

Contemporary Adult Education Policies and Practices in Tanzania: Are They Meeting National Challenges?

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated Contemporary Adult Education (AE) policies and practices in Tanzania and the way they address national challenges. Four questions guided the study: Are contemporary AE policies related to the AE practices in Tanzania? Do contemporary AE policies address national challenges in Tanzania? Are contemporary AE practices addressing national challenges in Tanzania? Lastly, what are the voices of AE stakeholders with regard to contemporary AE policies and practices in addressing national challenges in Tanzania?

The study was carried out in three regions of mainland Tanzania (Dar es Salaam, Mara, and Ruvuma). Quantitative strategy was dominant in data collection although qualitative strategy was also used. The study involved adult learners, adult educators, and policy makers and academicians who were accessed through questionnaires and interview guides. Documentary review guide was also used to collect data.

The findings indicate that AE in Tanzania is accorded low status. Also, the study found that most of the AE policy statements investigated were not related to AE practices. Furthermore, the findings reveal that although AE policies address some of the national challenges like income poverty, illiteracy, HIV/AIDS, and income inequality, some of them were not translated into practices.

The study recommends that challenges facing adults (the clientele of AE programmes) have to be given first priority in both policies and practices. Moreover, adults have to be conscientized to read and understand the educational policy. Also it is recommended to all AE stakeholders in Tanzania to revive the status of AE as it was in 1970s and early 1980s. Lastly, it is recommended that further study of the same nature can be conducted in a wider geographical area and which will involve more sample from other institutions running AE programmes in Tanzania especially civil societies and Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

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Blackson Kanukisya
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Oslo, Norway

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved lates:

My Father, *Kanukisya Mwakambonja Mwaisango*

and

My 'Mother', *Rahel Kikunga Ndola*

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ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

AE	Adult Education
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CRC	Convention on the Right of Child
CT	Critical Theory
EFA	Education for All
ESR	Education for Self-Reliance
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GoURT	Government of the United Republic of Tanzania
FE	Formal Education
HCT	Human Capital Theory
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
LLL	Lifelong Learning
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NACP	National AIDS Control Programme
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NGO	Non Government Organization
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
RAS	Regional Administrative Secretary
ODL	Open and Distance Learning
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
TANU	Tanganyika African National Union
TETP	Tanzania Education and Training Policy
UDSM	University of Dar es salaam
UiO	University of Oslo (Universitet i Oslo)
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WB	World Bank

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Learn or burn¹

...adult education is not something which can deal with just "agriculture", or "health", or "literacy", or "mechanical skill", etc. All these separate branches of education are related to the total life a man is living, and to the man he is and will become. Learning how best to grow soy-beans is of little use to a man if it is not combined with learning about nutrition and/or the existence of a market for the beans. This means that adult education will promote changes in men, and in society. And it means that adult education should promote change, at the same time as it assists men to control both the change which they induce, and that which is forced upon them by the decisions of other men or the cataclysms of nature².

1.1 Background to the Problem

The need to invest in education in general and Adult Education (AE) in particular, has been a concern of individuals, families, communities and national states, either individually or collectively. Tanzania³ is of no exemption. Many theories and models have been in place to justify the investment in AE in different regions of the world (Torres, 2006a).

At independence (1961) Tanzania mainland (Tanganyika by then) had illiteracy rate of 80 percent. Diseases were rampant and people attributed them to witchcrafts and poverty was a best companion to Tanzanians yet people attributed it to the will of God (Bhalalusesa, 2004). Most reasons responsible for such conditions were attributed to the colonial government (British colonial government) and less investment on AE among other things.

Seeing that situation, Nyerere (a president by then) launched a war against three archenemies (ignorance, diseases and poverty. Thus, in 1970s Tanzania invested remarkably in AE and consequentially it was one of the models for successful AE policies and practices in the world. As a result of the investment in AE programmes, the socio- economic well-being of Tanzanians improved (GoURT & WB, 2002:87). The achievements were remarkable to the extent that UNESCO (2007) witnesses:

¹ Tjeldvoll, Arild (2007). EDU 4040 Education Policies and Planning Lecture Presentation. Oslo: University of Oslo

² Nyerere, Julius. (1978). Development is for Man, by Man, and of Man: The Declaration of Dar es Salaam, In Hall, Budd and Kidd, Roby (eds.) *Adult Education: A Design for Action*. Oxford: Pergamon. Page 29

³ Tanzania is comprised of Mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar after union in 1964. However, in this study Tanzania is referred to mean Mainland Tanzania.

Tanzania achieved a reduction of its illiteracy rate to 27% in 1981. Other results were more difficult to measure, such as a growth of self confidence and declining the sense of alienation and marginality. Overall, AE activities left the society much politicized than before.

However, in 1980s the trend changed. Well-being indicators for Tanzanians showed sharp decline (GoURT & WB, 2002:87). Illiteracy increased, poverty flourished (Demombynes & Hoogeveen, 2007; GoURT & WB, 2002; Narayan & Patel, 2001) and diseases, especially HIV/AIDS, became and are the best companions to Tanzanians (National AIDS Control Programme-NACP, 2004; NACP, 2005). Regarding illiteracy the trend is as shown in Table 1.1

Table 1.1: Trends in Literacy rates in Tanzania (Selected Years)

Year	Male	Female	Total
At independence	20%	10%	15%
1975	66%	56%	61%
1977	79%	67%	73%
1981	85%	73%	79%
1983	90%	79%	85%
1986	92.9%	88%	90.4%
1992	87%	81%	84%
1995	86.9 %	81.5 %	84%
2000	84%	67%	75%
2002	81%	76%	78%

Source: Nationalist Newspaper (1967) cited in Bhalalusesa (2004), World Education Forum (2000), UNESCO (2006)

According to data from Table 1.1, the rates show a peak was in 1986 where it reached 90.4 percent then a decrease of 6.4 percent from 1986 to 1992. Furthermore, the World Education Forum (WEF) (2000) contends that at the onset of EFA, the illiteracy rate in Tanzania (adults 13+ years old) was estimated to be 28 percent and its rate was increasing by 2 percent annually. Enrolment figures dropped from 6.2 million in 1986 to 1.2 million in 1990. It is estimated that the literacy rate had dropped to 68 percent by 1998.

Another archenemy to Tanzanians since 1980s to date is HIV/AIDS. In 1983 Tanzania had three HIV/AIDS clinically diagnosed cases (Katabaro, 1992; NACP 1993; Lugoe, 1996). It was estimated that by the end of 1999 over 2 million people were infected with HIV/AIDS; 70.5 percent of whom were in the age group of 25-49 years, and 15 percent 15-24 years. Over 72,000 new born babies were HIV infected. Among the new infections in women 69 percent were in the 15-24 age group (URT, 2001). The GoURT and WB (2002) contend that HIV/AIDS is not just a health problem but a grave development problem and its impact is devastating and poses a serious threat to productivity and growth in future. This is because HIV/AIDS kills adults in

the prime of their working and parenting lives, thus reducing the labour force, impoverishing families, orphaning children and destroying communities.

With regard to poverty, the URT (2003) admits that the 1990s have not brought significant net gains in the reduction of income poverty. Income poverty has only significantly declined in urban areas. In rural areas income poverty is rampant. Data show that 50 percent of Tanzanians live below poverty line (URT, 2007)

The situation in labour market and unemployment is not promising either. By using the international definition⁴ of unemployment, URT (2003) stated that the overall unemployment in the country increased from 3.5 percent to 5 percent in 2000/2001. More information reveals that about 11 percent of people who can work were unemployed in 2005 by national definition (URT, 2006). It is worthy noting that the working group of the population legally are adults. The Nordic Council of Ministers (1995:21) argues that the high rate of unemployment is related to sluggish economic growth. But the special feature of today's unemployment is that more and more unemployed workers cannot get jobs even if the economy recovers and employment rises. Many of the unemployed lack the new qualifications for which there are demands (see also Ness, 2005).

This situation creates a number of questions among Tanzanians and other well-wishers to Tanzania. If AE was used to combat poverty, illiteracy and diseases in 1960s to 1980s, why it is not doing the same now? A good example can be drawn from Nordic countries'⁵ tradition of using AE in solving social, political, and economic challenges. It is in this regard that, the current study sought to find empirical evidence and document: a) the relevance of AE policies to what is practiced in AE classrooms; b) the relevance of AE policies in addressing national challenges; and c) the relevance of AE practices to national challenges.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Education is both an investment and consumption (Galabawa, 2005). Being an investment, education is expected to contribute to the total development and better consumption at present

⁴ In the international definition, unemployment covers all persons who are not engaged in any economic activity but are available for such activities (whether actively seeking employment or not).

⁵ The Nordic countries include Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden and Iceland. Sometimes synonymously they are called Scandinavian countries. These countries have been praised for valuing and practising AE for total and sustainable development.

and future life of human beings. Adults, the immediate producers in the society, need to keep on learning throughout lifespan and so the idea of lifelong learning (LLL) and life wide learn so as to catch up with rapid changes in the society. Recognizing the idea of LLL (AE being part of it) some scholars have dared to say that there are only two sides of the coin, 'learning' (not only schooling) or 'burning' (as noted in prologue) (Tjeldvoll, 2007). Thus, individuals and societies in this era of knowledge-based economy and information revolution have to learn continuously that is from cradle to grave so as to get rid of burning and/or perishing. As noted earlier, the ETP clearly stipulates and addresses such issues as eradication of illiteracy; regular evaluation of AE programmes; development, production and supply of teaching and learning materials; and training of adult educators to mention but a few.

However, apart from good policy statements, it seems that some of them are not translated into practice for example literacy classes (Mushi, Mlekwa and Bhalalusesa, 2004). It might be true that literacy has been translated into actions to some extent but still illiteracy rate is increasing year after year as if nothing is being done. One may ask; if education policy in general and AE policy and practices in particular address, for example, illiteracy, why then illiteracy keeps on increasing? (see for example, EFA 2000 Assessment country report by World Education Forum, 2000). The same applies to poverty, diseases, income inequalities and unemployment.

It is under these realities and gaps that the researcher inquired:

- Are contemporary AE policies in Tanzania related to practices? If not, why not?
- Are contemporary AE policies and practices addressing national challenges? If not why? And if yes, why the well-being indicators speak otherwise?
- What are the voices of AE stakeholders on the contemporary AE policies and practices in Tanzania?

Given such questions, the purpose was pragmatically to find out if any one or all of them were relevant to the situation under scrutiny. Having an open mind, a room was granted for discovering other emerging facts and themes on the course of gathering and analyzing data. This study sought to point out the main issue in question in trying to understand the contemporary AE policies and practices in addressing the national challenges.

1.3 Research Objectives

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the contemporary AE policies and practices in Tanzania. Specifically, the study strived to meet the following objectives:

1. Examining whether or not AE policies match with AE practices
2. Appraising the extent to which AE policies address national challenges in Tanzania
3. Investigating the extent to which AE practices address national challenges in Tanzania
4. Soliciting the perceptions and suggestions from AE stakeholders with regard to AE policies and practices in Tanzania in the contemporary national context.

1.4 Research Questions

To guide the empirical investigation, the following were used as key questions:

1. Are contemporary AE policies related to the AE practices in Tanzania?

The assumption behind this question was that there might be good policy documents and statements, but poor translation of such policies into practices. The question sought to gauge the degree to which contemporary AE policies in Tanzania are practiced or implemented.

2. Do contemporary AE policies address national challenges in Tanzania?

It was assumed that there can be good policy statements but which do not address national challenges. In other words there can be very good educational policy statements which in the long run are harmful to learners in the sense that they do not liberate learners from environmental constraints and instead make them counterproductive.

3. Are contemporary AE practices addressing national challenges in Tanzania?

Sometimes there can be good AE practices which do not address national challenges rather they serve another educational function. Instead of liberating adults from miserable living conditions, they might domesticate them. Example can be drawn from Freire (1972) observation in Brazil with regard to literacy programmes. Freire found that education practices (methods and content) were not meant to liberate adults rather to domesticate them.

Moreover, this assumption is backed up by what Illich (1970) refers to as counterproductive of education institutions (making learners more stupid rather than knowledgeable) and what Freire (1972) refers to as the ‘two-edged sword’ of education (domestication versus liberation) or what Nyerere (1968) calls the characteristics of the acquisitive society (accumulation of education certificates for its own sake).

4. What are the voices of AE stakeholders with regard to contemporary AE policies and practices in addressing national challenges in Tanzania?

The assumption behind this question was that AE stakeholders especially beneficiaries are the ‘experts’ of AE policies and practices than even officials who make policies in ‘four walls and around the table’. It is on this ground that this question sought to gather the suggestions from AE stakeholders regarding AE policies and practices in Tanzania.

Furthermore, it was assumed that the involvement of people (beneficiaries and owners of the act of learning) at the grassroots (bottom up approach) in AE policy making, practices and/or evaluation are pre-requisite for good and sustainable AE policies and practices.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The results of this study as a whole will provide a lot of useful information on AE policy makers and practitioners. The findings of this study will serve as an invaluable basis by which the donors of various AE programmes can make informed-decisions on whether to inject resources on AE programmes or not. Moreover, the findings of this study will act as a ring bell in alerting all stakeholders on the importance of challenge-oriented AE policies and practices. The findings of this study also form the basis for other related researches and/or contribute to the existing literature.

1.6 Conceptual Framework

As noted earlier in this chapter (section 1.3) in the objectives of this study, the conceptual framework has been developed to guide the study as Knowles (1990:109) argues, “The fact is that there are assumptions, concepts, and principles-theories-behind everything you do, whether you are conscious of them or not”. Thus, this section presents conceptual framework.

It aims at outlining the possible courses of action for AE policies and practices in relation to national challenges. This framework is built on a set of concepts which are related and linked together to provide a better understanding of the study and also as a guide to a review of related literature, data collection, data presentation, data analysis, interpretation and discussion and finally conclusion. While making sense of the conceptual framework, several theories and models contributed in developing it.

As it is known, AE policies and practices are guided by many models and theories emanating from various disciplines such as sociology, economics, and psychology. By implication those theories have also impacted the development of the conceptual framework to be presented later on this section. Learning theories have contributed much in the conception of the framework. Of particular interest is the theories of andragogy (see for example Knowles, 1990 & Mushi, 2004) and motivation theories (see for example Maslow, 1970).

