policy primary education was made compulsory for every child who had reached the age of seven years by engaging in massive enrolment, rapid expansion of schools and abolition of racially based education system. This went together with nationalisation of all schools, with exception of very few religious owned seminaries. In fact, under this policy, no private primary schools were allowed to operate. All school fees were abolished resulting in a massive enrolment such that in 1980 the enrolment rate had reached 98% (URT, 2001). The notable achievement that can be stressed in this educational development regime was increased emphasis on girls' education as well as those with special needs (Rajabu, 2000). However, UPE implementation faced a number of challenges which were shortage of financial resources, shortage of teachers, and shortage of facilities, like desks, teachers' houses, classrooms,

textbooks, as well as poor remuneration for teachers. In response para-professional teachers were recruited to tackle the massive increase of pupils though many of them had poor educational backgrounds and short time training period. Furthermore, the government was forced to build many schools with low standards (Mushi, 2003).

In 1978, the education Act No.25 was enacted and legalised several changes in the education system. This was the time when the Third Five-Year Development Plan (1976-1981) was being implemented (URT, 2001). The changes that were legalised by the Act included: the establishment of a centralised administration of schools which gave powers to the Ministry of education to promote National Education, an Education Advisory Council was created; the post of the commissioner of national education was established and every local authority was made local education authority, institutional restrictions on the establishment of schools by requiring owners of schools to get approval of the Commissioner of National Education and to have all public and private schools registered. Other changes included establishment of school categories into national schools and regional schools, making primary school enrolment and attendance compulsory at the ages of 7 and 13 years, centralisation of the school curricula and syllabi, making mandatory the registration and licensing of teachers, the establishment of school boards and committees, and the establishment of the inspectorate department in the Ministry of National Education.

The general comment that can be made regarding the changes that were being made in the education system up to the second phase is that changes were mainly dictated by government that monopolised the powers to make decisions. So, the top-down approach to policy making and implementation was dominating in which the policy decisions were made under forward mapping approach as referred to by Elmore (1984). In forward mapping the

government leaders were using the traditional approach to policy analysis which entailed the top-down process that assumes a straightforward relationship between policy creation and outcomes and assumes that a clear delineation of goals from policy makers will lead to well-organized support, effective implementation, and greater success. In this process the policy maker's power to affect local implementation processes is uncertain (Munoz, 2005). However, Van Niekerk (1996) maintains that a new education Act does not mean automatic appearance of a new system of education and new education policy. The top-down approach to policy making even complicated the implementation of the education policy such that even the achievements that were made in Tanzania could not be sustained. The situation was even worsened by the economic difficulties that were exacerbated by the Uganda-Tanzania was of 1978 (Galabawa and Senkolo, 2000).

3.2.3 The third phase (1980's -1990's)

The period between 1980's and 1990's was also characterised by several landmark changes in education policy in Tanzania. In 1981, the Presidential Commission of education was appointed to review the existing system of education and proposed necessary actions to lead the country towards the year 2000. The Commission was constituted by a team of 13 people chaired by the Late Hon. Jackson Makweta. The Commission submitted its report, the Makwetta Report, in March 1982. Among its recommendations, the most significant ones resulted in the establishment of Teachers' Service Commission (TSC); the establishment of the Tanzania Professional Teachers' Association (TPTA); the formulation of a National Policy for Science and Technology; the introduction of Pre-primary Teacher Education Programme; as well as the expansion of secondary education (Machange, 2004).

In 1984, the ministry prepared a Ten-Year Development Programme for the expansion of secondary education. In 1985, the communities started the construction of Community Secondary Schools and fees for secondary education were re-introduced (Guardian, 2011).

This period was also characterised by some problems which included inadequate and poor quality education services, inadequacy of resources, and economic crisis that affected the implementation of the education policy (URT, 2000).

