

Reigniting Hope: 50 Years of Adult Education in Tanzania

Edited by:

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Finally, we acknowledge the team of dedicated authors for their timely and well-prepared chapters. We welcome you to enjoy reading this book: *Reigniting Hope: 50 Years of Adult Education in Tanzania*.

Preface

In June of 1976 in the Assembly Hall of the University of Dar es Salaam, the late Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere began to address the 752 participants at the first World Assembly of Adult Education. Following a lengthy and flowery introduction about his contributions to adult education and development he said, “There is a saying in Kiswahili, *mgema akisifiwa tembo hulitia maji*” whose English translation is beware of overpraising the brewer, he may begin to dilute the beer. Mwalimu Nyerere was giving the keynote speech to the international adult education movement gathered at the time at the height of Tanzania’s commitment to adult education. From the time of his New Year’s Speech to the Nation in 1970, his call to develop adult education as a strategic contribution to building a more just and equitable nation, to the 1976 Conference, Tanzania had created an extensive infrastructure to support adult learning in all communities, had implemented the first of its literacy campaigns and had initiated a series of creative and effective mass radio learning group campaigns on critical issues of the day.

This book is a celebration of that vision inspired by Mwalimu Nyerere as its inspiration, but a vision put into place by thousands of adult education leaders of the day from Hon Nicholas Kuhanga, Hon Daudi Mwakawago and the late Ambassador P. J. Mhaiki, Yusuf Kassam to leaders in the Ministry of Education and in every district of the nation. It was a time when the old ways of speaking of learning of adults was changed from *elimu ya ngumbaru* (education for the ignorant) to *elimu ya watu wazima* (adult education). This new language dismissed the colonial classist list of goals for development, ignorance, poverty and disease, with a vision of education as a way of building confidence for people to take change into their own hands. This was a vision

that attracted people from all over the world including Germans, Swedes, Canadians, Americans, Caribbean peoples, and African liberation movement members. The vision was attractive because it was also a part of a larger project, the transition of Tanzania from a colonial past to a modern country based on the values of Ujamaa, a transition to a form of socialism based on African traditional values of community. But this book is also a wake-up call, a critical re-examination of what has happened to the discourse and the architecture of adult education in the 50 years since 1970. You will find in this book that the story is uneven. The literacy rates of the mid 1970s are lower in 2021. Is this because we measure literacy differently now that was done 50 years ago? We don't know. Funding for adult education has shrunk below 1970/80 levels. Adult education does not hold an important place in the national development strategies as it once did.

Further, we find that contemporary modes of education specifically non-formal education and open and distance education have evolved as necessary alternatives to the traditional campus-based education. The obvious inability of campus-based education to accommodate all education aspirants has now been combated by the huge opportunity of access to education provided by non-formal education on one hand and open and distance education on the other hand. In 1970, not one PhD was working in the field of adult education, but by 2021, scores of academics are employed at important public universities and some private universities within the country.

Tanzanian adult educators are not alone in their disappointment about the current status of adult education in their country. England, the colonial power from whom much of the early discourses of adult education emerged, set up a commission in 2019, to campaign for the return of funding and policy attention that it once enjoyed.

We are all of us now living in a world where neoliberal capitalism is the basis of our economic lives. Concepts of growth, economic productivity, skills to fit into the global assembly lines are strong. We are told that we live in a knowledge economy where the goal of all learning and knowledge is to build economies. But there is a growing movement now accelerated by the impact of the COVID pandemic for moving from a knowledge economy to a knowledge society. A knowledge society understands learning and knowledge as a way of deepening citizens' engagement in their economies. And others, such as myself, speak about a world of knowledge democracy, a world that recognizes and values the diversity of knowledges that arise from the lived experiences of women and men everywhere.

I am reminded of the words of Jean Jaure, "Take from the altars of the past the fire - not the ashes." This book is an important reminder of the 'fire' of the past visions of adult education. Let us take this fire from the past to build a new, contemporary vision, a contemporary policy framework and the necessary institutional and financial support needed, for Tanzania and the world.

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Introduction

Purpose

In December 1969, Mwalimu Julius Nyerere called upon the nation to eradicate illiteracy in the country. The call was further given impetus by the ruling Party National Central Committee which decided to make 1970 the Adult Education Year. When launching the Adult Education Year 1970, Mwalimu said:

For a long time, we have been saying that we must educate the adults in Tanzania. Yet although there has been a lot of talk about education for adults and quite a lot of people have been working in this field, we have not yet organized ourselves for a major attack on ignorance. The Committee of TANU has decided that we must do this in 1970. The coming twelve months must be Adult Education Year and we must give this work very high priority.

Mwalimu took the occasion to announce this decision explaining the philosophical aims of adult education which came to be the guideline in the implementation of adult and non-formal education in the country. Since then 50 years have passed; therefore as we mark the occasion of the 50 years' celebration it is necessary to review the provision of adult and non-formal education in Tanzania as part of the 50th Anniversary of the 1970 Adult Education declaration with a view to taking appropriate actions where necessary. This book therefore, comes at the right time to accomplish this purpose.

Focus

This book has brought together a collection of varied perspectives on adult and non-formal education in Tanzania focusing on the

vision of Mwalimu Julius Nyerere on adult education, origins and development of adult and non-formal education programmes, unforgettable features of adult and non-formal education, management and financing of adult and non-formal education, open and distance learning as well as Tanzania and German cooperation in adult learning and education for development. The book is intended to be a country account of research, policy and practice of adult and non-formal education that answers the following questions: is the vision of Mwalimu Nyerere on adult education still relevant today in and outside Tanzania? What was the context that defined the origins and development of adult and non-formal education programmes in the country and what are the unforgettable features of these programmes? How were/are these programmes managed and financed? What is the state of open and distance learning (ODL) in higher education and how can the management of ODL and student enrolment of marginalized groups especially women be improved? What is the state of Tanzania-German cooperation in adult education and what needs to be done to improve this relationship? The book looks at the past, present and the future of adult and non-formal education and does not claim to be all inclusive for no book can possibly represent all viewpoints of adult and non-formal education in the country. Nevertheless, it provides an academic perspective on adult and non-formal education and comes at right time when Tanzania is celebrating 50 years since adult education was declared Adult Education Year in 1970. The book is written for academics, researchers, adult and non-formal education practitioners, adult education policy makers and planners as well as adult education students.

Structure and Contents of the Book

The book contains eight separate chapters. The first chapter by Budd Hall and Yusuf Kassam discusses the impact of Mwalimu Nyerere's vision on adult and non-formal education following the

launch of Adult Education Year in 1970. The authors view the adult education movement that took place in the country in 1970s as a ‘revolution’ in adult and non-formal education. Their discussion is based on their roles which they performed in Tanzania at the Institute of Adult Education and University of Dar es Salaam as well as outside Tanzania particularly in teaching, building the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE), training in participatory research and evaluation and community university engagement. The authors view Nyerere’s vision of adult and non-formal education as a wide area of learning activities that seeks to raise adults’ awareness on their realities and abilities to transform their living conditions. They conclude with some remarks on what they consider to be the importance of the Nyerere’s vision for adult education today in and outside Tanzania particularly in addressing the following critical issues: the COVID pandemic, climate change, the gap between the rich and the poor as well as industrial policy issues. They consider a review on adult and non-formal education provision in the country as part of the 50th anniversary of the 1970 Adult education declaration to be a necessary step towards this end.

Mwalimu’s vision of adult education conceptualized as a broad area of learning activities is explored in the next chapters. Victor Mlekwa in the second chapter discusses what he considers to be the ‘unforgettable’ characteristics of adult education in the country that have shaped the policy and practice of adult and non-formal education initiatives from the colonial to post-colonial era. These include the manner in which the programmes were organized, coordinated and supported by the government, recruitment of teaching personnel and preparation of teaching materials that focused on economic concerns of the target groups, the practice that appeared as if the whole country was an adult education class, for the whole nation was mobilized for adult learning. The main challenges facing the practice of adult education according to the

author were, *inter alia*, financial constraints and lack of a clear policy on adult education.

The manner in which the adult and non-formal education programmes were managed and financed during the past 50 years is examined in the third and fourth chapters by Gennes Shirima and Philemon Mushi respectively. Shirima explores the fundamental managerial dimensions of non-formal education programmes and dynamics of managing the programmes the aim being to stimulate further discussion on designing, developing and managing non-formal education programmes. According to him, the main challenges facing the management of quality non-formal education programmes include lack of: proper planning and coordination machinery and single institutional structure. The author, therefore, underlines the need to improve the management of non-formal education programmes by streamlining these programmes, strengthening the country's non-formal education administrative machinery and to review the current guidelines for managing non-formal education programmes.

In the next chapter, Philemon Mushi examines the state of financing of adult education in Tanzania delineating issues and challenges that need to be addressed if the adult education subsector is to be improved. Adult and non-formal education is viewed as a valuable instrument that brings about economic and social benefits and therefore merits adequate financial investment. However, despite the public importance attached to adult and non-formal education in the country, government investment in adult and non-formal education remains very low. Adult and non-formal education comes at the bottom of hierarchy in terms of resource allocation in contrast to other sub-sectors of education due to various reasons that include low status accorded to adult education, lack of clarity on what constitutes adult and non-formal education, lack of political will, reduced assistance from foreign donors and marginalization of adult education. In order to improve adult and

non-formal education funding renewed efforts are needed if adult and non-formal education activities are to be improved. These include the need to revive the political will and support for adult education, redefine what constitutes adult education by developing a comprehensive adult and non-formal education policy that clarifies the various aspects of adult and non-formal education, introduce realistic adult education plans and budgeting as well as exploring other alternative sources of funding.

The next three chapters focus on open and distance learning in Tanzania. The fifth chapter by Philipo Sanga discusses the philosophy, context, prospects and practice of open and distance learning in higher education in Tanzania and delineates several challenges that face the provision of ODL in higher education. The key critical challenges are lack of clear national policy on ODL, inadequate and unreliable infrastructure as well as inadequate ODL knowledge and skills for both learners and instructors. Despite the few achievements which have been realized in the field of ODL sub-sector, the author argues that the sub-sector remains at its infant stage and thus recommends, among others, the need to develop specific policies and guidelines to guide the operations of ODL.

In Chapter Six, Elifas Bisanda discusses how the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) has been able to expand access to higher education using a variety of Information and Communication Technology initiatives. The university has been able to expand learning opportunities by introducing a foundation course to enable applicants with low qualifications to pursue higher education. In addition, the university offers unlimited access to higher education at an affordable cost and has established several ODL centres in the regions to further expand student enrolment and enable students to learn from any location. Despite these initiatives the author argues that ODL mode of learning is causing a disruption in the conventional campus-based education.

The issue of access to higher education is also advanced in Chapter Seven by Eustella Bhalalusesa. She provides an account of women graduates' experiences of learning by distance at university level in Tanzania highlighting the attributes that have enabled them to successfully complete their studies despite the challenges involved in learning at a distance in higher education. These attributes are identified by the author as individual's personal dispositions that include the ability to work hard all time and exceptional determination to overcome the obstacles of independent learning. In order to improve female student enrolment, the author underlines the need for gender sensitization and advocacy.

Cooperation and solidarity in adult education can improve the quality of and support for adult and non-formal education initiatives. The Tanzanian and German cooperation in Adult Learning and Education (ALE) is a case in point as demonstrated in the last chapter, by Frauke Heinze and Heribert Hinzen. The authors examine ALE developments in policy and practice in Tanzania in the context of various exchanges and cooperation with DVV International during the past 50 years. The chapter draws examples and experiences of the relationships with regard to ALE developments in policies, programmes, activities and personalities since 1970s. The authors consider the new project of DVV International that has been launched recently in the country to be an important opportunity for looking from the present into the future as the two governments - Tanzania and Germany - prepare to enter into a new phase of cooperation.

Philemon A.K. Mushi

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Chapter One

Reflections on the Impact of Mwalimu Nyerere's Vision on Adult and Non-formal Education

— YUSUF KASSAM & BUDD HALL —

Introduction

This chapter, written as reflections by Yusuf Kassam and Budd Hall, provides some personal and historic background to the decade following the launch of Adult Education Year by Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere in 1970. The phenomenal developments that took place in adult education during the decade of the 1970s can justifiably constitute nothing short of a 'revolution' in adult education in Tanzania. Our stories are based on our respective roles at the Institute of Adult Education and the Faculty of Education both in Tanzania. Our chapter consists of reflections on adult education in Tanzania during that period and by the impact of the vision of Mwalimu Nyerere as it radiated out into the world. Our chapter follows each of us as we took inspiration from our work together in Tanzania in building the International Council for Adult Education and then separately into the Kassam's innovations in participatory evaluation and international development and Hall's move into community university engagement and global training in participatory research. We conclude with some reflections on the contemporary value of the Nyerere vision for adult educators today in Tanzania and around the world. Finally, we provide a selected bibliography of our publications about adult education in Tanzania.

Our Roles in Tanzanian Adult Education and Development

Yusuf Kassam was initiated into the field of Adult Education during his studies at Makerere University (1963-67) where he

was given an opportunity to teach English to adults in the evening classes at Makerere's Centre for Continuing Education. As a teacher at Mzumbe Government Boys' Secondary School (1967-69), he trained Grade 12 students in methods of teaching literacy to adults, and organised them to teach literacy in the two surrounding villages of Mzumbe using the school's vehicle.

He then joined the Institute of Adult Education (IAE) as an Assistant Resident Tutor and later became a lecturer in Adult Education and ultimately an Associate Professor of Adult Education at the University of Dar es Salaam (1970-81). During these years, he taught in the one-year diploma course in Adult Education and the Adult Education optional course at the Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) level at the University of Dar es Salaam, and later became the Director of the Diploma Course.

During the latter part of this period, he served as a Regional Coordinator of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE)'s International Participatory Research Network. Participatory research and participatory evaluation was part of ICAE's adult education paradigm. In 1969, he was appointed by Mwalimu Nyerere to become the Director of IAE. In this position, among taking other initiatives at the IAE, he organized and launched a National Radio Study Group Campaign on Afforestation known as "Forests are Wealth".

In 1981 he joined the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) located in Toronto as its Director of Programmes where Budd Hall was the Council's Secretary-General. The ICAE and Tanzania had important mutual links.

After leaving the ICAE in 1990, Kassam worked in the field of international development as an evaluation specialist incorporating much of what he had learned from his Tanzania years in over

20 countries working with bilateral aid agencies, trade union organisations and foundations. During these years he returned to Tanzania where he employed his participatory evaluation practices to the work of the Tanzania Education Network, National Organization for Legal Assistance, the Foundation for Civil Society, and the Ethics Secretariat in the President's Office.

Budd Hall was finishing his Doctoral studies at UCLA in Los Angeles, USA when there was a visit by the Hon. Nicholas Kuhanga, then the Deputy Director of the Institute of Adult Education. He told Hall that the IAE was looking for someone to fill a research fellow position in the Institute. As a student of African Educational Systems and someone who had heard about the exciting developments in Tanzania following the Arusha Declaration, he said that he would be interested in applying. Following an interview with Kuhanga and Professor Ranger, Budd was hired. When he showed up to work at the Lumumba Street building, the first person that he met was Yusuf Kassam.

Budd was given the task of setting up a small research department which was given the responsibility for the evaluation of the Institute's major adult education activities. His evaluations were linked to the roll-out of the appointment of the first district Adult Education Officers, the Six-District Literacy campaign and the first radio study group campaigns. He was also responsible for supporting the visit of Paulo Freire to Tanzania in 1972, a visit which included a famous meeting between Paulo Freire and Mwalimu Nyerere. It was during this time that the ideas for a decolonial research approach which was called participatory research emerged. Indeed some 50 years later, Hall is still working on training young people in many parts of the world drawing on principles that emerged from that period of Tanzanian adult education history.

Upon leaving Tanzania, Hall spent 20 years working with the ICAE, first as its Research Officer later as its Secretary-General. On leaving the ICAE he spent 10 years as Chair of the Adult Education Department at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto. For the last 20 years, he has been working at the University of Victoria where he currently holds a UNESCO Chair in Community-Based Research and Social Responsibility in Higher Education.

Mwalimu's Vision of Adult Education

Mwalimu Nyerere's vision as articulated by Nyerere himself and by many adult educators of the times was seen as a broad area of learning activities with emphasis on the arousal or awakening of adults' awareness of their realities and the abilities to change their realities. Adult education was seen as a key to socialist development. As much as possible adult education should be integrated into life and should not be considered as a separate segment of life. The education of adults in Tanzania was seen as an ideological, practical and flexibly integrated process; integrated into the lives of learners and in the reality of the emerging Tanzania. There was a clear sense of urgency in the Tanzania of the 1970s with many saying that we must educate the adults of today, we cannot afford to wait for 25 years until the children have grown.

National Literacy Campaign

The National Literacy Campaign was a gigantic undertaking that involved more than five and a half million illiterates. The campaign is noteworthy for its magnitude, President Nyerere's articulated vision and philosophy of adult education, political commitment from the top of the country's leadership, political mobilization, revolutionary fervor, role of TANU, organizational structure, involvement of many government ministries, parastatals, and industries, volunteerism, the training of adult educators, and innovations (Kassam,1978).

The 15th Biennial Conference of TANU in September 1971 directed that illiteracy in Tanzania should be completely eradicated by the end of 1975. The initiation of the National Literacy Campaign (1972-75) was a nation-wide extension of two preceding smaller campaigns, namely, the UNESCO/UNDP Work Oriented Adult Literacy Pilot Project which had operated and provided an invaluable base of expertise and experience. The number of illiterates towards the end of 1971 was estimated to be about 5.2 million people of 10 years and above. However, by September 1975 the figure stood at about 5.9 million, 44% were males and 56% were females.

In mobilizing more than 5 million people, TANU played a leading role from the national level right down to the ten-cell level. The adult education committees at the regional, district, and ward levels carried out the major task of planning and establishing numerous adult education centre, enrolling participants, distributing literacy primers and writing materials, recruiting voluntary and organizing their training, and supervising the centres.

The literacy classes took place at thousands of adult education centres most of which were located at primary schools while many others operated at a wide range of places such as offices, factories, dispensaries, churches, community halls, TANU offices, the backyards of individuals' houses, under large shady trees halls. In some places, the learners themselves built their own special shelters.

The total number of teachers in the campaign was 98,000. Primary school teachers totaled about 14,000, while the rest numbering about 84,000 were voluntary teachers. Most of the voluntary teachers were primary school leavers who received an honorarium of Shs. 30/- (Approximately U.S. \$0.40) per month. With the help of the Mwanza Functional Literacy Project, 12 different primers were prepared all of which, except two, were based on the agricultural activities of the people-cotton farming, maize growing, coconut

growing, cashew nuts growing, tea growing, cattle keeping and fishing. One primer was based on the political ideology of the country and the other was on home economics. All of the primers were accompanied with their respective teacher's guides. A total of about 12,500 spectacles were provided free of charge to those who had poor eye-sight.

On 12th August, 1975, a National Literacy Examination was administered throughout the country. The results of the test showed that about 3.8 million persons or 77% of the total enrolment of about 5.2 million participated in the test. 37% or 1,403,985 persons passed at Levels III and IV, who according to the national criteria for literacy, were considered literacy graduates. Out of these, 15% or 574,876 persons had performed at Level IV and were considered to be functionally literate. In conclusion, the illiteracy rate in Tanzania was reduced from 67% in 1967 to 39% at the end of 1975.

In the preceding section, the statistics on the number of people who acquired the practical literacy skills has been documented. In terms of the qualitative impact of literacy, an evaluation of new literates using participatory evaluation methods of dialogue and testimonials showed a powerful qualitative and psycho-social impact of literacy on a sample of eight new literates in different parts of the country (Kassam, 1979). They expressed dramatic changes in the quality of their lives which included getting rid of their former state of marginality, alienation and fear, acquired self-confidence and self-assertiveness, regained their full human dignity, and felt a sense of liberation. Simply put, they felt empowered.

To highlight these self-perceptions in the new literate's own words, here are a few examples: "The blindness from my eyes has been removed. These days when people see me, they say to themselves 'You cannot deceive or intimidate this old man'" (Salum Nassoro); "Now that I have become literate, I feel that, previously, I was

carrying a lantern and now a pressure lamp has been brought to me” (Yusufu Selemani); “Now that I am literate, no one can ask to just sign blindly – I first have to ask what the whole business is all about, I read the documents myself, and only after I am satisfied that I agree to sign” (Rukia Okashi); Our eyes sparkle now and they can see” (Paulina Paulo); “You despise yourself because you feel oppressed as a result of illiteracy and ignorance” (Kondo Kawambwa).

The Training of Adult Educators

In view of the growing importance of adult education in Tanzania, the necessity for extensive and professional training of adult educators became extremely evident and urgent (Kassam, 1978). The five years beginning in 1969 witnessed impressive efforts in initiating the training of planners, organizers, coordinators and teachers of adult education at different levels. Six major institutions and agencies got involved with the training of adult educators. These were: The Institute of Adult Education, Colleges of National Education, The Mwanza Functional Literacy Project, The University of Dar es Salaam, Adult Education Officers of the Ministry of National Education and Regional Training Teams.

The Institute of Adult Education launched a full-time one-year residential Diploma Course in Adult Education. The students were sponsored by the Ministry of National Education, Prime Minister's Office, Ministry of Agriculture and Food, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Ministry of Home Affairs, Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, TANU, Tanzania People's Defense Force, National Service, National Institute of Productivity, cooperative unions, missionary societies, town councils, various parastatal organizations, and various industries.

The graduates of the diploma course got engaged in a wide assortment of occupational categories in the field of adult education. These included: Adult Education Officers at various administrative

levels under the Ministry of National Education; Principals of training centres; Rural Development under the Prime Minister's Office; Organizers of adult education at the Institute of Adult Education; Adult Education Tutors at the Colleges of National Education; Education Secretaries of Cooperative Unions; Workers' Education Officers in industries and parastatal organizations; Political Education Officers in the Tanzania People's Defense Force, National Service, and the Ministry of Home Affairs.

In addition to the Diploma Course in Adult Education, conducted many short training courses for a wide range of parastatal organizations and industries. Since all primary schools were required to operate as centres of adult education, all Colleges of National Education introduced compulsory training in adult education methodology in 1971 for all teachers who are trained to teach in primary schools.

The Mwanza Functional Literacy Project trained various categories of personnel for the functional literacy programmes in the four pilot regions in northern Tanzania as well for the National Literacy Campaign. The different individuals who were trained included teachers, literacy supervisors, trainers, adult education officers under the Ministry of National Education, agricultural extension officers, writers of functional literacy primers, and rural librarians.

One of the tasks of the Adult Education Officers of the Ministry of National Education was to train teachers and organizers of adult education programmes, primary school teachers, civil servants from the different Ministries, and study-group leaders for the various radio study group campaigns. Every region in the country had established Regional Training Teams whose task was to train functional literacy teachers most of whom were volunteers. Members of all the Regional Training Teams had been trained intensively by the Mwanza Literacy Project.

The Ministry of Agriculture introduced functional literacy as a subject in the training of Agricultural Extension Officers in its 11 training institutes. Similarly, the University of Dar es Salaam introduced an adult education optional course for B.Ed degree.

The Radio Learning Group Campaigns

The radio learning group campaigns of the 1970s were extraordinary exciting and productive adult education activities. The ideas of the radio learning group campaigns were born from a combination of Tanzanian ideology and pedagogy of change, Swedish study circle traditions and the Canadian Farm Radio Forum experiences. Tony Dodds, a British born resident tutor working for the IAE in its Mbeya office brought the example of the Farm Radio Forum from Canada of the 1950s from his course in adult education at the University of Manchester. Swedish adult educators who worked in Tanzania during those years brought their well-known study circle experiences and Tanzania adult educators pulled everything together within the ideology of grassroots village-led development of the era. The campaigns consisted of weekly radio programmes, printed materials to be read, trained study group leaders and weekly listening groups in villages around the country.

The first two campaigns *Uchaguzi ni Wako* (The Choice is Yours) and *Wakati wa Furaha* (A Time for Rejoicing) were organized around the national election of 1970 and the celebration of the 10th Anniversary of Independence in 1971. *Mtu ni Afya* (Man is Health) and *Misitu ni Mali* (Forests are Wealth) were larger scale national events that drew involvement from millions of people. The radio listening groups were designed to educate citizens and engage citizens in the new steps being proposed for education, healthcare, agriculture, local government, village development and to take action. The *Mtu ni Afya* campaign was the first large- scale national campaign. With support from TANU (the national political party of the day), the Ministries of Education, Health, and the Swedish

International Development Agency the campaign involved training 75000 study group leaders in a training strategy. The selection of health-related concerns (malaria, bilharzia and others) were chosen because they were subject to significant reductions through environmental changes. For example, removing banana trees and ponds from around the houses had a positive impact on reducing the breeding places for mosquitos. Building of latrines was an important way to reduce diarrhoea and faeces-borne contagions. Each radio study group was encouraged to create lasting legacies for the campaign. In the end, hundreds of thousands of latrines were built in every region of the country.

The *Misitu ni Mali* campaign consisted of planting of millions of seedlings. Yusuf Kassam was the architect of the *Misitu ni Mali* campaign while Budd Hall was responsible for the evaluation of the *Mtu ni Afya* campaign.

The International Council for Adult Education (ICAE)

ICAE is a global non-governmental organization that supports literacy and adult education around the world. Founded at the 1972 UNESCO International Conference on Adult Education, the founding Vice-President of ICAE was Paul Mhaiki who at the time was the Director of the Institute of Adult Education in Tanzania. He led the Tanzania delegation to the Tokyo conference where he showcased the exceptional work that Tanzania was doing in the field of adult education. Tanzania and Mwalimu Nyerere's adult education vision had gained international attention and the ICAE approached Mwalimu Nyerere to become its first Honorary President. Mwalimu Nyerere graciously accepted recognizing the ICAE's aspirations for progressive international advocacy and programmatic work in adult education. In 1976, Mhaiki hosted the first ever World Assembly of Adult Education in Tanzania. Mwalimu Nyerere was the keynote speaker whose words blessed the newly emerging world network and served to brand it as a transformative and energetic space.

When Budd Hall's contract with the University of Dar es Salaam was coming to an end, Paul Mhaiki, the ICAE Vice-President for Africa recommended Budd to the ICAE founder, to come and work with him in Toronto, Canada to help get the ICAE moving. Budd took up the position as Research Officer and served as the Secretary to the Dar es Salaam World Assembly working with Paul Mhaiki to welcome 600 participants from 70 countries to come and discuss adult education which was put at the centre of the international development discourses.

Following the World Assembly, Budd and Yusuf worked together on the creation of the International Participatory Research Network. Tanzania through the work of Yusuf Kassam, Marjorie Mbillinyi, Kemal Mustafa, Marja-Liisa Swantz and others had been the place where the term participatory research was first born. While Budd had moved to Canada to work in the ICAE, Yusuf was the first coordinator of the African Participatory Research Network. In this capacity, he hosted one of the founding international meetings and co-authored a book on African perspectives on participatory research.

In 1981, Yusuf joined Budd in Canada to work in the Secretariat of the ICAE as Director of Programmes. They continued working together drawing continually on their formative years under the influence of Mwalimu Nyerere and other Tanzanian adult education leaders.