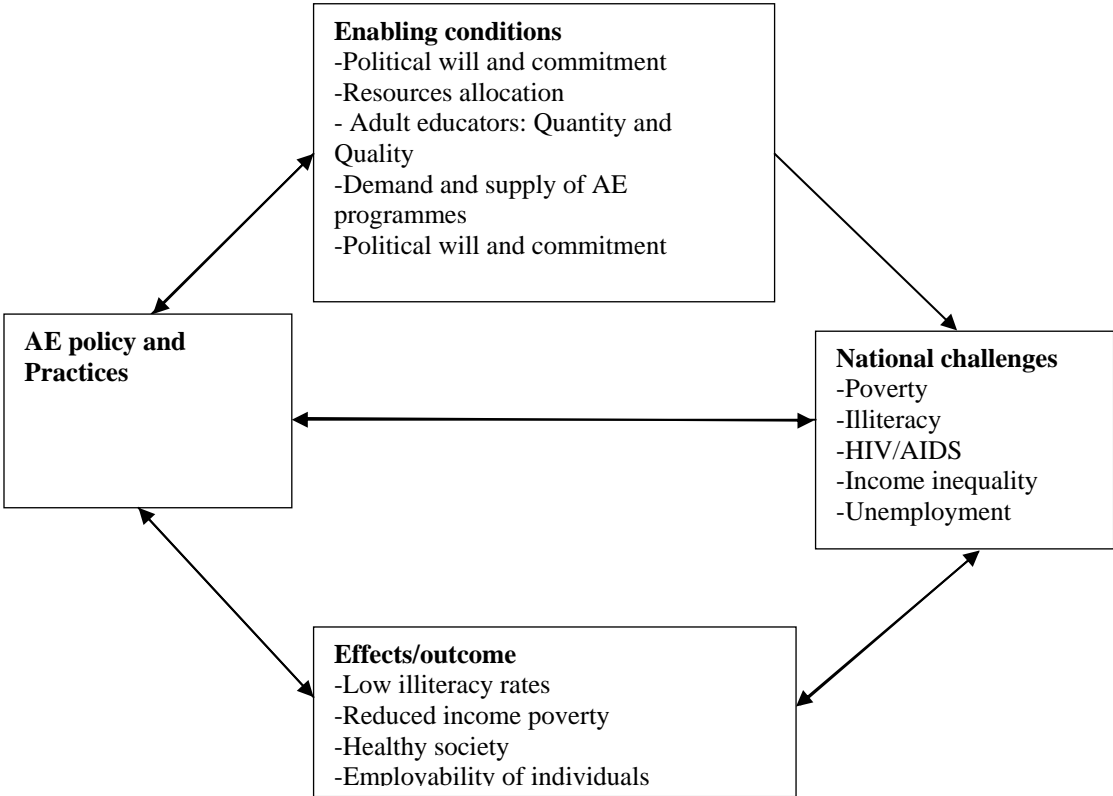


Figure 1.1: *Effective Contemporary AE Policies and Practices addressing National Challenges in Tanzania*

Figure 1.1 is a diagrammatical presentation of the conceptual framework in which this study is based on, followed by descriptions on each of the concepts and its component parts. This conceptual framework is based on AE policies and practices in addressing national challenges

and it incorporates principles of varying theories such as human capital, globalization and andragogy.

It is argued that any education system is there to serve a society in which the education system stems (Nyerere, 1968). That is to say that AE in Tanzania is there to serve Tanzanians. Hence, local culture has to be the primary source of AE policies and practices (see for example Tjeldvoll, 1995:83-84). Each component is briefly discussed hereunder.

1.6.1 National Challenges

What should be the purpose of education in a particular society? What type of society is intended to be created and hence the education system have to perpetuate it? (Nyerere, 1968). What are the challenges or burning and pressing issues that the education system is supposed to address? The answers to these and other related questions have to be the core of any educational policies and practices. In education in general and AE in particular, policies and practices do operate in a society with which those educational policy and practices are hosted (Klein, 1978). Although societies differ in size, composition, structures and complexity, most of their (including Tanzania) educational policies and practices ought to centre on answering the above questions.

Having such assumptions in mind, AE policy in Tanzania is supposed to address such national challenges like poverty, illiteracy, diseases, income inequalities and unemployment. However, that has not been always the case. Sometimes educational policy and practices do not function as desired or hoped to be. Instead of addressing national challenges they might consolidate and maintain the challenges (see for example Illich, 1970; Freire, 1972; Macedo, 1993). Additionally, for educational policies and practices to be effective and efficient, there must be enabling conditions that facilitate their smooth operations. The enabling conditions are the concerns of the next section.

1.6.2 Enabling Conditions

The second component of the model is comprised of the enabling conditions or pre-requisites to successful AE policy and practices. It is believed that any education system or level does not operate in a vacuum rather there are conditions that must be in place for it to be successful. Basing on the HCT (see for example Schultz, 1961; Mlekwa, 1997;

Psacharopoulos & Patrinos 2004; Galabawa, 2005; Becker, 1992) one of the crucial condition for a successful educational policy and practices is adequate investment. Since investment in education is to a larger extent shouldered by national governments, political will is very important. Other equally important enabling conditions include; the political stability, intra and inter-sector linkages (multi-sectoral), well trained and innovative adult educators, appropriate demand and supply of AE programmes and supportive national and international environment. Should enabling conditions be in place, AE policies and practices can be executed.

1.6.3 AE Policies and Practices

The third component in the framework is AE policies and practices. Bearing in mind that national challenges and enabling conditions are in place, effective AE policies and practices ought to be in place. In the context of this study, AE policies and practices will be effective if they assist adults to overcome their challenges and equally important if they assist in the building of a type of society desired by all members of that particular society (Tanzanians in this case). This means that if a country (Tanzania for example) has good and sound policies and practices on AE inevitably there should be returns to such policies and practices. But if a country has bad policies (plans and programmes included) and practices on education in general and AE in particular then the challenges might not be addressed. And so, there might be a possibility of a society to lose track towards creating a desired society.

1.6.4 Effects/Outcome

The fourth component is the effects or outcome of AE policies and practices. It is assumed that if enabling conditions are executed and AE policies and practices address national challenges, then there will be positive outcome (returns to investment in AE both private and public in all aspects of life such as social, economical, political and cultural) in the lives of people such as reduced poverty, employability in the labour market, high literacy rate, social equality, exploitation of information technologies and a healthy society to mention but a few.

1.7 Operationalization

Bryman and Cramer (1990:61) argue that operational definition specifies the procedures (operations) that will permit differences between individuals in respect of the concept(s) concerned to be precisely specified. On the same vein Cozby (2007:68) defines

operationalization as, “definition of a variable in terms of operations or techniques the researcher uses to measure or manipulate it”. Cozby (Ibid.) went on to say that operational definition forces researcher(s) to discuss abstract concepts in concrete terms. Moreover, operational definition helps a researcher(s) to communicate ideas to others. In this study key concepts are defined in order to enable measurerability and reduction of abstractness.

Thus, in order for data collection and dissemination to be organized in a logical manner, working or operational definitions of key terms in the study have been provided hereunder. The key terms include policy, practice, poverty, illiteracy, HIV/AIDS, and adult education.

1.7.1 Adult

The area of definitions in AE is one of a considerable difficulty. More ink has been spilt on trying to determine what we mean by these words than on other aspect of the subject, but there is still much confusion (Rogers, 1996:29). The definition of AE is not straightforward due to different meanings of the terms adult and education to different people and societies.

With regard to adult, Knowles (1990:57) saw the concept of adult as having four definitions. These definitions include biological, social, legal and psychological. Thus, an adult can be conceived of as a person who has reached a certain age legally bound and acceptable in his/her society and has some social responsibility(s) as an adult and has developed a sense of self directedness.

1.7.2 Adult Education

UNESCO (1976) cited in Bhola (1994a:321-322) defines AE as “the entire body of organized educational processes, 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 or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development”.

The definition by UNESCO captures almost all important aspects of AE. However, it does not specify the uniqueness of AE since adults have some unique characteristics that distinguish them from children. By implication, the definition has a lot to do with how to formulate objectives, facilitation and the like.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development-OECD (1992) defines AE:

...any learning activity or programme deliberately designed by providing agent to satisfy any training need or interest that may be experienced at any stage in his or her life by person that is over the statutory school leaving age and whose principal activity is no longer education. Its ambit thus spans non-vocational, vocational, general, formal and non-formal studies as well as education with a collective social purpose.

This definition was conceptualized in the context of developed countries where very few are excluded from the education system. In developing countries like Tanzania one might be within the statutory school leaving age but still outside the education system for various reasons (see for example URT, 1995). Also when OECD says, “whose principal activity is no longer education” it means education is the same as schooling.

Nyerere (1978:30) views AE as stretching far beyond the classroom. He argues that AE is 'anything which enlarges men's understanding, activates them, and helps them to make their own decisions and to implement those decisions for themselves'. This definition is also subject to criticism. For example, it seems that Nyerere was not gender sensitive because he refers only to men.

According to Torres (2006), AE is a broad field that includes basic and continuing education, vocational and technical education, higher education and professional development, and is offered through formal, non-formal and informal education means, and by a variety of actors (the State, civil society organizations and the market).

Therefore, the working definition of adult education throughout this study is all educational activities planned for adults outside or parallel to the formal education school system in Tanzania.

1.7.3 Policy

The word policy has been operationalised to mean official statements determining the plan of action in the domain of AE in Tanzania (Mlekwa, 1975). Furthermore, policy is defined as an explicit or implicit single decision or group of decisions which may set out directives for

guiding future decisions, initiate or retard action, or guide implementation of previous decision.

The policy referred to in this study is the Tanzania Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995 (URT, 1995). Since ETP is a collection of policies for various levels of education in Tanzania, those articles related to AE have been used throughout the study to mean part of ETP specifically chapter 9 section 9.3, 9.4, and 9.6. Another document of relevance to this study is the Adult and Non Formal Education Sub-sector Medium Term Strategy 2003/2004-2007/2008.

1.7.4 Practices

Practice is used in the study to denote the notion of implementation of the official statement or the policy, and to some extent the relationship of these practices on changing the living habits of the target population.

In this study practices means what is done in the adult classrooms. These may be a reflection of what have been written in the policy or a reflection of what is happening in the society but not written in the educational policy.

1.7.5 Literacy

Ribeiro (2001) holds that literacy is a complex phenomenon encompassing diverse practices, in which different cognitive abilities are implied to the same degree, as are different attitudes and values. The notion of literacy has now become manifold and it is multifaceted and multi-dimensional due to different levels of development among nations of the world. However, since Tanzania is a developing country, literacy in this study means the ability to read, count and write, with understanding a short, simple sentences about one's every day life.

1.7.6 Poverty

Poverty is a complex, multi-dimensional and multifaceted concept. The meaning of it differs among individuals and/or organizations. URT (2007) argues that poverty has many faces, changing from place to place and across time, and has been described in many ways. Poverty can be categorized as income and non-income. In this study, however, poverty refers to

income poverty. In Tanzania, a person is termed to be poor if he or she does not attain the minimum level of well-being.

1.8 Limitation of the Study

In this research, the researcher faced the so called 'ethical dilemma' in the sense that some respondents insisted that the information should not be presented in the final report. But in qualitative studies especially when interview is used, the interviewees' voices are the raw data in research and in the final report. Thus, the researcher on the one hand wanted to assure ethical aspects of the research but on the other hand and most important was the commitment to the quality of research.

The coverage of large sample was impossible due to the fact that there was budgetary constraints and also short time frame. So, the study excluded some of unique experiences and experts that were likely to enrich the study findings for example, adult educators and learners in NGOs and private enterprises.

Moreover, materials on AE policies and practices especially those related to policy evaluation were few. The reasons is obvious, 'a river always goes down slope'. Researchers and writers will prefer to write on primary, secondary and tertiary education as it is where now the wave of the world and especially international education donors are moving to at the expense of AE. Bhola (1994:315) comments, "Scholarship and research follow money. Understandably, many scholars and researchers of policy formulation and analysis have also stayed away from the policy arena of adult education". And International Literacy Institute (2000:5) supports: "relative to other education areas, few research studies are being produced in literacy and adult education and donor agencies have been too reluctant in their support serious evaluation studies or applied research." Also Knowles (1990:27) contends, "The adult learner has been a neglected species."

1.9 Delimitation of the Study

The study was confined to adult learners, adult educators (in government run institutions and programmes) and policy makers and it involved three regions; Dar es salaam, Mara and Ruvuma. Adult learners, adult educators under non-governmental organizations and civil societies were not involved in this study. Drawing inferences and/or transferability of research

results to other regions in Tanzania and/or other developing countries or other levels of education might be unsafe.

1.10 Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is comprised of five chapters. The first chapter has presented background to the problem, statement of the problem, research objectives followed by research questions and significance of the study. Also conceptual framework is presented in this chapter. Here various variables under investigation have been organized diagrammatically to allow easy understanding. In this chapter, Operationalization is also presented. Concepts that are essential and central in this research are operationalized.

Chapter one is preceded by review of related literature. The outcome of embarking on library searching for materials related to this study is presented. In this chapter, AE in Tanzania is presented by dividing it in four phases namely colonial period, Nyerere period (1960s to early 1980s, the demise of AE period (late 1980s to mid 1990s) and the revival period (mid 1990s to 2000s). In each period the context and practice is presented and discussed. Then policy issues (policy as a concept and a process) are discussed. The next part discusses AE policy in relation to AE practices whereas the succeeding part presents the rationales for AE in Tanzania. A summary is the last section in this chapter preceded by challenges facing AE in Tanzania.

Chapter three is about methodology. The chapter presents research strategy, the theory that guided data collection, research settings, population, sample and sampling techniques, quality of research, data collection methods and techniques, data analysis plan and ethical issues in this research.

Chapter four provides data presentation, analysis, interpretation, and discussion of research findings. In this section data from interviews, questionnaires, and documents have been organized in themes with reference to research objectives and research questions.

Chapter five presents summary, conclusion and recommendations. The chapter presents the findings in a nutshell. Later on it concludes the study basing on the findings presented in chapter five. Finally the chapter presents recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the review of the related literature on the theme of AE policies and practices on the one hand and AE policies and national challenges on the other. In the first place it presents a general overview of AE in Tanzania. The second part discusses AE in Tanzania as part of educational system whereas the third part provides the history and development of AE in Tanzania. Part four presents the rationales for AE in development. The fifth part discusses challenges facing AE in Tanzania. The sixth part is about issues related to educational policy in Tanzania. The seventh part discusses the AE policies in relation to practices and the last part provides the summary and gaps in the related literature.

2.1 AE in Tanzania: General Overview

Tanzania is a former British colony which attained its independence in 1961. Now, almost 46 years of independence, Tanzania is still among the poorest countries in the world (GoURT & WB, 2002). Since this study is about AE in addressing national challenges facing adults (for example poverty, illiteracy, and HIV/AIDS), it is important to present some statistical illumination related to these challenges. It is worthwhile to note that the challenges that face adults of which AE ought to address are related and connected. For example, poverty is rampant among illiterate population in Tanzania. The same applies to HIV/AIDS of which it has high prevalence rates among the poor and illiterates. Table 2.1 presents a status of some economic and well-being indicators of Tanzanians for some selected recent years.

The information from Table 2.1 implies something in need and the rationale for AE in Tanzania. Data suggests that Tanzania, in 2000s, has done an impressive work on increasing enrollment at primary education level. However, it seems that the effort has been on the quantitative side of the education at the expense of quality. For example in 2006 classroom to pupil ratio was 1:78 indicating that for one classroom there were 78 learners. Furthermore, for each teacher there were 52 pupils (using teacher pupil ratio). The situation could be better or worse in some classes if the idea of class size could be used (see for example Blatchford, Goldstein, Martin, & Bassette, 2003).

Table 2.1: AE related Socio-Economic Indicators of Tanzanians (Selected Years)

Indicator	Level and year
Primary Net Enrolment Ratio	96.1 (2006) [a]
Primary Gross Enrolment Ratio ⁶	112.7(2006) [a]
Pupils passing PSLE ⁷	61.76 (2006) [a]
Teacher/Pupil Ratio	1:52 (2006) [a]
Desk/Pupil Ratio	1:4 (2006) [a]
Classroom/Pupil Ratio	1:78 (2006) [a]
Drop out ratio	3.4 (2006) [a]
Secondary school enrollment	28.9% (2006) [a]
Students passing CSEE ⁸	89.3 (2005) [a]
Literacy of population aged 15+	69.4 (2000-2004) [b]
Number of illiterates (aged 15+)	6,017,000 (2000-2004) [b]
Total Population	34.5 Million (2002) [c]
Population Density	39 (2002) [c]
Fertility rate (children per woman)	5.1 (2000-2005) [b]
Unemployment (national definition)	11.0 (2006) [e]
Number of unemployed people	2.3 Million (2006) [e]
Household size	4.9 (2002) [c]
GNP Per Capita	US\$ 246 (2001) [d]
HIV/AIDS Prevalence rate	8.8% (2003) [b]
Population living under poverty line	50% (2006) [d]

Sources: [a] MoEVT (2006); [b] UNESCO (2007); [c] GoURT & WB (2002); [d] URT (2007); URT (2006)

Table 2.1 also indicates that out of 100, only about 62 pupils in 2006 passed the primary school leaving examination (PSLE). The remaining 38 were labeled “failures” hence very limited chance to enter secondary education. These might be the future if not immediate clienteles of AE. In 2006 Tanzania had 2.3 million unemployed labour forces. In fact unemployment can result from sluggish economy of the country in question. However, recently the problem also is manifested in lack of competence required, among unemployed,

⁶ Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is calculated using enrolled students as a numerator and children between 7-13 years for primary education as the denominator. Since the numerator can include numbers of children outside the age range of those in the denominator, ratios can exceed 100%.