3.2.4 The fourth phase (1990's to date).

The fourth phase is referred to as the economic liberalisation period. It was also characterised by various changes in the educational policy reforms. At an international level the Education for All (EFA) policy was launched in 1990 in Jomtien, Thailand. EFA was introduced to enhance access of basic education by all children of the school-going age (URT, 2001). In Tanzania various education policy reforms took place as follows: In 1990, the Government constituted a national task Force on Education to review the existing education system and recommend a suitable Education System for the 21st Century. The Term of Reference (TOR) for the Task Force were to: assess the critical problems which were inherent in the education sector; propose, in terms if policy, planning and administration, an appropriate system which will facilitate increased efficiency and effectiveness; and propose appropriate implementation strategies. The report of this Task Force, the Tanzania Education for the 21st Century, was submitted in November, 1992. The focus was to improve the quality of education and strengthen the link between education provided at all levels and social and economic development of Tanzania.
In fact, the document was printed in Leeds under Government seal without any previous discussion of the draft document within the Tanzanian Government and without, therefore, being

officially recognized as a Government document. It was argued by a key Government official that, from the very beginning, the purpose of the Task Force Report was to review the education sector; it was never intended as a policy paper. It was decided at a meeting in Morogoro in 1992 with MOEC and other educationists, politicians, agency representatives and academics that the data and analysis of the Task
Force document should provide the basis for a new education policy paper (Buchert, 1997).

In 1995 the Education and Training Policy was introduced. Under this policy the government saw the importance of providing guidance; synchronising and harmonising all structures, plans and practices to ensure access to equity and equality at all levels, ensuring proper and efficient mechanism for management, administration and financing education and training (Machange, 2004). In the light of this aspiration, the ETP (1995) focuses on issues of decentralisation of education, establishment of schools and expansion of education training opportunities, access and equity, curriculum, examination and certification, teacher's education, tertiary and higher education and training. Education financing and management and administration are proposed with the aim of guiding formal, non-formal, vocational, tertiary and higher education as well as the promotion of science and technology (URT, 2004). The broad objectives of the education and Training policy include to:

- Decentralise education and training by empowering regions, districts, communities and educational institutions to manage and administer education and training;
- Improve the quality of education and training through strengthening in-service teacher training programmes; the supply of teaching and learning materials; rehabilitation of school/college physical facilities; teacher trainers' programmes; research in education

and training, and streamlining the curriculum, examinations and certification;

- Expand the provision of education and training through liberalisation of the provision of education and training, and the promotion and strengthening of formal and non-formal, distance and out-of-school education programmes;
- Promote science and technology through intensification of vocational education and training; rationalisation of tertiary institutions, including the establishment of polytechnics; strengthening science and technical education, and development of non-formal programmes for the training of technologist;
- Promote access and equity through making access to basic education available to all citizens as a basic right; encouraging equitable distribution of educational institutions and resources; expanding and improving girls' education; screening for talented, gifted and disabled children so that they are given appropriate education and training, and developing programmes to ensure access to education to disadvantaged groups;
- Broaden the base for the financing of education and training through cost sharing measures involving individuals, communities, NGOs, parents and end-users, and through the inclusion of education as an area of investment in the Investment Promotion Act.

The ETP has realised several achievements since its introduction in 1995. The achievements are as follows:

i. Enhancement of partnership in the provision of education and training through the deliberate efforts of encouraging private agencies to participate in the provision of education, to establish and manage schools and other educational institutions as well at all

levels. Currently we are witnessing many private schools being run by various individuals in Tanzania. However, the running of these schools is monitored by the inspectorate department to ensure quality of education provided (URT, 2004)

ii.   The financial base has been broadened whereby various individuals and organisations are involved in contributing to educational development as part of cost-sharing mechanism (Ishengoma, 2012)

iii. The education system is more decentralised such that the local authorities have power to decide on various aspects related to educational development in their respective localities (Sotta, 2012)

iv.   Curricula have always been reviewed to ensure that they reflect the current changes in science and technology as well as meeting the needs and interests of the society and those of students themselves. For example currently the curricula are competence-based in order to enable students to acquire abilities of utilising their knowledge and experiences in solving problems and contributing to societal development (Wangeleja, 2010)

v.   Increasing access to education by focusing on the equity issue with respect to women disadvantaged groups and areas in the country. It can be witnessed that number of girls in schools has increased and in some schools or classrooms girls are more than boys.

vi.   The culture of self-employment has built among some graduates as in many places one can find young people engaging in their own activities rather than being employed. For example young people in Arusha and Moshi employ themselves as tour guides and others engage in projects like poultry keeping, music, film production, and so on.