Impact in Higher Education

In 1991, Budd left the ICAE to take up an academic position eventually as Chair of the Department of Adult Education at the University of Toronto. This department's vision was of adult education and social justice. Adult education from an anti-racist, transformative lens carried echoes of the Nyerere vision from 20 years earlier. A number of Tanzania adult educators successfully

obtained their PhDs from the University of Toronto during that period.

In 2001, Budd joined the University of Victoria as the Dean of the Faculty of Education but in 2006, he was to once more close the circle to link back to his days in Tanzania. The University of Victoria had discovered the discourse of participatory research, which they called community-based research. They learned of Budd's early years as a pioneer in participatory research and invited him to set up the Office of Community-Based Research. With that as a platform he helped to launch Community-Based Research Canada and eventually what became the UNESCO Chair in Community-Based Research and Social Responsibility in Higher Education. The UNESCO Chair is built on the roots of the early International Participatory Research Network of which Kassam and Hall had been founders. Hall and Rajesh Tandon of India, the early Coordinator of the International Public Relations Network (IPRN) serve as joint co-chairs. A key activity of the UNESCO Chair is supporting a global training network of young participatory researchers. Each training course, the young people are taught about the foundations of Mwalimu Nyerere's thinking and the origins of the work in Tanzania.

Implications for Contemporary Tanzania

The Tanzania of the 1970s and 80s is not the Tanzania of the 2020s. Mwalimu and that generation of educational thinkers have died. The ideas of the Ujamaa generation have over the past 50 years undergone much criticism. Tanzania's aspirations to strike out on a different path from the dominant economic options of the 1970s have fallen by the roadside as a neoliberal capitalist system has swept aside notions of self-reliance and a more locally self-sufficient economic life. Adult education, like other ideas from the Nyerere years, has fallen far from the heights of policy prominence and public imagination that it once occupied. Literacy rates have fallen from the achievements of earlier times. Schooling of course has

grown with both public and private provision reaching nearly every young person. The question of quality of provision in both primary and secondary school remains a concern. Tanzanian state policies are related more to industrial strategy than rural development. So what does the Nyerere vision of development, education and adult education offer to a contemporary Tanzania?

“Poor People do not Use Money as a Weapon”

This is one of the things that Mwalimu used to say when explaining the foundations of his thinking. His words were a way of saying that there is knowledge in the lives of ordinary people. Today we speak of asset-based community development meaning that when looking at urban or rural communities it is important to look at them from an asset base rather than a deficit perspective. A development strategy whether in the field of entrepreneurship, agricultural production, or healthy living needs to begin with the experiential lived experience, the knowledge of those who are engaged in moving their lives forward. In adult education principles, we speak of starting our education and training ‘where people are’. These principles are valuable foundations for any and all adult education and skill training that is undertaken.

Way Forward: The Architecture of Learning

The keys to the development of the adult education movement of the 1970s and 80s were a vision or an ideology of learning, training of adult education leaders, political will from the state and the creation of an adult education infrastructure. A strong case can be made that adult education has a critical role to play in the national and international recovery from COVID-19 as well as any kind of just industrial policy. The re-energizing of the literacy movement which is an essential platform or any kind of economic or social development is also needed. Climate change and the gap between the rich and the poor all can be effectively addressed through adult education. But the scaffolding that once supported the national

adult education movement has deteriorated. There is a need to build a series of institutional bridges to connect the archipelago of segmented offerings that exist today. A national review on adult education provision as part of the 50th Anniversary of the 1970 Adult Education declaration would be a good start.

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Chapter Two

Unforgettable Features of Adult Education in Tanzania

— VICTOR M. MLEKWA —

Introduction

In 1978, Yusuf O. Kassam wrote in his book titled “The Adult Education Revolution in Tanzania” that adult education “probably served as the greatest means of mobilizing people for development” (Kassam, 1978, p.106-107). He was impressed by a proliferation of various programmes and institutions including the national literacy campaign, the mass radio study- group campaigns, workers’ education, folk development colleges, community education centres and rural libraries. He noted, however, that there was general “apathy to change, lack of conviction or clarity on the developmental and liberation potential of adult education, lack of recognition of the need for lifelong learning, the inclination to equate education with formal schooling and certificate-oriented tendencies” (Kassam, 1978, p. 7).

More than four decades have elapsed but most of the observations he made are still in order. It is true that adult education in Tanzania, and in all Third World Societies, is a necessary condition for development; however the latter may be defined. In this epoch of unprecedented scientific and technological development, coupled with knowledge explosion and circulation, no nation will be able to provide or guarantee a better life for its people who lack the requisite functional knowledge and skills including ability to read, write and count.

Immediately after independence in 1961, the government realised that no meaningful development would be forthcoming if the

majority of the citizens continued to be illiterate. Adult education programmes in general, and adult literacy education in particular, were initiated in the spirit of Africanization and nation building. After the birth of the Arusha Declaration in 1967, the contribution of adult education to development became even more apparent. There was a need to fight against illiteracy which was an impediment to human progress and to create a basic foundation that would enable each citizen to search for more knowledge and practical survival skills. It was also essential to raise the general level of political awareness of the citizenry which was needed for implementing the Arusha Declaration on socialism and self-reliance. Hence the introduction of functional literacy classes throughout the country promising to wipe out illiteracy and to impart functional skills needed in the people's daily life activities. Currently, the role of adult education continues to be vital in creating the requisite conditions for meeting the economic, social and political challenges arising as the processes of economic liberalization and political democratization unfold.

Colonial Period: Voluntary Agencies in the Lead

During the colonial period, adult education was mainly offered by Christian missionaries. By 1914 mission stations had spread to various parts in the country, where both adults and children were receiving some education and training. The mission stations printed a number of booklets, newspapers and periodicals on various subjects which became a source of information for the literates. Besides, they organized Sunday school classes (which included adults) youth clubs, women's associations and brigades as well as scouts. They taught literacy classes to their convents to enable them read the Bible and to get catechists who would then spread the word of God. At the same time, they imparted agricultural, commercial, clerical and various forms of manual skills which were used by Tanzanians in their daily life activities

as well as in the service of various government departments. Religious instruction offered by missionaries was also aimed at inculcating “good” citizenship through discipline and obedience.

Similarly, both the Germans and the British governments initiated programmes in areas such as printing, carpentry, tailoring, woodwork, metal work, as well as numeracy, and literacy and emphasized, in line with the authoritarian character of the colonial state, discipline, punctuality, acceptance of authority outside the family and individual accountability for one’s work. Two documents issued by the Advisory Committee on Education paid special attention to adult education. The first one, “Memorandum on the Education of African Communities”, which was issued in 1935, pointed out the fact that adult education was an essential input in any process of promoting social change in African communities. The second one, “Mass Education” which was released towards the end of the Second World War (1944) re-emphasized the role of adult education, particularly literacy training, and the need to design education projects on the basis of the needs of the local community, notably increased agricultural productivity.

In addition, social welfare organizations were established to provide social services in towns for the Second World War veterans in order to rehabilitate them. Under the organizations, facilities for holding meetings, discussions, reading, indoor games and other forms of recreation were provided. In 1949, the social welfare organizations were reorganized to become a government department known as Social Welfare Department. This department extended its activities to include those of youth club, adult education and probation services. In 1951, the activities of the department were further extended to reach rural areas and, in 1952, it was renamed Social Development Department under a

Commissioner for social development. The new department was then to cater for literacy training, women's groups, youth clubs, and self-help activities in selected rural areas while in urban areas more emphasis was placed on general adult education. In 1961, the year in which Tanganyika became independent, the department was transformed into a national organization and re-designated Community Development Division.

Note must be taken, however, of the fact that the kind of adult education that was provided was limited in scope, content and organizational structure. The main focus was on eradication of illiteracy in rural areas and organization of evening courses for the town dwellers. The organization of adult education, moreover, was left over mainly to the voluntary agencies, while the State Department of Education played only a limited role. Above all, there was no concerted and consistent effort to show how adult education in the form of literacy training could be part and parcel of the overall community and national development strategy. Likewise, although there was a limited attempt to provide some education and training to the workers in the factories, industries and other work places, workers' education, was designed and organized as an *ad hoc* activity for which there was no clearly stated policy.

The Early Independence Era: Africanization and Nation Building

At the time of regaining political independence in 1961, adult illiteracy rate in the country was as high as 75 percent (Mpogolo, 1985). It came to be realized by both the ruling party and the government that no meaningful development would be achieved by relying on such a largely illiterate population, let alone the fact that education was a basic human right. Adult education was needed in creating a reservoir of trained (African) personnel

to man the positions left vacant by the colonialists, consolidate national unity, and strengthen the instruments of the state.

A ministry of Community Development and National Culture was established and given the responsibility of mobilizing the masses for social and economic progress. The community development workers, operating as change agents, organized literacy classes, women's groups as well as self-help projects such as construction of feeder roads, wells, latrines, dispensaries and classrooms. By January, 31, 1965, there were 7,257 literacy classes with a total enrolment of 541,348 adult learners. There were also 440 follow-up classes in English and Arithmetic, with a total enrolment of 14,043 adult learners as well as 1,914 women's groups pursuing cookery, sewing, embroidery, child care, etc. with a total enrolment of 112,739 (Mpogolo, 1985, p. 19).

However, although adult education was considered by the ruling party and the government to be an integral part of the country's development strategy, and some adult education programmes were started or expanded in different parts of the country, there was not yet either a clearly defined national ideology or a well-articulated adult education policy. Government funds allocated to adult education did not reflect the importance that was being attached to it. The quality of the literacy training process inside the literacy classes left much to be desired. The community development staff-cum-literacy workers, partly due to lack of proper training in adult education and suitable reading materials, adopted a very paternalistic attitude and approach to handling adults in the literacy classes (Mlekwa, 1990, p.119).

All these factors had some negative consequences on adult learners' motivation to enroll and attend literacy classes. According to King (1967) attendance rates in the literacy classes ranged from 79 percent down to 11 percent. In most districts, and in most months, it was only about 25 percent. The problem was

further compounded by adult learners' perceptions of the utility of literacy skills. While for the government workers to conduct adult literacy training was to engage in a nationalistic undertaking, for many adult learners it was to engage in an activity best suited for children (Mlekwa, 1990).

Arusha Declaration and After: Coordination, Participation and Political will

Following the Arusha Declaration on socialism and self-reliance in 1967, the role of adult education in development was even more appreciated. It was first explained in the Second Five Year Development Plan (1964 – 1974), and later on elaborated on in Mwalimu Nyerere's "Adult Education Year" speech (1969), the 15th and 16th TANU Biennial Conferences (1971 and 1973 respectively) and the Prime Minister's Directive on Workers Education (1973). The Second Five-year Development Plan pointed out that adult education would be geared toward improving people's standard of living in rural areas:

The main emphasis in adult education in this plan period will be on rural development. It will include simple training in agricultural techniques and craftsmanship, health education, housecraft, simple economics and accounting, and education in politics and the responsibilities of the citizen (URT, 1970, p. 12).

The main organizing responsibility was given to the primary school which would operate as a community education centre at which the provision of primary education would only be one function. In addition to their regular duties of teaching children, primary school teachers were also required to teach adult literacy classes. Various ministries and organizations offering instruction in different subjects related to development were asked to cooperate in adult education activities and provision was made for

the establishment of a National Correspondence Institute to cater for Second chance learning throughout the country.

The contribution of adult education to development was re-emphasized in Mwalimu Nyerere's Adult Education year speech, on 31 December, 1969. Asking the nation to make 1970 a special year for adult education, he said:

Although there has been a lot of talk about education for adults, and quite a lot of people have been working in this field, we have never yet really organized ourselves for a major attack on our ignorance. The Central Committee of TANU has decided that we must do this in 1970. The coming twelve months must be Adult Education year and we must give this work very high priority (In *Freedom and Development*, 1973, p. 137)

Specifying the aims and objectives of adult education in Tanzania, he emphasised the point raised in the Second Five Year Development Plan, that adult education should be oriented towards improving the quality of life of the peasants and workers enabling them to build better houses, to use better tools in order to raise agricultural and industrial productivity, and to improve their health through employing modern methods of hygiene. Furthermore, adult education ought to help in changing people's attitudes towards themselves, their fellow human beings, and their own cultural milieu, while also enabling them to understand national economic development plans so that they can play their part in making them a success for the benefit of all.

One year later, the 15th TANU Biennial Conference (1971) directed that all plans be made to eradicate illiteracy within four years (Resolution 22) and that education should be integrated with work throughout the country (Resolution 21). Later on, in 1973, the 16th

TANU Biennial Conference called upon all leaders to make adult education work a priority, seeing to it that all programmes were implemented as planned (Resolution 27).

In the same year (1973) the Prime Minister's Office issued a Directive on Workers' Education, calling upon all work places to design education and training programmes for their workers of all levels, to allow them engage in educational activities at least for one hour each day, and to set aside a special budget for workers' education activities.

The main objectives of adult education in the post – Arusha Declaration period, therefore, included eradication of illiteracy and creation of a basic foundation upon which each one could continue to search for more knowledge and skills to enable them function effectively in society (social rationale); improvement of vocational and professional competence of peasants and workers to help them raise their capacity to ameliorate their lives and contribute to national economic development (economic rationale); and raising the general level of awareness of the citizenry regarding local, national and international issues so that they could become more effective participants in the political and democratic processes (political rationale). The objectives were plausible and, if implemented fully, the lives of the people would be greatly improved.

Since mid – 1969 the Ministry of Education was given the official responsibility of initiating, organizing, coordinating and administering adult education activities in the country through its network of educational institutions spread out throughout the country. Within the Ministry of Education itself a Directorate (later renamed Department) of Adult Education was created to cater for planning, finance, research, evaluation, radio education programmes, curriculum development, book production and

distribution, and all other matters pertaining to adult education.

In the regions, the regional education officers were required to administer adult education activities in their regions, and to send monthly progress reports to the national headquarters. In doing so, they were assisted by adult education coordinators who were appointed and attached to the regional education officers. The same administrative structure was created at the district level where an adult education coordinator was appointed to assist the district education officer in all adult education work in the district. At ward level, a head teacher of one of the primary schools was made a coordinator of adult education activities in the ward.

To render support to the adult education personnel, and to create avenues for participation, a national advisory committee on adult education and similar committees at regional, district, ward, village down to literacy class level were established. The committees comprised of party leaders, government officials, heads of parastatal organizations, leaders of voluntary organizations, and adult learners' representatives. The administrative and organizational structure of adult education in Tanzania, therefore, had a dual character namely, provision for central direction and people's participation from the grassroots (class) level to the national level. The Ministry of Education headquarters provided the central direction to the campaign while the National Literacy Centre located in Mwanza was responsible for rendering technical assistance in training, designing instructional materials, field organization and evaluation. The recruitment of volunteer teachers, distribution of materials and establishment of coordination and advisory committees were handled by the regions, districts and wards. In all the different, but interrelated phases of the literacy campaign, primers based on the economic preoccupations of the adult learners were used together with two other primers on better family care and political education. The primers utilised the

eclectic method of language instruction and were written through writers' workshops.

All the teaching/learning resources – primers, teachers' guides, equipment and other materials for demonstration projects, pencils, exercise books and spectacles for those with poor eyesight – were provided at no user cost. Other costs included those on administration, transport, personnel emoluments, printing, seminars and training, purchasing of radio sets, tape recorders, cinema vans, establishment of rural libraries, rural newspapers and work oriented projects. Every year the government allocated not less than ten percent of the total budget of the Ministry of Education for adult education. The total annual recurrent expenditure continued to rise in the period 1969/70 to 1979/80. There was also a good amount of financial assistance from UNESCO/UNDP, Sweden, China, USSR, West Germany, India, Japan, Canada, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway and German Democratic Republic (Mpogolo, 1980 b).

Adult literacy teachers were recruited from all possible sources, the majority of whom were volunteers followed by professionals, particularly primary school teachers. These two categories of literacy teachers had some limitations in handling adult learners. While the professional teachers did not have adequate training in adult psychology or adult education methods, many volunteers were too young to handle adult learners while their level of education was too low to manage effective teaching (Ishumi & Anangisye, 2014, p.139). Nevertheless, they all made invaluable contribution to fighting against illiteracy in the Country.

By 1986, more than six million adult illiterates (25% of the entire population) had been enrolled in literacy classes. Of these, 2,866,864 were men and 3,445,424 were women. Illiteracy rate was reduced from 67 percent in 1967 to 39 percent in 1975 (Kassam, 1978, p. 68) and to only 9.6 percent in 1986. However,

illiteracy rate remained higher for women than for men. This was partly due to the social division of labour. Women had so many responsibilities in the home that they were left with very little time for study. Literacy classes in most cases were conducted in the afternoon, when women were either coming from the fields (cultivation or harvesting) or when they had to prepare meals for husbands and children returning from work or visiting and from school, respectively.

In addition, mass education campaigns, utilizing prepared study guides, radio programmes and group discussions, were initiated to address specific social, economic, political and cultural problems. These mass education campaigns were popularly known as *Kupanga ni Kuchagua* (To Plan is to Choose, 1969); *Uchaguzi ni Wako* (The Choice is Yours, 1971); *Mtu ni Afya* (Man is Health, 1973); *Chakula ni Uhai* (Food is Life, 1975); and *Misitu ni Mali* (Forests are Wealth, 1980).

While all these campaigns made important contributions to the development of adult education and literacy training in Tanzania, virtually all suffered a number of setbacks. They were constrained, among other things, by inadequate supply and or poor distribution of the required materials and equipment, coupled with lack of competent personnel to manage them, particularly in the case of rural libraries. The mass education campaigns were also adversely affected by the problem of distribution of materials, as well as lack of adequate feedback and follow - up of learning. Nevertheless, they were quite an innovative feature in the “Adult Education Revolution” in Tanzania.

1980s Economic Crisis: Economic Liberalization and Political Democratization

Starting from the early 1980s, Tanzania experienced a severe economic crisis never witnessed before. Following the general recession, the Western nations became overly cautious about

granting foreign aid to Third World countries especially if it was not directly tied to their own military and other strategic interests. Tanzania's domestic policies were subjected to intense international criticism spearheaded by the United States arguing for free enterprise and austerity measures advocated by the IMF as necessary prerequisites for balance of payment assistance. In 1983, the United States invoked a special amendment to its aid legislation which allowed for total withdrawal of all foreign aid to Tanzania.

In response, the Tanzanian government formulated and adopted the National Economic Survival Programme (NESP) in 1982, followed by the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1983/84. Among other things, the SAP sought to, first, restructure future economic activities through providing better incentives, revising priorities in government spending and achieving a more sustainable external balance of payment. Second, it aimed at rationalizing production structures to achieve increased capacity, to improve human power utilization and to reduce unproductive undertakings. Third, it was geared at improving planning and control mechanisms through more effective budgeting, monitoring, evaluation and enforcing of priorities.

After negotiations with the IMF, the government launched, in June 1986, a three year Economic Recovery Programme (ERP), as an intensification of SAP. The principal objectives were to increase output, especially in agriculture and industry, to rehabilitate the physical infrastructures and restore external balances. The main objectives of ERP were, first, to sustain action to eliminate the devaluation of the Tanzania Shilling; second, to reduce price controls, improve foreign exchange allocation to reform trade policies and, third, to improve the performance of the main sectors beginning with a sharp increase in official producer prices for the main export crops.

Given the worsening economic conditions, the Tanzanian government began to reconsider its distributive policies including education. Education which constituted about 12 percent of the total recurrent budget in 1981/82 was allocated only six percent of the recurrent budget in the period 1985/86 - 1989/90 (Buchert, 1994:148). Adult illiteracy rate which by 1984 was only 10 percent, gradually rose to the region of 20-30 percent in 1992 and further up to 32.2 percent (20.6 and 43.2 percent for men and women respectively) in 1995 (Brock-Utne, 2000 p. 26). Contributing factors for the steady increase in adult illiteracy rate included higher drop-out rate from primary schools, the shifting of support to the post-literacy level by international donors resulting from paying more attention to quality rather than equality in education, and intensification of the economic crisis forcing the stakeholders, particularly adult learners, to reconsider their social and economic priorities.

A more work-oriented post-literacy curriculum comprising three stages (elementary, intermediate and advanced) was introduced in 1987. Each student was required to enroll in one of four biases, namely agriculture, technical crafts, domestic science or workers' education (office work or industrial work). These post-literacy programmes, however, were themselves adversely affected by the economic crisis, particularly those which were dependent on foreign capital such as film education through mobile film vans.

Various initiatives, however, have been made by the Tanzanian government to address the problems constraining the provision of education in the country. In 1995, for example, the Ministry of Education and Culture issued the Education and Training Policy (ETP) focusing on expansion of education and training, promotion of access and equity, and decentralization of education and training by empowering regions, districts, communities and educational institutions to manage and administer education and training.

In order to open up more educational opportunities for children and adults outside the formal education system, two innovative basic education programmes have been initiated namely Complementary Basic Education (COBET) and Integrated Community-Based Adult Education Programme (ICBAE). COBET was introduced as an interim measure geared at enabling children of the age 10 – 18 years acquire competences in reading, writing, numeracy as well as life and survival skills. The major concern was to provide the out of school children with quality basic education, in the shortest time possible, and even pave the way for them to (re)enter the mainstream formal education system. The programme has already demonstrated tremendous potential to eradicate illiteracy among the young adults and promote the achievement of the EFA target.

ICBAE, on the other hand, was designed to increase access to quality and sustainable basic education for adults and out-of-school youths in the country. The programme is informed by community-based adult education pilot projects (1992-1997) carried out in four wards – Kishinda (Mwanza), Soni (Tanga), Kiroka (Morogoro), and Sembeti (Tanga) – with technical and financial support from the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) and the Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology (SIAST). Among other things, the programme seeks to increase peoples' participation in decision making (empowerment), to develop a positive attitude towards implementation of literacy and other development projects based on their own needs and aspirations (ownership), and to sustain these development endeavours utilizing locally available resources (sustainability). Following the relatively successful implementation of the pilot projects in the four wards, the government's objective was to expand the ICBAE programme to cover 2348 wards with an average enrolment of 6.3 million adults by the year 2003.

Conclusion and Way Forward

Many features have characterized adult education policy and practice in Tanzania. In the colonial period it was Christian missionaries who played a greater role in adult education compared to the colonial government. In the post-colonial period, particularly after the Arusha Declaration, the government became the prime mover demonstrating political will and resolve to combat illiteracy and ignorance thereby paving the way to individual and societal development.

An administrative and organizational structure was created to ensure coordination of adult education programmes and activities as well as to facilitate people's participation and involvement. Adult education coordinators were appointed at all levels of administration and adult education committees were established from the national to the grassroots (class) level.

Another unique feature of adult education in Tanzania was the organization of functional literacy classes throughout the country. The classes were located in various places including primary schools, health centres, religious buildings, cooperative buildings, individual homes, and even in the open under the trees. Thousands of teachers were recruited from different occupations, from government and non-governmental organizations as well as young volunteers from the village, to assist in teaching literacy classes without or with only little honoraria. Teaching and learning primers (textbooks) written in writers' workshops, focused on the major crops grown in different parts of the country such as cotton, bananas, tobacco, maize, rice, cashew nuts, coconuts and wheat. Others were on home economics, fishing, cattle and civic education (Mlekwa, 1995, p. 39).

Supporting programmes were initiated to provide more learning opportunities to people throughout the country. The programmes included rural libraries, rural newspapers, radio education

programmes, film education, correspondence studies, folk development college studies, and vocational training courses. In addition, mass education campaigns utilizing prepared study guides, radio programmes and group discussions were introduced to address specific economic, social, political and cultural problems.

What emerges from this descriptive – analysis of adult education in Tanzania seems to suggest that the whole nation was mobilised for adult learning. Admittedly, there were some shortcomings in implementing various adult education programmes and activities, and some of them have been pointed out in the chapter. One should not forget, however, that great effort was made to fight against illiteracy and ignorance. Reduction of illiteracy rate from 67 percent in 1967 to 39 percent in 1975 and to only 9.6 percent in 1986 was a great achievement worth remembering.

It would be unfortunate if such achievements were given only minimal attention. Tanzanians and other colleagues from the international community, who worked so hard to ensure the *Adult Education Revolution* takes off and is sustained, would be very disappointed. In this regard, and given the fact that half a century has elapsed since the Adult Education Year, 1970, it is recommended that a national literacy census be undertaken to find out the current literacy status in the country so that appropriate interventions may be taken.

In light of the 1973 Prime Minister's Directive on Workers' Education in work places, continuing education programmes need to be developed and conducted in all work places to give an opportunity to the workers to fill in the existing knowledge gaps and equip them with new skills needed in the building of an industrial economy which the country has embarked on. The Prime Minister's Directive may need to be revised following the unfolding economic, social, and political milieu.

The mass education or radio-study group campaigns should also be revived. These programmes were a very innovative way of educating the masses on pertinent economic, political, and cultural issues of national concern. They were well designed, organized and publicized through various media. One could even say that the country became a classroom and the whole nation a learning group.

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Chapter Three

Fundamental Managerial Dimensions of Non-Formal Education Programmes and their Dynamics in Tanzania

● — GENNES HENDRY SHIRIMA — ●

Introduction

Progressive countries strive to promote and strengthen non-formal education (NFE) to broaden access to learning opportunities and address current development challenges at the individual, national, regional and global levels. The overriding aim is to embrace the concept of “lifelong learning”, which has increasingly become one of the important agendas in both national and international arenas, particularly, as a crucial component of well-being and as a dimension of economic development and quality of life. Irrespective of the ratified global commitments such as Education for All Goals, Millennium Development Goals, and, most recently, the Sustainable Development Goals which have integrated and advanced lifelong learning as an educational policy while prioritising NFE in educational planning and administration discourses, its realisation remains partially and inconsistently evident in practice, particularly in developing countries such as Tanzania. This chapter problematises the need to advance the management of NFE programmes for their well-determined future in the Tanzanian context. Since NFE is diversified in terms of the target groups, providers involved, teaching contents, institutional arrangements, and funding structures, a wide range of its programmes have equally been introduced and implemented, most of which, however, have largely been unsustainable. This situation is attributable to issues of consistency and continuity of the local educational policies which are sometimes turned around

by the external forces, external funding, budget cuts, and even commitment of the stakeholders in supporting those programmes (Bhalalusesa, 2020).

Generally, NFE programmes have significantly changed the socio-economic lives of many unprivileged children, youth and adults. Yet, the institutional capability of the entire NFE system in Tanzania, as another crucial element for programmes' success, has never been strengthened enough, which poses a significant challenge to the effective management of NFE institutions and their respective programmes as it is in many other developing countries. The sub-sector, for instance, criss-crosses two ministries: That of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST), and that of the President's Office-Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG) without its full-fledged and accountable administrative unit at the headquarters. Additionally, despite being affirmed to be fundamental to creating a workable NFE system, effecting significant changes and ensuring the sustainability of its programmes, the administrative aspects of policy planning, allocation of significant funds, and co-ordination of programmes' activities have been underestimated, neglected and put on the back burner for so long (Bhalalusesa, 2020; Hendry, 2020). Consequently, its respective programmes have not been reflected in recent education budgets of the two ministries, with co-ordination of its activities at the national level remaining largely uncertain.