⁷ PSLE, in Tanzania, stands for Primary School Leaving Examination

⁸ CSEE, in Tanzania, stands for Certificate of Secondary Education Examination or Ordinary level (O' level) of secondary education

to perform certain skills related to job opportunities. This calls for upgrading, remediation and/or continuation of education to fill the gap. Needless to say, data on the table implies the need for education to Tanzania of one form and/or another.

2.2 AE in Tanzania: Education System

The term educational system refers to organized components that constitute a whole (URT, 1995). In this regard, the Tanzania education and training system comprises a structure and sequence of education and training levels through both the formal and non-formal sub-systems. It also consists of institutions and organizations that support or render useful services to the system.

The Formal Education (FE) and training system is predominantly academic, ranging from primary to university level. The structure of the FE and training is 2-7-4-2-3+ (that is 2 years of pre-primary education, 7 years of primary education, 4 years of secondary education ordinary level, 2 years of secondary education advanced level and a minimum of 3 years of university education).

Pre-primary education is provided to children aged 5 to 6 years. It has no examination for promotion purposes. Pre-primary education is formalized and integrated in the formal school system. In 2006, the enrollment was 669,137 pupils for both years (5-6 years). In the same year, the gross enrollment ratio (GER) was 28.5 percent of school age (5-6years) population and net enrollment ratio (NER) was 30.0 percent (URT, 2006:5-6).

Primary education is compulsory in enrollment and attendance to all children from the age of 7 years (URT, 2006). In 2006 Tanzania managed to enroll 1,299,390 (which is equal to 98.68 %) enrollee at primary level. According to URT (2006:12) enrollment of children aged 7 years increased in each year from 59.36 percent in 2002 to 74.63 percent in 2006. Although the data indicate good trends of increasing enrollment, the remaining percentage for both years is a threat towards development in Tanzania. And so, there is a need for educational remediation and continuation programmes to these children who have been denied their basic right to education.

Secondary education, as noted earlier, is divided into ordinary level (forms 1 to 4) and advanced level (forms 5 to 6). According to available statistics the GER and NER for forms 1 to 6 in 2006 was 14.8 and 13.1 respectively (MoEVT, 2006:65). These data suggest that AE is of paramount importance since more than 80 percent of primary education has no place in secondary school hence the need for AE in one form or another.

Higher education in Tanzania is comprised of university education and some colleges. Higher education is coordinated by the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education (MSTHE).

NFE in Tanzania can be generalized as out-of school education as distinguished from formal education which is in-school education. In Tanzania the non-formal education and training caters for the informal and AE. The latter includes literacy, post-literacy, continuing education, and Open University (URT, 1995). Essentially, in non-formal education, the results of examinations taken at various stages are used for promotion from one stage to another.

2.3 AE in Tanzania: History and Development

AE in Tanzania has been practiced and part of life time immemorial. However, for the purpose of this study a period starting from colonial period has been considered. It is obvious that taking the period before independence (during colonialism) as a starting point for discussing AE policies and practices may seem strange as Tanzania had a long and important tradition of AE dating back to pre-colonial societies. In African societies, AE has been practiced traditionally and informally as an integral part of life within a community (Atim & Ngaka, 2004:15; Omolewa, 2000:11).

2.3.1 AE in Tanzania during Colonialism

As noted above in section 2.2, Tanzania was a former British colony. British colonialism in mainland Tanzania started in 1921 succeeding the Germany colonialism (Net Industries, 2007). Education and AE in particular was less developed and education was provided along races. A noticeable development started after the Second World War (WWII) (Net Industries, Ibid.).

The aim of AE under the British colonial government was to socialise the ex-WWII soldiers. In that regard AE was not meant to meet the challenges facing majority of Tanganyikans (now mainland Tanzania). On the function of education during this period, Châu and Caillods (1975:27) hold: “the essential function of education remained, however, unchanged: to facilitate and reinforce the functioning of the colonial administration and to gain influence within the country. Thus, its output was composed of clerks, tax collectors, interpreters, primary-school teachers, priests, artisans, etc.” So, in most cases, the colonial education aimed at facilitating colonial rule and meeting colonial objectives upon Tanganyikans and not for the sake of liberating them.

2.3.2 AE in Tanzania 1960s-1980s: The Nyerere Era

2.3.2.1 The Contexts

There are various contexts that led to the cherished AE in Tanzania in this period. These include the socio-economic contexts, personalities, political and ideological contexts, legal contexts and the commitment of the government to international educational conventions, declarations and targets. In the following part, these contexts are briefly discussed. To start with socio-economic situation, the new government after independence, as it was for other newly independent countries, inherited high adult illiteracy rate of about 85 percent of the total population (Nationalist Newspaper, 1967) cited in Bhalalusesa (2004).

As if that was not enough, poverty was rampant of which people attributed to the will of God, diseases of which people attributed to superstition and witchcraft, and lack of necessary skills for agricultural production (Nyerere, 1968). Also, there were a discrepancy between FE and development. To redress the situation it was seen inevitable to educate adults who will have direct impact on the development of the nation at that moment. It is on these grounds that Nyerere (1968) argued:

First we must educate adults. Our children will not have an impact on our development for 5, 10, or even 20 years. The attitudes of adults, on the other hand, have an impact now. The people must understand the plans for development of this country; they must be able to participate in changes which are necessary.

This narration is more important and relevant to Tanzanians today than it was more than forty years ago. Should the efforts and devotion done in 1970s in AE be sustainable, there might be another different story about Tanzania and Tanzanians.

Nyerere as a personality played a vital role in the development of AE in Tanzania to the extent that it is difficult to talk the history and development of AE in Tanzania without mentioning the name of Nyerere. As noted earlier, Nyerere was a president but also an adult educator (the first honorary president of International Council of Adult Education-ICAE). It is this concern and other activities by Nyerere that Kassam (1973) admits and contends that the growing emphasis on AE, among its other manifestations, was crystallized by Mwalimu Nyerere⁹ when, for example, on the eve of 1969 that is 31st December, devoted his entire New Year's speech to the nation on the theme of AE and declared 1970 as AE year.

Nyerere retired from being a president in 1985 and untimely died in 1999. Although there is no evidence to support the assumption, one may assume that the retirement and thereafter death of Nyerere has adverse effects on the development of AE in Tanzania.

Also, Tanzania as a member of United Nations Organization (UNO) had signed and adopted various conventions and declarations. Tanzania, for example, has signed and adopted the 1948 Human Rights charter of the UNO. Also at independence in 1961, is a period when UNESCO and UNDP invented and promoted the Fundamental Educational Model (1946-1964) and AE was restricted to the acquisition of reading and writing skills to as many learners as possible but did not take into account their different needs, interests and characteristics (Bhalalusesa, 2004).

Moreover, as noted by Holmes and McLean (1989) during the first part of the 20th century, socialism gained ground. Socialism as an ideology was used to reinforce a view of AE and underpinned attempts to change the mindset of Tanzanians in order to provide a more egalitarian society based on African family hood. AE was seen as a crucial means in making adults understand the policy of socialism and self reliance. That is why one of the three objectives of AE in Tanzania in late 1960s was to make adults understand the policy of Socialism and Self Reliance as stipulated in Arusha Declaration. In the same period, Nyerere (1968) came up with educational policy to guide the education system in Tanzania. The policy is known as Education for Self Reliance (ESR).

⁹ 'Mwalimu' (teacher) Nyerere was a president of the United Republic of Tanzania from 1962-1985. Born in 1922, he died in 1999. He is referred to as a Father of the Nation.

Regarding the importance of educational legal context, Durand-Prinorgne argues:

The implementation of educational reform as well as its continuity is expressed in terms of law, rules, and various directives. Therefore, careful attention must be paid to the drawing up of legislation and subsequently, to its application. These aspects are often overlooked when writing about educational planning and the formulation of educational policies. (Durand-Prinorgne, 2002:9)

Soon after independence, the policy and practice of AE was justified using a number of legal documents and development plans. These documents included the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania, the two Five-Year Development Plans, and the policy of Socialism and Self Reliance as coined and advocated by Nyerere.

Theoretically, the growing interest of AE policies in Tanzania soon after independence (1960s-1980s) can be explained using Human Capital Theory (HCT) and Modernization theory. HCT assumes that investment in education will bring, among other things, development in future.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) defines human capital in broader sense as the knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes embodied in individuals that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being (OECD, 2001). Many scholars have contributed to the HCT. Some scholars have established and concluded a positive relationship between HCT and development (See for example Becker, 1964/1992; Schultz, 1961; Galabawa, 2005; Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2004; Levin, 1989:15). Due to the promises of HCT and the role of international agencies such as UNESCO, AE in Tanzania prospered.

According to Fågerlind & Saha, (1989) Modernization theory is based on the notion that there is a direct causal link between five sets of variables namely modernizing institutions, modern values, modern behaviour, modern societies and economic development. Apart from the limitations of the theory, Fågerlind & Saha (Ibid.) argue that it did stimulate a large amount of research and had an implicit assumption underlying much development funding by governments, international foundations and organizations. That is to say modernization theory contributed much for the need of education in general and AE in particular in Tanzania as it was elsewhere.

As a result of socio-economic factors, personality, political and ideological contexts, and theoretical justifications, several policies, programmes, circulars and directives were executed as presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Summary of AE policies in Tanzania 1960s-1980s

S.No	Source of Policy	Resultant Policy	Aims and anticipated outcome
1.	Government Initiated policies	Interim Plan (Three Years)	Eradication of illiteracy in 3Rs (wRiting, RReading and aRithmetic)
		1. First Five Year Development plan Plan	Eradication of illiteracy in 3Rs (wRiting, RReading and aRithmetic)
		2. Second Five Year Development Plan	Functional literacy (matching literacy skills and work)
2.	Circulars and Directives on AE	1. Presidential Circular No 1 of 1970	Workers participation at work place
		2. The Prime Minister's Directive of July 5, 1973	Elaboration on the Workers' Education
		3. Cabinet Paper No. 96 of 1974	Folk Development Colleges
		Parliamentary Act no 12 of 1975	Establishment of the Institute of adult education for, <i>inter alia</i> , research and advice to the government

Sources: Mlekwa (1975), Galabawa (1990), Mpogolo (1984)

As it can be learned from Table 2.2, various policies in form of circulars, directives, programmes, and projects were executed. Some of the circulars and programmes aimed at serving and strengthening the policy of socialism and self reliance; others were aimed at eradicating illiteracy and consequentially poverty and diseases. Moreover, other circulars aimed at increased productivity of both workers in industries and peasants. The outcome was that a number of illiterates came down, abject poverty was minimized, inequalities were addressed and awareness on diseases increased (UNESCO, 2007a). In short, there was at least noticeable liberation and conscientization in all spheres of human life.

2.3.2.2 The Practice

Administratively, it is important to bear in mind that education system soon after independence was centralized including AE. The administrative network for AE included the National Advisory committee, with representative from various institutions at the national level, the regional AE Committee at the regional level, the District education officer for AE at

district level, the AE coordinator at the division level and, finally, specially designated primary head teachers responsible for AE at the ward level or village level.

With regard to the funding of AE during this period, AE in Tanzania was financed and/or funded by the central government. Also, there were generous assistance from UNESCO, Nordic countries and other socialist countries during this period. However, there were difficulties in obtaining data on how and how much AE was funded. For example, in their book, Châu and Caillods (1975) managed to present the financial allocations to other sectors of education but did not present data on AE. The same applies to URT (2006), all other levels of education data on distribution of monetary resources are presented but on AE are not available and what is done is to incorporate it in primary education level.

Apart from difficulties in obtaining data on financing of AE programmes, financing of AE in Tanzania soon after independence was borne by the government, either directly or through the means of subsidies (Châu and Caillods, 1975:76). If the finance of education in general can be used as a measure in the government finance, then Châu and Caillods (1975:49) argue that over the period 1962 to 1971, public education expenditure increased at a rate of 12.6 percent per annum.

Also, Curriculum issues are very crucial in any education programme. In Tanzania during 1960s to 1980s the curriculum for AE was centrally developed. The Institute of Adult Education (IAE) and the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) were responsible for the development and deployment of curriculum and teaching and learning and training materials. Although the curriculum differed with varying levels or stages of learning and clientele, the curriculum was meant to meet the following objectives of AE in the country: To shake Tanzanians out of the resignation to the kind of life they have lived in the past; To learn how to improve lives; and to learn to understand the national policies of socialism and self reliance. There were various programmes and therefore different curriculum to cater for each programme. Some of these programmes are as presented in Table 2.3

AE in Tanzania is composed of many activities and programmes and therefore diverse clientele with differing aims and objectives. This has also the implication on the suppliers of AE in Tanzania. However, soon after independence, the government and its parastatals were the main suppliers of AE programmes.

With regard to the quantity and quality of adult educators, the teaching staff involved in AE can be divided into three main categories. Primary school teachers, extension services officers, education civil servants and employers and volunteer teachers recruited among primary school leavers, working in family farming and paid thirty shillings a month (Chau & Caillods 1975:47). King (1967) observed that one of the main difficulties encountered by the literacy programme in Tanzania was supply of teachers. King (Ibid.) further commented that the problem was not only to find them, but also to provide sufficient incentives for them to continue teaching.

Table 2.3: Adult Education Programmes 1960s-1980s.

Programme	Sub programmes	Objectives	Curriculum/Teaching and Learning methods
Literacy		Remediation and eradication of illiteracy	Based on UNDP/UNESCO Fundamental Educational Model
Post literacy and continuing Education	-Rural libraries -Zonal and Rural newspapers -Correspondence courses -Folk Development colleges (FDCs) Instructional Radio -Text Books and Textual Materials -Cinema	-Remediation -Continuation -Application -communication -Prevention from relapsing into illiteracy	
Functional Literacy		Merging literacy skills to real life situation and improving life of learners	-Based on UNESCO in collaboration with UNDP Experimental Functional Literacy. -Nyerere ideas on education and work/production
Related and Parallel programmes	1. The choice is yours	Increased participation in decision-making	Literacy model by Paulo Freire
	2. Man is Health	Diseases prevention and hygienic education	Literacy model by Paulo Freire
	3. Agriculture for life-1974	Increase agricultural productivity	-Literacy model by Paulo Freire -Nyerere on education and work
	4. Food is life	Nutritional improvement	Literacy model by Paulo Freire

Sources: Mlekwa (1975), Galabawa (1990), Mpogolo (1984)

2.3.3 AE in Tanzania in Late 1980s-Early 1990s: A Paradise Lost?¹⁰

2.3.3.1 The context

Indeed despite the aforementioned achievements in AE in 1970s and early 1980s, on the contrary in late 1980s the situation started to show the greening of archenemies. It is on that ground that GoURT & WB (2002:87) observed that four decades after independence, between 15 million and 18 million Tanzanians still live below the poverty line of US\$0.65 a day and it is one of the 10 poorest countries in the world. Poverty in Tanzania is manifested not only in low per capita income, but also in the low human development indicators defining welfare of its citizen.