Despite the achievements, the ETP (1995) encountered several challenges such as low enrolment rates which dropped from 98% in 1981 to 57.1% in 1999 (URT, 2001), increased unemployment, decline in education quality, poor funding, shortage of teachers, poor housing, distance from residences to schools, remoteness of schools which is still prevailing even now in Morogoro especially, inadequate inter and intra-coordination between and within sectors, poor remuneration and lack of professional ethics, and brain-drain (Galabawa and Senkolo, 2000).

Apart from the Education and Training Policy (1995) another policy that was formulated as part of educational policy reform endeavours was the National Technical Education and training Policy (1996). This was established as a result of weaknesses that were identified in ETP 1995. By that time, there had been uncoordinated changes and falling standards in technical education and training in the country (URT, 2001). This policy was introduced to enhance the application of science and technology in economic development by facilitating the development of public and private technical institutions and promoting women's participation in technical education (MoEVT, 2007). Technical education was seen to be important as it provides the necessary knowledge and skills required to exploit the natural resources of the country through scientific and technical discovery. It enables the material wealth of a nation to be built up. It was also intended to facilitate availability of technical personnel in the right numbers, at the right time, in the right place and with the right balance of technical knowledge and practical skills to propel the pace and direction of industrial innovation and social economic development (URT, 1996). In fact, the policy put strong emphasis on tertiary non-university technical

education and training guided by four main considerations (URT, 2001), namely;

  a) The need for Tanzania to have sufficient trained technical manpower for all categories due to the problem of shortage of technical personnel;

  b) The need to impart technical skills to youth and adults to enable them to go into sustainable self-employment;

  c) Inculcate a culture of science and technology in the Tanzanian society;

  d) The need to improve manpower balance among the technical cadre of engineers, technicians and craftsmen from the ratio of 1:1:14 to the internationally accepted ratio of 1:5:25.

In implementing the policy various activities were arranged at pre-primary school level, primary school level, post primary technical centres (PPTCs), Folk Development Colleges (FDCs), Technical secondary school level, and VETA, all which are coordinated by the national Council for technical Education (NACTE). In particular, the policy facilitated provision of technical education in colleges and Vocational Training Centres in Tanzania run under the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). VETA centres are spread through the country Some places with VETA centres are Dar es Salaam, Morogoro, Dodoma, Mwanza, Iringa, Shinyanga, Moshi, Arusha, Mbeya, Ruvuma, Tanga, Tabora, and Singida, to mention just a few. These centres are also providing ICT skills to young people being trained in those centres. Dar es salaam Technical College was made an autonomous institution that is providing technical education up to the degree levels.

However, the way this policy was formulated and implemented raises a lot of questions in terms of

stakeholders' involvement. It was largely technocratic whereby the policy was made by small team of elite selected by the government. They made a policy that was approve by the parliament and later brought down for implementation. The policy has also been facing various challenges that include underfunding, ineffective coordination, poor remuneration to personnel, insufficient IT facilities and infrastructure, shortage of well trained staff and poor institutional management.

Another policy that deserves discussion in this paper is the National Higher Education Policy (1999). This was established as the guideline or framework to guide higher education provision in Tanzania (URT, 2001). In fact, up to 1992, there had been no coherent national Higher Education Policy. Due to this the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education in 1992 observed the following problems pertaining to the higher education sector: poor coordination in the development of higher education resulting in duplication of programmes and awards; lack of legal and regulatory framework for the establishment of new institutions and certification; low enrolment amidst the uncoordinated proliferation of institutions; imbalance between the science and liberal arts in favour of the latter; gender imbalance in favour of males; underfunding and poor provision of key inputs; and poor match between higher education and the economic, political, social, cultural, and demographic changes taking place.