The aforementioned situation is coupled with other outcomes whereby planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the NFE programmes' activities end up largely abandoned to lower-level institutions such the Institute of Adult Education (Bhalalusesa, 2020), as well as individual actors and providers, who cannot assume the exact responsibilities of the ministry across the country. In consequence, there have been many dynamics

and inconsistencies in offering and managing NFE programmes in the country, their prospects detected as unpromising, and their general performance in terms of enrolment, retention, and learning achievement being consistently in decline (Hendry, 2020; URT, 2013). Evidently, without eloquent and systematic efforts aimed to address the NFE management deviations for improved programmes, the global goal of achieving economic development and quality of life through different forms of education would remain elusive. Thus, it is crucial to examine the fundamental managerial dimensions of NFE programmes to determine the areas of deviation and destination of those programmes in the country. Indeed, the managerial aspects—programme planning, institutional organisation and linkage, co-ordination of NFE programmes' activities, and quality management—are analysed, from which, a benchmark for managing NFE practices in a more efficient way can be drawn, and solutions to several challenges facing NFE programmes which have been rising and falling in the country, can be traced.

Conceptualization of NFE and Diversity of its Programmes in Tanzania

NFE is generally mirrored as any organised and systematic educational undertaking conducted outside the formal education system to provide selected types of learning to sub-groups in the population as an alternative to formal schooling. Its graduates may opt to work or continue with further education. From a pragmatic point-of-view, it constitutes a remedy to and a means for addressing inadequacies of the formal education system by providing and updating knowledge and skills that enable the population to gain access to socio-economic, cultural and political possibilities (Hussain & Haladu, 2013). In essence, this domain provides several learning opportunities for youth and adults, which fall under the broad field of adult education. In the Tanzania

context, adult and non-formal education (AE/NFE) form a single sub-sector which covers a wide range of programmes that include:

- i. *Literacy programmes* aimed to enhance the provision of literacy skills to adults in the country, such as the “Yes I Can” literacy programme;
- ii. *Post-literacy programmes* are structured to provide knowledge, skills and attitudes required for socio-economic and political participation in addition to consolidating the literacy skills obtained. Programmes such as the Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE) link with various forms of life skills and income generating activities whereby learners participate in developing curricula and study materials;
- iii. *Basic education for out-of-school children and youth programmes* aimed to provide education to all out-of-school children and youth as their basic right. A good example is the Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (CoBET), which provides primary education for those who missed out; and
- iv. *Continuing education*, which includes a range of programmes such as open schools, evening classes and other academic and professional courses offered by different public and private institutions through open and distance learning (ODL). ODL assists offering a para-formal education, particularly secondary education, to out-of-school children, youth and adults, as well as enhancing academic and professional skills for workers.

Although under the modern theory of categorisation, the NFE cannot be treated as discrete from other forms (formal and informal) as they all operate in an integrated and collaborative manner within the broad field of adult education, the range of its programmes, its organisation and operation, providers involved and the potential clientele targeted may necessitate to treat it separately in the current discussion. In addition, NFE and its programmes have diverse and

contextual meanings that have been attached to them over time and space. As such, it is imperative to delimit it from other contexts. Thus, considering the different forms of AE/NFE programmes in Tanzania, which need proper management for their long lasting, NFE in the current context is a form of education provision for out-of-school youth and adults who, for one reason or another had missed out, failed or dropped out of the formal education system, and also as a continuation of the formal schooling for those in need of further training. Therefore, it constitutes an alternative learning to the formal system as a stand-alone approach, with a flexible structure that allows for different points of entry and exit, re-entry and re-exit. This operational definition gives direction to, and draws the limits of what specific NFE programmes are addressed in this discussion. They include the complementary basic education in Tanzania (CoBET) as a main NFE programme that provides primary education for those who missed out, and open schools (also referred to as non-formal secondary education) under the open and distance learning (ODL) mode. From a management perspectives, these programmes amount to innovations from both public and private providers as discussed in the later sub-sections.

Why is NFE a Necessary and Quick Intervention?

The relationship between NFE as one way of building a learning society and its influence in different development dimensions is approachable from different angles. From the economic perspective, the main rationale for NFE is the creation of human capital, which is highly significant for economic growth. Arguably, the role of NFE transcends the socio-economic spheres to include a political dimension since there is a strong link between adult learning and democracy (Hussain & Haladu, 2013). Moreover, it helps to address the global environmental challenges. Collectively, the need and necessity of NFE is generally determined by its array of socio-economic, environmental and political impacts. There is a mix

of contemporary pressures that make NFE a necessary and quick intervention thusly:

- i. Changing social structures, widening gaps between North and South, competitive labour market and increasing global challenges which can only be addressed through education;
- ii. Increasing social roles of individuals, groups and organisations;
- iii. Rapid economic progress whereby knowledge and information are becoming foundational for modern economy;
- iv. Rapid environment changes which hinder sustainability of human development;
- v. Increasing challenges of work and unemployment;
- vi. Increasing opportunities and dangers of scientific and technological progress which require more sophisticated skills and knowledge;
- vii. The need to upgrade professional skills to increase personal value at work.

As these socio-economic and political environments demand a highly educated workforce, underscore the necessity of NFE as one component of human resource development. Empirical findings suggest further that due to the changes in socio-economic structures, NFE has become more valuable as its contribution to development constitutes a means for reaching most of the poor and empowering them control their lives and fight against oppressive social relations (UIS, 2015). The author also affirms the usefulness of NFE in reaching out to millions of unschooled children, youth and adults and other marginalised and deprived segments of the modern society. In addition, scientific reports in international discourses underscore the fact that NFE programmes play a crucial role in providing second-chance education for out-of-school youths in addition to expanding learning opportunities to areas outside the formal public school system. These facts suggest that NFE programmes are crucial and,

thus, require a special address in the educational policy coupled with proper management of their practices to ensure their sustainability, a propelling motive to embark on the current debate.

Formal Guidelines for Managing NFE Programmes and their Operation

To achieve the goal of universal education as several international agreements demand, Tanzania's current education and training policy and its respective education sector development plan have embraced alternative approaches to providing education to children, youth and adults. In fact, AE/NFE sector development plans established since 2003 have strived to guide and provide frameworks for collaboration, co-ordination and investment in AE/NFE while complementing other parallel plans for basic education aimed to address the backlog of out-of-school children, youth and illiterate adults (see for instance, URT, 2018). Since the management of educational institutions and success of their programmes largely depend on the policy context (Molle, 2007), the then Ministry of Education and Vocational Training introduced in 2006 specific guidelines for establishing and managing of all AE/NFE programmes in the country (URT, 2006). This commendable initiative was followed by a revived version of guidelines for establishing and registering open schools in 2013, which fall under the same AE/NFE sub-sector (URT, 2013). These initiatives arose against the backdrop of various institutions that had adopted different curricula and syllabi, different delivery modalities, and different approaches to the assessment of AE/NFE programmes in the country due to unregulated environment. Thus, the guidelines as formal policy document provide administrative and management guidance to government departments, agencies and institutions, local government authorities, non-governmental organisations, funding agencies and other stakeholders to enhance the commitment of the providers and beneficiaries (URT, 2006;

2013). Specifically, they aim to facilitate co-ordinated planning and development of a national wide system for AE/NFE, provide management procedures for the establishment, coordination, monitoring, evaluation of AE/NFE centres, and prescribe the basic standards to ensure quality of AE/NFE programmes (ibid.).

Nonetheless, empirical evidence suggests that the functionality of the country's AE/NFE formal guidelines on the ground has largely remained rhetoric. The guidelines are not fully implemented yet, there is significant involvement of the private sector interests (Hendry, 2020).. As a result, there have been ad-hoc developments of NFE programmes as their practices are not well-planned and co-ordinated. Ultimately, programmes such as non-formal secondary education have failed to sustain (ibid.). These evidences have far reaching implications in terms of waging relentless struggle against a larger number of out-of-school children and youth, keeping the sustainability of the programmes at bay. In actuality, the formal guidelines for managing NFE programmes can only be meaningful when they are timely and rightly enforced.

Dimensions and Dynamics of NFE Programmes' Management

Though formal guidelines provide administrative and management guidance to NFE providers and determine the actual NFE practices, managing those practices requires proper institutional arrangements that are vital for the development and sustainability of the programmes, particularly in initiating, implementing, maintaining, and collectively enhancing them. It is, indeed, essential for the co-ordination of all activities and for effective financial and professional support hence, having a profound effect on the sustainable provision of NFE. Thus, there are fundamental managerial dimensions necessary for sustained NFE programmes:

Managing NFE Programmes as Planned Change

NFE programmes offered in the country are, from the management

perspectives, innovations that both public and private providers offer. In management, these efforts refer to processes of effecting change or simply planned change (Fullan, 2007). As such, innovation and planned change are used interchangeably to refer to change in practice by involving a noticeable shift from the existing normative practices or introducing new practices (Everard, Morris & Wilson, 2004). Fullan (2007) presents a theoretical overview of understanding and managing a planned educational change by determining how innovations start and progress to decide their success factors, build innovations, strengthen the capacity of an organisation, and change the entire system to ensure sustainable improvements. The three major phases of planned NFE programmes as innovations in the country and their emerging gaps are, thusly, discussed in the perspectives of Fullan (2007) as follows:

Planned NFE Programmes' Initiation and the Missing Link

The initial phase of a programme involves reaching a decision to introduce an educational innovation. In his theorisation, Fullan (2007) posits that an individual, a social group, or an institution can initiate or promote a programme or show a direction of change because of specific reasons. As mentioned earlier, several NFE programmes have been initiated in the country, leave alone the level of their achievements. The reasons for their initiation as a change process are basically multiple; however, “the alleged failure of education to prepare young people for working life and the erosion of the country’s capacity to afford escalating public expenditure” stand out (Everard et al., 2004, p. 237). Population trends, socio-economic changes, and stakeholders’ demands also emerge as other reasons catalysing changes in the field of adult education (Nafukho, Wawire & Lam, 2011). As change in practice may occur at any level of the education system, NFE actors—institutions and individuals—are agents of change when it comes to introducing and/or implementing NFE programmes.

Nevertheless, there is a need for further initiation of compliant policy guidelines to formalise the innovations and make them fully functional. As in this discussion has revealed, these policy guidelines are in place largely as rhetoric without being backed up with tangible actions. This missing link has caused an abrupt rise and fall of many NFE programmes. In this regard, Mwaikokesya and Mushi (2017) have called for a simplified AE/NFE sub-sector version of policy for engendering proper guidance of practices aimed to enhance effective provision of adult learning opportunities in the country.

Despite the fact that some of the NFE programmes such as CoBET, open schools, integrated community-based adult education (ICBAE) and integrated post-primary education (IPPE) are well-designed and introduced in the country, extant literature has repeatedly that most of them are largely probabilistic from their onset as they lack reasonable financial and administrative support (Bhalalusesa, 2020; Hendry, 2020). Furthermore, inadequate consultation with the programmes' target groups has been another critical problem undermining some of the NFE innovations due to their late co-option during the implementation phase (Mwaikokesya & Mushi, 2017). This backlog has, consequently, compromised programmes implementation at the second phase, all too often leads to unsustainable programmes. Overall, the far-reaching effect of this missing link between initiation and implementation phases in planning for change and managing NFE programmes seems to curtail efforts of the widening learning access among out-of-school youth and adults for their socio-economic change.

Planned NFE Programmes' Implementation and the Missing Support

Programme implementation is a process of moving forward the decisions reached at initiation stage, whereby an attempt to put

NFE innovation into practice follows (Fullan, 2007). This is a critical stage in accomplishing the desired programmes' objectives, as initiation and implementation processes constitute a loosely coupled mutual relationship. For the process to be effective, according to Fullan, it relies on the characteristics of change such as priorities and clarity about goals and means; the complexity of change in terms of sophisticated array of activities, structures and strategies for implementation; quality and the practicality of the programme; and the leadership and support provided by the central administration beyond an institution or programme (ibid.). The overriding goal is to do away with political expediency and ensuring quality by making right decisions to ensure programme feasibility. Arguably however, NFE innovations are implemented in different and specific contexts hence, influenced by specific local factors. Apparently thus, local factors such as the uniqueness of the programme, the target population and even the knowledge of actors involved in the implementation process make a significant difference altogether towards success or failure of the programme.

Practical experience, however, suggests that the governmental agencies across different NFE institutional levels have largely been preoccupied with policy and programme initiation while underestimating the complexity of the implementation process. On the one hand, there are well-articulated NFE priorities and targets, as well as clarity of goals and means for offering different learning experiences through NFE programmes in the country as key characteristics of change process (URT, 2018). On the other hand, there are failures in allocating NFE budgets, or those earmarked for such endeavours have been downsized or diverted to other sub-sectors. In the meantime, external funding, usually the fall-back guy, is not guaranteed, and co-ordination of different programmes' activities has been quite uncertain (cf. Bhalalusesa, 2020). Altogether these factors have adversely affected the programmes'

implementation and their sustainability. The underlying evidence affirms the argument that most of these programmes tend to falter during implementation due to either financial constraints or pressure exerted by economic and political forces. Since there are reciprocal ties between initiation and implementation, which also affect the programmes' sustainability, the fundamental question in this regard remains on how firmly the NFE is embedded within the institutional framework to garner support from the central administration for its sustainable implementation to accomplish the perceived learning needs of youth and adults. Consequently, all NFE stakeholders have a role to play. In fact, an analysis of these managerial aspects may shed further light on the practical execution of NFE programmes, hence forming another crucial terrain worth discussing in the subsequent sections.

Planned NFE Programmes' Continuation and the Missing Continuum

This is institutionalization or sustainability stage which attempts to witness the integration of educational innovations (programmes) in the education system. In this case, the programmes are sustained beyond their beginnings (Fullan, 2007). The former two phases determine, to a large extent, the realisation of this phase as they all function in a continuum. Thus, continuation depends on whether programmes get embedded in the structures through planning, policies and budgets; whether change has acquired critical support of the administrators and other key players during implementation; and whether well-established procedures for continuation assistance such as trained planners are in place to keep the innovation going (Fullan, 2007).

Drawing from the real dynamics of the planning NFE programmes for change as discussed in the first two phases of educational change process, which are linked to the third phase in a mutual relationship, NFE programmes in the county are less likely to be

sustainable. It has been scientifically tested, for instance, that some of the NFE programmes such as non-formal secondary education are insufficiently integrated into the education institutional framework, lacking an accountable organisational structure and critical administrative support (Hendry, 2020). Impliedly, the proper planning for the NFE programmes from their initiation to implementation stage has emerged as a missing link in this continuum, which has consequently led to the burgeoning of several uncontrolled shadow-NFE providers in the black market. In consequence, many NFE programmes have largely been ad-hoc in their implementation.

NFE Organisational Structure and its Complexity

Apart from the phases of NFE programmes as planned change, successful implementation and sustained NFE programmes as envisioned in the country's policies, strategies and plans depend, in large measure, on coherent and interactive established organisational structure within the NFE institutional framework as one of the key managerial dimensions. Such an arrangement is a critical option in planning and implementing NFE programmes. Its rationale is associated with the structuring and organisation of the education system, which significantly affects the implementation of educational plans and programmes (Mosha, 2006). The organisational structure refers to a pattern of interwoven and simultaneous relationships through which people, under the direction of managers, pursue established common goals (Mullins, 2010). In NFE institutions, this organisational structure refers to the administrative network within an institution, which involves positions and people, who occupy them, the organs that make policies, and the procedures that guide operations (Mosha, 2006). In this regard, NFE institutions have organisational structures which are formal patterns of relationships between and among people and units. In principle, the organisational structure assigns roles and responsibilities to agencies and institutions engaged in service

Organization Chart for Implementation of AE/ NFE

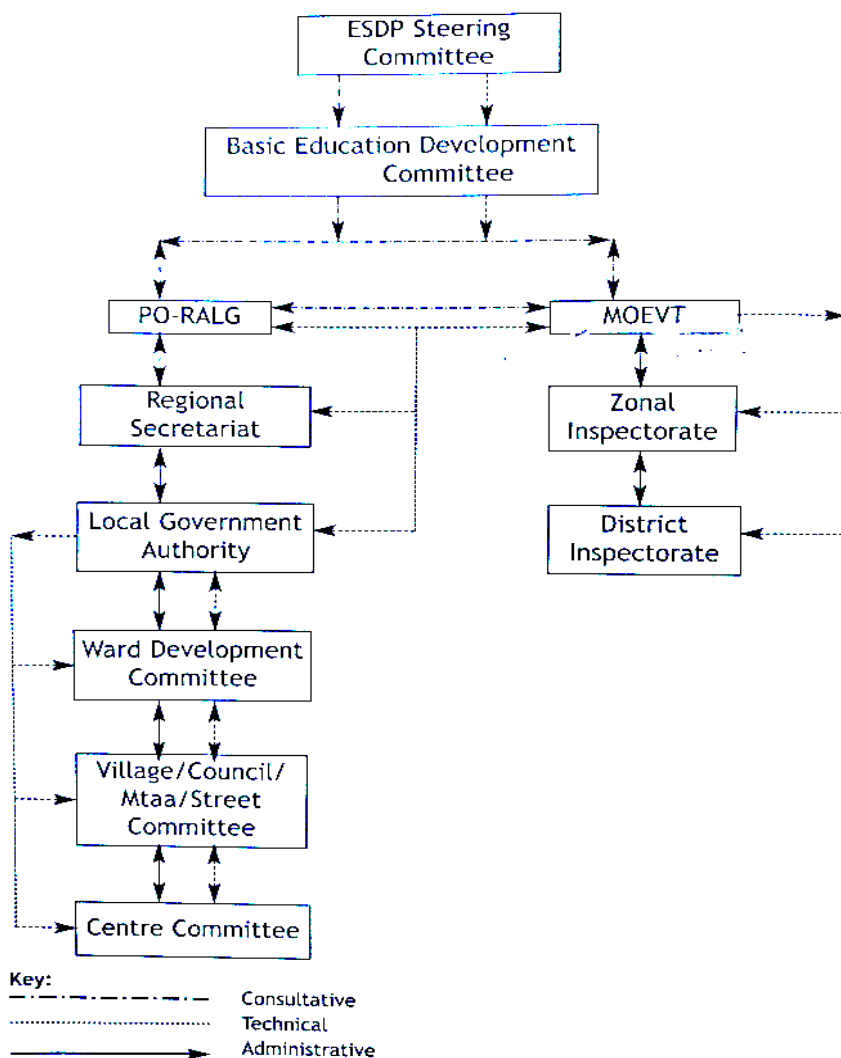


Figure 1. *Organisational chart for implementing AE/NFE programmes*

Source: URT (2006).

As Figure 1 illustrates, this general AE/NFE administrative structure—as empirical evidence suggests—has hitherto posed significant challenges to the effective management of NFE institutions and programmes in Tanzania; and has largely failed to facilitate the delivery of NFE despite several attempts aimed to improve it (Hendry, 2020). In fact, this structure is too inflexible to accommodate specific activities of different NFE programmes, let alone link all the parties from the grassroots level during the actual governance. Implicitly, the NFE programmes are ostensibly in the hands of two different ministries, which happen to have parallel reporting systems that make the organisational structure somewhat too complex to operate (*ibid.*). To compound the problem, the element of the IAE serving as a semi-autonomous institution mandated to design, institute and manage innovative NFE programmes in the country is not incorporated in this structure although it is actively functioning. Consequently, it has been difficult to identify NFE actors, areas of located authorities, and responsibilities for accountability. Meanwhile, programmes are rampantly offered in the black market outside the government control (Hendry, 2020). This organisational structure is not sufficiently functional, hence resulting in chaotic implementation of NFE programmes, which in turn undermines their sustainability. This ineffective management has been tested to affirm that it is one of the critical challenges to strengthening institutional capabilities of the most education systems in developing countries. Thus, the situation calls for a more integrated and simplified NFE organisational structure but which is robust enough to engender proper NFE programmes' implementation.

Integrated NFE Organizational Structure and its Interconnectedness

Although the implementation of NFE programmes, which involves various actors from multiple institutions responsible for

diverse roles requiring a well-established organisational structure, different schools of thought in institutional management offer varying perspectives on how to establish such a structure. The classical approach (scientific management and bureaucracy) for example, emphasises on a pre-determined formal structure and hierarchy of responsibilities (Mullins, 2010). On the other hand, the perspective of contingency approach precludes the existence of one best, universal form of organisation and, instead, advocates considering many situational factors that, in effect, could influence organisational performance (Mullins, 2010).

Thus, the adoption of any of these frameworks depends on the context for its application. To begin with, there is a need to consider the nature of NFE activities in organising, executing and co-coordinating NFE-related activities as they require a more flexible organisational structure that allows for permeability and interaction among different units to avoid often conflicting, overlapping and duplication of functions between and among different units in the system. In this regard, NFE planners and policymakers need to focus on establishing a coherent, interactive and flexible organisational structure to make programmes rightly done and sustainable. The subsequent Figure 2 presents an integrated organisational structure, which is recommended for addressing the complexities that Figure 1 has threshed out by establishing strong and direct linkages between and among all the parties involved in managing NFE programmes for proper co-ordination of roles and responsibilities across the ministries and their respective low

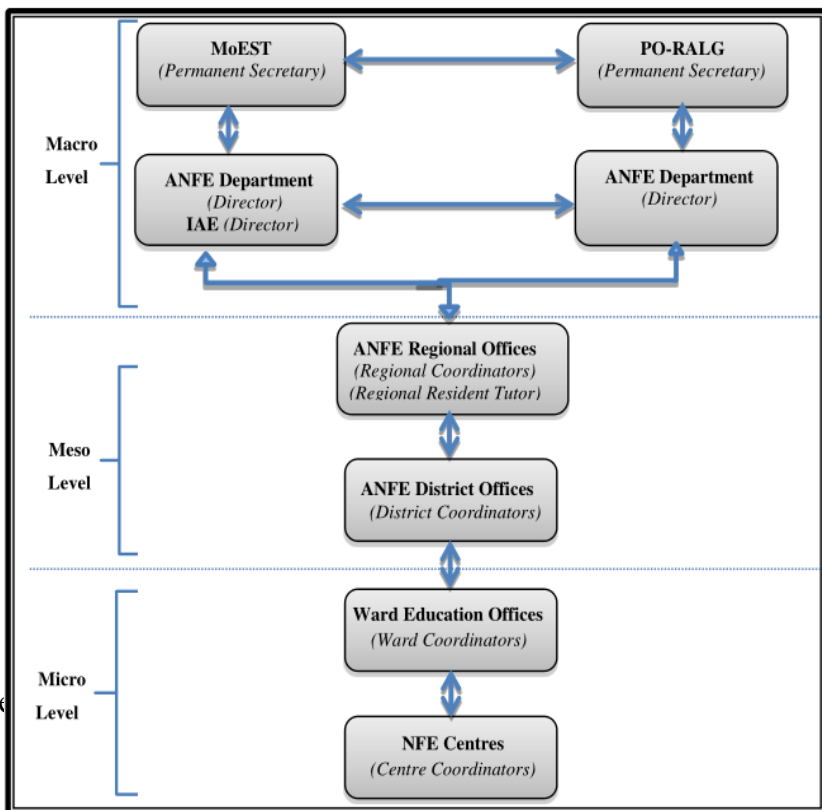


Figure 2: *Recommended organisational structure for managing NFE programmes*

Given the diverse mandates of the MoEST and its semi-autonomous IAE of preparing policy, designing, standardizing, instituting and coordinating innovative non-formal education, on the one hand, and those of the PM-RALG of coordinating, implementation, and offering technical support on AE/NFE programmes which are multifaceted and hosted in two different ministries (URT, 2006), the two parties need to work more interactively to facilitate jointly proper co-ordination. Since such coordination is missing and adversely affecting the co-ordination of other activities

at lower levels, the suggested organisational structure is more interconnected and interactive for improving organisational performance, monitoring the activities of the organisation, accountability in the areas of work, and co-ordination of different parts. Based on the economies of scale and the mandates of each part, the structure would facilitate the use of a reasonable amount and the most appropriate types of resources in running programmes and achieving their set goals. In essence, the suggested structure could let the NFE institutions function efficiently and effectively, hence bringing about connectedness and linkage of all the parts involved while simplifying co-ordination of the programmes' activities across different operational and executional levels. Consequently, the conflicting, overlapping and duplication of functions between and among different units and actors in the system are less likely, hence enhancing the prospect of having sustained NFE programmes.

NFE Actors' Roles across Different Institutional Levels

Managing NFE programmes need translation and execution across NFE institutional levels from the central ministry to the intermediate level of administration, and finally down to the providers at the learning centres in an interactive manner. With reference to the NFE organisational structure as presented in Figure 2, in other words, the parties responsible ought to execute their roles in their hierarchical order, though collaboratively and interactively as visualised hereun

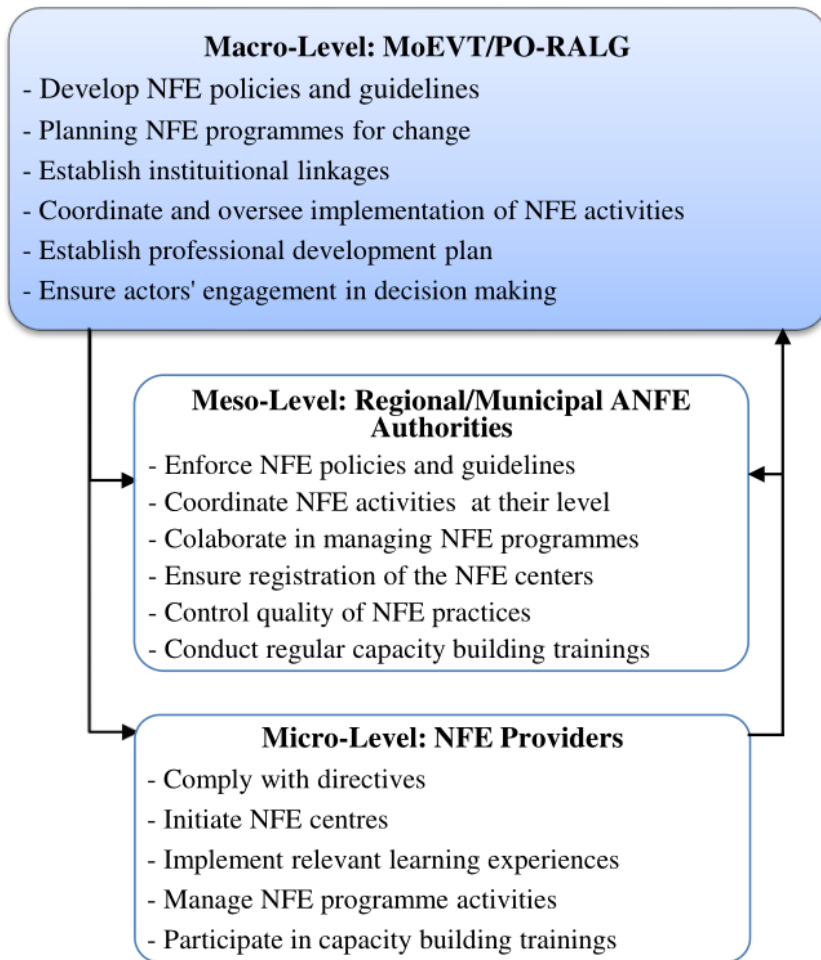


Figure 3. *Multilevel synergy in managing NFE programmes*

Figure 3 suggests that in managing NFE programmes, the top-level management should establish general policies, develop plans in addition to overseeing the proper implementation of the programmes in line with organisational objectives. Specific programme administrators at the intermediate level ought to decide on appropriate procedures for planning, implementing

and managing specific programmes under their jurisdictions whereas programme facilitators at the shop floor need to select and implement relevant learning experiences as provided for under the programme. According to Fullan (2007) however, one of the reasons why programmes are not institutionalized is because actors at the grassroots are usually side-lined in the decision making about change and worse enough they are not equipped with capacities to implement change. Thus, the current structure also proposes the top-level management to establish professional development plans and ensure actors' engagement in decision making, intermediate level conduct regular capacity building trainings and engage the local actors in decision making, while the local actors ought to participate in decision making regarding their programmes and in regular trainings to build the capacity to implement change. The subsequent subsections focus on the extent to which the parties involved are linked across those levels and the way co-ordination of their activities is done in managing the NFE sub-sector and its programmes. However, all these aspects depend on other key managerial dimensions such as institutional arrangements and proper planning of the programmes, which are altogether underpinned by a set of formal policy guidelines as already highlighted.