Additionally, GoURT &WB (Ibid.) hold that about half of the population cannot acquire the daily consumption necessities of life; their statistics in health are somewhat low, and their capabilities for self sustenance undeveloped. This situation persists even though Tanzania is endowed with a rich natural resources base, has easy access to the international market, and has had a peaceful and politically stable environment since its independence. According to UNESCO (2006) between 2000 and 2004 Tanzania had adult illiteracy rate of about 30.6 percent. Illiterate adult population during the same period was 6,194,268.

Politically and ideologically, it is this period that Tanzania in 1992 adopted multi-party democracy due to both internal and external forces. The Constitution of URT declares Tanzania as a socialist and self-reliant country, it is stated: “the URT is a democratic and socialist state which adheres to multi-party democracy”. There is nothing wrong for a country to be socialist. The problems crop up when the educational and training policy which serves the constitution (mother law) declares something more or less different. For example in Tanzania education and training policy it is stated:

The macro policies already stated revolve around issues of rationalization of investment, liberalization, entrepreneurship, self reliance, enhancement and integration of development efforts. Most of these policies reflect a shift from policy emphases of the 1960s to the early 1980s, which placed strong reliance on government control of the economy and the public sector. It is this shift of emphasis which has also influenced the form and direction of most policies contained in this document. (URT, 1995:xi)

One may wonder if liberalization, privatization or commodification of education is one of the tenets of socialism. Still one may wonder if the education and training policy serves socialism

¹⁰ The words, “A Paradise lost?” were formerly used by Welle-Strand & Tjeldvoll (2002) when discussing the Norwegian Unified School.

or capitalism (globalization). Through experience as a Tanzanian, it is argued that at this juncture it is difficult to say which ideology is being followed in the country.

The observation by Welle-Strand and Tjeldvoll (2002) may help to understand the current ideological position in Tanzania regarding socialism versus capitalism influence on educational policy making. They observed:

The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 symbolized a dramatic ideological change worldwide. It symbolized a fall of belief in collective values. The failure of Eastern Europe's communism seemed to make collectivism lose political and cultural support in general. Liberal and individualist values were reinforced, and increased their influence in educational policy making. (Welle-Strand and Tjeldvoll, 2002:682)

Thus, the changes that took place in Tanzania and other developing countries in 1980s were not only political but also economical, cultural, and social. They influenced educational policy making in general and AE in particular. The influences, as noted in above captioned quotation, were externally imposed and/or internally supported and sustained.

As noted earlier, in late 1980s and early 1990s, after the collapse of Russia and logically the triumph of capitalism over socialism so many changes have taken place including educational policies in general and AE policies and practices in particular. As a response, the policy and practice of AE in Tanzania since 1980s to date is guided by various legal documents born out as a consequence of such trends.

However, some of the documents are more or less similar as it was soon after independence to late 1980s such as the Constitution. In addition to that there are such new documents in place like the Education and training policy, Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP), Public Service and Local Government Reform Programmes, Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), and Tanzania Development Vision (2025).

Doubtlessly, Tanzania realizes the importance of education to the nation and to people, to the extent that GoURT has clearly committed to the provision of quality education at all levels. In the Constitution, Tanzania has committed to provide the right to education of its people and so it is stated:

[Article 11 (3)]:

The government shall endeavor to ensure that there are equal and adequate opportunities to all persons to enable them to acquire education and vocational training at all levels of school and other institutions of learning (URT, 1998a:19).

The ETP was enacted in 1995 as a guideline for educational sector in the country. It is a combination of several education and training policies as it is observed in the policy: "...it is this shift of emphasis which has also influenced the form and direction of most of the *education and training policies* contained in this document" (URT, 1995:xi) (own emphasis)

Thus, AE (which is the focus of this study) being part of the policy is in chapter 9 of the document under the title Non-Formal Education and Training. The policy states:

The objectives of adult education are to eradicate illiteracy; to sustain post literacy and numeracy; to promote the acquisition and development of basic knowledge and functional skills relevant to personal development and life in the community; to lay foundations for lifelong learning; and to ensure the realization of the basic human right of "Education-for-All" and to complement formal education (URT, 1995:83).

Theoretically, globalization theory has, in one way or another, greatly influenced public policy all over the world especially in 1980s with much adverse effects on developing countries (Augustine, 2001:75, Rugumamu, 2005). Dimmock and Walker (2005:13) define globalization as "the tendency for similar policies and practices to spread across political, cultural and geographical boundaries". Altbach (2004:5) defines globalization as broad economic, technological, and scientific trends that directly affect education and are inevitable. Thus, in this research and contextualized in AE, globalization is defined as broader economic, political, social, technological, scientific and cultural trends that affect AE and are inevitable.

Globalization has great impacts on education in general and AE in particular. Discussing the influence of globalization on education, Daun and Siminou contend:

The influence of globalization on states and their educational systems can be seen as consisting of two key factors: (1) accelerating economic competition throughout the world and (2) emergence of a set of world cultural models that impels countries to restructure their educational systems along standard lines. Daun and Siminou (2005:27)

Carnoy (1999) holds that globalization affects education in various ways. Globalization affects education in financial terms, labour market terms, international evaluation terms, informational revolution terms and struggles of marginalized groups. As a consequence, national states tend to respond in three major educational reform strategies namely finance, competition and equity.

It is on the above grounds that globalization theory is considered a force behind any educational policy and practices in most countries because in order to survive in a globalized

world and be a winner rather than a loser, one need to learn throughout life so as to cope up with rapid changes brought about by globalization processes.

The researcher considered HCT also a force behind AE policies and practices in Tanzania because of the assumptions and the results that have taken place in other countries and more important, the promises of improved well-being of recipients. In 2000 the WB introduced 8 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that are to be met in 2015 hence another commitment of Tanzania to international targets during this period.

2.3.3.2 The Practice

In terms of practice, this is a period which some scholars call it a period of sad demise of AE in Tanzania. As noted earlier, in this period the situation has changed in Tanzania. Although primary school teachers (as adult educators) are assigned classes to teach, their turn up is very low because of lack of motivation and other incentives from the government. There are no longer volunteer teachers especially primary school leavers to teach AE. Also some employers are not eager to allow their employees to attend AE classes especially after the introduction of private firms in the country. The one hour set for AE for workers is no longer there since the private firms consider wastage of time and a source of loss to the organization.

Moreover, due to the changes that occurred in the same period (1980s) decentralization had been a priority in many government arrangements and operations including AE. Thus, the administration at MoEVT as stipulated in the Adult and Non-Formal Education Sub-sector Medium Term Strategy, it is from the village or street level to the ministerial level.

At the Institute of Adult Education (IAE) the administration has not significantly changed. The regional resident tutors are still considered the lower cadre of administration personnel. The IAE has no formal personnel at district or village levels. In fact, although MoEVT claim to have decentralized AE, practically the AE programmes, plans and decision making are still at the ministerial level.

With regard to evaluation, the ETP stipulates that national literacy tests shall be conducted every three years by the institutions responsible for AE, and the results thereof shall be used to improve literacy levels. However, literacy tests in the country have not been conducted for

about a decade now. This creates so many difficulties in having reliable data on literacy situation in the country.

Additionally, Tanzania liberalized the provision of education including AE. A good number of organizations and individuals were allowed to be suppliers of education. To date the major suppliers of AE programmes in Tanzania include the government and its parastatals, and religious institutions. Other suppliers included private firms, commercial enterprises and NGOs.

2.3.4 AE in Tanzania in Late 1990s-2000s: The New Interest and Revival

2.3.4.1 The Context

In a nutshell, the policy contexts of AE during this period is a continuation of some contexts discussed above especially those related to socio-economic indicators (refer to Table 2.1).

Other contexts include the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP), the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP), Public Service and Local Government Reform Programmes (PRSP), Tanzania Development Vision 2025 and the nation commitment to international targets without forgetting the mother law (the constitution of Tanzania).

In 1999 The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 came into being. The Tanzania Development vision is an articulation of desirable future conditions of Tanzanians. It envisages attaining and the plausible course of action to be taken for its action. In the vision, it is stated that consistent with the vision, Tanzania of 2025 should be a nation imbued with five main attributes. One of these attributes of relevance to this study states that Tanzania should be a well educated and learning society. It further stipulates:

Tanzania should be a nation with high level of education at all levels; a nation which produces the quantity and quality of educated people sufficiently equipped with the requisite knowledge to solve the society problems, meet challenges of development and attain competitiveness at regional and global levels. (URT, 1999:5)

It should be noted that two years among five are left for the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) to be over in 2009/2010. NSGRP is a second national organizing framework for putting the focus on poverty reduction high on the country's development agenda (URT, 2005a). In NSGRP, the GoURT commits itself by saying:

The NSGRP is informed by the aspirations of Tanzania's Development Vision (Vision 2025) for high and shared growth, high quality livelihood, peace, stability and unity, good governance, high quality education and international competitiveness. It is *committed* to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), as internationally agreed targets for reducing *poverty, hunger, diseases, illiteracy*, environmental degradation and discrimination against women by 2015 [own emphasis] (URT, 2005a:1).

Although, it seems that the government of Tanzania has good plans to make people share growth and that they attain quality education with international competitiveness, when observing the socio- economic indicators in Table 2.1, one may wonder as to how this can be achieved within the time bound.

2.3.4.2 The Practice

Standing on the shoulders of these contexts, the AE and non-formal education sub-sector medium term strategy came into being in fiscal year 2003/2004. The strategy aims at increasing and ensuring access and equity, quality enhancement, capacity enhancement and development, and assuring post literacy and continuing education. The strategy led to the coming into being of the Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET). A thorough look at the documents suggests that the strategy aims at reaching out of school children. It is on that basis that it is even difficult to claim that the strategy is real meant for adults.

The programme meant for adult in this period is the Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE). According to Bhalalusesa (2004) the government of Tanzania designed ICBAE in 1993 to increase access to sustainable basic education for adults and out-of-school youth, through the development of a learner-centred, community-based approach. Four wards were selected for the pilot phase (Kiroka in Morogoro, Kishinda in Mwanza, Soni in Tanga and Sembeti in Kilimanjaro). With financial assistance from the African Development Bank (ADB), ICBAE was scaled up to another eight districts in Tanzania. These were Masasi, Newala, Songea Rural, Tunduru, Nachingwea, Liwale, Biharamulo and Kigoma.

ICBAE is based on the REFLECT "Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques". It is based on the theory of conscientization, pioneered by the Brazilian educator Paulo Freire (Freire, 1972). The emphasis is placed on dialogue and action, awareness-raising, cooperation and empowerment. In this technique adult learners explore development challenges in their own development and find ways to overcome them.

In recognition of the positive impact of REFLECT methodology in other countries, Tanzania decided to adopt the REFLECT approach in the ICBAE pilot areas in 1998 (Bhalalusesa, 2004). In 2006 there were 35,591 adult learners in ICBAE classes countrywide of which 13,930 were attending post literacy classes, 17,836 functional literacy, 1,130 new curriculum and 2,695 special needs (MoEVT, 2006). But, to what extent this has been in place, to empower people using their own thinking in solving problems encountered within their environment remain much to be desired.

2.4 The Rationales for AE

Do Tanzania and the world in general need AE? Is it feasible and economically rational to invest in AE? If yes, why should Tanzania and nations of the world invest on AE? This section attempts, in a substantial manner, to answer those questions. First of all let us share an observation by Desjardins, Rubenson & Milana:

Today, the capacities of nations, government, civil societies, labour markets, firms, and individuals to adjust to change, improve standards of living and capitalize on technological development depend in large measure on the competencies of adult population. Improving the stock of competencies available to both the economy and civil society through investment in adult learning is therefore an issue of considerable strategic importance. Otherwise there is an increased risk of exacerbating socio-economic divisions and of marginalizing segments of the population. From this perspective, it is important to view adult learning not only as a means to enhance productivity and facilitate labour force, but also as a means to assist individuals in their everyday actions and promote active citizenship. (Desjardins, Rubenson & Milana 2006:17)

And also by UNESCO:

The education of adults contributes to their self-reliance and personal autonomy, to the exercise of basic rights and to increased productivity and labour efficiency. It is also positively translated into higher levels of education and well-being of future generations (UNESCO, 1997) cited in Singh (1999:5).

Thus, the potentials of AE in development can be observed in the development of human beings especially adults in all aspects of human life. Some of these aspects are presented in the ongoing section.

2.4.1 AE as a Means to Eradicate Illiteracy

The importance of literacy to both an individual and national states is known to majority of population if not all. Its importance is manifested from political to economic spheres; from social to cultural aspects and traditional societies to modern ones. Literacy has been a concern of states and individuals for decades. In developing countries especially Tanzania, thanks to

UNESCO (Bhola, 1994a) and European countries for pioneering AE in these countries. Seeing the broader definition and dimensions of literacy OECD contends:

Literacy is a social construct whose definition has evolved historically, often in response to broad economic transformations. At the beginning of this century, when a large proportion of jobs required little or no reading and writing, many of the advanced industrial nations would have defined literacy as the ability to sign one's name. In both poorer and wealthier nations today in contrast, the idea of literacy denotes master of a much more complex set of tasks. In part, this difference reflects changes in the structure of the economy and in the nature of work; in part, it responds to a more subtle understanding of literacy requirement in all social spheres (OECD, 1992: 13).

AE through literacy programmes improves communication both oral and written (Lauglo, 2001). Illiterate adults have one means of communication (oral). In the current knowledge based economy and informational society illiterates have little chance of effective participation and are on the losing side.

In addition to that, there is close relationship between literacy and improved livelihood of adults. However, as Ribeiro (2001) contends, literacy by itself cannot improve livelihood or promote development. In fact, the relation between literacy and development is, in most cases, reciprocal: while reading, writing and numeracy skills make functions feasible and are able to predispose people to development, development also creates the possibility of enhancing and sustaining literacy skills. Freire (1972) talks of literacy for liberation meaning that literacy, if executed properly, liberates recipients from the constraints of all walks of life.

2.4.2 AE and Poverty Reduction

According to UNESCO (2003) poverty remains both a barrier to learning and a consequence of insufficient education. An estimated 1.2 billion people, two-thirds of these being women, live in abject poverty worldwide. One-third of all humanity survives on less than US-\$ 1 a day. The dominant market forces shaping economic development practices have led to unacceptable levels of poverty severely affecting women and children in particular in Tanzania.

As noted earlier, Tanzania has a good number of people who live below poverty line. Since there is a positive relationship between AE and poverty reduction if not eradication, AE could be considered a forgotten 'gold'. However, the relationship between AE and poverty should be taken with caution. The researcher does not claim that AE is a sufficient and a panacea to poverty reduction strategies. Rather, the striking feature is that many studies have shown positive relationship between AE programmes and poverty reduction. Oxenham (2005)

assessed the experience of the Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) that aim to combat poverty and include the skills of literacy and numeracy as important, if not central, elements. Oxenham came up with several observations:

Firstly, according to Oxenham, majorities of those who enroll in AE come from the poorer sections of society. They may not include many of the absolute poorest, but they do include the very poor and some of the poorest. That is to say, AE programmes are self-targeting on the very people who should benefit from poverty reduction.

Secondly, he assessed the rationale of ABET in relation to target of the first MDGs, which is to halve the proportion of people whose income is less than US\$1.00 per day. That means raising incomes. Valerio (2003) cited in Oxenham (2005) used a national household survey in Ghana to investigate the question; does ABET raise income? She concluded that, in Ghana at least, it did not. Oxenham (2005) however, argues that calculations from the World Bank suggest the contrary from what Valerio found.