Following these problems, the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (MoSTHE) initiated a policy making exercise that resulted in the introduction of the national Higher education Policy (1999). The major thrusts of the policy include: the creation of the higher education council (currently known as Tanzania Commission for

Universities (TCU)) for accreditation purpose; expansion of enrolments; institutionalisation of cost sharing; correcting gender imbalances in enrolments; improve female participation rates in science, mathematics, and technology; encouraging the establishment of private institutions; improving the funding of higher education; being responsive to market demands in the training enterprise; increase autonomy of institutions of higher learning; improved coordination and rationalisation of programmes and size; and promotion of cooperation among institutions of higher learning (URT, 1999).

The National Higher Education Policy (1999) has a number achievements as follows: the policy has provided homogeneous directive to all institutions as a standard of providing services for quality education; there have been introduced clear terms for financing, research, information and communication, expansion and accessibility of higher education; increase in enrolment in higher learning institutions; increased access to women and girls in higher learning institutions; increased number of graduates in science and technology; and improvement in higher education infrastructure (URT, 2001).

Apart from achievements, the policy encountered a number of challenges as follows: lack of strong mechanism for its operation; poor infrastructure in higher learning institutions as well as unemployment problem to the graduates; inadequate funding even after introducing the students loans board; frequent crises in higher learning institutions due to meagre financial resources for students and staff; and double and sub-standard in higher education instructions as some of lecturers can of deliver well due to poor English language mastery. Other problems that have prevailed as challenges to the policy include brain-drain, low morale among lecturers, shortage of

lecturers such that some shoulder too much workload (Kuzilwa and Bangu, 2012), and shortage of accommodation. Additionally, the policy implementation is too much dependent on the external sources of finance which is seemingly very unsustainable due to the increasing clear signs of donor fatigue exacerbated by changing conditions in the global socio-economic and political situation; and ineffective mechanisms for identifying students from low income families so that they can be given the amount of loans they deserve for schooling purposes (URT, 2001).

The thinking on education kept on changing time after time in tandem with changes in science and technology. These changes contributed to more and more reforms in the education sector. In this vein, in 2007 the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training introduced the ICT Policy for Basic Education to guide the integration of ICT in Basic Education. The policy covers Pre-primary, Primary, Secondary and Teacher Education, as well as non-formal and adult education. It is guided by the overall objectives of education policies, and relevant national development policies, including the Tanzania National ICT Policy of 2003. Since ICT is a cross-cutting tool, this Policy is also linked to ICT activities in other areas and sectors, especially Vocational Training, Higher Education, and Regional Administration and Local Government. In developing this policy various stakeholders were consulted, they include the Public and Private Sectors, Civil Society and Academia who contributed valuable inputs of all sectors (URT, 2007).

This policy has several objectives to be achieved, they are to: integrate the use of ICT to achieve educational policy objectives; promote the harmonization of activities, approaches and standards in the educational uses of ICT; ensure that there exists equitable access to ICT resources by

students, teachers and administrators in all regions and types of educational institutions and offices; ensure the proper management and maintenance of ICT resources and tools; ensure the organized provision of ICT training to students, teachers and educational administrators; facilitate the implementation of communication and information systems for the effective management of the Education Sector; facilitate the use of ICT as a tool for assessment and evaluation of education, as well as administration and management; encourage partnerships between the various stakeholders in the Education Sector; facilitate the use of ICT resources in schools and colleges by the neighbouring community; facilitate the development and use of ICT as a pedagogical tool for teaching and learning, and for the professional development of teachers, administrators and managers; and to promote development of local content for basic education and other stakeholders.

With this policy, Tanzanians have witnessed introduction of ICT lessons in primary schools in various places in the country. But the major challenges in implementing this policy include: security issues at primary schools, negative mind-set among some people regarding implementation of ICT programmes in rural areas, shortage of funds to afford purchasing ICT facilities, and maintenance problems due to poor skills. Other challenges as identified by URT (2007) are: Insufficient prioritization of ICT in the implementation of educational and development policies; inadequate experience in sharing, collaboration and partnership in ICT implementation; inadequate infrastructure, including critical supporting infrastructure such as electricity and telecommunications, especially in rural and remote areas; insufficient numbers of qualified technical personnel to manage and maintain ICT resources; inadequate training and capacity development resulting in underutilization of ICT

facilities; widespread view of ICT as a status symbol rather than as a crosscutting tool; lack of awareness of the multifaceted uses of a wide range of ICTs, including emerging and converging technologies; poor awareness of the environmental impact resulting from the use and disposal of ICT resources and equipment; hierarchical and territorial organizational structures and cultures, and resistance to change; insufficient financial resources to ensure the equitable and sustainable integration of ICT in education at all levels; and lack of awareness among decision makers, development partners and private sector investors on the importance of ICT for education as well as local and national development.