NFE Institutional Linkages in the Context of Parallel Practices

Proper management of education programmes and, particularly, those of the NFE requires strong institutional linkages primarily because all the systems comprise structures that are represented by entities and sub-units operating in interrelationships (refer figure 2 & 3). Thus, for change to occur in implementing interventions such as NFE programmes, there is a need to strengthen linkage among entities, as well as across levels of the organisation. For openness, the NFE programmes require

even more effective linkages among different sub-systems for harmonious relationships to thrive. As NFE programmes are designed, implemented and managed across different institutional levels (macro, meso and micro as visualised in Figure 2 & 3), their inter-linkage is crucial in ensuring that the core functions of the system are effectively executed and well-coordinated in each domain. Thus, their interactivity is a prerequisite for the implementation of a particular programme to establish permeable connectivity and mutual influence within and across the three levels rather than strive for alignment.

With reference to Figure 1, however, the most recent research findings and practical experience reveal that Tanzania lacks a single, well-integrated and accountable AE/NFE organisational structure to engage interactively and harmoniously all the parties responsible for managing NFE programmes, which inevitably leads to parallel reporting systems and rather fragmented institutional linkages threatening the sustainability of those programmes (Hendry, 2020). Although there has been repeated emphasis on institutional linkage in addressing issues of out-of-school youth and adults in Tanzania's local policies, it remains rather weak and partially realised among adult education institutions within the relevant ministries. Indeed, it is relatively ineffectual and inadequate during application on the ground, which eventually threatens the sustainability of the related programmes. For instance, the inter-ministerial linkage between the MoEST and PO-RALG—the two important cogs in NFE execution—is horizontal, fragmented and unsynchronized at the macro level despite their roles and responsibilities related to NFE being well-defined in the guidelines (Hendry, 2020). In consequence, there have been parallel practices carried out by the institutions responsible in their areas of jurisdictions (Figure 1). Even the linkage between state and non-state actors has never

been strongly established on the ground (ibid.) hence further eroding the operational base. In particular, the NFE system's components have been haphazardly disjointed and poorly organised, hence making the prospects of the programmes bleak. This dire situation has been occasioning serious difficulties in efficient and effective implementation of NFE plans and programmes in many developing countries (Mosha, 2006). Arguably, a well-established organisational structure ought to be in place to serve as a basis for engendering effective institutional linkages in managing NFE programmes for their sustained operations. Despite the fact that NFE programmes are hosted in two different ministries and across institutional levels (Figure 2), facilitators at the grassroots level as key implementers of the programmes ought to fully be part of the programmes—an important aspect of successful programme which has been missing for so long and attributed to failure of many programmes. Thus, to strengthen connectedness and interactivity among actors, mutual relationships across levels that base on strong teamwork and collaborations are crucial.

NFE Programmes' Coordination in the Context of Multiple Actors

Diverse NFE programmes exist in Tanzania and engage different actors. As such, the government must play an extensive tripartite role as NFE provider, manager and regulator whereas non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in their broad range—civil society organisations (CSOs), community-based organisations (CBOs), private institutions and individuals—are key programmes' implementers. Although proper institutional linkages may facilitate co-ordination of the NFE programmes' activities and resources across institutional levels, they further require proper co-ordination. From the general field of management, co-ordination entails harmonisation of all the activities of a concern

to facilitate its working and successfulness to accord actions their rightful proportions, and adapt means to the end. From educational management perspectives, on the other hand, it is primarily like a thread that links different activities and responsibilities, which is essential for the successful implementation of complex policies, plans and programmes (Mosha, 2006). In NFE, therefore, it entails fostering harmonious interaction of functions towards overcoming and envisioning challenges in NFE programmes and, more importantly, in the learning process.

In fact, various government reports in Tanzania acknowledge that NFE programmes have for a long time been operating without having a proper co-ordination mechanism (URT, 2006; 2013). As a result, each provider has been using its own modality for the establishment, curriculum adoption, and assessment of learning achievements, a situation that has apparently undermined effective and uniform implementation of NFE programmes. This anomaly appears linked to limited NFE institutional capacity in the country; as a result, NFE is inadequately organised and its activities occur without proper co-ordination (Hendry, 2020). Indeed, there is an assortment of NGOs and individuals providing NFE in an uncoordinated and largely ineffectual manner, with little or no government control of policy and practice. Though NFE programmes have been soaring in numbers, co-ordination of their activities at different levels, and particularly at the national level has remained largely haphazard and ineffective (Bhalalusesa, 2020). This is reported to be a common practice in Africa, whereby NFE activities tend to fail as they operate without co-ordination within their institutional frameworks due to lack of national co-ordination units coupled with the absence of full-fledged and functional departments in the respective ministries (Hoppers, 2007). Such ineffective co-ordination translates further into inefficiencies and parallel structures

that affect the quality and sustainability of these programmes. Apparently, effective co-ordination is instrumental in ensuring each component engaged in the execution of NFE programmes functions properly to achieve set goals.

Under a panoramic view of systems theory, however, NFE programmes and their activities can, possibly and practically, be co-ordinated when they are well-planned along the country's policy. After all, the NFE is a system of consciously co-ordinated activities of two or more units or persons. Thus, failure to plan clearly for the roles and responsibilities for initiating and managing change as already discussed in previous sections of this chapter makes co-ordination increasingly difficult and even unattainable, which leads to general administrative weaknesses at different levels. Additionally, as various departments and actors are involved in coordinating NFE activities, achieving their common goals is also determined by a well-established organisational structure (Mosha, 2006). Thus, the organisational structure ought to be coherent and accountable enough to establish roles and responsibilities of all the units in their respective institutions for their proper co-ordination within the two ministries of MoEST and PO-RALG (Figure 2). Furthermore, since NFE activities are diverse and cut across different levels in the two ministries, they require full-fledged and functional departments in the two ministries to facilitate jointly proper co-ordination which is indeed revealed to be missing (Hendry, 2020). Such a precarious situation adversely affects the co-ordination of other activities at lower levels and reduces access to NFE, a main reason behind the failure to institute change in the sub-sector, let alone ensure the sustainability of such programmes. Thus, NFE programmes must be effectively co-ordinated to bring about order, harmony and efficiency by streamlining NFE activities into routine and non-routine tasks for their easy and sustainable implementation.

NFE Quality Management in the Context of Diverse Providers

It is a truism of management that the quality of NFE programmes is critical in this era of global competitiveness. The process involves all the potential stakeholders to set jointly quality standards of their practices, particularly in learning to guarantee significant benefits to the learners, providers, and the programme at large. Thus, well-defined and measurable standards ought to outline actors' responsibilities for monitoring and evaluating the desired outcomes of the programmes. Although quality as a process is broad, monitoring and evaluating how NFE programmes and policies are put into practice is important to ensure and control quality in terms of relevance of the curriculum in use, quality of facilitators, quality of infrastructure and facilities, adherence to policy guidelines, and measuring of the qualitative and quantitative achievements of the programme. These aspects of quality management are fundamentally part of sustained programmes; however, the links among NFE programmes and their practices and assessments are often neglected.

Moreover, monitoring and evaluation ought to be periodically done depending on how they are conducted using recognised performance indicators since they aim to measure and assess performance to manage the expected outcomes and accomplish the programmes more effectively. This core function requires all managers across levels to manage the provision of NFE in the context of diverse providers. Thus, in managing quality of NFE programmes, the following key dimensions are imperative:

Establishing Mechanisms to Monitor and Evaluate Performance

Currently, CoBET and ICBAE programmes are reported in official statistics as main programmes constituting the AE/NFE sub-sector in the country (URT, 2018). However, their performance in terms

of enrolment has been dropping drastically (Bhalalusesa, 2020). Moreover, academic performance in other NFE programmes such as non-formal secondary education has also been largely poor with dropout rates remaining alarming (URT, 2018). Although several factors can account for such a dire situation, proper and timely monitoring and evaluation could help to provide useful information, which could be used in overcoming challenges to improve performance of those programmes. The situation, thus, emerges as a clear indicator of improper monitoring and evaluation, which compromises the purpose of monitoring and evaluation whereby stakeholders ought to have timely and relevant information on the on-going programmes for proper decision-making (Nafukho et al., 2011). Consequently, literacy rates, number of out-of-school children, enrolment figures, learning centres and even their overall status remain a source of grave concern, as they affect the present status of AE/NFE sub-sector in the country (Bhalalusesa, 2020). Proper monitoring and evaluation, on the other hand, could have set the NFE sub-sector in Tanzania on a different trajectory, with more positive gains.

Setting Standards and Mechanisms to Monitor and Regulate NFE Providers and Practices

In lifelong learning activities, consideration of policy guidelines affects the programmes while strengthening their governance and management. The promotion of adult education quality and outcomes of the programmes are also determined while controlling informal practices. Despite having the set formal guidelines for regulating and managing NFE practices, as discussed earlier, research indicates that the number of NFE providers in the black market is significantly growing in the country, whose practices are even difficult to co-ordinate and regulate (Hendry, 2020). Though several initiatives have been in place to guide NFE programmes, various NFE providers still adopt different curricula and syllabi,

employ different delivery modalities and approaches to learning assessment (URT, 2006, 2013). This has emerged primarily because monitoring and evaluation efforts to track and hold accountable NFE providers remain confined to a few public NFE programmes and providers though on irregular basis. Arguably further, the situation can somewhat be linked to improper co-ordination of NFE activities in the country as revealed elsewhere in this chapter hence, contributing a significant part to this dilemma. As a result, private providers randomly offer NFE in environments that rarely guarantee the achievement of the learning objectives and outcomes of the programmes (Hendry, 2020). Such a situation does not render credence to the future prospect of the NFE. Since monitoring and evaluation are key dimensions in quality management, their improper conduct, in turn, raises issues of uncertainty and discouragement to the beneficiaries and collaborators.

Conclusion and Way Forward

What lies ahead for sustained NFE programmes is a complex task of strengthening country's NFE administrative machinery to manage rightly all the NFE programmes while meeting providers' and beneficiaries' expectations. This chapter has objectively analysed the fundamental managerial dimensions of NFE and the actual dynamics of managing its programmes. The practices and their underpinning theoretical perspectives uncovered aim to stimulate further discussion in a bid to problematise and understand clearly the managerial complexities of initiating and implementing NFE programmes, particularly in addressing the attendant challenges and meeting the needs of disadvantaged out-of-school children, youth and adults. In cognizance of the contribution of NFE programmes to changing and bettering their socio-economic wellbeing, therefore, it is essential for the programmes to receive the required attention and support from the central administration.

Lack of a single and compartmental institutional structure and its proper linkages for all NFE programmes, lack of proper programme planning and co-ordination, and inadequacies in managing quality of the NFE programmes are main tensions established in this analysis. These tensions can, however, be addressed once the current formal guidelines for managing NFE programmes are reviewed and enforced and the administrative machinery is realigned accordingly to comprehensively accommodate all the NFE programmes and their providers for any NFE future agenda to be actualised in earnest. For the practices to be standardised for their easy management, there is also a need to institute other measures aimed to address the emerging paradoxes and any arising NFE-related shortcomings to redirect the sub-sector to a different trajectory for better results and prospects as well as sustainability. Crucially, NFE programmes need streamlining under full-fledged and functional national AE/NFE departments for their proper co-ordination.

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Chapter Four

Public Financing of Adult and Non-formal Education in Tanzania: Issues and Challenges

● — PHILEMON A. K. MUSHI — ●

Introduction

In this chapter, an attempt is made to examine the state of adult education funding in Tanzania delineating issues and challenges that require government intervention. The chapter is divided into eight sections. Section one explores the concepts of adult education and financing, while section two explores the rationale for financing adult education and policy context. Section three examines international declarations on financing of adult education followed by a discussion on the objectives of financing adult education and forms of adult learning in Tanzania in section four. The next section, section five discusses the state of adult education funding delineating issues and challenges for adult education funding. Section six critically examines reasons for underfunding while section seven provides some recommendations on how to improve financing of adult education initiatives in Tanzania, followed by concluding comments in section eight.

Concepts and Definitions

The term adult education refers to organized educational activity aimed at developing the abilities of adults in order to improve their lives in the society. According to United Nations Education and Science and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) 1976, adult education means:

Entire body of organized educational process,
whatever the content, level and method,

whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges, and universities as well as apprenticeship whereby persons regarded as adults by the society they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical and professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behavior in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic, and cultural development.

Adult education includes instructional and related support programmes for adults who are not enrolled in secondary school who lack the educational foundation expected of a high school graduate and whose inability to speak, read and or write impairs their ability to function effectively in their job, family and society. To achieve their goals and develop their knowledge, adults need programmes that will equip them with knowledge, skills and cultural values required for their self-development and active participation in the social, economic and political life in their societies.

Financing of adult education on the other hand, refers to the process of raising and generating funds and extending them to run planned adult and non- formal education activities and projects either by the government, organizations, institutions or private individuals. It involves seeking for adequate funds from various sources such as tuition fees, taxation, international donors, government, development partners and non-government agencies to fund and sustain adult and non-formal education initiatives.

Rationale for Financing Adult Education and Policy Context

Education is a basic human right

Adult education like any other forms of education is a basic and fundamental human right and therefore it should be promoted rather than being violated. Universal Declaration of Human Rights stipulates several human rights where education is considered to be a basic human right similar to the right to life and therefore it deserves adequate financial support. In fact, adult education and is inalienable human right that needs to be enshrined constitutionally by all states. In addition to this, the UNESCO declaration of Education for All (EFA) requires governments to realize their role in financing education including adult education. Reluctance to finance adult education is therefore considered to be a violation of human right.

Education is a great social equalizer

Adult education functions as a mechanism for achieving social cohesion in the society; it strengthens social unity. Adult education can help to bridge social challenges such as tribal, religious and language differences. Adult education creates better adults; it opens their mind and expands their horizons, thus shaping them to be good and responsible citizens. To address social challenges in the society requires constant and continuous learning, re-learning and re-tooling. Other social challenges that underline the need for investing in adult education include negative cultural practices such as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), inheritance of widows, early marriages and patriarchy. Thus, adult education constitutes a powerful social mechanism for alleviating poverty, improving health, promoting peace and democracy, fostering inclusion, achieving environmental awareness, and helping people to adapt to rapid advances that our societies are constantly facing. Financing of adult education

is therefore important for reducing social inequalities among the people. As we finance adult education, we are extending education opportunities to those who had not had opportunity to participate in formal schooling. Also as more adults are educated the rate of income inequalities also declines. Thus, financing adult education is imperative for creating both equity and equality in the society.

Education is a Key Economic Input

When adults are educated, they acquire skills and knowledge which they can use to act upon resources for a country to realize development. Therefore, financing adult education is imperative for creating labour force; the available human capital needs continuous adult education programmes. *Mpango wa Mafunzo Kazini* (MUKA) that was introduced in Tanzania in the last few years is a case in point. MUKA was a programme that was meant to upgrade primary school teachers. As adults get skills, they can acquire jobs and as they increase their skills the more there is an increase in their economic benefits. Since unemployment is a socio-economic problem, financing adult education can assist in alleviating unemployment through the skills and knowledge acquired from adult education programmes. Adults can use the skills to employ themselves or meet new job requirements. This is to say adult education is a productive human development investment that develops the skills required to improve the capacity of individuals to engage in productive initiatives. Clearly, realization of such benefits that can accrue from adult education, underlines the need for adequate financing of adult education. Clearly, adult education is therefore a valuable instrument that brings about social benefits and therefore significant financial investment is essential to ensure high quality provision of adult and non-formal education.

International Declarations on Financing of Adult Education

As stated earlier, adult education is a valuable instrument which brings about economic and social benefits; it creates more democratic, peaceful, inclusive, productive, healthy and sustainable societies. Significant financial investment is therefore essential to achieve this perceived end. However, despite this recognition, government investment in adult education remains very low. Improving the funding of adult and non-formal education was therefore one of the key resolutions made in the CONFITEA V Hamburg Declaration (See UNESCO, 1997). Conference participants resolved to improve adult education by agreeing to invest at least 6 percent of governments GNP in education allocating an equitable share of the education budget to adult education. They proposed that each development sector for example, agriculture, health, environment should allocate part of its budget to adult education (UNESCO, 1997). Further, the Global Campaign for Education 2005 proposed that governments should dedicate at least 3 percent of their education budgets to adult education with additional contributions being made by other relevant ministries for continuing adult education programmes. The 7th World Assembly of International Council of Adult Education (ICAE) “Adults Rights’ to Learn: Convergence, Solidarity and Action” held in Nairobi in 2007, underlined the need for the governments to support policy legislation for adult education. It was felt necessary to redefine the fields of adult learning, lifelong learning, adult education and adult literacy. It was also deemed crucial to describe what was meant by adult education on a wider context for the reality was that adult education was not a government priority; the World Assembly agreed to work together to make governments realize the need for adequate financial investment in adult education and to explore available sources of financing adult education.

The Objectives of Financing Adult Education in Tanzania

Functional Importance of Adult Education

The First Five Year Development Plan for social and economic development (1964-1969) underlined the functional importance of adult education and recognized the role of adults in attaining its objectives. While the education of children was given a greater emphasis in the short run, it was felt that educating children was a longer-term investment. The adult population was preferred in this regard; they were to be given the top priority in education since their impact on development was believed to be functional and immediate. This need was elaborated by Nyerere, the First President when he was launching the First Five Year Plan in 1964:

The purpose of government expenditure on education in the coming years must be to equip Tanganyika's with the skills and knowledge which is needed if the development of this country is to be achieved. First we must educate adults. Our children will not have an impact on our economic development for 5, 10, or even 20 years. The attitudes of the adults have an impact now. The people must understand the plans for development of this country, they must be able to participate in the changes which are necessary. Only if they are willing and ready to do so will this plan succeeds (United Republic of Tanzania 1964 p. xi-xii).

Nyerere believed that adult education was the most potent force for bringing about change and for this reason it had to be given priority within the overall development effort and recurrent revenue allocation. The role of adult education in development was therefore recognized as an economic factor because capital stock was small and natural resources limited. Adult education

was therefore made an integral part of the country's development plans. The Prime Minister's Directive of 5th July 1973 workers' education further emphasized this need. Industrial organizations and government institutions were required to allocate special budget for adult education to upgrade knowledge and skills of their employees. Nyerere criticized governments that economized on funds for adult education during times of economic crisis:

The one unavoidable thing is that resources have to be allocated to adult education. It will not happen without them! There is regrettable tendency in times of economic stringency- which for poor countries is all the time-for governments to economize on money for adult education (Nyerere, 1976 p.86).

Tanzania Development Vision 2025

The functional importance of adult education is further emphasized in the Tanzania Development Vision 2025. In this vision the government feels that, the country will not be able to achieve her national goals embedded in this vision including her national strategy for growth and reduction of poverty and her obligations relating to the implementation of the Dakar framework of action on EFA and millennium development goals if the education sector including adult and non-formal education subsector is not developed holistically. Thus in this vision, the primary objective of adult, non-formal and continuing education is acquisition of relevant knowledge, practical skills and attitudes aimed at achieving the perceived goals

Forms of Adult Learning and Settings

Adult education in the country has been offered in various forms by different providers under three learning contexts: namely, formal, non-formal and informal learning settings.

In the *formal learning setting*, deliberate efforts have been made by the government and private agencies to support the provision of adult learning within the formal education system. Adult learning opportunities offered under formal institutional context are well structured and coordinated, lasting for a specified period of time (Mushi, 2016). These opportunities include adult learning programmes organized by tertiary institutions, universities and other institutions of higher learning. These programmes usually take various forms including classroom-based adult learning and self-directed activities. Employees, including adults in various economic and social sectors, have been encouraged to learn new knowledge and skills to cope with the impact of new technologies in work environments which are demanding new patterns of re-skilling and re-tooling. Through government and private sponsorship, some employees have been pursuing continuing education programmes through open and distance learning, colleges and universities within and outside the country. However, there is a feeling that education offered to adults by non-conventional education systems is second rate, the perception attributable to the low status accorded to open and distance learning compared to other orthodox educational systems (Mushi, 2016).

Adult learning activities have also been organized outside the established formal education system in *non-formal institutional setting* targeting specific adult groups including workers, peasants, unemployed, retired employees, women and other vulnerable groups. With government assistance and support from international agencies, Tanzania managed to reduce the adult illiteracy rate from 85% in 1961 to 9.6% in 1986 but increased thereafter to 31% (URT, 2011), due to a combination of ideological and technological reasons which made it difficult to keep the momentum of 1970s. The adult education programmes which were part of the country's national development strategy aimed at achieving socialist

development in the 1970s paved the way to liberalization and privatization policies in the mid 1980s. Clearly, given this move, adult education was no longer a priority and central to a national development strategy; the government commitment, political will and enthusiasm among the people began to wane. In technological terms, the adult education programmes were designed in a top-down fashion without the involvement of target groups; they were poorly organized and managed and did not receive adequate financial support.

On the basis of the observed weaknesses, the Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE) programme, along with Regenerated Freirean Literacy Empowering Community Techniques (REFLECT) methodology, were considered to be the best approaches to adult learning, as they were learner-centred compared to previous top-down approaches. The aim was to demonstrate how literacy could be used at the community level as one tool and a catalyst in the development of local income-generating activities. Thus, although adult learners and the leadership had hoped for significant improvements in socio economic development, this did not happen. By 2008 for example, there were only 907,771 adults (434, 446 males and 473,305 females) who were attending the programme (URT 2008). It was feared that some segments of the adult population might be left behind and particularly vulnerable groups, including adults.

The *Yes, I Can* literacy programme designed to be complemented by the use of other participatory methodologies such as REFLECT was introduced to concentrate more on vulnerable youth and adults. The programme supported by the Cuban Government is believed to be the best approach that will exploit the country's potential to achieve EFA, as it is geared to enabling learners to hear, see, and act at the same time (URT, 2008). Adult learners

graduating from this programme were to be absorbed into a post-literacy programme known as *Yes, I can Continue*, a programme meant to address the learning needs of communities. However, since this programme was delivered through radio and television (comprising televised classes), it was unlikely that it will cover all vulnerable adult groups because a large number of these groups in the rural areas did not have access to electricity.

Other programmes that were introduced in the mid-1970s were programmes offered by Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) with the support of the Swedish Government. The programmes were aimed at improving the capacity of the adult population to participate in the task of alleviating poverty and other related rural challenges. By the late 2000s, there were 53 FDCs with an enrolment of 27,907 adult students (14,106 males and 13,801 females) pursuing various programmes aimed at achieving this perceived aim (URT, 2008).

Adult learning has also been taking place in *informal learning settings*, where adults acquire knowledge, skills and values from day-to-day experiences, through observation and active participation, as they interact with their environment, within the family, community, in buses while travelling, in market places, in religious gatherings, museums, libraries, political rallies, tourist centres, mass media and other sources. Some adults also have volunteered in imparting knowledge, values and skills informally to other adult learners. In community and work environments, for example, adults learn through observation and participation in activities, learning by doing, one of the education principles which underpinned the philosophy of traditional/indigenous African education. In traditional African society for example, knowledge, values and skills were imparted at didactic and practical levels, through imitating what the elders performed. This

form of learning is still practised today in various communities, working environments, political and social institutions and has served as an important source of social knowledge.

The State of Adult of Adult Education Funding: Issues and Challenges

The common forms of mobilizing resources for adult and non-formal education activities include the government, development partners, adult education organizations and the private sector. In Tanzania, the main source of financing adult and non-formal education programmes has been from the government budget and donor support since 1960s. In addition, some ministries have been delivering adult education activities but budget allocated to adult education activities is unknown due to lack of coordination between the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) and institutions that offer adult education. Further, there are also several private firms which provide adult education programmes but there is no system for coordination and there are no records at MoEVT on programmes offered and budgets (URT, 2008). Given the nature of adult education funding and limited resources available, adult education came at the bottom of hierarchy in terms of resource allocation. During 1970s and 1980s for example, the Directorate of Adult Education received only 10% of the total budget allocated to the Ministry of Education (URT, 1978). However, considered in terms of the tasks that were to be undertaken during that period adult education was underfinanced compared to other sectors of education as Table 1 shows:

Table1: *Government Recurrent Expenditure on Education and Training (1975/76- 1980/81 in Millions of Tshs)*

Education	1975/76	1976/77	1977/78	1978/79	1979/1980	1980/81
Primary	308.8	372.9	619.2	668.5	748.5	863.2
Secondary	141.6	156.6	163.1	160.6	151.5	177.5
Teacher	43.3	51.8	60.4	62.7	63.4	80.2
Higher	106.2	114.3	119.7	157.6	187.6	191.6
Adult	41.1	28.7	68.2	57.2	73.3	68.4

Source: URT (1978) The Ministry of Education Combined Annual Reports 1976-81.

Table 1 shows government recurrent and expenditure in education from 1975/76 to 1980/81. As the table reveals although the amount allocated to adult education was less than the amount allocated to other sectors of education, this amount could not be sustained in the subsequent years, the figure dropped from 10 to less than 1 percent as Table 2 shows:

Table 2: *Adult Education Financing (2010/11 - 2013/14 in Millions of Tshs)*

Year	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14
Budget Allocation				
Education Sector	665,572.5380	659,296.8620	724,471.9370	689,681.0550
Adult Education Subsector	4,085.2853	3,791.0085	5,921.5724	4,789.4398
% Adult Education	(0.54)	(0.58)	(0.82)	(0.69)

Source: MoEVT Detailed budgets 2010/11-2013/14.