Bhalalusesa (2004) conducted an evaluative study on community Level Basic Education (CLBE) applying REFLECT methodology in two poor rural communities in Tanzania. She found that REFLECT circles became focal points for discussion of community problems such as water, roads, soil fertility, health and HIV/AIDS, agriculture, and the factors causing poverty. Also, small-scale income-generating activities were initiated, which created an opportunity to explore effective collective action, which would not have thrived in the migratory life style which had characterized the pilot project areas.

Oxenham (2005) contend that apart productivity in its normal sense as facilitated by (among other things) AE, is the effect that some mastery of written calculation engenders. Successful participants can handle money, especially paper money, more confidently. More importantly, they are less vulnerable to being cheated in monetary transactions, since they can record them.

2.4.3 AE towards Prevention of Diseases

The researcher remembers when he was young and got sick, was escorted to hospital by family members. In the hospital there was a poster on the wall that read: *Kinga ni Bora Kuliko Tiba*. This narration in English means prevention is better than cure. The narration was very relevant by then taking into account that people attributed diseases to superstition. Of course, it is more relevant to date than it might be the time the researcher was young. During that time

there was no such a deadly diseases like AIDS. The government launched AE programmes to address the problem of diseases and the best ways of maintaining health. Some of the programmes included *Mtu ni Afya* (Man is health), *Chakula ni Uhai* (Food is Life) to mention but a few.

Tanzania can also be cited as a model of success in the 1970s for improving the health of its people and prevention of diseases. Indeed, there are various ways of diseases prevention. The common one is through vaccination. Referring to Tanzania in 1970s as a case study, education is the most cost effective way of diseases prevention. It is easy to prevent diseases by educating people (since some of the diseases have no vaccination such as HIV/AIDS). Regarding the HIV/AIDS pandemic, Seya (2005) contends that no matter how sound development policies are and how great efforts are in place if HIV/AIDS prevails in our societies as it reduces the capacity of some of the most productive members of the society.

AE policies and practices in Tanzania have such responsibility to educate people on the best ways of diseases prevention measures. AE also, improves family health because evidence shows that literate mothers have better family health practices compared to their counter illiterate mothers (Lauglo, 2001).

2.4.4 AE for Empowerment and Income Generation

UNESCO (2003) observes that 70 percent of the world's poor are females; in the least developed countries, fewer than four out of ten women can read or write, compared with six out of ten men. Bhalalusesa (2004) revealed that income among participants increased and that gender disparity was reduced among REFLECT members. More importantly, there was an increased awareness among people by knowing that problems are not God-given.

Furthermore, Tilak (2006) argues that education (including post-basic education) makes people more productive and allows them to make informed decision rather than being easily manipulated. Furthermore, it is argued that education enhances self esteem among the educated and increases consumption choices.

2.4.5 AE makes “Unemployed and Unemployable”, Employable.

In the face of globalization where knowledge based economy is appreciated, individual competences and skills are central to compete in the labour market. Various scholars such as

Mlekwa (1997) and Seya (2005) have argued for the importance of AE to prepare and upgrade individual(s) to be competitive and meet the challenges in the labour market. Indeed, education and training including AE alone cannot create jobs as Peltzer comments:

Education and training as such do not create jobs. But they give the individual a greater potential, equal chances and work opportunities, in addition to personal satisfaction. They render the working men and women capable of participating in the decisions affecting their work, their lives and livelihoods. They render the working people qualified for work and qualified for industrial democracy. Education will prove itself in times of insecurity when discrimination and animosity spread easily and hit women and migrant workers hardest. Awareness of the international dimensions of the world of work should become a component of training and qualification (Peltzer, 1998:27).

Indeed, jobs need people with certain competences and skills to perform such jobs. AE is a means to impart such competences and skills. Competent individuals are employable compared to individuals with no or less competences. As Wedgwood (2005) argues that the labour market for those with good post-primary education and training is far from saturated. Again, this is what have been argued by the Nordic Council of Ministers (1995) as presented in chapter 1 (section 1.1) that high rate of unemployment is not just a matter of economic imperfections but also a matter of lack of skills and attitudes among job-seekers. In this case, AE can aid to that end.

2.5 Challenges Facing AE in Tanzania

In the foregoing section, the potentials of AE policies and practices in development have been presented. However, for AE policies and practices to significantly contribute to development there must be enabling conditions in place. Some of these enabling conditions have been presented in chapter 1 (section 1.6.2) with the assumptions that it is the 'ought to be' situation. It is referred to as 'ought to be' situation because, in most cases, the situation is not in favour of AE policies and practices in Tanzania.

Presenting some observations on the limitations facing AE in Uganda which are also relevant if not similar to those of Tanzania, Atim and Okech (2004:267) voice:

Four decades after Uganda's independence, adult education still suffers from a number of limitations. These include: low appreciation of the role of adult education in social and economic development; lack of clear and comprehensive government policy and directives; no co-ordination of existing adult education activities; inadequate funding for programmes; shortage of suitable educational equipment and materials and of trained and committed personnel for adult education work.

This narration captures most of the problems facing AE in Tanzania with only few addition and omission. For the case of omission, Tanzania at least has a policy on AE. The issue whether the policy is translated into practice or not that is another case. For the sake of addition, in Tanzania at the moment there is a problem of lack of political will and commitment, and much emphasis have been put on FE at the expense of AE and NFE. On this Bhola (1994:315) plainly observes:

Unfortunately, developers of educational policies almost everywhere in the world remain unmoved by president Nyerere's impassioned plea on behalf of adult education and continue to be governed by their ideology of 'formal education first'. They favour making primary education accessible and continue to starve adult education...

Similarly, Maoulidi (2004:3) referring to Tanzanian context, contends: "currently, the impetus in terms of policy and budgetary allocation, is in the formal education sector". This has been a case in developing countries in general and Tanzania in particular. The conceptions of EFA goals and MDGs in 1990s and 2000s respectively, have made AE at a losing end (Samoff, 2003). Although in both commitments AE especially literacy is stipulated but its practices is far to be reached. It is on that ground that one may argue that instead of being called EFA it should be primary education for all especially in the context of Tanzania (Brock-Utne, 2006).

2.6 Policy: A Concept

Different people view what comprises a policy differently to the extent that Haddad (1995) argues that competing definitions of policy are numerous and varied. A policy refers to "a set of guidelines which determine and underline the way individuals or group of people think and behave in a certain social, cultural, economic and political environment" (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1998:3). Obbo (2004:51) contends that a policy is "a practical acknowledgement that people or objects for which the policy is made form a significant proportion of a national population or the target object".

Haddad (1995:18) defines a policy as "an explicit or implicit single decision or group of decisions which may set out directives for guiding future decisions, initiate or retard action, or

guide implementation of previous decisions”. The definition by Haddad will be a functional and working definition used in this study.

Haddad (1995) further states that policy-making is the first step in any planning cycle. Thus, planners must appreciate the dynamics of policy formulation before they can design implementation and evaluation procedures effectively. Policies, however, differ in terms of their scope, complexity, decision environment, range of choices, and decision criteria.

In the context of Tanzania there had been a tendency of using educational plans, programmes, strategies circulars and directives interchangeably with a policy. However, strategies, plans, programmes and circulars are not policies in the strict meaning of a policy. Thus, programmes and/or plans carry out a policy as it is for a strategy which is a feature of a policy but not a policy in itself.

2.6.1 Models for Policy-Making Process

In the process of making a policy, various scholars have tried to adopt models for policy making process. Indeed the models are reflections of the ontological and epistemological orientations to knowledge in social sciences since education is a social construct. As a result there are various models acting as frameworks for policy makers to follow. Haddad (1995) developed a framework that has a number of models of policy making process. These are, rational model (or linear model), the governmental politics model, incremental model and the societal or personalistic model.

In a developing country like Tanzania that depends heavily from donors it is even difficult, at the moment, to place it in which model policy making process is being based. One can argue that may be it is an eclectic model of policy making process. The reason for such kind of an argument is the reality of the influence of donor countries to the recipients in terms of what should be the policy priority.

It has come a time when Donor countries create ideological confusion to recipients because each donor country has its underlying philosophy and ideology (see for example Anderson-Levit & Alimasi, 2001). Most of policies and educational policies in particular in Tanzania are determined by donor countries.

2.6.2 Stages of Policy Making Process

At this juncture it is imperative, at least in a nutshell, to present the stages involved in educational policy making. It is important because the stages involved in policy making can be a source for either success or failure of any educational policy even before implementation. There are various stages in policy making process. Different scholars have different views on what should be the stages in policy making process although some stages are sometimes overlapping or cut across all writers. In this study the stages given by Haddad (1995) have been adapted.

According to Haddad (1995) policy making consists of seven policy-planning processes, the first four of which deal with policy making, the fifth with planning and sixth and seventh with policy adjustment. These stages are analysis of the existing situation; the generation of policy options; evaluation of policy options; making the policy decision; planning of policy implementation; policy impact assessment and subsequent policy cycles. Haddad (1995) argues that given that a policy initiative has been carried out systematically, then policy design; planning; implementation; impact assessment; and re-design will become iterative and, in theory, infinitive.

Similarly, but a bit different Municipal Research and Services Centre (1999) contends that policy making process involves such stages like getting an issue on the agenda, documenting existing conditions, defining goals and objectives, generating alternatives, identifying key interest groups, evaluation of alternatives, deciding and implementing and monitoring.

In order for a policy to be effective feedback is very crucial. Feedback makes policy making process cyclical. But as Haddad (1995) contends, unfortunately, long-term policy analysis and planning is not often carried out in such a fashion. Often the results of verification are not ploughed back into policy. Conclusively, in Tanzania there is no evidence to suggest that policy making process is cyclical or not. However, since ETP is aged ten plus years and there is no any kind of change as a result of feedback based on scientific evaluation, one may at least conclude that the policy making process is linear.

2.7 AE Policies and Practices

After seeing policy as a concept and the processes involved in making it, in this section, through literature surveyed, the match or mismatch between what is stated in the policy and what is practiced is sought. To start with, it is probably difficult to separate policies and practices in education in general and AE in particular. The reason behind such stand is that policy and practice are closely related. However, the two are separable as Mlekwa (1975)

argues, "...the fact that policy is directly related to practice but at the same caution has been taken to avoid the conclusion that since the two are related then they must be the same... there is distinction between policy and practice".

The distinctions popes up more noticeable especially when what is practiced is different from what is stipulated in the policy. This can be caused by misunderstandings among implementers and/practitioners. Sometimes it is because of the interest mix between market signals and policy statements.

There are various studies and observations that have revealed mismatch between policies and practices. These studies include that of Mlekwa (1975), Welle-Strand and Thune (2003) and Riske (2007). Mlekwa (1975) conducted a study in Tanzania on AE policies and practices. The study intended to find out the extent to which the AE policy in Tanzania was actually being translated into action with a focus on district. The sample size for the study was 45. The main methods of collecting data were documentation, interviews and observations.

The findings of the study indicated that while Tanzania had boldly declared its stand vis-à-vis AE and has gone even to the extent of declaring on the then deadlines for accomplishing certain programmes, such as eradication of illiteracy by 1975. Still, there were a number of problems to solve in order for victory to be completely won. The study also found that the amount of money voted for AE activities however was by no means very much less than that which is spent on formal education (the proportion).

Welle-Strand and Thune (2003) conducted a study on e-learning policies, practices and challenges in two Norwegian organizations. The study involved BI Norwegian School of Management and Telenor (Norway's leading telecommunication company). Interviews and documents were used to collect data in this study. It was found that there was a mismatch between policy and practices also between writers and staff. Furthermore, it was found that the need for understanding pedagogical planning and implementation was strongly emphasized by staff but absent in policy documents.

Riske (2007) conducted a study in Damongo, Ghana. The purpose of the study was to explore in-service teacher training phenomenon as it occurs in a national socio-economic context. The study used case study model in which interview, observations, and documentary reviews were used to collect data. The study revealed that there was a range of mismatches between policy

goals, official plans real life practices, along with practical interpretations the teacher's daily workplace learning.

2.8 Summary and Gaps in Literature Surveyed

In this chapter, the general overview of AE in Tanzania has been presented. Then the chapter dwelt with the education system in Tanzania with particular reference to AE. Also, the history and development of AE in Tanzania have been discussed basing on four phases; during colonialism, at independence under Mwalimu Nyerere leadership (1960s-1980s), the sad demise of AE (1980s- 1990s) and the new interests and revival of AE in Tanzania (1990s-2000s). The chapter as well has discussed the rationales for AE allover the world and Tanzania in particular and the challenges that face AE education in Tanzania. Then, in the last part, the issues related to AE policies especially processes and/or stages involved in educational policy making have been discussed.

The literature surveyed indicated that it is not known if at all the stages involved in the formulation and implementation to evaluation of educational policies have been respected and therefore, executed in Tanzania.

Furthermore, the empirical studies reviewed regarding the relationship between AE policies and practices have indicated that, in some cases, there is a mismatch between AE policies and practices. On the contrary, some studies (see for example Lauglo, 2001; Oxenham, 2005) have shown that AE policies and practices have been used to address national challenges.

Methodologically, the survey of literature shows that various studies employed either quantitative or qualitative research methods. Thus, a study that use a combination of the two although quantitative is predominant was executed to enrich the study.

Moreover, some studies were conducted long time ago (for example that of Mlekwa, 1975). From 1975 to date has been quite a long time (temporal differences). There have been political, social, economic and demographic changes emerged during this period for example a move from socialism to capitalism. Hence, therefore, a need for another research was imperative.

Spatially, some studies were done in Ghana (Riske, 2007) and others in developed countries such as Norway by Welle-Strand & Thune (2003). These countries have different socio-economic and political context from that of Tanzania. This study was thought necessary so as to address AE policies and practices in addressing challenges facing adults in the context of Tanzania.

Equally important, most of the studies looked at policy and practices *per se* but not in relation to how AE policies and practices address national challenges in the globalized and knowledge-based economy. This study has attempted to fill that gap.

The next chapter, which is the research methodology, brings forth a presentation on how the aforementioned research problem was inquired and why particular methods and techniques were considered appropriate for the inquiry.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

But the practice of social research does not exist in a bubble, hermetically sealed off from the social sciences and the various intellectual allegiances that their practitioners hold. ...First, methods of social research are closely tied to different visions of how social reality should be studied. Methods are not simply neutral tools: they are linked with the ways in which social scientists envision the connection between different viewpoints about the nature of social reality and how it should be examined. Secondly, research data are invariably collected in relation to something. The 'something' can be a burning social problem or, usually, a theory (Bryman 2004:4).

3.1 Introduction

This section presents research strategies and the reasons for using them, study area and its characteristics, population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection procedures and instruments, reliability, practicability, and validity issues, data analysis plan and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Strategies

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative strategies although the former was dominant. The researcher was aware of what Oakley (2000) calls paradigm war and what some scholars in research call qualitative-quantitative debate, divide and/or distinctions (Bryman, 2004; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Cozby, 2007; Lund, 2005). The researcher intended to meet the requirements of the study and not to side to one of the strategies even if the study demanded the employment of the two strategies.

3.2.1 Research Triangulation

Denzin (1978:28) once argued that because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality, multiple methods of observations must be employed. Denzin Ibid. offered as a final methodological rule the principle that multiple methods should be used in every investigation. Moreover, each of the strategies has both strengths and weaknesses. Hence, it is important to exploit both strategies to address research objectives in question. The research literature has emerged to support and put much emphasis on the need to triangulate during research (See for example Cohen *et al.*, 2007; Cozby, 2007; Bryman, 2004; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2000). In this regard the research employed triangulation of different types.