4.0 SYNTHESIS OF THE PAPER

As far as the educational policy reforms are concerned in Tanzania, it can generally be deduced that changes were dictated by both local and international contexts. In fact, a number of education documents and statements have been directing education policy in Tanzania since independence in 1961. Of particular interest in this paper are the Education for Self-reliance (1967), *the Tanzania education system for the 21st century (*1993), and *Education and Training policy (*1995), to mention but a few. The trend of educational policy reforms has been largely dominated by the top-down approach using the forward mapping mode of decision-making (Elmore, 1987). The governing and non-governing elite are the ones who have been influencing the policy making process and its implementation. It has been seen in the paper that right after independence there was the presidential influence dominating in making policy decisions. As time went on, the ministry of education was involved and later the limited deliberative policy making approach was adopted. This entailed inviting various views to different educational experts like professors and other academicians,

governing elite and foreign experts. Nonetheless, the involvement of the local people in rural and remote areas remained limited hence affecting effective policy implementation.

From the paper it can also be seen that during the series of education policy reforms there have been changes in focus to education (paradigm shift). It can be found that the major contrast in the context for education policy making in Tanzania during 1967-1990s is the move from emphasizing the formation of a socialist state and public responsibility in education to emphasizing the development of a market economy which blends public and private initiatives (Buchert, 2004). Since 1984, cost-sharing, partnership, and devolution of responsibility to lower levels have been central education policy themes, themes which have all been reinforced internationally since the conference on *Education for All* held in Jomtien in 1990. There has been a continuous emphasis on the need for vocational, technical and science education and training, including the development of entrepreneurial skills, with key managerial issues for the education system as a whole being those of cost, management and quality.

There are, however, also differences in the focus of the individual policy documents and in their contextual understandings. The unofficial document *The Tanzania education system for the 21st century* (1993) was produced by a predominantly academic Task Force set up in 1990 and headed by the, then, Dean of Faculty of Education, University of Dar es Salaam and supported by DANIDA (Buchert, 2004). The document analysed educational needs in light of a future Tanzanian society which is able to cope in an increasingly globalized world. The emphasis wass, therefore, not only on political liberalization and sustainable social and economic development, which are now truly familiar terms,

but on the need for a long-term energy policy (solar energy, bio-gas), a long-term industrial strategy, and expansion of the trade, transport and communication sectors (telecommunication).

While the themes identified as immediately critical are well-known (negative enrolment, literacy, and transition trends; poor quality; etc.), there is a much stronger focus in this than in any of the other documents on the need to support research and development and the higher education subsector as well as to conduct fundamental curricular changes in support of the envisaged society of the 21st Century. This focus has disappeared in the now authorized *Education and training policy* (1995). In fact, the policy formulation process for this document was lengthy, originating from the fact that the 1993 Report was never acknowledged as official policy. Some of the explanations given for this during the interviews were that the Report was far too ambitious and unrealistic, and paid no attention to the resources needed if the recommendations were to be implemented (Burchert, 2004).