Table 2 shows funds allocated to adult education subsector from 2010/11 to 2013/14. Clearly these figures fall short of the funding benchmark for high quality adult education programmes as proposed by the Global Campaign For Education 2005 that governments should dedicate at least 3 percent of their education budgets to adult education. In the Education Sector Development Plan 2016/17- 2020/21 projected costs by education subsector budget allocated to adult education does not seem to improve (Table 3):

Table3: *ESDP Projected Costs by Education Sub- sector
2016/17-2020/21 in Percentage*

Education sub sector	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21	TZ Billions
Pre-primary	3.7	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.7	4.2
Primary and lower secondary	70.9	73.3	73	73.1	74.6	73.1
Advanced level	2.1	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8
Teacher education	1.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0
A/NFE	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.5
Non tertiary teacher education	1.5	1.6	2.5	3.4	2.6	2.4
Universities	19.4	17.4	16.4	15.0	13.8	16.1
Tertiary teacher education	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5
Administrative support	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3

Source: URT (2017) MoEST ESDP 2016/17-2020/21

Table 3 shows projected costs by education subsector 2016/17-2020/21. Apart from Tanzania that spends an average of 0.5% of its education budget to adult education, in most developing countries, the level of revenue allocation to adult education subsector is also

very low. In Kenya for example, the government spends 0.3-0.4% of its education budget on adult education; Zambia, 0.2%, Gambia 0.3%, Malawi 0.5% and India 0.02%. Only Senegal, South Africa and Philippines spend at least 1% of its education budget on adult education (Nesbit and Welton, 2013). Clearly, funding of adult education is hardly based on adequate needs assessment and research data or cost budgeting.

Reasons for Under-financing Adult Education

Inadequate financial investment in adult education is attributable to various reasons, which are examined in the ensuing section of this chapter.

Low Status Accorded to Adult Education

Adult education is not considered to be academic; it does not prepare people for high income status. While adult education was considered to be the most potent force for bringing about social change academic training was at the same time thought to be needed to help the country become self-sufficient in manpower in various fields such as medicine and engineering to avoid relying on foreign experts). In contrast to other sectors of education therefore, adult education came at the bottom of hierarchy in terms of allocation as shown in Table 1. These figures show a clear contradiction between the public importance attached to adult education and the actual support given to it. It could therefore be argued that the low status of adult education was reinforced by Nyerere the first president of Tanzania when he argued that people should learn about things such as ‘agriculture’ or ‘greater skills of production’ with a view to improving living conditions. Clearly such programmes were not aimed at preparing people for paid jobs or high status. In fact, some adults had asked whether they would be employed after training in programmes such as the ones advocated by Nyerere because they knew that there were hierarchies of occupation, power, and status

realized through qualification provided by education. The potential learner often enquires whether they would be employed after graduating in literacy. However, they quickly abandon this idea when they come to realize that not all Primary school leavers can be employed or be absorbed in secondary schools. The illiterate parent will therefore demand: First solve the problems of primary school leavers before worrying about us.

Clearly although adult education sought to provide relevant knowledge and skills, academic education through schools and university was still considered of greater importance. People continued to regard an academic education as the key to their empowerment (Mushi, 2016).

Lack of Clarity on what Constitute Adult Education

Lack of clarity on what constitute adult education is another serious issue which is also a global concern. For example, is adult education equal to Yes, I can literacy or ICBAE or COBET? What about other forms of adult education such as continuing education programmes, workplace learning, extra mural studies and life skill programmes? All these conceptual difficulties could have been ironed out if there were a comprehensive adult education policy that clarifies the various aspects of adult education.

In addition, the manner in which adult education programmes are financed and implemented constitute another serious problem. One of the major problems that the adult education policy makers, planners and co-ordinators face as far as financing and implementation of adult education is concerned is the diversity of meanings and implication which different categories of people seem to attach to the whole question of adult education. A study conducted by Victor Mlekwa in Kahama in 1970s revealed this diversity (Table 4):

Table 4. *People's interpretation of adult education*

Adult education	Professional adult educators		Party, Government and Religious Leaders		Adult learners	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Continuing education	5	100	3	11	-	-
Literacy mainly	-	-	-	-	10	100
Functional literacy	-	-	25	89	-	-
Improving living conditions	3	60	20	71	-	-
Political education	5	100	13	46	-	-
Raising productivity	-	60	3	11	-	-
Remedial training	-	-	4	14	-	-

Source: Mlekwa, 1975

Table 4 shows how adult educators and learners conceived and interpreted the field of adult education. While professional adult educators conceived adult education as continuing education, the leaders who were policy makers and planners saw it in terms of functional literacy and adult learners as literacy alone. Clearly, adult education was equated with literacy; adult education in its broader context had not been understood since adult education is more than literacy. It is no wonder; therefore, that this conception has reflected the way in which adult education has been financed and implemented in the country for a greater thrust has been on literacy.

Lack of Political Will

Lack of political will has made the sensitization and the implementation of adult education to receive inadequate support.

Immediately after independence for example, adult education received considerable support from the party and government leadership and was included in national development plans with adequate funding. The leadership took part in adult education activities by educating and mobilizing people to participate in adult education programmes. However as stated elsewhere in this chapter, following the privatization and liberalization policies, the country's development strategy that focused on growth and equity was abandoned in favor of development strategy focusing on growth and efficiency. The funding of adult education programmes by the government declined at high rate during the introduction of these policies which put more emphasis on cost sharing in all sectors of education including adult education; people began to quit from adult education activities to avoid the expenses. Adult education was therefore no longer central in government development initiatives; it was not a government priority as it was in 1970s and early 1980s.

Reduced Support from Foreign Donors

Reduced assistance from foreign donors has also contributed to the problem. Adult education initiatives in the country in 1970s and 1980s for example were well supported by international agencies such as the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). These agencies however have withdrawn their support for adult education programmes. Although governments were required by UNESCO to create an inbuilt 'mechanism' that will enable them to gradually phase out foreign assistance to ensure that adult education programmes were not severely affected once such foreign assistance was withdrawn; in many countries, including Tanzania, mechanism that will enable governments to gradually phase out foreign assistance has not been instituted.

Marginalization of Adult Education

Reduction of the Directorate of Adult Education into a unit under the office of the Chief Education Officer was another factor which also lowered the status of adult and non-formal education and diminished its revenue allocation vis-à-vis other sectors of education. Since it did not have its own sub-vote it became difficult to determine precisely the amount of funds earmarked for adult education activities.

Table 5 shows the budget allocated to the office of the Chief Education Officer and other sectors of education. It is not clear how much funds were allocated to the adult education subsector. Clearly, this made it more difficult to execute adult education tasks; adult education was treated as the second best in budget allocation:

“In Tanzania today adult education is marginalized within the education system. At ministerial level adult education that used to form an independent department with its own budget has been reduced into a unit within the office of the Chief Education Officer. Therefore, whatever the unit gets is according to the priorities of the office of the Chief Education Officer. Heavy emphasis is placed on primary education while adult education as part of basic education is partially mentioned. For example, the section on investment in EFA since 1990 does not show how much was allocated and spent on adult education. Rather it shows budget allocation for primary education and other sectors as teacher, secondary, technical and higher education. It is not clear whether the budget allocated to primary education covers adult education also” (Bhalalusesa, 2006, pp.16-17).

Table 5: *Budget Allocated to the Office of Chief Education Officer and Other Sectors (1996-2001 in Millions of Tshs)*

Education Sector	Years				
	1996/1997	1997/1998	1998/1999	1999/2000	2000/2001
Chief Education Office	836,181,378	1,244,512,040	1,024,292,460	922,280,100	1,500,001,400
Primary Education (Basic)	60,008,300	88,849,261	73,400,496	73,465,499	102,210,500
Secondary Education	-	10,200,110,100	9,801,867,365	9,801,867	14,696,887,300
Teacher Education	2,603,512,157	3,075,201,133	2,625,789,834	2,625,780,834	3,589,823,600

Source: Planning Commission, 2002.

In their Evaluation Report on implementation of Adult and non-formal education Strategy 2003/04 – 2007/08 Bwatwa and Kamwela (2010) marginalization of adult education was clearly evident. The respondents at national and council levels, for example, were of the opinion that the amount of funds budgeted for adult education was minimal compared to other sub-sectors of education. Furthermore, they stated that during the budgeting process adult education activities were not given priority and when the Council budget reached the ceiling the first item that was considered for budget cuts was adult education.

Lack of Reliable Data on Adult and Non-Formal Education

Accurate data on adult and non-formal education and dissemination is important as they provide critical information for decision making, on AI/NFE policy making, planning and budgeting. In their Evaluation Report on Implementation of Adult and non-formal education Strategy 2003/04 – 2007/08, Bwatwa and Kamwela (2010) revealed that some councils did not provide accurate data on AE/NFE:

“During the implementation of AE/NFE strategy, it was revealed that the data provided by some of the councils was not reliable as number of illiterates was not easily identified due to failure to conduct regular advocacy, sensitization and mobilization to communities on usefulness of AE/NFE programmes” (p.71).

Conclusions and Way Forward

This chapter has attempted to examine the state of financing of adult education in Tanzania delineating issues and challenges that need to be addressed if the adult education subsector is to be improved. Adult education as organized educational activity aimed at developing the abilities of adults is imperative; like any other forms of education is a basic and fundamental human right, a key economic input and a social equalizer that merit adequate financial investment. However, despite the public importance attached to adult education given the nature of adult education adult education comes at the bottom of hierarchy in terms of resource allocation in contrast to other sectors of education. In order to improve adult education funding renewed efforts are needed if adult education activities are to be improved. These include the need to revive the political will and support for adult education, redefine what constitute adult education by developing a comprehensive adult education policy that clarifies the various aspects of adult education, and introduce realistic adult education plans and budgeting as well as exploring alternative sources of funding.

It should not be overemphasized that adequate financing is imperative for improved access, equity and quality achievement in the execution of adult education activities. Adult education is recognized as a central factor in the economic growth of a nation

because it influences the skills and mindsets of the people. Thus, adequate financing investment in adult education is essential prerequisite for economic development. We have noted that despite the public importance attached to adult education, given the nature of adult education funding and limited resources available, adult education comes at the bottom of hierarchy in terms of resource allocation in contrast to other sectors of education. In addition, the adult education sub-sector lacks adequate sector-wide prioritization and realistic budgeting. In order to improve adult education funding renewed efforts are needed if adult education activities are to be improved. These include the need to revive the political will and support for adult education, re-define what constitute adult education by developing a comprehensive adult education policy that clarifies the various aspects of adult education to iron out the conceptual difficulties, there is need to advocate for clear cut legislation and policy at different levels of public spending to articulate the meaning, scope and purpose of adult education. The legal framework should clearly stipulate the coordination mechanisms, set standards, recognize and harmonize the different elements of adult education services that are spread over the various ministries and organizations. Effort should also be made to revisit current adult education priorities and consider investing meaningfully in critical areas such as training of adult education facilitators, programme coordination, monitoring and evaluation. Existing adult education programmes must be reviewed to improve their quality so as to attract financial support from various stakeholders.

Apart from government grants alternative sources of funding could be exploited to raise funds for adult and non- formal education. These include fund- raising a strategy that is considered to be one of the most significant sources of financial support to adult and non-formal education sub sector. Cost sharing schemes where adult learners contribute towards learning and teaching resources,

physical facilities and other amenities while the government on the other hand contributes funds for management and administration of adult education activities. Revolving loan fund can also be introduced where adult learners in groups can borrow funds (seed money) from the government or organizations/institutions to establish income generation projects to generate income which may in turn be used to run adult education activities and eventually be registered into development associations such as the Village Community Bank (VICOBA) programme.

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Chapter Five

Prospects for Open and Distance Learning in Higher Education in Tanzania

— PHILIPO LONATI SANGA —

Introduction

Tanzania recognizes the inability of campus universities to meet the increasing demand for higher education (Sanga, 2013). Distance education, both in single and dual modes, has been seen as one among the many crucial ways to meet this rapidly growing demand. Distance education offers opportunities to reduce the knowledge gap between nations and to counter the effects of brain drain. Despite the implicit declarations and strategies for implementing distance education, it is still a long way from realizing its full potential in Tanzania. There still remains a myriad of challenges to implementation of distance education, mainly related to the quality of education, reputation of the graduates and adequacy of resources. The growth and expansion of higher education has been a serious concern of the government of Tanzania since its independence in 1961. However, it has been difficult to satisfy all of the higher learning needs of the country by means of the conventional practice of building campuses. Such a context compelled the government of Tanzania to consider establishing various systems of open and distance education.

Open and distance learning focuses on removing barriers in education and training to make the learners free from various constraints especially those related to time and place, thereby offering flexible learning opportunities to learners. Open and distance learning (ODL) is a rapidly growing field of education and it has considerable impact on the entire education delivery

systems. The modern ODL system is growing fast because of many factors such as the development of internet-based information technologies, especially the World Wide Web.

Adult higher education refers to the active participation of adults in formal education programmes in higher education. In fact, many forces acting upon higher education and national education policy have redefined the relationship between the higher education, the adult learner and the society. The philosophy behind conventional higher education compels the system to be dedicated to a selected segment of beneficiaries, and as Kasworm (1993) and Blessinger and Bliss (2016) put, it is believed to focus on creating permanent expertise. In principle, vast literature suggest that adult higher education involves adults who may be not less than twenty-five years of age and who may have had some previous interruption in their formal education, have assumed adult life responsibilities such as family, work or other career commitments, and are now involved in formal higher education programmes.

Contrary to conventional higher education's role of providing education opportunities solely for an elite segment of the community, adult higher education represents the compelling necessity of adult access and education within the academic community. In particular, adult higher education underscores the need for continuous involvement in individual learning. Thus, it promotes the application of diverse talents of the higher education community in knowledge generation and transfer for both youth and adult learners. Equally significant, adult higher education fosters the inclusion of adults as learners in contemporary development undertakings. Adult participation in higher education represents such an important aspect of the learning society sustained by lifelong learning.

Rationale for Adult Higher Education and Distance Higher Education

Adult access to education within the higher education context is imperative for reasons including these:

- i. The need for more citizens who are well educated in advanced specialized knowledge.
- ii. Necessity for expanding educational opportunities for adults as demanded by the knowledge-based society.
- iii. Rapid developments in science and technology compel adults to keep abreast with such changes.
- iv. The pressure from societal paradigms of equality and equity with particular focus on females and other particularly marginalized groups.
- v. National and global competition for quality human resources whose role is vested to higher education institutions.

Policies and Patterns of Adult Higher Education

Adult higher education is quite heterogeneous in form and function as a result of diverse structures and policy-making organs across nations. Nevertheless, irrespective of the diversity, the common denominator is that all are grounded in the core principles of lifelong learning. Among other things, lifelong learning hypothesizes that higher level of specialized knowledge ought to be accessed by competent and motivated adults irrespective of their ages. At a national level, adult higher education policies in Tanzania may be visible in three main patterns as briefly illustrated in the ensuing sub-section.

Patterns of Adult Higher Education Policies

Review of literature such as Kasworm (1993) and Blessinger and Bliss (2016) suggests existence of the following patterns of adult higher education policies.

i. Holistic Commitment with Entire Higher Education System

In this pattern, a country may create a national higher education policy with a focus of supporting higher education in its entirety as a system. Within such a policy framework, the policy distinctly articulates how the country supports or ought to support each particular sub-system such as conventional mode, evening studies, open and distance mode, vocational training and any other forms of regular education. As such, holistic commitment of the nation with both formal and non-formal learning access is delineated.

Higher education policies for Norway, Sweden (*adultification policy*) and China are relevant for understanding this policy pattern.

ii. Minimal National Commitment with Emphasis on Institutional Policy

The emphasis of this pattern is on the higher education institutions' commitment with integration of adult education within the institutional contexts. National policy is not an impetus for innovation in this case. Institutional policies have the mandate to shape admission and instructional policies to support adult learners' access. To cater for adult learners' needs, such institutions may provide flexible options such as evening classes, weekend classes, mature-student entry, summer classes and modularization to accommodate both conventional and non-conventional adult learners. For example, higher education institutions in Finland, Israel, Australia, Spain and Canada fall under this category. It should be underlined that these institutional programmatic and access policies may at times be supported by national policies.

iii. National or Institutional Policy for Specialized Adult Education Programmes

In this pattern, a policy or higher learning institution is designed to solely cater for adult learners. This pattern is usually supported by a national policy by designating at least one university which typically serves the adult learning population. With this pattern, we have witnessed a proliferation of *open universities* (such as the Open University of Tanzania) around the world. However, it should be clearly understood that not all open universities were established as a result of dedicated policies to serve the adult population. Some of them were established from mere declarations of leaders for the reasons best known by them. These dedicated institutions reflect core beliefs in access, mode of delivery, structure and assessment modality for serving adult learners at a distance and in various contexts.

This category provides an important alternative to conventional higher education. Open universities have been highly instrumental in widening access to higher education to multitudes of adults both in developing and developed countries. Whereas younger learners can be enrolled in open universities, the primary focus of establishing open universities is on the adults who are engaged in multiple socio-economic responsibilities. In addition, open universities and other similar institutions may offer specialized academic certificates, degrees or single-subject programmes designed deliberately to cater for the adult learners. Besides, there may be programmes for specific career category of retirees.

In some conventional universities there are specialized programmes in adult higher education which use distance technologies but are not formally referred to as open universities. Such institutions may use technologies of correspondence, satellite or computers as their instructional delivery systems.

The Philosophy and Context of Distance Higher Education in Tanzania

The Philosophy and Practice of Open and Distance Learning (ODL)

Open and distance learning is increasingly gaining importance as a policy option for many countries. Within the context of higher education, an overarching benefit of ODL is its potential to provide higher education to a wider population while they may remain in their employments and other services. Thus, ODL provides a mode of delivery which combines the world of work with learning mutually. Further, ODL is a means to satisfy missed opportunities and improve one's knowledge and skills for the job. It should be realized that in modern world, higher education is regarded as a critical rite of passage. Higher education marks maturity and empowers one to effectively engage in the world out of school. By and large, higher education is a crucial ingredient in character formation and enabling ones to think and formulate thoughts independently, analyse and assess situations critically even before one becomes an actual producer and creator of knowledge.

Philosophically, ODL is best suited to mature learners who have the capacity to assess their circumstances and make informed life choices. Thus, ODL is meant for adults who are self-directed. Usually, ODL suggests that entrance qualifications are lax and decided from the candidates' readiness to handle higher education. Basically, distance learning occurs in the absence of time or space mediation between the learner and tutor.

Contextualizing Adult Higher Education

The taxonomy of adult higher education may conveniently reflect on the commonalities of characteristics of adult learners. The ordinary features which epitomize adult learners in higher education are such as:

- i) Adult learners who have interrupted their formal schooling and pursued adult roles.
- ii) Adult learners who have mature life experiences reflecting past full-time responsibilities such as family roles, career roles, or other socio-economic roles.
- iii) Adult learners who have completed higher education but decided to re-enter to pursue another academic expertise as a second-degree seeker or a professional development course learner.
- iv) Adult learners who have decided to re-enter higher education with a prior interruption in their formal education. As such these learners require more focused academic studies.

Available literature of adult higher education does not explicitly state the above conceptual delineation of adult learners in higher education. Adult higher education is often characterized by usage of many terms which may be unique to certain contexts. For instance, in some contexts adult higher education use terms such as: university adult education, continuing higher education, further education, Open University or distance higher education, nontraditional higher education or extramural education. Similarly, there is a broad spectrum of the way the concept of learners in adult higher education is referred to. The variations of the term include: continuing education students, part-time students, Open University students, older students, mature students, non-traditional students, and second-chance students.

While one would consider that such diversity in the terminology of adult higher education and learner brings more clarity, the fact is that they render more confusion in explanation and operation. There is still a lingering question pertaining to what makes a higher education an adult higher education.

Distance Higher Education in Tanzania

Tanzania implements open and distance learning, just like most of the developing and developed countries, to offset the weaknesses of the conventional campus-based mode of delivery. In terms of distance higher education, in 1992 the parliament endorsed establishment of the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) by Act of Parliament No. 17 of 1992. The Act became operational on 1st March 1993 and the first intake of students was in January 1994 (Sanga, 2007).

The Open University of Tanzania is a fully-fledged, autonomous and accredited public university. As a result of enactment of the universities Act No.7 of 2005, OUT began using its charter and rules in 2007 for its operations. Various degrees and non-degree programmes are offered by OUT through various means of communication such as broadcasting, telecasting, correspondence, e-learning, some face-to-face and blended mode in which a combination of two or more modes is involved. Just like other higher learning institutions, the academic programmes of OUT are quality assured and centrally regulated by the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU).

Whereas the permanent headquarters of OUT are being constructed at Bungo in Kibaha District, it is temporarily located at Kinondoni in Dar es Salaam city. There are about thirty-two regional centres and ten coordination centres. The coordination centres are in Namibia, Uganda, Rwanda (Kibungo), Zanzibar and Pemba in Tanzania, and Egerton and Njoro in Kenya. Moreover, African Council for Distance Education -Technical Collaboration Committee (ACDE-TCC), the Centre for Economic and Community Economic Development (CECED) and the SADC Centre of Specialization in Teacher Education (SADC ODL CoSTE) are referred to as internal coordination centres.

Open and Distance Education in Tanzania's Education Policies

The Tanzania Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995 had hardly pointed out any issue related to either open or distance learning. The silence of ETP 1995 regarding ODL is not much divergent from the Tanzania National Higher Education Policy (NHEP) of 1999. While articulating the need to expand student enrollment at institutions of higher education, the NHEP suggests enhancing *distant* education methods, among other strategies. Besides missing the clarification of what *distant* education methods entail, the policy has not provided any clue as to how this strategy can be implemented.

On the contrary, the revised ETP of 2014 has some grains of suggestions related to open and distance education. For instance, to meet the aim of gender equality and equity in education and training, the policy declares in sub-section 3.3.3 that the government shall collaborate with stakeholders to ensure gender equality and equity in education and training. To that effect, the policy articulates the need to offer education and training through various open and distance learning modes. It is further implied in sub-sections 3.3.4 and 3.3.5 respectively of ETP 2014 that: The government shall create enabling environment to ensure education and training including adult education is offered effectively through diverse modes including open and distance learning mode; and the government shall develop strategies and enforce the application of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in provision of education at all levels.

Analysis of the policies (ETP, 1995; NHEP, 1999; ETP, 2014) clearly indicate that despite being declared, albeit sparingly, ODL in Tanzania still suffers from lacking clearly articulated policies and regulations.

Limitations of Provision of ODL in Tanzanian Higher Education

Although distance learning is one strategy of making the education open, distance learning is not necessarily open. Among the standard features that characterize openness in any education system, I propose three of them to be of paramount significance: Accessibility of the opportunities to most of potential clients; flexibility of the entry qualifications and various processes while undertaking the programmes; and learner-centredness in the planning and implementations of the programmes. There are circumstances in which distance learning programmes and institutions fall short of those standards. Distance learning has always been used to describe the learning which is organized, dispensed and acquired under a situation in which a learner is temporally or spatially separated from the instructor or institution. Towards the end of the 20th century *open*-becomes prefixed to distance learning due to three major factors.

Firstly, criticism that formal education system is costly to establish and maintain, it is inflexible and incompetent strategy of widening access to as many as would need higher education. Besides, formal education leads to significant wastage due to failures and dropouts caused by its rigorous structures. Secondly, in 1994 General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) declared that education should be a commercial commodity. This declaration had a remarkable positive effect on the development of open and distance learning (ODL) (Biao, 2011). Thirdly, globalization has had induced more educational connections among societies and nations that would otherwise not have experienced educational collaborations due to geographical distance that separates them. These key social developments have compelled opening up of learning opportunities to as many global citizens as possible irrespective of their geographical locations. Open learning capitalizes on the arrangements to enable learners to learn at the time, place and space

which satisfy their circumstances and requirements. The emphasis is on opening up opportunities by overcoming barriers that may result from geographical isolation, personal work commitments or convectional course structures which have often excluded potential beneficiaries from gaining access to the education and training they need. Thus, *open* in distance education signifies that entrance requirements can be simplified or judged from the individual's readiness to undertake studies. That is to say, ODL advances the ideal of lifelong learning and continuing education.

The Limitations of Provision of ODL in Tanzanian Higher Education

The limitations of provision of ODL in Tanzanian higher education include the following:

Lack of explicit national policy on open and distance education

It has been unveiled elsewhere in this chapter that there is no single policy on education in Tanzania that explicitly points out issues related to ODL. For instance, the Education and Training Policy of 1995 and its revised version of 2014 both are muted of open and distance education. However, the National Higher Education Policy of 1999 provides a highlight on distance education, albeit sparingly. Sub-section 2.2.4 of Chapter 2 of the policy is stating the need to expand student enrolment at institutions of higher education in order to attain internationally comparable student-staff ratios in various disciplines. To that effect, eight strategies were suggested two of which relate to ODL: to adopt a mix of residential and non-residential off-campus education system with increasing emphasis on the latter and enhancing *distant education* methods.

Despite having those two strategies in the policy document since 1999, there is inadequate policy-based evidence to signify systematic efforts to promote ODL in the country. It is precisely illustrated in

Komba (2009) and elsewhere that lack of a comprehensive policy and the disorganized harmonization of initiatives tend to result in adoption of different systems and standards; avoidable duplication of efforts and misuse of scarce resources due to lack of synergization.

Inadequate and unreliable technological infrastructure

Technology is rapidly changing such that distance learning institutions and learners are challenged to keep pace with such developments. Modern ODL requires Tanzania to invest adequately in multiple technologies to meet diverse needs of learners. The Open University of Tanzania, for example, has been utilizing non-interactive technologies for more than two decades as of now. It is imperative that with the increasing diversity of the student population we should identify practices that can better equip students to utilize technology in ways that can promote learning, development and success for all students. For instance, the fact that many students at higher learning institutions have access to Smartphones should trigger some policy discussions and decisions on how to best tap their educational potentials. Policy makers have a role in promoting the use of technology and its applicability for distance learning. Awareness of educational technology integration in ODL can trickle down to its integration in higher education. Whereas many modern technology applications rely on availability of internet, the challenge is that internet availability is not reliable in many cases.

Inadequate knowledge and skills on open and distance learning for both learners and instructors

Adequate knowledge and skills on how to run ODL is imperative for key players, especially instructors and learners. For instance, as a result of low ability to manage their time effectively, learners tend to drop out of the study programmes in massive numbers. Despite being intellectually capable, learners may fail due to lack of proper study skills. Similarly, instructors who deal with open and

distance learners may be limited to produce the desirable quality of graduates as a consequence of their deficit in ODL knowledge and skills. Instructors ought to be well acquainted with the foundations or philosophy of open and distance learning, psychology of learners in ODL and management of ODL programmes and institutions. Unfortunately, in most cases, the recruitment of academic staff for ODL institutions does not take into consideration of their background in the field. Such a practice affects both the efficacy and quality of the ODL system and its graduates.

Quality assurance and accreditation of ODL programmes and institutions

The mechanism for quality assurance and accreditation of ODL programmes is still not specifically defined. For a higher learning institution such as the Open University of Tanzania, its quality assurance and accreditation follows the Tanzania Commission for Universities' (TCU) guideline. Nonetheless, the criteria applied are not distinctive of those applied for conventional programmes and institutions. In addition, various stakeholders are seemingly still skeptical of the quality of graduates from ODL system. Single mode institutions suffer more consequences of the perception of their quality and accreditation than the dual mode institutions due to the variations in the respective modes of establishment and management approaches.