According to Denzin (1978) there are various types of triangulation. Of relevance to this study are, one space triangulation. This type of triangulation attempts to overcome the parochialism

of studies conducted in the same country or within the same sub-culture by making use of cross cultural techniques. In this study three distinctive regions were involved. People from these areas, though share some cultural values and traditions, they also differ.

The second type is investigator triangulation. Here, more than one researcher collects data (Silverman, 1993:99). In this study, two researchers were involved in data collection; the researcher and the assistant researcher. The research assistant collected data in Mara region after a thorough training. The training was done first in Dar es Salaam and later on, the training continued in the site in Mara region. After the researcher was satisfied with the competence and mastery of the assistant researcher, the data collection to the remaining respondents was done by the assistant researcher.

The third type of triangulation of relevance to this study is methodological triangulation. In this type either the same methods are used in different occasions or different methods on the same occasions. This study applied different methods to study the same occasion. Both quantitative and qualitative strategies were executed in data collection, presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion. In the data collection questionnaires, interview schedules and documentary review were used to gauge data from respondents.

For quantitative data from questionnaires SPSS for Windows was used to present and analyze data. Data from interview schedules were analysed by, first, bracketing and reducing some of the irrelevant information. Second, data were delineated in units of meaning so as to make sense of the information gathered and finally clustered into units to form themes as guided by research questions. These themes were compared to those from questionnaires. The data which matched were merged together and entered into SPSS for Windows. Some of the themes from interviews have been presented under each theme in the coming sections.

As noted earlier, the nature of research topic together with research questions and purpose of the study compelled a researcher to employ both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. Consequentially, data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion employed the same path. Reflecting on the above captioned prologue by Bryman (2004) the data collection presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion was guided by the critical theory. According to Kidd (1959:134-135) “the research worker needs a set of assumptions as a starting point to guide what he does, to be tested by experiments or to serve as a check on

observations and insights. Without any theory his activities may be aimless as wasteful as the early wonderings of the explorers in North America...some knowledge of theory always aids practice”.

3.2.2 Critical Theory

3.2.2.1 Brief Description of Critical Theory

In data collection and later on analysis, the researcher was necessitated to employ Critical Theory (CT) as a guide. But what is CT? CT came out as a result of the weaknesses borne by positivism and interpretivism. The term CT denotes a broad approach to challenge and destabilize established knowledge (Syque, 2007).

According to Carr and Kemmis (1986:129-131) CT has five characteristics or requirements. One, CT has to reject positivist notion of rationality, objectivity and truth. Two, CT calls for educational theory to accept the need to employ interpretive categories of teachers and of course learners. Three, it is held that, educational theory must provide ways of distinguishing ideologically distorted interpretations from those that are not. It must also provide some views of how any distorted self-understanding is to be overcome.

Four, CT is characterized by the concern to identify and expose those aspects of the existing social order which frustrates the pursuit of rational goals and must be able to offer theoretical accounts which make members of the community aware of how they may eliminate or overcome them. Five, CT is featured by the claim that educational status has been determined by the ways in which it relates to practice (Carr and Kemmis, 1986:129-130).

Smyth (1989) when discussing the ways in which teachers can develop and sustain critical reflectivity, came up with four sequential stages. In relation to this study, the four stages seem to match with the way data have been collected and the way data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion were done later in the next chapter. The four sequential stages are as discussed hereunder.

Description of the situation (What am I doing?)

This stage involves identification of the existing situation. In this study data were collected and analyzed to identify the existing situation of AE in Tanzania and the socio-economic status of adults.

Collecting Necessary Information (What does it mean?)

This stage involves collecting and analyzing information that discloses the reasons for the prevailing situation. In this study information were analyzed to uncover the causes of contemporary AE policies and practices in addressing national challenges.

Confrontation (How did things or situation come to be like this?)

This stage sets the agenda and necessary measures to reverse the situation. In this study data were collected and were presented and analyzed to show how the situation ought to be confronted in Tanzania educational system.

Reconstruction (How do things or situation be changed?)

In this stage, new ways of reconstructing the community or society is sought. In the current study, data has been collected on how AE policies and practices can be reconstructed or changed as has been presented analyzed, interpreted and discussed in chapter four.

3.2.2.2 Summary and Relevance of CT to Data Collection

To sum up, CT has four traditions namely ideology critique, and identification and reappraisal of inhibitions acquired. Another pillar is the analytic and philosophy and logic (recognizing logic fallacies, distinguishing between bias and fact, opinion and evidence, uninformed judgment and valid inference and competent use of different forms of reasoning such as inductive, deductive and analogical). And the last one is pragmatist constructivism (Brookfield, 2005).

Why has CT been employed in this particular study? Indeed, the aim of this study was not to critique the ideology *per se*, rather to understand the way AE policies and practices were and the reasons behind such situation. Since ideology is taught/learned, and embraced and propagandized through education including AE by the dominant class, it may seem that ideology critique was addressed in a substantial manner. Further, inclined with CT the aim was pragmatically to make an investigation on AE policies and practices in addressing

national challenges. Yet, the study empowered with CT traditions and utility aimed at collecting data that would lead to analysis of the way adults in Tanzania perceive challenges they face and to hear from them how they think the challenges could be tackled using AE policies and practices.

3.3 Study Area and its Characteristics

This study was carried out in Tanzania for various reasons. First, Tanzania was a socialist (*Ujamaa*)¹¹ country hence the globalization forces have greater impacts on all aspects of Tanzanians' lives. Second, Tanzania was once (in 1970s) a model of success for AE programmes worldwide. Third, it was researcher's personal bias in the sense that he is a Tanzanian and it is hoped that the study may lead to direct and/or indirect influence to the development of AE and consequentially to the development of the nation. Indeed, it was not easy to conduct a study for the whole country; rather three regions were selected as study area. These included Dar es Salaam, Mara, and Ruvuma regions.

3.3.1 Dar es Salaam Region

This region is the head quarter of most governmental organizations and institutions including ministries. Moreover, it is the main and famous commercial city in Tanzania. Dar es Salaam is the most densely populated city in the country. Thus, the rationales for the choice of the region included the merit it has to be the host of various ministries such as MoEVT and such higher institutions like IAE, University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM). In 1998 Dar es Salaam was the second region in HIV/AIDS prevalence in the country.

3.3.2 Mara Region

Another region in which data were collected is Mara. This region is located in the North-West of Tanzania (the area famously known as Lake Zone). Musoma serves as the Region's capital. The neighbouring regions are Mwanza and Shinyanga (to the South), Arusha (to the South East) and Kagera (through Lake Victoria). To the North East, it borders the Republic of Kenya.

According to the 2002 Tanzania National Census, the population of Mara Region was 1,368,602 of which 103,497 live in Musoma Urban. The districts in Mara Region are Bunda

¹¹ 'Ujamaa' is a Swahili word meaning Socialism based on African togetherness

(to the South West), Serengeti (to the South East), Tarime and Rorya (to the North), and Musoma urban (the Municipal) and Musoma Rural.

The rationales for the selection of Mara region in this study are, first, Mara is the region where the first President of Tanzania who was probably the first adult educator to be a president (Julius Kambarge Nyerere) was born. Second, In 1970s Lake Zone was selected to be a pilot area for functional literacy programmes in the country. Third, by coincidence, the research assistant in this study lived and worked in Mara region and so, the area was convenient to this kind of research.

3.3.3 Ruvuma Region

Ruvuma region is found in the Southern part of Tanzania. It is named Ruvuma because of Ruvuma River that forms most of the Tanzania boundary with Mozambique to the South. Ruvuma neighbours regions such as Lindi, Mtwara (East), Iringa (North), and Morogoro (North East).

According to Tanzania National population and housing census 2002, Ruvuma region has a population of 1,117,166 people. Ruvuma region was selected in the study because it was one of the successful regions for functional literacy. In 1970s, partly due to AE programmes, the region managed to produce enough (quantitatively and qualitatively) cash and food crops. The criteria for involving Ruvuma region in the study were, apart from the above reason, it was powerful because of its distance from the National Headquarters of the administrative machinery of AE and the low level of economic development which could affect the implementation of some of the AE programmes.

3.4 Population of the Study

Population is the entire group of individuals, firms, plants or things that have one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the study (Bryman, 2004). The population of this study included all AE policy makers and academicians at MoEVT and UDSM respectively, implementers and adult learners from 2006 to 2007 under the Open and Distance Learning (ODL) at IAE. However, when considering the time and financial constraints, it was not possible to conduct this study countrywide. As such, a representative sample was drawn.

3.5 Sample and Sampling Procedures

3.5.1 Sample

Cohen *et al.* (2007:100) defines a sample as “a smaller group or subset of a total population in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the total population under study”. Regarding sample size, Cohen *et al.* (2007:101) contend that there is no clear-cut answer to a question that often plagues novice researchers on how large their sample for the research should be. Patton (2002:244) recommends that sample size depends on what a researcher wants to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what is at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with available time and resources.

The study intended to include approximately 201 respondents from three regions namely Dar es Salaam, Mara and Ruvuma. The sample of adult learners was obtained by taking approximately 15 percent of all learners in the region. With regard to adult educators, the researcher decided to give equal number of respondents. However, since Dar es Salaam had comparatively more adult educators than other regions then one adult educator was added above the flat rate of three adult educators for each region.

Given the fact that the study was concerned with the question of policies and practices, it was considered necessary to direct most of the attention to those occupying positions in policy department at the MoEVT, adult learners, adult educators and academicians. Table 3.1 shows the sources of the respondents. The numbers in brackets are the actual population of adult learners and adult educators in the regions. As noted earlier, the plan was to have 201 respondents in total. But, in the actual field it was found that some of the respondents did not return the questionnaires.

In this study, one hundred eighty six questionnaires were distributed to respondents. Only 145 questionnaires were returned making a response rate of about 80.0 percent which is, according to Mangione (1995)¹² classification, a very good response rate. One of the reasons that contributed to such response rate especially in Dar es Salaam and Mara region was that the researcher and assistant researcher in person administered the questionnaires and collected them after the end of the class for a particular day.

¹² According to Mangione (1995) classification; A response rate above 85% (Excellent), 70-85% (Very good), 60-70% (Acceptable), 50-60% (Barely acceptable), and below 50% (Not acceptable). Although the categories are not discrete and are overlapping, the classification at least serve the purpose.

Table 3.1: The Proposed Category and Number of Sample in the Study

Region	Districts	Centre	Category	Gender		Total
				Male (14%)	Female	
Dar es salaam	1	IAE	Adult learners	(302)* 41	(460)63	(762) 104
		IAE	Adult Educators*	(56) 3	(12)1	(68) 4
		MoEVT/ UDSM	Policy Makers/ and Academics	3	3	6
Mara	2	IAE	Adult learners	(170)24	(158)22	(328) 46
			Adult Educators	(26)1	(1)1	(27) 2
Ruvuma	3	IAE	Adult learners	(123)19	(122)18	(245) 37
			Adult Educators	(35)1	(11)1	(46) 39
Total				91	110	201

Sources: Dar es Salaam, Mara and Ruvuma Regional IAE files.

* Numbers in brackets are the population of adult learners and educators in the three regions.

3.5.2 Sampling Techniques

3.5.2.1 Purposive Sampling

Patton (2002:230) argues that the logic and power of purposeful sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry. Purposive sampling was used to get officials at the MoEVT concerned with AE policies and academicians concerned with AE at the UDSM.

3.5.2.2 Stratified Sampling

Stratified sampling was used to select adult learners who participated in the study. For the sake of gender balance, adult learners were grouped according to their sex. Then simple random sampling was executed to get a required number of respondents. In this case small cards were made and labelled “you are included” and another was labelled “sorry, you are not included”.

3.5.2.3 Cluster Sampling

According to Cohen *et al.* (2007: 112) when the population is large and widely dispersed, gathering a simple random sample poses administrative problems. Cohen *et al.* (2007:112) argue that by cluster sampling a researcher can select a specific number of geographical areas and then from that obtains a sample for the study. Tanzania is a large country (21 administrative regions) with more than 34 million people (URT, 2002). All regions with the exemption of Dar es Salaam were put in two clusters (the North cluster and South cluster), and then a purposeful sampling was employed to have the two regions (Mara and Ruvuma).

3.6 Data Collection Methods and Instruments

This research employed methodological triangulation in data collection (see section 3.2.1). Berg (2007:5) argues that by combining several lines of sight, researchers obtain a better, more substantive picture of reality; a richer, more complete array of symbols and theoretical concepts; and a means of verifying many of these elements. According to Berg (2007) the use of multiple lines of sight is frequently called triangulation. As such interview, documentary analysis and questionnaires were employed to collect data in this study.

3.6.1 Interviews

Cannel and Kahn (1968) cited in Cohen (2007:251) define a research interview as a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him/her on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, and explanation.

As Patton (2002: 341) argues, the purpose of interviewing in this study was to allow a researcher to enter into the respondents' perspectives. The assumption being that the perspectives of respondents are meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit. Respondents were considered 'experts' of AE policies and practices in addressing national challenges (poverty, diseases, social inequalities, and unemployment). Interview method was used to collect data from AE policy makers and adult learners. Also, interview was meant to compliment and cross check information from questionnaires in order to maximize validity and reliability in this study.

Interviews were conducted between July and August 2007. The main themes in the interviews are as shown in the interview schedule in Appendix B. In the first place it was a new

experience to the researcher to collect data through interview and so, note taking while the respondent was talking at his/her own pace was a bit difficult. Later on, the speed of the researcher improved.

In this study the respondents were called in advance to ask them if they would voluntarily participate in the study and also arrange for the interview date and later on venue when a person agreed to participate. Some respondents were ready to be interviewed on the same day the researcher went to make arrangements. For some, due to tight schedules they had, the other day was arranged for the exercise. In most cases interview sessions were carried out in the respondents' offices.

On the interview day the researcher organized the interview session into four parts: the first was introduction by the researcher and the purpose of the study. The second session was about seeking consent of the respondent to participate in the study of which if he/she consented to participate, he/she signed a research consent form (see Appendix E). One striking feature however, was the fact that no one opposed to participate in the study and the recording of the interview.

The third session was that of the respondent to give his/her biography. The fourth session was discussion and the last one was conclusion and closing. However, before the closing session, the researcher paraphrased all the responses by the respondents (for validation purposes). This was done to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the information collected.

Data from interview were collected and stored through note-taking directly in a special notebook. Later on data were transcribed. According to Cohen *et al.* (2007:365) transcription is a very crucial step in interviews, for there is potential for massive data loss, distortion and the reduction of complexity. To minimize data loss, distortion and reduction of complexity, transcription was done immediately after the interview session to avoid forgetting. Also, the researcher ensured that the transcribed data reflect what happened during interview transaction.

After transcription data were organized and analyzed according to research questions. According to Cohen *et al.* (2007:468) organizing qualitative data analysis through research question:

...is a very useful way of organizing data, as it draws together all the relevant data for the exact issue of concern to the researcher, and preserves the coherence of the material. It returns the reader to the driving concerns of the research, thereby 'closing the loop' on the research questions that typically were raised in the early part of an inquiry. In this approach all relevant data from various data streams (interviews, observations, questionnaires etc.) are collated to provide a collective answer to a research question. There is usually a degree of systematization here, in that, for example, the numerical data for a particular research question will be presented, followed by the qualitative data or vice versa. This enables patterns, relationships, comparisons and qualifications across data types to be explored conveniently and clearly.

Information from interview was merged together with those from other sources of data collection methods. This formed a basis for data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion.