During the formulation process of the 1995 document, it was decided to produce a separate *Higher education policy* which came out in 1995 published by the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (MSTHE). A chapter on higher education was maintained in the general education and training document. The need to produce two separate documents was explained during the interviews by the fact that the MSTHE was producing its part of the broader policy document at too slow a pace and by 'institutional jealousies' between the MOEC and MSTHE. There is also a separate policy document for science and technology, the draft of which was published in December 1993 by the MSTHE. A strategic action plan was developed for vocational education and training and was published by the Vocational Education

and Training Authority (VETA). A chapter on vocational education and training was maintained in the broader education and training document. According to one of the Government officials, all policy papers are fully consistent and he, personally, preferred that there was a separate policy for higher education. Other officials, however, regretted the fact that there is not just *one* policy for the education system as a whole, a fact which may also have an impact on the future of inter-agency co-ordination and co-operation between the Tanzanian Government and the international organizations (ibid)

The *Education and training policy,* while focusing on the whole education system, puts emphasis on two areas, namely pre-primary education and vocational and technical education and training, and on the need to integrate formal and non-formal education. However, the key issues and instruments mostly have to do with formal basic education (defined as primary, secondary and adult). In *Primary Education Master Plan, 'A framework'* also financed by DANIDA, the focus is, as the title indicates, (formal) primary education. The Master Plan makes the general statements of the *Education and training policy* tangible in terms of setting priorities and strategies for primary education. The *Social sector strategy focuses* on basic health and education without defining the concept of basic education (ibid)

In summary, there is, then, both convergence and divergence in the evolution of the official and non-official education policy documents since 1967. The emphasis in the *Education for self-reliance* document on primary and adult education has been replaced in the now official *Education and training policy (1995)* by pre-primary and vocational and technical education and training, while the specifics of primary education are presented in *Primary education Master Plan 'A*

framework'. The cross-sectoral activities outlined in the *Social sector strategy* include basic education with emphasis on the benefits of investing in basic education for girls and women. A key difference between the wider education policy paper and the *Social sector strategy* is the design of financial strategies in the latter document which introduces a stronger focus on private participation in the education sector than in the education policy paper.

In the intermediate documents (1984 and 1993), there was, on the other hand, more emphasis on academic, science, higher education and research and development - areas which were part of the wider education policy document but nevertheless left for specific treatment in separate documents and by other ministries than the MOEC. This undoubtedly complicated the understanding of the status of all the papers and their use when dealing with specific subsector issues, particularly in the agency community.

5.0 WAY FORWARD

As far as policy formulation and reforms in Tanzania are concerned, the processes have been characterised by several challenges such as top-down approach to policy making and implementation, shortage of human resources, poor infrastructure, poor coordination of various activities, shortage of funds, and inefficient or poor management of researches and systems. In order for these aspects to be addressed the following are recommended:

Firstly, enhancing wider participation of various stakeholders in the policy making process. The use of top-down (forward mapping) approach should not be entertained if serious changes are to be made in the education system. Wider participation will provided room for generation of different ideas that will lead to formulation of a comprehensive policy.

Secondly, there should be effective capacity building for enhancing managerial skills among staff in the education system. With capacity building resources will be managed very well and the policies will be implemented effectively.

Thirdly, thorough research on various educational matters has to be encouraged. The policies made should reflect the reality in society that can be established by research. If researches are ignored, there is a very high possibility of making policies that do not address people's problems in societies. As such, people might not see the necessity of implementing policies that do not touch their day to day life dynamics.

Fourthly, in making the education policy, a link with other policies for other sectors should be established. It has to be borne in mind that the sectors in the country are interdependent elements of the country forming a mega system. If not linked to one another coordination and implementation of various activities can face problems. For example, education policy has to reflect the health policy, agricultural policy, financial policy and the population policy. If there is no link, then that policy is meaningless and is there for other purposes than enhancing the development of the country.

Fifthly, during education policy reforms, policy makers and other stakeholders should ensure that policies that are made possess required characteristics of a good policy which include: Resources based, easy to implement, pluralistic in nature (accommodates majority interest and acceptance), takes into account both internal and external challenges (in terms of social, political and economic challenges), easy to monitor and evaluate and have clear outcomes and impacts, and must have a sound or feasible sustainable plan (Ngungat, 2008).

Lastly, commitment of various stakeholders is very important. Implementation of education policies requires time, thinking, energy, funds and vision. If these are not borne in mind and people continue doing their business as usual, there can't be realised effective implementation of the policy formulated. Commitment should also be reflected in carrying out frequent policy reviews or evaluations, and monitoring or supervising their implantation.

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