Opportunities for Provision of ODL in Tanzania

Running an ODL system in Tanzania is relatively still at an advanced infancy stage. Nonetheless, many countries in Africa consider Tanzania as among the few African countries from which you can learn on how to successfully operate an ODL system. The presence of a dedicated university for ODL is an opportunity to promote ODL at various levels. If the nation takes deliberate efforts to invest sufficiently in the Open University of Tanzania,

then ODL will be extended beyond the current scope and benefit more recipients especially the marginalized segments such as rural masses, females, school dropout and those with various job complications.

The national efforts to extend and strengthen sources of electric power, internet and ICT facilities create promising environment for more reliable application of modern technologies upon which ODL rely. Although presently the ODL institutions we have in Tanzania apply more of blended mode, with such efforts to stabilize the ICT infrastructure the institutions can go for online modes more comfortably in near future. Besides, there is evidently an increased recognition and acceptance of ICT and its integration in education.

The availability of sustainable links between various institutions of education such as the links between the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) with the University of Nairobi (Kenya), Indira Gandhi National Open University (India), the Open University of the United Kingdom (OUUK), University of Abuja (Nigeria) and others can be an opportunity to develop and offer joint ODL programmes and produce learning resources which meet international standards. Even conventional institutions which provide partial ODL programmes can establish links for the same purpose.

As stated earlier, the rapid uptake of mobile phones especially Smartphones by most of the potential learners can be taped as an opportunity to promote ODL programmes, provided the policies and circulars point out such a possibility. The use of mobile phones in Tanzania has spread more rapidly than any other technological development experienced before. With such widespread application of mobile technology by potential learners, the goal of integrating ICT in ODL can be implemented more feasibly.

Conclusions and Way Forward

Despite a few notable accomplishments which have been realized in the field of open and distance learning in Tanzania, this subsector remains at its infancy when one considers the endless areas for intervention and the massive aspects which are yet to be explored. The rapid advancements in science and technology offer a multitude of opportunities through which Tanzania may apply ODL as a tool for development.

First and foremost, the silence of most of key educational documents such as the Tanzania Educational and Training Policies, National Higher Education Policy with regard to ODL ought to be rethought. Given its evidently growing significance in widening the opportunities of learning, there is a necessity to develop specific policies and/or regulations to guide the operations of ODL concurrently with the conventional education policies and/ or guidelines. The policies or guidelines should explicitly delineate ODL and indicate feasible strategies to implement it at various levels by various key players and stakeholders.

The presence of the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) which is a higher learning institution dedicated to offer distance education is an opportunity for Tanzania to promote open and distance learning opportunities to reach the widest possible segment of the communities, even the marginalized ones. Therefore, if Tanzania takes more deliberate efforts to invest heavily in promoting OUT, ODL will be stretched beyond the present scope and benefit the disadvantaged communities especially from rural areas than is the case now.

The development of ODL requires appropriate application of ICT facilities. The national investment in ODL subsector should, among other things, focus on establishing and improving ICT

infrastructure and deliberately including relevant modern facilities to maximize the reaping of benefits of ODL. Of necessity, fast and reliable internet services, reliable power supply in both urban and rural areas, and adequately knowledgeable and skillful technical staff are some issues calling for more specific attention.

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Chapter Six

Expanding Learning Opportunities through Open and Distance Learning

— ELIFAS TOZO BISANDA —

Introduction

The Open University of Tanzania (OUT) was established by the Parliament Act No 17 of 1992, and in 1994 it witnessed its first admission of 766 students into four programmes, namely BA Gen (188), BA Ed (359), BCom Gen (195) and BCom Ed (24). In the following year, the university admitted student into LLB (355), BSc Gen (32) and BSc Ed (61). From then on, the university has been expanding in terms of programmes and enrolment, becoming one of the largest universities in the country. By the end of the 2019/20 academic year, the university was boasting of a cumulative enrolment of 160,509 students out of whom 70,423 enrolled for bachelor degrees, 37,189 enrolled for master degrees and 52,879 enrolled for non-degree programmes.

Enrolment in open universities worldwide is known to be very high. For instance, the Open University of China (OUC), in 2016, had more than 5 million active learners with over 10 million graduates. Also, the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), was reported to have a cumulative enrolment of 3,020,000 students in 2017 (OUC 2017/2018 Annual Report). Likewise, the University of South Africa (UNISA) reported an active enrolment of 381,483 in its 2018 Annual Report. Whereas, the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) Annual Report shows 420,074 registered students in 2017/18.

The early years of the university were marked with high dropout rates, as most learners found distance learning quite challenging.

For instance, access to study materials was difficult, while learning centres where one could meet peer learners were far. Moreover, although the university was able to open regional centres at the headquarters of all administrative regions of mainland Tanzania as well as at the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, the centres were poorly staffed such that one could not easily get support from the relevant tutors. However, with the emergence of ICT mediated learning, some of these challenges have become a history. Lectures are delivered on a regular basis using zoom video conferencing application, and students have face –to- face interaction with their tutors.

Distance learning is not new – it was used in Old Testament times, where the disciples of Jesus were sending letters to distant churches, and these were in turn read to the congregations, spreading the gospel message. In modern times it has changed, evolving with changes in technology, from hand-written script to printed material, then to multimedia forms recorded as audio and video, to live/real time sessions using radio, TV and videoconference.

This chapter looks at how the OUT has been able to expand access to higher education using open and distance learning through various ICT initiatives.

The Purpose of Education

The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) triennial meeting on Education and Training in Africa held in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, 12-17 February 2012 endorsed the conception that: “Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) is about building a critical mass of citizens who are not just informed and trained, but who are above all, capable of using their achievements to bring about economic, social, cultural and political changes required for sustainable development.”

Meanwhile, the rates of participation in tertiary education in Africa remain very low compared to other parts of the developed world. In a report published by UNESCO in 2016, the rate in Tanzania is a dismal 4% compared to DR Congo (7%), Angola (10%), Ghana (16%), South Africa (20%), Botswana (28%) and Egypt (32%). Participation in developed countries is much higher, where it is estimated to be 46% in Brazil, 56% in the UK, 64% in France, 87% in the USA, and 95% in the Republic of Korea. So, one can adopt the tertiary education participation as an index for industrial development and GDP per capita income as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: *Correlation between GDP per Capita and Tertiary Education Participation by Country*

Country	Tertiary Education Participation (%)	GDP Per Capita (USD)
Tanzania	04	1,106
Angola	10	2,021
Ghana	16	2,188
South Africa	20	4,736
Egypt	32	3,561
Vietnam	30	3,498
Brazil	46	6,450
Turkey	79	7,715
Malaysia	30	10,192
China	39	10,839
Romania	53	12,813
South Korea	95	30,644
United Kingdom	56	39,229
France	64	39,257
Germany	65	45,466
USA	87	63,051

Sources: UNESCO (2016). *Education for people and planet: global education monitoring report.*

What the above data suggests is that the availability of a critical mass of skilled and trained workforce is a prerequisite for industrial development that should not be ignored associated with the GDP of a country. Nations with more educated people have tended to have higher income and lower unemployment rates. This is partly because educated people are more innovative, know how to add value to existing products making them better, and are conscious of the quality of their products than those who are not so educated.

At the same time, according to UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS), 69 million new teachers must be recruited worldwide, in order to achieve universal primary and secondary education by 2030. It is almost impossible for such numbers of teachers to be trained using conventional universities and teacher education colleges. That is to say, only open and distance learning can offer the possibilities for achieving those targets.

The contribution of open and distance education is well acknowledged. For instance, in South Africa, distance education has made a significant contribution to the overall growth in student enrolment – accounting for just below 40% of all headcount enrolments and 30% of full-time-equivalent enrolments (FTEs) over the last decade (Van Staden, 2012). However, the completion rates for both the full time and ODL students are quite low. Although Ranko-Ramalli and Rakoma (2012) report a dropout rate of 59% for UNISA students, the actual dropout rate might be much higher.

Second-Chance Learners

Distance education consists of learning where the learner is physically separated from the tutor, except for short intervals of tutoring and face-to-face sessions. Distance learners have traditionally been adults who missed their first chance in conventional school and college system, and are therefore second-

chance learners. Such learners face many challenges that cause a slow-down in their learning pace resulting in long duration of completion of studies. Chireshe et al. (2010) reported challenges to include lack of time and resources, work pressure and responsibilities, domestic interruptions, isolation, death in the family, slow feedback, inaccessibility of counselors, late delivery of modules and financial problems. It is generally accepted that learning out of the formal system is not easy, and can at times be very challenging. Only passion and determination of the learner will decide how faster the student completes a particular programme.

In distance education, there is little interaction between the learners and teachers. Success depends on personal commitment and significant investment in proper curriculum design as well as materials developed that takes into account the level of learners and their studying environment. The university has to appear as if it has gone to the student, through a decentralized student support framework.

Simpson (2010) reports that the graduation rates in distance education are very low compared with conventional face to face education, and cite that the Open University in the UK has a graduation rate of about 22% compared with 82% for full time students in the conventional system. The author further observed that the high dropout rate is largely due to absence of student mentoring, as students fail to connect well with the teachers.

There was a time when Tanzania had one university, the University of Dar es Salaam. Its annual enrolment in the 1980s was below 2,000 students. Many students could not get a place and some ventured outside the country. Those not so lucky took on certificate and diploma courses then went into

employment. In 1994 when the OUT opened its doors, there were many such adults, unable to join the universities due to lower qualifications and unable to leave families to go to the cities to join a conventional university. The OUT thus provided a solution, first by establishing a foundation course to empower those with lesser qualification, and second to provide adults to learn from anywhere, so called distance education. These are what we call second-chance learners, a large pool of students whose lives have been changed by the OUT. There is evidence that learners who passed through this foundation course did better in the degree courses than their peers who joined degree courses straight from form six. This is because the foundation course provided them with a good introduction to distance learning, and as soon as they moved to degree level, they quickly engaged with self-learning without waiting for the orientation of face-to-face interaction with their lecturers. The course was not a walk over as some people were led to believe. Records between 2012 and 2016 show that only an average of 40% of those admitted were able to pass the course and continue to degree level as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: *Trend of OFC Admissions and those Who Passed Examinations for First Degree Enrolment*

SN	Year	Students		% of those who passed OFC examinations to join Degree Programmes
		Admitted applicants	Passed OFC examinations qualifying them for first degree enrolment	
1	2012/13	2,904	1,248	43
2	2013/14	2,510	934	37
3	2014/15	2,181	1,070	49
4	2015/16	3,490	1,380	39.5

Completion rates in ODL

ODL students are free to complete studies at their own pace. However, some ODL institutions such as the OUT, prescribe a minimum and maximum duration for completing studies. Thus, students are compelled to study and complete within the maximum duration. Despite such strict requirements there are still many students who for various reasons are allowed to take longer, or who complete in a shorter period.

The completion rate can be measured in different ways. One is to compare the number of students graduating in a particular year, and then looking back three years to see how many had registered that year. This method however, assumes that everyone who is graduating had done their courses in three years, which is rarely the case. The graduating group is a composite combination, with study periods varying from 2 to up to 19 years. It was quite unusual that for the first time two students managed to complete the bachelor degree within two academic years in 2015. On the other hand, there was one student who stayed on the programme for 19 years before graduation!

Generally, there has been an improving trend of completion rates at the Open University of Tanzania since the transformation of assessment regulation and procedures. Basing our analysis on available statistics from the university, only 5% of all graduates had completed studies in three years during the 2009 graduation ceremony. As shown in Table 2, the number of graduates completing studies in 3 years had increased to 30% by 2014, and is currently above 50%.

A more scientific way is to compute the completion rate R is by using the formula:

$$R = \frac{\sum Y_i N_i}{\sum N_i} \quad (1)$$

Where Y is the number of Study Years and N is the number of graduates completing studies within the same period.

Table 2: *Bachelor Degree Completion Rates at OUT*

Graduation year	Mean completion time (Years)	% of candidates complet- ing in 3 years
2009	5.83	5.3
2011	5.17	11.8
2012	5.47	14.7
2013	5.22	28.8
2014	4.93	30.0
2015	4.51	42.6
2017	4.25	47.5
2018	4.08	52.1

Disruptiveness of Online Learning

The emergence of online education through the internet has caused great disruption of the education sector. The digitization of information and its distribution through the internet has changed forever the way the new generation will learn. It will be a big mistake if we pretend things are normal, and teach our children the way we were taught. How has the internet disrupted education? It has made information freely available. Instead of a learner struggling to remember what they read, focus must now be more on application of the knowledge, not memory. Computing devices are now abundantly available, and it now looks ridiculous to expect a student to do difficult multiplication or division questions using a logarithm table. Even the younger kids know how to use a calculator on the mobile phone or computer, and

need not memorise the multiplication tables, the way we did in our time. What about finding a place in a map? One just goes on the mobile application and searches, with instant results. Thus, teaching of geography and map reading has to change. In this digital era, we must transform teachers from being repositories of knowledge and information, into facilitators of learning. We must shift learning from memorization of information to using the information to solve real – life problems. The degrees we are giving at every graduation ceremony do not make sense, if the graduates cannot use the acquired skills to solve problems in the community.

The traditional classroom is a very old model of transmissive teaching, where a lecture is given, as a ‘continuous exposition’ by a speaker, to an audience wishing to learn from him or her. Lectures were very common since the Greek and Roman times, and continued through the industrial revolution to modern times. In the 13th Century, when some European universities emerged, there were very few books in the library. In most cases, there was only one copy of the book, which was held by the ‘professor’, who then had to read it aloud to students while they take up notes. This is what we call a lecture, an oral transmission of knowledge. It was mostly given to an audience where books were in short supply. This method is questioned today, where there are many books in the library, and everyone can read. In traditional libraries, with limited books in the shelves, readers were allowed to borrow some books for a few days, while the most sought-after books were placed in the ‘Special Reserve’ section. Libraries could lend out one book at a time to one reader, and the next reader had to wait for his/her turn, when the book is returned. Libraries are now changing fast, as more books become digitised. Thus they are available to multiple readers in millions, at the same time. One

probably doesn't need to go to the library anymore if the book can be reached online.

Intriguingly, despite the availability of many books, including online resources, the traditional lecture, characterised by a master in the subject, talking to a large audience of students, who are busy taking notes, is still a very common phenomenon on our campuses (Thanks to covid-19, most universities have now reverted to online teaching). If we note what is actually happening in these classrooms, we may question whether really lecturing this way is the most appropriate way for teaching to the present generation. Recently, when a student goes to the lecture, it is mainly to know what topics the lecturer is concentrating on, and then later she/he goes online to search for the content. Often, students discover more and better coverage from online resources, and choose whether they want to attend the lecture or not.

Is there a future for lectures in a digital age? Prof Tony Bates is his book, 'Teaching in a Digital Age' (Bates, 2017) provides some light. He says that given the inertia in the system, lectures are likely to continue dominating for another ten years (and that was before the COVID-19 pandemic). After that, the three lectures a week in a semester will have disappeared in most universities. He gives four main reasons for this. First, the content can be easily digitalized and made available on demand at very low cost. Second, institutions will be making greater use of dynamic video for demonstration, simulations, animations, etc, such that most modules will be multimedia. Thirdly, open textbooks incorporating multimedia components and student activities will provide the content, organization and interpretation that are the rationale for most lectures. And lastly, the priority for teaching is rapidly changing from information transmission and organization to knowledge management, where students have the responsibility for finding,

analysing, evaluating, sharing, and applying knowledge, under the direction of a skilled subject expert. Project-based learning, collaborative learning and situated or experiential learning will become much more widespread.

Learning Likened to a Marathon Race

Learning is now like a marathon race, where all runners start together, but each will finish at own time. All that matters for a marathon runner is to complete the race, independently. It is out of imagination, how for centuries, educators made learners to start and finish together. This has denied the fast learner a chance to finish ahead of his/her peers. We have been keeping young people in schools for more years than necessary. Others failed because they couldn't keep with the pace of other learners. Had we been patient with the slow learners, they could have also finished. The learning content prescribed for the average student in two semesters, could be completed in one semester by a cleverer learner. A slower student perhaps needs three or even four semesters. No research is available to link learning with time. In the 1970s when there were no computers, smart phones and internet, students registered for a bachelor degree in engineering at the University of Dar es Salaam took four years to complete engineering degree studies when there were no computers or smart mobile phones. Students were never allowed to use calculators and used slide rules for computation, instead. But why, are learners today, who have access to electronic gadgets and internet, required to spend the same time? Fast learners are made to complete their courses at the same rate as the peers who are slower. Examinations are scheduled at the end of the semester, so that fast learners have to wait, even if they attain the requisite learning outcomes earlier. It is a world of academics at its worst, when it comes to availability of examination outside the scheduled sessions.

Some Challenges of Online Delivery

Delivery of distance online education has many challenges particularly in developing Sub-Saharan countries in Africa. The first is the high cost of ICT hardware, such as computers and smartphones. Most students from poor families claim they cannot afford a new laptop computer. The cheapest laptops in our market go for about TSh 500,000. But there are also second-hand computers for as low as Tsh 200,000. Most students own smartphones, which they can use to access online content.

Secondly, is the high cost of internet bundles and poor bandwidth in our region. Mobile signals are also very weak or not available in some rural areas. For instance, the cost of 1 Mbps per month in Tanzania is around USD127.29 compared to USD 7.50 in the Russian Federation, USD 12.26 in China and USD 34.78 in the UK. Table 3 shows the cost of bandwidth in some selected countries.

Table 3: *Average Cost of Broadband per Month in USD for Some Selected Countries*

Region	Country	Cost In USD
Asia (Near East)	Vietnam	11.27
Asia (Near East)	China	12.26
Asia (Near East)	India	13.58
Europe	Russian Federation	7.50
Europe	Italy	32.72
Europe	UK	34.78
Middle East	UAE	89.03
North Africa	Tunisia	11.65
North Africa	Egypt	45.28
North America	Canada	76.14
South America	Argentina	19.49
South America	Colombia	24.63
South America	Brazil	24.79
Sub-Sahara Africa	Tanzania	127.29

Sub-Sahara Africa	Ghana	254.25
Sub-Sahara Africa	Burundi	370.00
Sub-Sahara Africa	Mozambique	111.86
Sub-Sahara Africa	Nigeria	88.58
Sub-Sahara Africa	Kenya	45.28
Sub-Sahara Africa	South Africa	60.06
Sub-Sahara Africa	Mauritania	712.46

Source: Worldwide Broadband Price Research 2020 | Cable.co.uk, seen on 18th March 2021

Thirdly, is the lack of scholarships or loans for ODL learners. The university is now negotiating with some local banks, so that they can offer soft loans to OUT students, most of whom are working and can pay back the loans immediately.

Conclusions

Firstly, it can be concluded that ODL offers unlimited access to education at an affordable cost. ODL learners remain at their home base, and are free from accommodation, meals and travel costs associated with conventional campus-based education. Secondly, is the truth that online education is causing a disruption in the conventional learning system, rendering investment in infrastructure such as hostels, classrooms, and libraries redundant. The University of the future will need stronger ICT facilities. Institutions must invest, therefore, more heavily in ICT and ensure internet access at a cheaper rate is available to learners for this to happen. Thirdly, it is clear now that online education is the only sustainable way to go, as it overcomes barriers posed by pandemics such as COVID-19 which continue to cause the havoc globally.

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Chapter Seven

Bridging the Gender Gap in Higher Education through Open and Distance Learning in Tanzania

— EUSTELLA PETER BHALALUSESA —

Introduction

During the New Year Eve in 1969 Mwalimu Julius Nyerere (the first President of the United Republic of Tanzania) declared 1970 to be an adult education year in Tanzania. Since then, adult education in Tanzania has gone through several policy reforms and has been developing and growing into several adult learning programmes. One of the key milestone within this period of slightly over 50 years, is the decision of the government to establish a fully-fledged open university in 1993 (Open University of Tanzania-OUT) to offer degree programmes through Open and Distance Learning (ODL) system. Among other things, this system is viewed as a strategic way to widen opportunities in higher education as it is considered more economical compared to the conventional teaching and learning. Although, the government of Tanzania, since independence in 1961, had been trying to ensure the growth and expansion of higher education sector, it was difficult to address all educational and training needs by traditional practice because of the expenses involved. Until 1993, for example, the whole country had only two conventional universities (University of Dar es Salaam and Sokoine University of Agriculture), with the capacity of only 4,175 full-time students [United Republic of Tanzania (URT), 1993]. Apart from widening access to higher education, open and distance learning system was also well thought out as a means to allow many women to pursue university education, especially those who are unable to leave their family responsibilities to study full time in conventional universities as the quotation below suggests:

The committee is convinced that an open university can be a great facilitator in the efforts to open up learning opportunities in higher education for women. With its flexibility and multimedia approach in teaching, it can take higher education to their doorsteps instead of requiring them to take full-time programmes (URT, 1990, p.59).

This Chapter, therefore, draws on rich, in-depth evidence from a small sample of Tanzanian women who have accomplished their bachelor degree programme through ODL, placing them amongst a very small percentage of highly educated women in the Tanzanian context. It is anticipated that the learning experiences shared by the selected women in this chapter are going to form invaluable lessons for other women aspiring for higher education through open and distance learning but are still hesitant to seize the opportunity it offers.

Setting the Scene: The Dynamics of Gender Gap in Education in Tanzania

In Tanzania, gender gap in access to higher education continues to attract attention of many scholars and policy makers. This is due to the fact that women are still under represented in higher education. Recent statistics show that in the 2019/2020 academic year, women enrolment in higher education in Tanzania constituted 38.5 percent. Although, higher education is important for everyone, it is especially significant for women for well-known reasons such as: social mobility, financial independence, professional identity, and entry into the labour market. More educated women are likely to secure brighter future, and can lift entire households out of poverty. Higher education gives women a voice in the communities, including in national and international dialogues. More women in possession of higher education may

inspire young girls to continue with their education. Also, more women in powerful roles may inspire young girls to continue with their education and contribute a unique voice to societal challenges.

Statistically, gender gap has been addressed at the primary education level. As indicated in the recent education statistics prepared by the Presidents' Office, Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG) the ratio of girls to boys at primary education level is almost 1:1 The state of the art at lower secondary school level (Form One to Form Four) is also very promising with enrolment in both public and private secondary schools standing at 1,102,810 (47.5%) for boys and 1,218,449 for girls (52.5%). The situation starts to be bleak as one goes up the ladder to advanced secondary schools where a total number of 44,354 boys (56.5%) were enrolled in Form Five in 2020 against 34,091 girls (43.5%) (URT, 2020).

It should be noted that, government policies have been quite supportive of gender equity in education. Tanzania has signed and ratified the international conventions on the right to education for all. This is reflected in the national constitution and other policy documents. As a country, Tanzania believes in equality and human rights to education. This belief has been expounded in the constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977 as amended in 1984. The constitution provides for individual freedom of both sexes to educate themselves up to the desired level. Article XI (2) of the constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania states that, *“Every person has the right to self-education, and every citizen shall be free to pursue education in a field of his choice up to the highest level according to his merits and ability”* (URT, 1998, p.19).

Nonetheless, it is also true that Tanzania has a highly selective education system based on national examinations at the end of primary, ordinary secondary and advanced secondary school levels. Thus, those admitted to higher levels of education come from the top quantile with high performance. Unfortunately, girls' performance in national examinations at Form Four and Form Six is not comparable to that of boys¹. Since admission to undergraduate programmes requires good principle passes in the advanced certificate for Secondary Education or equivalent qualification, the smaller number of qualified women limits their access to university education. Unless the output of girls with acceptable results at advanced secondary education is increased, the number of girls participating in university education will remain unacceptably at low levels.

Girls' poor performance in secondary school examinations does not necessarily mean that they are deficient in intellectual ability. Experience demonstrates that there are observable factors such as location of the school and school variations, societal attitudes, cultural stereotypes, and expectations that may have a direct impact on girls' performance. In Africa in general, and Tanzania in particular, despite substantial strides towards promoting gender equality and empowering women in some areas, women still face enormous constraints.

It is important to note that, for a number of years, there have been affirmative actions within tertiary institutions to increase the number of female students. The Musoma Resolution of 1974 was the first affirmative action policy intervention that resulted in the increase of female enrolment at University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM); by that time, it was the only university in the country.

¹ ² See for example, examination results for the academic year 2019/2020 as indicated in the recent Regional Data for Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Education prepared by the Presidents' Office, Regional Administration and Local Government

Through the Musoma Resolution, females were able to enter the University directly from secondary schools and were thus exempted from a two-year compulsory work period that their male counterpart went through. Similarly, the University of Dar es Salaam, which for a long time was the only public university in Tanzania, began focusing on gender mainstreaming in the 1990s when it was realized that women did not constitute even a quarter of the student body. The establishment of Gender Task Force in 1995 and then Gender Dimensions Programme Committee (GDPC) in 1997 created vehicles that facilitated the University's gender efforts. Through the GDPC, the University of Dar es Salaam put in place interventions to address gender imbalances, understanding and knowledge. These interventions included, for example:

- Preferential admission criteria that allowed female students to be admitted into degree programmes by lowering the entry cut-off point by 1-1.5 points.
- Pre-Entry Programme in the then Faculty of Science whereby female students who had not attained the cut-off points were given a remedial programme of six weeks. Upon passing this course, they gained admission to the university.
- Introduction of the Female Undergraduate Scholarship Programme (FUSP) in 2001, which financed some female students (with assistance from the Carnegie Corporation of New York). For three years, FUSP benefited 50 female students each year.

This was a major step towards addressing gender imbalance in enrolment at UDSM, especially in the Science and Engineering programmes where through the pre-entry programme, 129 female students gained entry in 2004 and 2005. These efforts indicated the sign of goodwill. Other universities such as Sokoine University of

Agriculture did the same, especially on the pre-entry programme to widen participation of female candidates in science-related programmes.

Within the same vein, the government decided to establish a full-fledged Open University (The Open University of Tanzania) in 1993 with one of its objectives being to provide access to higher education to disadvantaged groups such as women through open and distance learning system. Given the flexibility combined with the extensive use of online platforms, it was anticipated that women would find it user friendly and a preferred choice for their academic aspiration. From logical point of view, it is easy to see how open and distance learning (ODL) can open up learning opportunities. On the face of it, distance education is per se a ‘woman friendly’ form of acquiring education and formal qualifications because the main part, if not the whole, of distance teaching curriculum is designed for independent study and does not require classroom attendance. There is no need for students to live on a university campus, so studying at a distance can be reconciled with personal commitments of living at home with a family.

However, there is enough research evidence (see for example, Peter, 2017) to demonstrate that women in distance learning face a range of barriers that restrict them from easy access to higher education through ODL. While some of these barriers are created by socio-cultural and psychological factors deeply rooted in the normative values and expectations about women as caring agents there are also roadblocks generated by the system itself that make studying through ODL more difficult for them than for men.