Although interview was employed in this study, it does not mean that it is free from weaknesses. Interviews have been attacked for being expensive, unreliable, biased, time consuming in terms of data collection and analysis, endangers anonymity and the inevitability of researcher effects. As a means to minimize the limitations inherent to the use of interview, note taking was used. Also, the sample to be interviewed was reasonably small, and the researcher effect was exploded by giving clear explanation on the objectives of the study and assurance of anonymity. As noted earlier, a researcher prepared the guiding questions so as to stick on the themes under study. Moreover, other methods were used to collect data so as to minimize biases.

3.6.2 Questionnaires

Questionnaire was the main instrument for data collection in this study. According to Cozby (2007:134-135) questionnaires are questions presented in written format and the respondents write their answers. Due to technological innovations, questionnaires can be administered in-person, by mail and/or through the internet. In this study, however, questionnaires were administered through two major ways-through mail and researcher's administration in person. Administration of questionnaires through internet to a developing country like Tanzania at that particular moment was not feasible due to limited number of computers with internet and/or intranet, and computer illiteracy.

The rationales for the use of questionnaires in this study were; one, due to the nature of the study that it involved three regions situated in three contrasting location in Tanzania (East-Dar es Salaam, North West-Mara and South-Ruvuma) and considering the number of sample. It was considered impractical for a total number of 159 samples to be interviewed within two

months. Moreover, questionnaires were meant to crosscheck information collected from policy makers and academicians with those from adult learners.

Cohen *et al.* (2007:341) argue that the wording of questionnaires is of paramount importance and that pre-testing is crucial to their success. They went on to say that piloting has several functions, principally to increase the reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaires. Thus, questionnaires were refined after piloting at the University of Oslo and in Tanzania (Dar es Salaam region-UDSM). In pilots it was found that there were some useless, repeated, redundant and ambiguous items, and so the researcher omitted, refined and made some additions of some items to suit the study. Questionnaires were used to gather information from adult learners and adult educators. The themes of which the questionnaires collected data are as indicated in Appendix A.

In using questionnaires, the researcher was aware of their weaknesses (see for example Cohen *et al.*, 2007; Bryman, 2004). These include low response rates, non response to some items and also the respondent may read the whole questionnaire (have clues) and then have a room to escape some of the items. Moreover, questionnaires have been proved weak in probing further and it is difficult to know if really the intended respondent is the one who answered the questionnaire. Furthermore, questionnaires are also biased to literate population hence discriminating some segment of the population (the illiterates). The researcher took all necessary measures to ensure that the weaknesses were minimized by first piloting the questionnaires, administering the questionnaires in-person and the language used was simple, clear and precise. Fortunately, the respondents in this study were all literates.

3.6.3 Documentary Review

Patton (2002:294) contends that documents prove valuable not only because of what can be learned directly from them but also as stimulus for paths of inquiry that can be pursued only through direct observation and interviewing.

Documentary review was considered necessary tool for data collection because there was a need to study the policy documents that govern education in Tanzania. Also, it was seen desirable to execute documentary review in order to make comparisons and matches regarding what have been written in ETP and other related policies on the one hand but the

real life of adults on the other. In this study, key documents included the ETP, Tanzania Development Vision 2025, Adult and Non-Formal Education Sub Sector Medium Term Strategy 2003/2004-2007/2008, Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania, circulars, directives and programmes and syllabi. What was sought in documents can be seen in the documentary review guide in Appendix C.

Data collection method and techniques in relation to research objectives and types of data are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: *Summary of Data Collection Methods and Instruments in Relation to Objectives*

Research objectives	Type of data	Sources of data	Methods of data collection	Instruments
To examine AE policies in relation to practices	Primary and Secondary	Respondents	Interview	Interview guide
		Documentary review	Documents	Document analysis guide
To appraise AE policies and practices in relation to national challenges in Tanzania.	Primary	Respondents	Interview	Interview guide
	Secondary	Documentary review		
To solicit the perceptions and suggestions from AE stakeholders with regard to AE policies and practices in Tanzania in the contemporary national contexts.	Primary	Respondents	Interview	Interview guide
			Questionnaire	Questionnaire

3.7 Validity and Reliability

Quality of research is important in any piece of scientific study. Measures of quality in research include, but not limited to, usability, validity and reliability. In this study validity and reliability as means for quality assurance were considered inescapable. According to Cohen *et al.* (2007:133), there are several threats to validity and reliability. Threats to validity and reliability can never be erased completely; rather the effects of these threats can be attenuated by attention to validity and reliability throughout a piece of research.

Validity and reliability are important keys to a sound and scientific research. So, it is the case for this study. To Cohen *et al.* (2007:341) piloting of instruments is of paramount importance

in order to maintain validity, reliability and practicability of instruments and therefore the validity and reliability of findings. In this study tryout and pre-testing of the instruments (questionnaires and interviews) was conducted at the University of Oslo by fellow students and supervisor. This helped the researcher to revise certain items, deletion of useless and ambiguous items and addition of other items.

Also triangulation of different types was employed in the study as a way to ensure validity and reliability. Moreover, necessary steps were taken to minimize the problem of non-response rate of questionnaires by administering them in person rather than through mail. Also, the researcher employed respondent validation and so the halo effect was reduced. Halo effect is common in research especially when researcher has some knowledge of the respondent or knowledge of other data about the person or situation which later exert influence on data interpretation and discussion (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). Researcher's knowledge was used to enrich the research and not as a basis for interpreting respondent's responses.

In addition, culture blindness was also explored during data collection period. Brock-Utne (1996:610) defines culture blindness as a phenomenon which has to do with the fact that a researcher may become blind to what he/she experiences everyday. The researcher took all necessary measures to ensure that culture blindness does not crop up by avoiding taking things (for example poverty, diseases, illiteracy and income inequality) as 'normal' since they are part and parcel of the researcher's life.

3.8 Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is a process that implies editing, coding, classification and tabulation of collected data. Quantitative data collected from the field were statistically analyzed using SPSS for Windows and percentages, frequencies, tables, graphs, ratios and charts. These were produced so as to allow easy data analysis and interpretation. The data from interviews were sorted into identified patterns and were organized according to the research questions as it was done for questionnaires. The research questions together with the statistics formed the basis of discussion of the findings.

3.9 Ethical Consideration

Ethical concerns are of paramount when planning, conducting and evaluating research (Cozby, 2007:38). First of all the researcher got a research permit from the University of Oslo

(UiO). After arrival in Tanzania, the researcher went to MoEVT to collect a clearance permit that enabled him to collect data at MoEVT headquarters, IAE, Mara region and Ruvuma regions. A clearance permit to collect data at UDSM was given by the Vice Chancellor of the UDSM. In Mara and Ruvuma regions clearance permit from Regional Administrative Secretaries (RAS) were necessary to access institutions under their jurisdictions. All research permits can be found in appendix F-J.

To ensure informed consent, a researcher provided fair and full explanations of the objectives and the purpose of the study and thereafter sought permission from participants. For the sake of reducing the risk of invading respondents' privacy, the researcher took all precautions that no respondent's privacy was invaded by storing data in a place where no person other than the researcher would access them.

Also, questionnaires were registered by numbers rather than names. Moreover, the researcher maintained anonymity by ensuring that no one else, other than the researcher had access to the data. To maintain anonymity, the researcher prepared questionnaires that had no identifying marks such as names, addresses or occupational details. Each questionnaire had the words of this nature: "do not identify yourself anywhere in this paper".

When the respondent was eager to participate in the study, (respondents referred earlier in this study) was asked to sign a consent form. The consent form offered the purpose of the study, assurance of anonymity, benefits of the study, and privacy (see appendix D). For questionnaires, the consent form was attached to each of the questionnaire. For interviews, a consent form was given prior to the starting of the interview session.

3.10 Summary

This chapter has presented the methodology used in the data collection process. It has presented the research strategies, critical theory, study area and its characteristics, population of the study, sample and sampling procedures, sampling techniques and data collection methods and instruments employed in data collection. Also, the issue of validity and reliability and the data analysis procedures have been presented. The last part, has dealt with ethical consideration. The chapter that follows is about the data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

In the foregoing chapter, methodology has been presented. In this chapter the data collected are presented by means of tables, graphs, charts and narrations. Data have been presented according to research questions and/or themes that were developed prior to the field work. A room also has been given to include themes that emerged during data collection. The emerged themes were merged together with the already established research questions and/or themes and formed the basis for data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion. Before indulging to the data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion, it is important to present data analysis strategy.

4.2 Data Analysis Strategy

As noted in previous chapter (chapter three), the nature of research topic together with research questions and purpose of the study compelled a researcher to employ both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. Consequentially, data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion employed the same path.

4.3 Research Respondents

Information regarding research respondents' personal particulars was collected using questionnaires and interview guides. The respondents were categorized in three groups, namely adult learners, adult educators and policy makers/academicians. The characteristics of respondents were as presented in sections 4.3.1, 4.3.2 and 4.3.3.

4.3.1 Category and Gender of Respondents

As introduced above, three categories of respondents participated in this research. The first group comprised adult learners who accounted for 91.8 percent of all respondents. The second group was adult educators. This group accounted for 5.7 percent of respondents. The last

group was that of policy makers and academicians who totaled 2.5 percent of all respondents. Information regarding category and gender of respondents are as indicated in Table 4.1

Table 4.1: *Category and Gender of Respondents*

		Categories of Respondents			Total
		Adult Learners	Adult Educators	Policy makers/Academicians	
Gender	Male	63	5	3	71
	Female	82	4	2	88
Total		145	9	5	159

Information from Table 4.1 shows that females (88 in total which is equivalent to 55.3%) were more represented in the study than males. This is the indicator that many females participated in adult learning programmes than males. The data are in line with those of MoEVT especially those for learners attending ICBAE classes and study functional and post literacy programmes (MoEVT, 2006:42) that indicated the over representation of females.

4.3.2 Age of Respondents

Age was considered a crucial factor in selecting research respondents. Since this study intended to use adults only, the age of respondents was viewed an inclusion and exclusion criteria. As discussed in chapter one, the definition of an adult is complex. However, one of the attributes of adulthood is age.

Table 4.2a: *Age of Respondents (Adult Learners and Educators)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-20 years	75	48.7	48.7	48.7
	21-30 years	59	38.3	38.3	87.0
	31-45 years	20	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total		154	100.0	100.0	

In this study, as seen from Table 4.2a, the age of respondents was very heterogeneous ranging from 18-20 to 45 years. The dominant group to participate in this study was that of age between 18-20 comprising 48.7 percent. When a cross tabulation between age and education level was computed, it was realized that most of these were primary school leavers, secondary (O' level), and AE graduates.

Information from Table 4.2b shows that 80 percent of all respondents (academicians and policy makers) fell under the age above 46. Only one respondent was between 31-45 years old. The age of this group of respondents indicates that the respondents have lived longer and so they might have rich experience (though not necessary and sufficient condition) on AE policies and practices within the country.

Table 4.2b: *Age of Respondents (Policy Makers and Academicians)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	31-45 years	1	20.0	20.0	20.0
	46+ years	4	80.0	80.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	100.0	

4.3.3 Education Level and Job Experiences

There is a long held assumption as advocated by human capital theorists that education leads to employability of individuals (see for example Mlekwa 1997). Basing on that, the characteristics of respondents especially education level and experience were cross tabulated as indicated in Table 4.3a.

Table 4.3a: *Education Level and Job Experience of Respondents (Adult Learners and Educators)*

		Job experience				Total
		No experience	0-5 years	6-10 years	Missing	
Education level	Pre Primary and Primary Education	56	29	7	1	93
	Secondary (O' Level)	15	11	1	2	29
	Secondary (A'Level)	0	1	1	0	2
	Diploma and Degree	0	1	1	0	2
	Adult Education	16	7	5	0	28
Total		87	49	15	3	154

Table 4.3b: *Education Level and Job Experience (Policy Makers and Academicians)*

		Job experience		Total
		11-15 years	16-20 years	
Education level	Post Graduate	1	4	5
Total		1	4	5

Regarding education level, data from both tables (Tables 4.3a and 4.3b) show that no respondents who had not gone to school. Moreover, it can be learned from Table 4.3a that most respondents had attained pre-primary and primary education (93 respondents) followed

by those who attained certain level of AE (29 respondents). This can mean that most primary school leavers find AE as a window for further education (however, this comment should be handled with great care as no data were collected to gauge the reasons as to why adults participate in AE programmes).

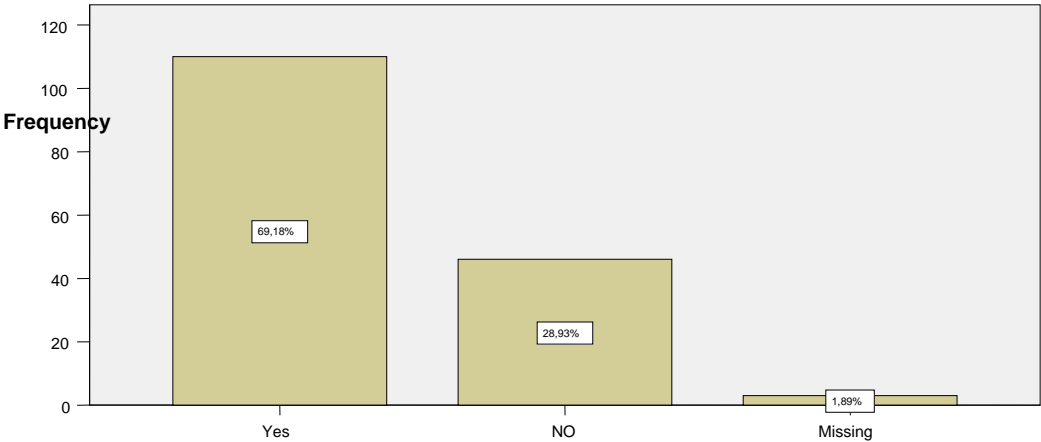
In this study, one of the striking features of policy makers and academicians is that all (100%) of them were post graduates. The difference is on the job experience where one respondent (20%) has experience between 11-15 years. Many years of working experience might mean the vast knowledge of respondents in educational policy making.

4.4 Presentation of Research Findings

As noted earlier, a total of 154 respondents (adult learners and educators) participated to fill in the questionnaires. Five respondents (policy makers and academicians) participated by responding to interviews administered by the researcher in person.

4.4.1 Knowledge on ETP

This study sought to find out the knowledge of respondents on educational policy in Tanzania. So, the respondents were asked whether or not they know the policy governing pre-primary, primary, secondary, teacher and adult education in Tanzania because it is the very same document that AE policy is contained. Responses from questionnaires revealed information as depicted in Graph 4.1 and Table 4.4.



Graph 4.1: Knowledge on AE policy

Table 4.4: Knowledge on AE Policy (Policy Makers and Academicians)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	5	100,0	100,0	100,0

As it can be grasped from Graph 4.1, more than 69.18 percent respondents (adult learners and adult educators) claimed to know the policy whereas 28.9 percent indicated that they did not know the policy. On the other hand, 100 percent of policy makers and academicians who participated in the study knew the policy.

To ascertain the responses given above then, a probing question was asked demanding respondents to name the policy. It should be noted that a good number of adult learners (69.18%) claimed to know the policy governing education in the country. However, even those who claimed to know the policy named it wrongly.

What the researcher did is to ask respondents to name the policy and then grouped the responses in three categories. The first category was for those who named the policy correctly. The response was marked ‘correct’. Another category was that with the wrong answer, this was marked ‘wrong’. For those whom failed to provide an answer to the question it was labeled ‘missing’. A complete picture of responses is as presented on Chart 4.1.