Progressively (with the exception of 2017/2018), the enrolment of female students at the Open University of Tanzania has maintained an upward trend from 8.7% in 1994 to 32.1 % and 31.8% in 2016. However, the percentage started dropping from

31.8% in 2016 to 25.6% in 2017/2018. The enrolment of female students went up again to 36.4% in 2018/19 (OUT, 2019). Up to June 2018, the University had cumulatively managed to enroll 63,909 undergraduates (45,030 men and 18,879 women).

Year	Male	Female	Total	%Female
1994/1995	699	67	766	8.7
2015/2016	2,816	1,332	4,148	32.1
2016/2017	3,413	1,595	5,008	31.8
2017/2018	1,810	624	2,434	25.6
2018/2019	2,076	1,186	3,262	36.4

Source: The Open University of Tanzania (2019)

Looking closely at the statistics for enrolment and graduation rates, it is obvious that a lot more needs to be done to realize the potentiality of ODL in widening participation of women. While there is evidence of some achievements, the number of women enrolled in the ODL system is still low compared to the national average, which currently stands at 39%. This suggests that the Open University of Tanzania is yet to attract female students to pursue higher education through ODL. A study by Rwegelera (2010) revealed that prospective women candidates lack full knowledge and awareness on how ODL system works. As a result, they are less confident that they can actually study and complete their studies successfully through ODL system. In Zimbabwe, Nyaruwata (2014) also noted that scarcity of female role models, especially female graduates through ODL, demoralizes the prospective women learners to enroll with the University. Both Rwegelera (2010) and Nyaruwata (2014) argue that positive role models influence our actions and motivate us to strive to uncover our true potentials and overcome our weaknesses. They recommended that in order for women to realise the potential benefits of ODL they need powerful cues to develop a sense of self-worth and confidence. This could

be achieved through documenting, for example, the experiences of successful women graduate to serve as role models. The same has been expressed by Okkolin (2017) who holds that documentation of the successful women experiences can act as a catalyst for change, since role models and female mentors can impact the learning paths that women take and choose. It is within this context that a more balanced perspective on enabling factors that account for women's success was thought as important to encourage and inspire other upcoming women candidates.

Methodological Premises

As indicated in the introduction, this chapter is based on a study that intended to examine the experiences of women graduates as they reflect on how they managed to navigate through the gender-specific barriers and successfully completed their studies through ODL while at the same time fulfilling their social responsibilities around their lifecycle as women. The study looked at successful women graduates as a special group that merits attention. Therefore, it was shaped by ideas from feminist theories. Within the family of feminist theories, the study specifically singled out liberal feminism which focuses on women's ability to maintain their equality through their own actions and choices. Unlike radical feminism which calls for a radical reordering of society in which male supremacy is eliminated, liberal feminism is moderate and rest its case for equality on the premise that all people are created equal and endowed with inalienable rights to pursue life, liberty and happiness hence the advocacy for equal rights between men and women. This stance was thought as suitable to inform this research so as to expose and illuminate inequalities which are inherent between men and women but based on gender.

Together with liberal feminism, the study was also shaped by ideas from Strengths-Based Approach Model as advocated by

Pulla (2017). The Strengths-Based Approach Model concentrates on the inherent strengths of individuals, group of individuals or organisations while focusing on the positive attributes rather than the negative ones. Adopting a strengths-based approach does not necessitate dropping weaknesses from a list. It only means that we do not begin with weaknesses. An interesting aspect of the strength-based approach is that it allows people to see for themselves, at their best, their own value. It encourages hope within people by focusing on what has been currently or historically successful; in so doing, it arranges the positive building blocks which then can serve as the foundation for future growth and change for the self. Although this model is commonly used in social work, I found it useful in this study to analyse the strengths and positive attributes inherent in the successful women and how they resiliently turned the challenges into opportunities to enable them realise their academic aspirations. Apart from that, I decided to use this model because I believe that every individual has strengths. Even the women who still doubt their self-capacity to pursue university education and succeed, they have strengths and elements of positive attributes which need to be teased out. These strengths can bring changes, encouragement and positive lessons.

This study adopted a qualitative and interpretative paradigm. This paradigm was preferred due to its theoretical underpinnings which assume that each individual has his/her own point of view or way of perceiving and interpreting a phenomenon. Operating within this perspective, it was possible to enter into the women's personal world in order to gain deeper and clear understanding of their experiences of learning through ODL. In order to have a clear understanding of the phenomenon in real-life situations (how to succeed as a woman in open and distance learning), a small group of ten successful women graduates from the Open University of Tanzania was purposively selected through snowballing sampling

technique given the complexity of getting their demographical data. Despite its limitations, snowball sampling technique was found suitable for this study because it enabled me to recruit participants with similar traits (successful women graduates) who were also rich-cases with regard to the information I was looking for. Successful women graduates were specifically considered as ideal for this study because they could serve as role models. Although, it may not be the case always experience has demonstrated that positive role models especially those of the same sex influence our actions and motivate us to strive to uncover our true potentials. They are also strong in the development of our personal identities.

Semi-structured thematic interviews were used as the major methods of data collection since it gave room to probe and capture the more “subjective”(feelings, opinions, perceptions) type of information which was important for the study. Based on the purpose of the study and issues to be explored a framework of questions was developed and explored in the course of interviews. This helped to make data collection systematic for each informant while at the same time making best use of the limited time available to conduct this study. The interviews were designed to be illuminative on the positive attributes rather than negative so as to allow the interviewees to see themselves at their best and the value and lessons they bring to other women who are still hesitant to come and enroll with ODL. Information collected through interviews was transcribed verbatim, read over carefully to get a sense of the totality. Thereafter, categories were established which were examined to form themes that provided the basis for analysis and discussion.

Reflection on the Women Graduates’ Experiences of Learning

In this section findings from the study are presented and analysed to identify the attributes that enabled the women to complete

their studies successfully. The section begins with introducing the profile of the ten women.

The Profile of Women Learners: Who are they?

As a whole, ODL female students form a small but increasingly diverse group of the learning population in terms of demographic details and type of studies. They range from early twenties to late fifties and they come from a variety of locations, but mainly in urban areas. They also vary in their year of study, previous tertiary experience and workloads. Majority of them are employed, particularly as secondary school teachers. This is not surprising since the initial objective of establishing an open university in Tanzania was to improve the quality of secondary school teachers and meeting manpower requirement which resulted from a steady increase in both public and private secondary schools in Tanzania. Fortunately, or unfortunately many women are found in the teaching profession. Given the flexibility and openness of the university, there is no restriction on the number of students to be admitted. Anyone with minimum qualification as per Tanzania Commission for Universities admission criteria² can be admitted and this is due to the fact that the existence of an open university is justified on volume of students. As the number of students rise, the costs go down and that is when the university can realise the economies of scale.

Although, the ten women could not claim to be a true representative of all women learners studying through ODL, the impression they gave is that the typical married, rural Tanzanian woman, who is expected to spend most of her time on agriculture, childcare and

2 Any applicant applying for admission at the OUT must have form four index number, form six index number, Award verification number (AVN) from Nation Council for Technical Education (NACTE) for Diploma holders, National Identity Number (NIDA), AVA certificate from VETA graduates. For applicants applying degree by using prior degree certificates must submit their certificates. All applicants completed their form four and form six studies from 1987 backwards must submit their certificates. Likewise, applicants with NTA level 5 must submit their certificates to dugs@out.ac.tz (OUT, 2020)

household duties is not heavily represented. Majority of these women joined the degree programme on voluntary basis and open and distance learning was more convenient alternative than traditional learning methods.

The Attributes to Successful Learning: How Did they Make it?

Generally speaking, there are several attributes which were mentioned by the women graduates and which seem to be common to all successful students learning at a distance. Nonetheless, in this part much more attention is vested in those attributes that are unique to women and demanded additional female qualities.

Sustained Self-Motivation

Sustained self-motivation was identified as one of the key factors for success. Motivation in this context is referred to as an internal process which activates the learner to willingly put effort into learning. Women graduates' accounts indicated that both men and women had diverse motivations for pursuing university education which were mainly tied to their occupation or the search for new occupation, the home relationship, and/or their personal aspirations. For those who were in formal employment, they believed that achievement of a university degree qualification was a route for gaining promotion and more responsibility at work. Employment-related reasons (such as to change jobs or compete in the labour market) were another major impetus behind adults' decision to take up learning opportunities. This was activated by the current demand for higher education and the need for certification to meet the requirement for employment opportunities. What was mainly true for women was the urge to enhance their personal development and contribute to their self-fulfillment. They also wanted to demonstrate that even if they were married, they were still intellectually capable of self-

development and economic liberation. This can be reflected in the following account:

As a secondary school teacher, I realised that a diploma in education was not enough for me to teach competently. Most of my fellow secondary school teachers were degree holders. Worse still whenever I met my secondary school classmates, they would ask me where I was working by then. Some of them were now working in universities as lecturers. This irritated me. I reflected on my past experience as a student and how I was fairing in class. I was equally intelligent. I decided to upgrade myself. I wanted to prove to myself and colleagues that even if I was married now, I was still intellectually capable for self-development.

One point worth noting is that these findings are not unique to the Tanzanian context and women only, hence were insufficient to explain why some women were able to cope with the demands of learning at a distance and others not. Taking this as a point of departure, I went further to explore how these different motivations may have contributed to their success. I realized that it is the quality of motivation which keeps students continuously engaged and committed even under adverse circumstances since most adults are voluntary learners unlike children where engagement with learning is required by the education system. Otherwise, their initial motivation to engage in learning may be weak and fade. This is very important in distance learning context since courses inevitably take longer to complete than in a conventional system leading to same qualification. There is therefore, greater chance of major disruptions occurring in the process of learning which may erode the initial motivation if

it is not strong enough. Additionally, in distance learning mode of study, students are expected to direct their own learning. To assume responsibility for one's own learning is a very difficult step to take. Unless one is highly motivated and committed, she/he may not cope easily with the demands of self-directed learning.

Although the findings presented in this study cannot be claimed to be complete, the general impression gained is that the strength and quality of motivation depended on the women's readiness to learn and whether the reasons for learning were intrinsic (originating from within an individual) or extrinsic (originating from outside the individual). Behaviours resulting from extrinsic motivation may to a lesser or greater degree be something a person feels pressured to do rather than genuinely wants to do. To the contrary, intrinsically motivated learners need little encouragement and are able to undertake challenges and keep on trying even when encountering obstacles. Experience suggests that, if adults have strong desire to participate in a learning activity, it is likely that the force of their motivation will encourage them to seek out special opportunities and overcome special barriers that may preclude participation. These characteristics were observed among the women successful graduates.

For these women, the decision to learn at a distance started within the individual learners themselves. They had a thirst for education and had thought for several years about pursuing their studies further. Some had made several attempts to seek admission from the conventional universities like University of Dar es Salaam but had failed due to lack of the required entry qualifications. When the programmes became available to them through distance learning mode of study, they were keen to seize the opportunity for extending their learning. One woman

graduate who was owning and managing a nursery and day care centre stated:

Given my qualifications, I wasn't sure that I would be admitted by the Open University of Tanzania. I was very happy and excited after being admitted. I said to myself I will make sure that I use this chance properly. I had already made up my mind that whatever it takes, I have to get this degree. So I always talk to myself: I can do it, I am able, and above all I want to do it. I remembered Margaret Thatcher, a strong woman with confidence representing her country on stage. I said to myself once again: The degree will give me respect and confidence to manage and run my school projects.

For such women this was the right time for participation in adult learning and the Open University of Tanzania represented the only means towards their desired goal. Such students were determined to succeed and this determination contributed to their resilience in the face of obstacles. They were ready and willing to work hard and learn under adverse circumstances. Problems of directing their own studies and learning independently were taken positively as challenges.

Ability to Turn Challenges into Opportunities

Related to self-motivation was strong positive self-esteem and personal belief in what one perceives to be right. Therefore, the challenges encountered were turned into opportunities for success. All the ten women who participated in this study acknowledged that studying through this mode of delivery was not an easy task. One of the major challenges which they mentioned was the pressure of isolation and therefore, a need for social interaction and collaborative learning. As a matter of fact, the ideal learning

style required in a distance mode is alien to many women. The emphasis placed by such a mode on the self-sufficient and isolated learner has the effect of creating a hostile environment for women. Women are not readily accepted into informal networks, which serve to bond men. Men, for example, can easily agree to meet somewhere and even at odd hours whereas women cannot easily do that as it can clearly be seen in the following interview extract:

My husband is a retired officer. He couldn't imagine that there was any added value in my studying for a degree. It was examination time and I was studying with my fellow students in preparation for the examinations. We had agreed to meet at one central place to study together. I came back at around 10pm in the night. My husband was very annoyed. I tried to call him but he didn't respond. The children were already in bed and he had instructed them not to open the door for me. When I knocked at the door he refused to open. I quietly remained outside and continued revising, ready for the examination paper the following day. He didn't open the door until 3am. I entered inside and just took a shower. Then I continued reading until 6am when I took off again for the examination. That day I had two papers which I scored B and B+.

Women in some cultures find it difficult to socialise with men in a semi-formal work-oriented context. Unless, the group decides on a suitable place and time women find it difficult to participate effectively.

Although, it is not scientifically proved, it could be reasonably argued that perhaps women also prefer 'social learning' style because of lack of self-confidence in their own abilities. In most

cases, women seem to suffer from negative views of themselves and their abilities to cope with tertiary studies. They feel scared, apprehensive and nervous about beginning their studies. Isolation and fear of failure also featured. They do not believe that they are capable of excelling even when they are good. So women find that it is not good to be as good as men, but are pushed to establish their credibility by being better than men. This places women under great pressure to adopt tactics of high performing men, which, is difficult.

How then did the women turn these challenges into opportunities? It was determination to attain success. They were ready to learn. Determination is all what matters. When you have high determination in life then nothing can drag you down. I had to accept the reality and what is needed to be done i.e. working hard even if I am alone.

Isolation was changed into a strategy of working hard knowing that there was no one to assist. Another woman had this to say:

It wasn't easy at first. But I had already made up my mind to study. I was ready. So I changed my mindset from desperation to self-confidence. I decided to believe in myself and in my own effort. I set my own timetable and I strictly adhered to it. I used to wake up early in the morning at 4am. I would read on my own and attempt assignments for two and half hours. At 0630 in the morning, I would change roles to attend to some household responsibilities before I took off for work at 7.30am.

Skills to Manage the Learning Process

The third attribute mentioned by the graduate women was skills to manage the learning process i.e., the extent to which the student

is capable of managing the learning process itself. As observed in this study, this required skills in reading for understanding, writing to a required level and time management. Experience indicates that since most distance learning students are adults with lots of commitments finding time and appropriate study strategies is not an easy task especially in the early stages of a course. Although students are provided with self-instruction learning materials, they have to exercise independence in terms of planning, timing and carrying out their studies. For most of them this process involves breaking their existing habits of spending time to fit in the new study activities. They have to create order within the general chaos as indicated by this student:

The problem is that you live with the community and you are surrounded with day-to-day activities most of which are non-academic. Not everybody really knows that learning is a worthwhile activity to be performed during time one would have allocated for leisure activities. If you don't have self-discipline, certainly, you will find this system very difficult. What I have done is to set Saturday afternoon free for non-academic activities, because life has to go on anyway.

Apart from time management it was also evident that women as any other students have to know how to learn; which best approach to use in a given situation/task, and how deep to go in reading the text and in consulting other sources-metacognitive skills. Generally, these are techniques that help a person to understand and regulate cognitive performance; the ability to reflect on the learning experience and improve the process of learning. In this regard, habits and strategies for learning have to be developed. There are several possible learning strategies which students may use in their studies. The value of

each strategy will depend on its specifics and the uses to which it is put. This study did not investigate in depth the learning strategies employed by students. However, students' accounts revealed that, the quality of learning achieved was contingent on the learner's own ability to develop a range of strategies to enable him/her make sense of the knowledge presented in the learning materials. There was a close association between a deep approach (deliberate search for meaning of subject) to studying and intrinsic motivation to learn. Those students who were strongly self-motivated to learn in order to acquire more knowledge for personal interest and/or for use in their working areas (like teachers) were interested in reading for understanding and used learning strategies linked with deep level approach. They were also able to make sense of what they read hence coped well in writing their assignments.

Ability to Balance between Multiple Responsibilities and Studies

As it was noted in the profile of learners, the participants in ODL in Tanzania with the exception of a few were mainly adults with a range of activities, commitments and responsibilities, which impinge on their learning. Also, some of them were full-time employees, parents, spouses, relatives and community members. This implies that they had to divide time among these roles. Even if studying was a significant and an important part of their lives, it was just one part of the many parts which they had to balance in their daily lives. While this might have been typical of any adult learner, the situation in the distance learning context and particularly for women was different. In their role as distance learners they experienced role conflict because they were studying and living at home. They had to set aside time for study. The home became their study environment.

Apart from this it was also true that these women were living and learning within a community, which has its own cultural norms,

values and assumptions about learning. It was more acceptable for example, for a man to withdraw from social activities to fulfil his academic ambitions than for a woman to withdraw from her traditional female social activities. Sometimes married women had to seek consent from their husbands, and perform their domestic responsibilities alongside their studies. In many cases as reported by the women graduates these domestic responsibilities were given first priority. The gendered social world has taught the women to believe and accept that being a wife and mother was a natural and biological thing. It was something they could not split off from the rest of themselves. Instead, they had to view it as an inseparable commitment around which a career should be fitted. So they often had to try hard to find means of balancing home responsibilities as well as remaining industrious students. In such circumstances, the women explained that they had to develop a sense of exceptional determination in order to succeed. They had to stay focused. Despite other social, work and family commitments they were able to strike a balance and find time to study as disclosed by one participant:

You have to be on the driver's seat and be carefully driving the vehicle to the required destination. It's a long journey, so it needs the driver to be consistent and to stay focused; not to lose direction and control. Normally, studying can easily be overshadowed by realities of life such as: ceremonies, parties, funerals, taking care of old parents, sick family members etc. If you are not careful you can be swayed away easily. Personally, I took all these challenges positively. I had a belief that a woman can do many things at one time. Therefore, what I used to do was to weigh out the nature of the event before I decide to participate. I normally accorded funerals first priority. Even though, I was also very tactful.

Sometimes I would send my younger sister whom we live together to represent me. Alternatively, I would strategically attend for a few hours and make sure that my visibility is recognized.

Financial Ability and Support

It was evident from the women's accounts that some degree of financial capacity was necessary for one to learn and sail through successfully in this mode of delivery. Even those who were not financially independent they were supported either by their spouses or relatives to meet costs involved in learning at a distance. Although, at surface level open and distance learning is assumed to be cheaper in terms of tuition fees as compared to conventional university it has hidden costs on part of the learner that were sometimes overlooked. Interviews with the women revealed for example that, since it was not easy to meet tutors for consultation, sometimes students themselves had to join hands (financially) and arrange for private tuition. Most of such arrangements were common in urban centres like Dar es Salaam and were paid for. One of the women graduate informed that they were paying 50,000 Tanzanian shillings per subject. This excluded travelling cost to the centre and some money for lunch. The same amount was paid even if it was just for revision in preparations for examinations. These were hidden costs unlikely to be experienced by students in a conventional system since they can easily meet tutors and colleagues for consultations and discussions.

It was also learned that recently, the Open University of Tanzania has introduced online platform for teaching and learning called Moodle (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment). To date, all undergraduate degree programmes are taught by e-learning mode of delivery, except for some few programmes such as Bachelor of Science. This technology-based teaching provides

customised learning environments for students. Course instructors use Moodle to create lessons, manage courses, and interact with fellow instructors and learners while learners use Moodle to review the class calendar, submit assignments, take quizzes, and interact with their colleagues. With this strategy, learners are no longer sent printed course materials as it used to be in the past. Materials can now be accessed from a computer or from mobile devices so long as there is internet connectivity.

Although studies have established that there is no significant gender difference in terms of usage (Bhalalusesa, Rukwaro & Clemence, 2013), the fact remains that computer and web-based courses are expensive, so we have to accept the less effective capabilities of other media. Indeed, the women graduates appreciated the introduction of new technology in learning since it has created more opportunities for the learners to have access to latest information, content sharing and communication. However, they also remarked that this was an added expenditure which is not affordable for every distance learner especially women as can be evidenced in the following excerpt:

The University is no longer selling us printed materials as it used to be in the past. Everything is sent online for the student to download and print. This is not easy. First you need your own computer. You cannot afford to depend on internet café services. Secondly, you need money to buy internet data bundle. Thirdly, sometimes even the connectivity itself is not that reliable. This is challenging for majority women especially those with little say on financial matters within the family. Personally, this wasn't a problem. My husband who is a retired officer was always there for me. I had my own laptop and smartphone. I could easily

afford the expenses hence access online materials whenever needed.

While it is true that students' strong personal qualities together with support from the immediate environment are crucial for successful learning, institutional support was also seen as another important contributing factor. The institution has to make decisions about the nature of the learning materials, the support systems, and management framework necessary to run the learning process. Although, it was not the main focus of the study it would not be wise to completely leave out this aspect since it was mentioned by all the ten women who participated in this study. It is clear for example, that the Open University of Tanzania has now moved from using print-delivery mode only (first generation) towards the application of the computer-based of distance education strategies for all undergraduate degree programmes. While it is true that the use of technology can provide personal support and additional opportunities for learners, it was also noted that it presented new challenges to both the learners and instructors who had to work under the pressure of innovative methods and the need for rapid change. The nature of academic support the teaching staff provided to learners in this context was influenced by the way they perceived their role of teaching in the third generation, their professional training and orientation, assumptions they have about what constitutes a good distance learning and above all their ability to work within the system. These factors have to be taken into consideration by the management to ensure that effective learning is taking place. Perhaps it would have been more practical to start with a limited number of courses as part of the existing programmes.

Conclusions and Way Forward

As mentioned in the introduction, this chapter has reflected on the women graduates' experiences of learning at a distance at university

level in Tanzania. From the experiences presented, the chapter has explained the attributes that enabled these women to successfully navigate through the challenges involved in learning at a distance in higher education in a developing country like Tanzania. It is expected that these experiences serve as an inspiration to other women wishing to pursue higher education through ODL.

Generally, this chapter has demonstrated that successful learning through ODL emerges from several inter-linked influences at different levels. Each level represents a heterogeneous set of processes, values and assumptions that shape the quality of learning experienced. At intrapersonal level which is the focus of this chapter, ability to learn at a distance depends on the individual's personal dispositions as a learner. Nonetheless, there is good evidence from the findings that the amount of learning achieved depends also on close cooperation, encouragement, and support from the socio-cultural context within which learning takes place. This includes the family, workplace and the community in general. While support from the immediate social environment is important, success and ability to learn at a distance is also shaped by available opportunities. This includes communication networks, educational opportunities, accessibility (geographical distance/location), financial position, and access to facilities like computers and internet facilities.

Following these conclusions, the following recommendations are provided to improve practice. Since ODL has the potential of narrowing down the gender gap through increased admission of female students, there is need for gender sensitization and advocacy to attract more qualified and eligible female candidates. Women prospective students should be encouraged and exposed to lived experiences of women graduates. More effort should be made to advocate for the ODL mode of delivery while at the same time retaining the printed mode of delivery. The new technology-based

learning is not affordable and accessible to all prospective learners especially women.

Further to that, findings generated from experiences of ten women cannot claim to be conclusive. It has however, shed light on how women can learn successfully at a distance regardless of their challenges. Certainly, the positive attributes which have been demonstrated by these women graduates need to be nurtured and shared among other women aspirants.

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Chapter Eight

Tanzanian and German Cooperation in Adult Learning and Education for Development: A Historical Legacy of 50 Years Told Through the Roles of Programmes, Personalities and DVV International

— FRAUKE HEINZE & HERIBERT HINZEN —

Introduction

There are milestones in the development of adult learning and education (ALE) in the United Republic of Tanzania which can be traced back to the independence movement and its leader President Julius Kambarage Nyerere. His New Year Speeches on *Education Never Ends* in 1969/1970 and his address on *Adult Education and Development* to the First World Assembly of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) in Dar es Salaam 1976 were important contributions to the development of ALE in the country and indeed globally. This global perspective reaches especially out to UNESCO and its series of World Conferences on Adult Education. This article looks at ALE developments in policy and practice of Tanzania in the context of a diversity of exchanges and cooperation with DVV International during this period to properly mark the occasion of the 50 years celebration. The search includes examples and experiences of the interconnectedness of national and international ALE developments in activities, programmes and personalities. The most recent start of a new project of DVV International in Tanzania sets the tone for looking from the present into the future.

A Tribute First

The International Adult and Continuing Education (IACE) Hall of Fame held an Induction Ceremony on December 4, 2008 in which

Nyerere received the status of posthumous honors, and on his plaque, it is stated:

“The late Julius K. Nyerere, the independence leader and founding president of the United Republic of Tanzania and previously Tanganyika, once said the independence movement in Tanzania was the largest adult education campaign in the history of his nation. His people knew President Nyerere as an educator, “Mwalimu” in Kiswahili. He believed deeply in the power of adult learning.”

During his presidency, Nyerere worked to change the elitist ideas about education in Tanzania. He argued that the education system catered to the needs and interests of a very small proportion of people who managed to enter the hierarchical pyramid of formal schooling. Nyerere set out his vision in “Education for Self-Reliance”. He explained education had to work for the common good, foster cooperation and promote equality. He encouraged teachers and students to engage together in productive activities and students to participate in the planning and decision-making of these activities. ... He believed living is learning and learning is trying to live better.

In 1970, Nyerere declared that Tanzania would celebrate Adult Education Year throughout the nation and throughout all political and governmental bodies. Nyerere understood adult education, believed in it and built structures to support it. He served as the founding honorary president of the International Council for Adult Education and he hosted the First World Assembly of Adult Education in June 1976” (IACE, 2008).

The induction took place in Budapest in the context of the Regional Pre-Conference of CONFINTEA VI (Conférence Internationale sur l'Éducation des Adultes), the series of UNESCO World

Conferences on Adult Education. At the time of writing this article the national and global ALE communities are again preparing for the regional pre-conferences in 2021 with a perspective of the next global CONFINTEA VII planned for 2022 (UIL, 2019) in Marrakesh. As envisaged during the Mid-term Review it will be important integrating ALE deeper into the Education 2030 Agenda of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), agreed upon by all member states of the United Nations, including the United Republic of Tanzania as well as the Federal Republic of Germany.

ALE in Tanzania Today

Looking at some of the achievements during the last decade from a global perspective, but with an interest to understand the major challenges and opportunities while preparing for future cooperation, some of the following findings could be mentioned in respect to the status of ALE programmes and policies in Tanzania. In short, ALE today focuses on functional literacy, post literacy, life skills, pre-vocational skills (weaving, carpentry, tailoring, plumbing, entrepreneurship skills, etc.) as well as professional development in adult and community development (certificate, diploma and degree levels) with a number of government partners, non-state actors and University institutes involved.

Programmes and Projects

Two major programmes are implemented as part of adult and non-formal education. The Integrated Community-Based Adult Education (ICBAE) is the main ALE programme of the government. It caters for people aged 19 years and above and focuses on basic and advanced literacy training and enrolls learners in extension activities, income generation, life skills and vocational skills. (Hinzen & Weber, 2019, p. 27-29) The Complimentary Basic Education and Training (COBET) is specifically designed for out-of-school youth between the ages of 9 to 17 years to reintegrate them into the formal system. Both ICBAE and COBET make use of

formal school teachers and para-professional teachers who lack the methodological skills to work with adults.

A third potential programme developed as a pilot project by the Institute of Adult Education (IAE), is the Integrated Post-Primary Education (IPPE) and supported by UNICEF since 2010 to narrow the gap between the formal and non-formal education system. It provides learning opportunities beyond the primary education level. It targets COBET and ICBAE graduates. However, at this stage it is not an official government programmes such as COBET and ICBAE yet. Further, non-formal education embraces Open Learning Secondary Education (Levels I, II and III), Open Learning in higher levels and Open Distance Learning. Provision is flexible and it cuts across a broad range of programmes. In a similar fashion the involvement of many other local and international organisations alongside a variety of government programmes across sectors can be elaborated.

The Government TVET (Technical Vocational Education and Training) programmes and the Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) are also good examples of the variety of adult education services Tanzania offers to youth and adults. FDCs have a longer tradition since their establishment in the 1970s in the context of Swedish support to ALE and the status reached now has been discussed following evaluation missions (Rogers, 2017).

Policies and Plans

When perusing policy and other strategic documents related to the challenges that adults in Tanzania face, two major entry points can be identified calling for a more integrated system and streamlined service delivery with lifelong learning opportunities and interventions. Examples in place are the *Tanzania Development Vision 2025* which envisions Tanzania as a middle-income country imbued with 5 main attributes of i) high quality livelihood; ii) peace,

stability and unity; iii) good governance; iv) a well-educated and learning society; and v) a competitive economy capable of producing sustainable growth and shared benefits. Therefore, the Tanzania Five Year Development Plan (FYDP II) ranging from 2016/17 to 2020/2021 puts great emphasis on the area of skills development, where strategic interventions are required to respond to skills gaps identified by recent labour market surveys. The Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP 2016/17 – 2020/21) takes its cue from the Education and Training Policy (2014) and focuses on four areas of i) access, participation and equity; ii) quality and learning; iii) education for social and economic development; and iv) system structure, governance and management. It endeavors to improve the provision of learning opportunities for adults, increasing the coverage of literacy, essential skills and adult education. It aims to ensure that competencies meet the needs of the job market in key sectors and that healthy, peaceful, environmentally and gender friendly practices are encouraged. A number of other policies and lately also Presidential directives address the situation of youth and adults in the country e.g. Health, Gender and Community Development. They include implementation strategies and programme approaches. (PO-RALG, 2017)

Most Recent ALE Developments

NALMERS as a New Initiative

The National Adult Literacy and Mass Education Rolling Strategy (NALMERS) covering the period 2020 to 2025 is a highly relevant document to study carefully the context of literacy achievements for youth and adults during the last decades. It discusses the efforts of the Tanzanian Government during the years 1960 -1990 to implement a variety of programmes and strategies to provide literacy and mass education activities which contributed to reach a “reduction of illiteracy from 80% in 1961 to 9.6% in 1986”, but followed by a decline so that the “2012 national census showed that the illiteracy

rate reached 28.4%, rural areas having higher rate of 37.7%. At that time, there were 3.5 million out-of-school-aged children and youth aged 7 to 19. It also projected that in 2015 there would be 5 million out-of-school-aged children and youth” (MoEST, 2020, p. 3). Strategically, NALMERS puts improved literacy levels for youth and adults into the perspective on how to fulfill the *Tanzania Development Vision 2025* and its aims to become a middle-income country with a semi-industrialized base. No doubt that to reach this an improved skills level would be of highest importance.

As a strategy, NALMERS presents and discusses a variety of options, including respective performance indicators and cost estimates, and analyses the different programmes and activities currently being implemented by Tanzanian Government and a variety of development partners and institutions. The Commissioner of Education in the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) reflected this massive task ahead and therefore invited in his foreword:

Strong cross-governmental cooperation and support is required to ensure a coherent and efficient implementation pathway. To this effect, the government has an ongoing commitment to have a literate and informed society for improved livelihood and sustainable development. The government is also aware of the fact that, severe lack of youth and adult literacy skills can thwart efforts to achieve the national development agenda and the sustainable development goals by 2030, to which Tanzania is fully committed to achieve. By and large, the Government through MoEST will continue creating a conducive environment that will enable various stakeholders to fully participate in this initiative (MoEST, 2020, V).

This invitation for cooperation in implementing NALMERS and placing it into the global agenda of the SDG has to be recognized when now looking further into a process which has much in common.

Regional Cooperation of DVV International

DVV International has a long-standing presence in the East/Horn of Africa region with country offices in Uganda and Ethiopia. Outreach activities to other countries in the region took place in the form of conferences, meetings and exchange visits. Based on exploratory visits to Tanzania and exchange opportunities with Ethiopia and Uganda, some delegates from the Tanzanian government are familiar with the *Adult Learning and Education System Building Approach* (ALESBA) and with Community Learning Centers (CLC) as one key component for service delivery (Belete, 2020). DVV International and its partners in Ethiopia and Uganda have successfully been implementing the concept of CLCs as places where adults can access a variety of ALE opportunities combined with services delivered by local government and other stakeholders. During exchange visits the delegation from Tanzania assessed positively the CLC model and the work of DVV International within the framework of the ALESBA. The delegation acknowledged that Tanzania shows strong synergies with the country portfolios of Uganda and Ethiopia, and that lessons learnt can be taken into account when implementing the ALESBA and CLC model in Tanzania.

Representatives from the Adult and Non-formal Education sector within the Tanzanian MoEST were invited to a workshop in Uganda exploring the root causes behind consistent high levels of illiteracy in East Africa in 2014. This workshop was the first to influence the development of the ALESBA through action learning in the East/Horn of Africa region. It has shown that like other countries in the region Tanzania has similar challenges in the sector, but also has

best practices that can be showcased. This form of periodic outreach between Tanzania and other countries in the region continued since 2016 with annual visits by the DVV International Regional Director to different stakeholders from both government and civil society to understand the work in the sector better. Tanzania indeed has made strong attempts to put a variety of programmes and projects in place to meet the needs of youth and adult learners. A group of government and civil society stakeholders was also invited to Ethiopia at the end of 2017 to observe and learn from the CLC model in Ethiopia. The group could relate this experience to former similar structures in Tanzania and appreciated the updated Ethiopian model that involves multi-sectoral government offices to deliver training and services at CLCs. At least two roundtable workshops have been held in Tanzania with especially government representatives to learn from the Tanzania experience in 2017 and 2018. During these workshops, Tanzanian participants also explored the opportunity to start CLCs again in Tanzania and expressed interests to know more about the ALESBA.

Two participants, one each from the PO-RALG (President's Office–Regional Administration and Local Government) and the IAE were invited to the Africa workshop on Adult Education System Building in October 2019 hosted by Ethiopia. (DVV International, 2019) This workshop trained participants from 10 African countries in the approach, including from Tanzania.

Meanwhile, DVV International approached its main donor, the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development and requested to include Tanzania as one of the target countries in the East / Horn of Africa regional profile along similar funding lines and objectives as the other countries in the region. Towards the end of 2019, DVV International received approval from German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and

Development to include Tanzania for a three-year funding phase 2020-2022.

Official Opening on 2nd February 2021

The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Hon. Dr. Leonard Akwilapo and the Ambassador of the Federal Republic of Germany, H.E. Regine Hess, jointly launched the DVV International programme *Support for Adult Education System Building in Tanzania* during a workshop at the University of Dar es Salaam which would be implemented in cooperation with its Tanzanian counterparts.

In her opening remarks, the German Ambassador underlined the impact ALE has on literacy and numeracy, equal access to education, skills for employment and income generation. As a cross-cutting enabler it also contributes to health, poverty reduction, local economic development, climate change and promotion of gender equality.

Frauke Heinze, representative from DVV International headquarter in Germany laid out the objectives of the programme aiming at increasing access for adults to education, to strengthen quality of adult education service delivery in the area of literacy and skills development. Government and CSOs will be assisted to review, analyse, consolidate, and streamline their programmes, to put a well-functioning adult learning and education system in place—a system that provides complementary learning opportunities for adults in Tanzania, fosters their personal development and promotes a knowledge-based society that is able to tackle today's challenges. In this respect, the MoEST and the IAE have been assisted by DVV International in launching and distributing the NALMERS. The cross-governmental and inter-stakeholder strategy provides one reference point for DVV International cooperation in Tanzania.

Further, the programme will draw on the regional experience DVV international has gained in implementing ALE programmes. The DVV International's regional office for East Africa will be relocated from Addis Ababa to Dar es Salaam in June 2021.

Earlier Examples and Phases of Cooperation

In the year 1994 the German Adult Education Association (Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband, DVV) celebrated 25 years of the institutionalization of its international cooperation which had transformed from a Department for Adult Education in Developing Countries to an Institute for International Cooperation with a high level event where the Federal Minister, Eduard Spranger, and Prof. Dr. Rita Süßmuth, President of the German Parliament and at the same time President of DVV held keynote addresses. These decades of institutionalization with its diversity of programmes, partners and achievements were put together in a commemorative and extended issue of the DVV journal *Adult Education and Development* in an attempt to look at the interconnectedness of developments globally with those in its own cooperation activities (Hinzen, 1994).

DVV is the national association of a system of local adult education centers called Volkshochschulen (vhs), literally translated as folk high schools, which you find in each village and city of Germany, today more than 900 with 3,500 sub-centers decentralized to reach out to where the people live. The vhs cover a wide range of subjects on different qualification levels, and yearly have a participation rate of some 9 million in courses, lectures and other activities of a wide variety. Historically it goes back to the first democracy in Germany when in the constitution of the Weimarer Republic in 1919 adult education became a constitutional matter. Ever since the vhs are part of the ALE system in Germany which today is an important sub-sector of the education system, like the kindergarten, the primary and secondary schools, colleges and universities and vocational

education and training – all seen together in their importance for a perspective of lifelong learning (Hinzen, 2020).

It is this special focus and expertise in the education, training and learning of adults which led the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development to invite DVV to strengthen the portfolio of German development cooperation in the area of social-structures since the early 1960s (Hirsch, Jost & Waschek, 2019), and reaches out into a policy document on *Strategic Fields of Action* which is guiding DVV International currently. This being grounded in the interests, roles and tasks of a national service association may help to understand why DVV International combines interventions on macro level in policy, legislation and financing with the meso level of professionalization and institutionalization of providers and staff to support the micro level well – the area where programmes and activities of high quality reach out to large groups of participants.

Scholarship Programme

The training of adult educators has been a cornerstone of the work of DVV International since its beginning. It was part of all country-based activities as well as a special programme which combined a variety of capacity building efforts for a greater number of countries. One such area was the African Scholarship Programme which for the year 1996 covered 708 students across 10 countries mostly for part-or full-time courses reaching the certificate, diploma, sometimes bachelor or master levels. Tanzania was one of the participating countries and in that year had 39 diploma scholarships for Tanzanian citizens, plus 10 scholarships for students from other African countries which did not have universities, colleges or institutes who provided such studies.

Actually, such scholarships for the training and capacity building of adult educators who mostly were already working as teachers

or in institutions dealing with literacy or vocational training for adults were an important component of the DVV portfolio. Tanzania was one of the strong implementing partners, and on the other hand benefited from several hundred scholarships and thus training adult educators to run respective activities. Based on three sub-regional reports covering Southern, East and Central as well as West Africa an extended evaluation was undertaken and the results published as *Training Adult Educators in African Universities*. Several components of the scholarship programme continued, others were further strengthened in respect of structural support to the institutions, including literature and technical resources. Another successful part was micro-project-support, often used to start new projects on a smaller level in countries exploring the potential for future extension.

Cooperation with the Tanzania Institute of Adult Education (IAE)

This hails back to the year 1978, and the results of the activities can be followed through each of the annual reports of the 1980s. The procedure was to agree early on priorities for each of the year, and the IAE implemented in consultation with DVV an annual reporting system, and regular exchange visits. As much as possible the cooperation included the 20 IAE Regional Centers.

Key areas of cooperation were for the year 1982: Publications via three writers' workshops for the regions of Singida, Arusha and Iringa, mostly on livelihoods skills; Training of adults educators in seminars including Dodoma, Shinyanga and Songea; Further training of IAE staff, including accounting, human resources planning, and editorial work; Technical infrastructure, including paper and printing equipment; Consultations – the IAE Director visited DVV for project exchange, participated in a special thematic seminar on further training of adult educators, and joined an International Conference on Adult Education at UNESCO.

A similar structure of cooperation had been established with other countries since the early 1980s. They followed the assumption that there were strong partners with programmes, staff and infrastructure which could be supported through regular funding of program activities following on agreed plans, and professional exchange over objectives reached. These countries included partners in Uganda and Zambia. They were in addition to country programmes in Congo, Madagascar, Sierra Leone, Somalia and Sudan with project offices and where DVV had country offices and with local and expatriate staff (Hinzen, 1994).

Journal of Adult Education and Development

Already from its early beginning and throughout the period from being published by DVV International between 1973 and 2019 the journal had benefited from Tanzanian colleagues as authors. The first Tanzanian colleague who shared an article was Yussuf Kassam in the 5th issue where he wrote *Literacy and development – What is missing in the jigsaw puzzle?* The article by Julius K. Nyerere on *Adult education and development* stood next to a *Letter to adult education workers* which was authored by the Brazilian Paulo Freire whose 100th birthday and the first appearance of his *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* we are also celebrating these years.

At the same time, it should be noted that the distribution of the journal in Tanzania had reached a high level in comparison to other countries. Issue 50 in the year 1998 carried an article which explained the role of *Adult Education and Development* in supporting the projects and partners of DVV International while at the same time was a contribution to information and exchange on professional matters.

Personalities and their Global Contributions

There were of course many colleagues during those decades who significantly shaped the ALE developments in Tanzania as well

as in Germany. However, there are two to whom a special tribute should be paid here: Paul Mhaiki and Hellmuth Dolff. They met in 1972 during CONFINTA III in Tokyo, each of them on their country delegation for this most important UNESCO event which actually was decisive in defining ALE as a profession and laid the grounds for the *Recommendations on Adult Education* which the UNESCO General Conference adopted in Nairobi in 1996.

Mhaiki and Dolff both held senior positions in their own countries. Paul Mhaiki was the first Director of IAE, moved on to become Principal of Kivukoni College, before he was seconded to UNESCO headquarters in Paris to serve as Director of the Department of Adult Education, Literacy and Rural Development. During that time he wrote *International co-operation in adult education* (Mhaiki, 1982) reflecting on his personal experiences in the context of a changing world and providing numerous examples on contacts, collaboration and cooperation. When his term ended, he stayed on in France as the Ambassador to UNESCO of the United Republic of Tanzania. Helmuth Dolff was the longstanding Director General of DVV who took over this position in his early professional career and stayed there for more than 25 years. He was strong on ALE developments in Germany pointing to institutionalization and professionalization to be backed by policy, legislation and public funding. At the same time, he was highly internationally minded and initiated the first contacts and projects for DVV in Africa, Asia and Latin America, and also served in many other functions like as President for the European Bureau of Adult Education.

During the Tokyo conference these two had side-meetings with Prof. Roby Kidd from the Canadian Association of Adult Education and Paul Berthelsen, a colleague from Denmark seconded to UNESCO. Those four saw the growing importance

and need for a global civil society voice and organization for ALE, and together with other colleagues around the world they created the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) in 1973. In his memorial note Kidd mentioned that it was Dolff who chaired the meeting, and later served as ICAE Treasurer and Vice-President for Europe, like Mhaiki for Africa. A first meeting of the ICAE Executive Committee was then held on invitation of DVV in Cologne in 1974 (Hinzen, 1994). The first Secretary General became Roby Kidd, and he invited Budd Hall who had been working in the Research and Planning Department of IAE from 1970-1974 to join ICAE in Toronto, after his book *Adult Education and the Development of Socialism in Tanzania* had been published by the East African Literature Bureau (Hall, 1975). He later took on as Secretary General and his closeness to Tanzania and its representatives made it possible that in 1976 the First World Assembly of ICAE was held on the campus of the University of Dar es Salaam. This is where Julius Nyerere spoke on *Adult Education and Development* (Nyerere, 1979) and was invited to become the Honorary President of ICAE.

Looking Back, Moving Forward

As co-authors of this article, we share a commitment to international ALE and at the same time represent two generations of colleagues from DVV International in the cooperation with ALE in Tanzania. Frauke Heinze has gained a wealth of experience in the broader areas of development, including health education work with the German Society for International Development in a number of countries. She joined DVV International a few years back and is now the Senior Desk Officer for East and Southern Africa that included the coordination work with Tanzania and just culminated with the opening of the new Country Office in Dar es Salaam. She is now involved in the transfer of the Regional Office from Addis Ababa to Dar es Salaam, and from mid-2021 she will move

from headquarters to become the Regional Director East Africa working for Ethiopia, Tanzania and Uganda.

Heribert Hinzen had a different pathway to Nyerere and Tanzania. In 1972 at the University of Cologne, he participated in a seminar on *Nyerere and Ujamaa in Tanzania*, and in the next semester on *Kaunda and Humanism in Zambia*. To write his academic papers he consulted the libraries and collections of project documents and literature of the German Foundation for International Development, and the DVV. Both were active in Africa, and the former, in cooperation Tanzanian and international partners, was deeply involved in the preparation of the conference on *Adult Education and Development* to take place in 1974 in Dar es Salaam. While working on his doctorate at the University Heidelberg he participated in the *International Seminar on Comparative Structures of Adult Education Developing Countries* which UNESCO organized at the Kikuyu College in Nairobi in 1975, coming together with the earlier mentioned Budd Hall and Roby Kidd. At the time IAE was in the lead of the mass campaign *Chakula ni Uhai* on nutritious food and the then Director Father Daniel Mbunda agreed on his application to join IAE as a research associate during the evaluation process. Bertram A. P. Mahai was the Head of the Research and Planning Department, and he together with all colleagues at IAE provided a space for an extraordinary learning experience. The professional contacts enabled him to coordinate for UIL the study on *Education for liberation and development: The Tanzanian experience*, in which almost twenty colleagues shared their experiences and insights (Hinzen & Hundsdörfer, 1979). From 1977 onwards he served in leadership positions of DVV International till his retirement in 2015. The two authors already worked closer together when DVV International commissioned a feasibility study to intensify work in Tanzania again (Hinzen & Weber, 2019).

This chapter looked at several biographical and institutional dimensions by changing lenses when engaging in ALE with DVV International and Tanzania which has political, professional and personal influences and impact and will continue to do so. We tried to show the interconnectedness of the ALE movement globally and the important roles which programmes and personalities for Tanzania and Germany played over this period of the last 50 years in which those important milestone events of the CONFINTEA conferences and the ICAE World Assemblies helped to shape the international ALE agenda. These were the early building blocks for a later time when the *Belem Framework for Action* (BFA), the *Education 2030 Agenda* of the SDG, and the *UNESCO Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education* (RALE) emerged. All these global documents – BFA, SDG, and RALE – were adopted by the member states of the UN family, of course including the Governments of Tanzania and Germany. Both countries are now entering a new phase for deepening the cooperation further.

Finally, without this historical legacy and the roles Tanzanian and German adult educators played during that period of half a century presented and discussed here there would not have been the invitation by UNESCO to ICAE to contribute to the *Delors Report* in 1994 nor to the current UNESCO *Futures of Education* initiative.

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Authors' Biographies

Budd L. Hall



Budd Hall began his academic career as a Research Officer in the Institute of Adult Education (Tanzania) in 1970. His early work included evaluation of the radio study group campaigns and development of the ideas of participatory research. Upon leaving Tanzania, Budd took up a position as Head of Research for the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE). He served as the conference secretary for the first World Assembly of Adult Education which featured Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere as the keynote speaker in June 1976. In 1979 he was elected Secretary General of the International Council for Adult Education. In 1990 he took up an appointment in the Department of Adult Education at the University of Toronto. In 2001, he moved to the University of Victoria as Dean of Education and Director of the Office of Community-Based Research. He currently shares a UNESCO Chair in Community-Based Research and Social Responsibility in Higher Education with Dr. Rajesh Tandon of India.

Yusuf Kassam



Yusuf Kassam taught at Mzumbe Boys' Government Secondary School in Tanzania between 1967 and 1969. Then, he worked as Resident Tutor at the Institute of Adult Education in Tanzania between 1970 and 1974, before he became a Lecturer in Adult Education and Associate Professor of Adult Education at the University of Dar es Salaam between 1974 and 1979. Between 1979 and 1981, Kassam worked as the Director of the Institute of Adult Education in Tanzania. Thereafter, he joined the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) as Director of Programmes between 1981 and 1990. For the next 22 years, he worked as an Evaluation Consultant in International Development.

Victor M. Mlekwa



Victor Mlekwa is an Associate Professor of Adult Education in the Department of Educational Foundations, Management and Lifelong Learning of the School of Education at the University of Dar es Salaam. He first served as a tutor at Marangu Teachers' College in Kilimanjaro region in 1972. He then worked at the Institute of Adult Education which was under the University of Dar es Salaam by then. In 1983, he was employed by the University of Dar es Salaam in the Faculty of Education currently known as the School of Education. At the university, he also served as Head of Department for several triennia and Associate Dean of the Faculty for one triennium. He has published a number of journal articles and book chapters in adult education, adult literacy training, workers' education and education in general.

Philemon A.K. Mushi



Philemon Mushi is a retired Professor of Adult Education. He joined the former Department of Education, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences of the University of Dar es Salaam as a Tutorial Assistant in 1985. He rose to the rank of full Professor in 2001. Mushi has served at the University of Dar es Salaam as Associate Dean (Academic) of the Faculty of Education (1993-1994), Head of Department of Adult Education and Extension Services (1997-2000), Chief Coordinator of University of Dar es Salaam Teaching and Learning Improvement Programme (UTLIP) and Director of Postgraduate Studies (2000-2003). Further, he is the founding Principal of the Mkwawa University College of Education (2005 - 2012). He has also served as Country Coordinator of an International Project on Adult Education Chronologies/Histories in Commonwealth Countries between 1993 and 1996 and Chairperson of the Institute of Adult Education Board from 2008 to 2011. He has published several books, journal articles and book chapters on adult and non-formal education. Mushi has also served as External Examiner for the Institute of Adult Education, Open University of Tanzania, Makerere University, University of Lesotho and the University of Swaziland.

Philipo L. Sanga



Philipo Sanga is a trained teacher and educator who began his career as a secondary school teacher in 1998. His qualifications in the education career have milestones from the then Dar es Salaam Teachers' College where he earned a Diploma in Education (Science Teacher), University of Dar es Salaam where he graduated his Bachelor of Education in Adult Education (BEd. ADE), and then Master of Arts in Education (MAED) from the same university. Sanga

holds a PhD in Educational Technology from Hanyang University (South Korea) where he graduated in 2015. While his focus for master's research was on attitudes of university students towards distance education, his PhD thesis hinged on developing an assessment model for teacher educators. Sanga is currently a Senior Lecturer of Adult and Distance Education at the University of Dar es Salaam. His research interests include adult education, open and distance education, and assessment in higher education. He is currently a member of the editorial boards of: the Rural Planning Journal (RPJ) of the Institute of Rural Development Planning (Tanzania); International Diplomatic Review Journal (IDRJ) of the Centre for Foreign Relations (Tanzania) and; Moja journal for Adult Education and Development (South Africa). He is also currently serving as an Associate Chief Editor of Papers in Education and Development (PED), journal of the School of Education of the University of Dar es Salaam.

Elifas T. Bisanda



Elifas Bisanda is the Vice Chancellor of the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) since June, 2015. Before his appointment, Bisanda, who is a Professor of Mechanical Engineering, was the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Regional Services) for two years (2007-9), then Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academics) for six years (2009-2015) at the Open University of Tanzania. Prior to joining the Open University of Tanzania, Bisanda worked at the University of Dar es Salaam for

20 years (1981-2000), three years at the University of Namibia (2000-2003),

and four years at the Kigali Institute of Science and Technology – KIST (2003-2007). Bisanda holds a PhD in Materials Science from the University of Bath, UK (1991), an M.Sc. in Metallurgical Engineering from Cranfield University in UK, and a B.Sc. in Mechanical Engineering from the University of Dar es Salaam.

Eustella P. Bhalalusesa



Eustella Bhalalusesa is an Associate Professor in the Department of Educational Foundations, Management and Lifelong Learning of the School of Education at the University of Dar es Salaam. She is a trained teacher with a vast experience in teaching at different levels of education in Tanzania from primary to higher education. Bhalalusesa has also served in different administrative positions at the University of Dar es Salaam as Director of Research Bureau at faculty level for three years, Head of Department for three years, and Dean of the Faculty of Education for six years. Thereafter, in 2012 she was appointed as Commissioner for Education in the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, a position which she served for five years. She returned to the University of Dar es Salaam in 2017. Bhalalusesa has published widely in education specifically in the areas of girls and women education, open and distance learning, as well adult and non-formal education. Presently, she is serving as Chief Editor of Papers in Education and Development (PED), journal of the School of Education.

Gennes H. Shirima



Gennes Shirima has been working in the academia for more than a decade. He began his career in 1994 as a primary school teacher where he served for 14 years. He has a Bachelor Degree in Education, Master in Educational Management and Administration, and a PhD in Educational Management and Policy Studies. His research areas gravitate around management of adult and non-formal education (ANFE) programmes. Shirima advocates for ANFE to maximize its potential of reaching and changing the socio-economic lives of

many unprivileged children, youths and adults. As a lecturer in the School of Education of the University of Dar es Salaam, he teaches policy, planning and management of ANFE programmes at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

Heribert Hinzen



Heribert Hinzen is a senior consultant on adult education and lifelong learning for sustainable development. He has been working for DVV International for almost four decades in leadership roles in headquarters and offices in Sierra Leone, Hungary and Lao PDR. He earned a doctorate from the University of Heidelberg in Germany with a comparative study on the development of adult education in Tanzania. He serves as Honorary Professor at the University of Pecs in Hungary, and teaches in comparative adult education at the University of Würzburg in Germany. Earlier, he has been Vice-President of the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) and the European Association for the Education of Adults (EAEA), now Promoting, Interrogating and Mobilising Adult Learning and Education (PIMA). He was a member of the CONFINTEA VI Consultative Group, the UN Literacy Decade Expert Group, and on the German Delegations for the World Education Forum 2000 in Dakar, and 2015 in Incheon. His editorial roles include work for Adult Education and Development, *Bildung und Erziehung*, and the International Review of Education. In 2006 he was invited into the International Adult and Continuing Education Hall of Fame, and in 2016 he became Honorary Fellow of the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

Frauke Heinze



Frauke Heinze is an experienced international expert in Adult Education and Public Health with over 15 years of experience in international cooperation. Currently, she is managing and overseeing projects on adult education in six countries in the Southern and East/Horn of Africa regions for DVV International, the Institute of the German Adult Education Association as a leading professional organization in adult education and development. During her employment at *Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit* (GIZ) Frauke managed international projects in health education, health system strengthening and community development for over 10 years in Kenya, Malawi, Zambia and Nepal.