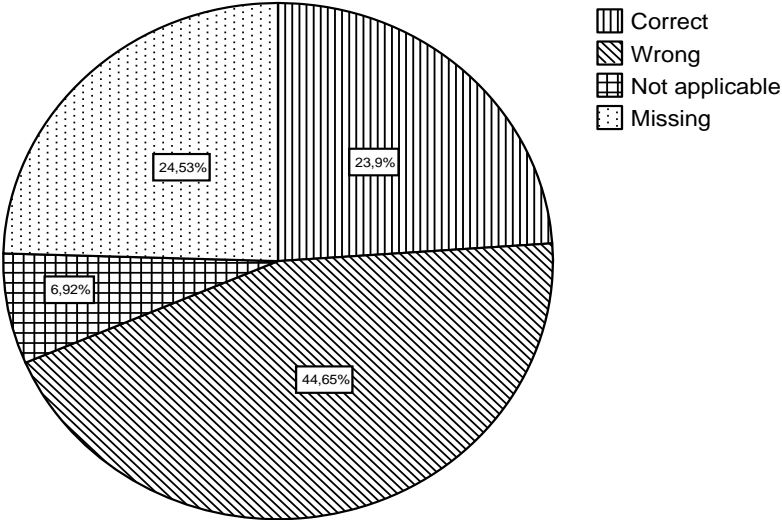


Chart 4.1: Knowledge on the Name of Educational Policy in Tanzania

Comparatively as it can be learned from Chart 4.1, around half of respondents (adult learners and educators) (44.65%) named the policy governing pre-primary, primary, secondary, teacher and non-formal education in Tanzania wrongly. The results concur with that of Mlekwa (1975) who found that apart from government efforts to educate people on AE policies, very few adults were aware of the policy. This calls for intentional investment on educating adults about educational policy in the country. But on the part of policy makers and academicians, interview information revealed that 100 percent of these respondents knew the policy. May be, it is because these were the policy makers and academicians, who had higher level of education and deal with the policy issues at least in every angle of their lives.

From the above findings, it is very unfortunate that adults, who are supposed to benefit from the policy statement, were unaware about it. It might be due to lack of education or the government may do it intentionally so that people may not know what their government is supposed to do for them, to avoid questions and so justification of their existence in power.

4.4.2 Match between AE Policy Statements and AE Practices

The assumption behind this theme was that adult learners at least know what is contained in the policy. It was the view of the researcher that since they are participating in AE classrooms, it would be possible for them to say whether ETP especially in the area of AE was in line with what is going on AE classrooms or not. The results revealed something different because it came to the attention of the researcher that in most cases, adult learners knew little regarding AE policies hence difficult for them to know if AE policy and AE practices real match. For respondents who were in a position to answer the question and had knowledge on the policy responded as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: *The Match between AE Policies and Practices (Adult Learners & Educators)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	24	15,6	15,6	15,6
	No	73	47,4	47,4	63,0
	Missing	57	37,0	37,0	100,0
	Total	154	100,0	100,0	

Information from Table 4.5 reveals that 24 respondents (15.6%) indicated that policy statements are in line with what was practiced in AE classes. On the other hand 47.4 percent (75 respondents) of respondents mentioned that policy statements and what is practiced in AE

classes were not in line. Around 57 (37.0%) respondents did not answer this question. The reason behind might be the little knowledge they have on the policy. When a reference was made to 45 percent (see Chart 4.1) of respondents who named the policy wrongly, it came to be realized by the researcher that ‘little knowledge’ was a force behind low responses to the question when respondent 1 said:

Unajua ndugu mtafiti ingekuwa bora sana kama ungekuja na sera hiyo ya elimu. Sisi tungeisoma halafu tukwambie kama yaliyomo katika sera hiyo yana uhusiano na yanayotekelezwa katika vituo vya elimu ya watu wazima ama la. Sasa tutajibu vipi swali hili wakati hatujui sera inasema nini na sura yake inafafanaje...(kicheko darasani)

Researcher’s translation:

Dear researcher, it could be more effective if you could come with that educational policy. We were to read and then tell you if what is contained in the policy matches with what practiced here in our classes. Now, how are we going to answer this kind of question while we do not know what the policy says and how it looks like... (Laughter in the class)

From this narration it can be safe to claim that little knowledge about educational policy in Tanzania was responsible for the low response to the question. These findings confirms what Mlekwa (1975) found among adult learners that, the majority did not know the educational guiding policy. Moreover, these findings as well concur with an observation given by Maoulidi (2004:3) who argued: “...while there are favourable policies in place to facilitate adult learning, there is a large discrepancy between policy statements and actual practice”.

4.4.3 ‘Nyerere Retired and Died with AE in Tanzania’

One of the tasks of this study was to find out how adult learners, adult educators and policy makers/academicians perceive the status of AE in Tanzania. A reader may wonder why then the title of the theme is different from what the original theme says. The title reflects and captures in a broadest manner the status of AE in Tanzania as perceived by the respondents. In answering the question in an interview session, one respondent disclosed the following:

Tangu kustaafu urais wa Jamhuri ya Muungano wa Tanzania na hatimaye kifo chake mwaka 1999, hadhi ya Elimu ya Watu Wazima imeshuka sana. Hii ni kusema Mwalimu alistaafu na kufa na Elimu ya Watu Wazima. Hii inajionesha dhahiri-Respondent 3

Researcher’s translation:

Since his retirement as a president of URT and later on his death in 1999, the status of AE has been deteriorating. This can mean that Nyerere retired and died with AE as now is evidently seen and witnessed all over the country-Respondent 3

Again in this study, 154 respondents (adult learners and educators) participated in answering the question that asked: *Basing on your own experience and knowledge, what is the status of AE in Tanzania?* Adult learners and educators responded through questionnaires and the results were as presented in Table 4.6a.

Table 4.6a: *The Status of AE in Tanzania (Adult Learners & Educators)*

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low	75	48.7	48.7
	Moderate	53	34.4	83.1
	High	11	7.1	90.3
	I do not now	14	9.1	99.4
	Missing	1	.6	100.0
Total		154	100.0	

From Table 4.6a, it shows that AE in Tanzania is accorded low status as 48.7 percent of all respondents indicated that the status of AE in Tanzania is low whereas 34.4 percent responded that the status of AE is moderate. One of the implications of these results is that the possibility of benefiting from the potentials of AE in Tanzania at the moment is difficult. One may argue that it is unlikely for a person to participate or value something that is accorded low status in the society.

Moreover, data from interview revealed that 80 percent of respondents claimed that AE is accorded low status. More information can be found in Table 4.6b.

Table 4.6b: *The status of AE in Tanzania (Policy makers and Academicians)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low	4	80,0	80,0	80,0
	Moderate	1	20,0	20,0	100,0
	Total	5	100,0	100,0	

In addition to that Respondent 03 in an interview said:

I wonder how this PSRP and MKUKUTA (NSGRP) will succeed amidst low attention to AE programmes. To me, it is difficult even impossible for any government plan or programme to be effective and sustainable if the majority of adult population (implementers) are denied their right to education. There is nothing bad to concentrate on primary and secondary education. What is bad is concentration on any form or level of education at the expense of the other.

In responding and practicing what Oakley (1981) emphasizes, ‘the interview process should be two ways’, the researcher accepted an opinion from one of the respondents. In that particular time the researcher was administering questionnaires in person in one of AE

classes. In the questionnaires, one item required a respondent to ask anything relevant to the study and which a researcher might be in a position to clarify. Respondent 4 decided to use that opportunity. The conversation went this way:

Respondent: *Samahani mtafiti,*

Researcher: *Hapana, bila samahani ndugu.*

Respondent: *Nataka kuuliza kitu lakini hakina uhusiano sana na utafiti wako!*

Researcher: *Tafadhali uliza tu, nikiwa na majibu nitajibu*

Respondent: *Kwa hiyo ulienda Ulaya kusomea Elimu ya Watu Wazima, siyo?*

Researcher: *Ndiyo ndugu*

Respondent: *Nashangaa, iweje mtu uende Ulaya kusomea Elimu ya Watu Wazima!*

Hakuna mambo mengine ya maana ya kusomea huko?

(Mazungumzo yaliendelea)

Researcher's translation:

Respondent: Sorry, my dear researcher

Researcher: Oh! Don't worry; there is no need to excuse yourself!

Respondent: I want to ask something but not very much related to your study

Researcher: Please ask, if manageable, I will answer.

Respondent: So you went to Europe to study AE, isn't it?

Researcher: Yes dear

Respondent: I wonder how somebody can go to Europe to study AE. Are there not more important things to study than AE?

(Conversation continued)-Respondent 4 and researcher.

Therefore, to this respondent, AE is not something important to necessitate somebody to study abroad (Europe). To this respondent, there are other important things to study in Europe than AE. It can therefore be argued that this respondent might be a representative of those people who consider AE as learning about 3Rs only. It is very unfortunate to note that they forget the fact that any education and/or learning transaction encountered by a person(s) considered as an adult(s) legally, socially, biologically and psychologically in his or her society is AE. On this, Seya (2005) argues:

AE is not 3Rs. It means also problem-solving and life skills and the other knowledge such as values and attitudes. It intends to remedy early education inadequacies of the mature people. It equips them with the knowledge and cultural elements required for their self fulfillment and active participation in the social, economic and political life of their societies.

In this regard, even teacher training education, University education and other higher learning education follow under this category, since the majority of students are above the age that different governments and societies of the world consider as adults.

Various scholars, such as Rogers (1993), Rogers (2004), and Henzen (2007) indicate the same stand. Rogers (1993:159) observed that the comparative neglect of AE in the policy making and implementation of educational programmes in all parts of the world is clear (may be with few exceptions). It is usually the last item in the educational agenda (except when cuts are being discussed); it usually appears on the last pages of the educational journals. Further,

Rogers (2004) for example argues, “the attention given to non-formal education (AE included) during the 1990s was reluctant and far from wholehearted. It was the “poor and badly dressed guest at the education table, whose presence was hardly desired and who no one knows quite how to approach”.

Henzen (2007) states that in almost every country; governments find it easy to have a policy for schools and higher education. There is usually legislation governing both of them, and there is financial provision, though this is often not high enough. It is very often different in the case of AE as most governments find it difficult to do what is required. The majority of countries in the world may even be without AE policies, and without legislation to guide its implementation. Countries of the world sometimes and more often have only meager finances available for AE programmes.

4.4.4 Reasons for the Low Status of AE in Tanzania

In order to get a clear picture on the status of AE, another question was asked demanding respondents to give reasons for the status of AE in Tanzania to be as it is. The results from questionnaires were merged together with those from interview after ensuring that the themes that arose in the interview matched with the answers in questionnaires.

Concerning the reasons for the status of AE in Tanzania, information from table 4.7 shows that only 8 percent of respondents said that misconception of AE is responsible for low status of AE in Tanzania. Also, lack of political will was frequently mentioned (42.9%) than any other factors responsible for the low status of AE in the country.

Table 4.7: Reasons for AE Low Status (Adult Learners & Educators)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Second rate	23	14,9	14,9	14,9
	Inappropriate resource allocation	28	18,2	18,2	33,1
	Lack of political will	66	42,9	42,9	76,0
	Negative attitude of governmental officials towards AE	14	9,1	9,1	85,1
	Misconception of AE	8	5,2	5,2	90,3
	External pressure and environment	15	9,7	9,7	100,0
	Total	154	100,0	100,0	

In an interview session, respondent 1 had the following to offer:

Hadhi ya Elimu ya Watu Wazima imeshuka kutokana na kukosa msukumo wa kisiasa. Mbona wakati wa Mwalimu Nyerere Elimu ya Watu Wazima ilipamba moto na ujinga, maradhi na umaskini vilipungua? Kwa kweli Elimu ya Watu Wazima sasa imesahaulika kabisa. Sijui watu wazima tutafanyaje. Nyie watafiti mtusaidie Elimu ya Watu Wazima irudishiwe hadhi yake-
Respondent 1

Researcher's translation:

The status of AE has come down due to lack of political will. Why then during the phase of Mwalimu Nyerere AE was acknowledged? Ignorance, diseases, and poverty were reduced. In fact AE currently is forgotten. I do not know what adults will do. You researchers help us so that AE resumes its status-Respondent 1

Commenting on the lack of political will and commitment at the moment in Tanzania,
respondent 4 added:

Unajua bwana kama kitu kikipewa kipaumbele utakuta kimetengewa fungu la kutosha la fedha. Lakini sasa katika idara ya Elimu ya Watu Wazima katika Wizara ya Elimu na Mafunzo ya Ufundi fungu linalotengwa wala halifikii asilimia 0.3 ya pato la taifa kiwango ambacho ndicho kinachopendekezwa na jamii ya kimataifa.

Researcher's translation:

You know if something is given a priority you will find that there is enough dough allocated for it. But for the department of AE at the MoEVT the funds allocated do not even meet the 0.3 percent which is proposed by international community.

Once Mlekwa commented that the amount of money voted for AE activities however is by no means very much less than that which is spent on formal education (Mlekwa, 1975:215). It should be clear that what is advocated here is the proportion of funds between or among different levels of educational system. It is a matter of equity and not equality in the distribution of funds in the education system. It is difficult to run a programme or plan when there are limited resources. Thus, AE in Tanzania is at a crossroad as it is allocated limited resources while the area has a lot of clients to serve.

4.4.5 Challenges Facing Adults in Tanzania

There are many challenges facing adults in Tanzania. However, a small study like this one cannot cover all of the challenges. The researcher tried his level best to ensure that those burning challenges are included in the study. In the first place respondents were asked to say yes or no to the question: *Do you know any challenge(s) facing adults in Tanzania?* This was a yes/no question.

As it can be learned from Table 4.8, the results show that 147 (95.5%) of all respondents who answered the question claimed to know the challenges facing adults in Tanzania. Three

percent of respondents indicated that they did not know challenges facing adults. Information from interview shows that all five respondents knew the challenges facing adults in Tanzania.

Table 4.8: *Knowledge on Challenges Facing Adults (Adult Learners & Educators)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	147	95,5	96,7	96,7
	No	5	3,2	3,3	100,0
	Total	152	98,7	100,0	
Missing	System	2	1,3		
Total		154	100,0		

Then another question which demanded respondents to list challenges facing adults in Tanzania followed. As it was for the previous question, two respondents did not respond to this question. Of interest here is that even those 5 respondents who responded by saying that they do not know challenges facing adults were able to list challenges facing adults including themselves. This information can be read from Table 4.9a.

Table 4.9a: *Challenges Facing Adults in Tanzania (Adult Learners & Educators)*

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Illiteracy	24	15.6	15.6
	Poverty	70	45.5	61.0
	Social Inequality	6	3.9	64.9
	HIV/AIDS	47	30.5	95.5
	ICT	1	.6	96.1
	Labour market and Unemployment	4	2.6	98.7
	Missing	2	1.3	100.0
Total		154	100.0	

Table 4.9b: *Challenges facing Adults in Tanzania (Policy Makers and Academicians)*

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Illiteracy	1	20,0	20,0
	Poverty	2	40,0	60,0
	Social Inequality	1	20,0	80,0
	HIV/AIDS	1	20,0	100,0
	Total	5	100,0	

From Tables 4.9a and 4.9b, poverty was frequently mentioned (45.5% and 40% respectively) as a challenge facing adults in Tanzania. Poverty was followed by HIV/AIDS (30.5% for

adult educators and learners and 20 percent for academicians and policy makers), and illiteracy (15.6% of adult educators and learners). However, ICT was the least mentioned as it comprised only 0.6 percent. It should be noted that although illiteracy was not frequently mentioned, in actual sense it is a big challenge in the country (see table 2.1 for details). So, the low frequency might be attributed to the fact that most respondents, as individuals, illiteracy was no longer a problem.

4.4.6 AE Policies and Practices in Addressing National Challenges

The study again sought to measure the degree to which AE policies and practices address national challenges in Tanzania. Respondents were asked to give their opinion regarding the challenges and the way AE policies and practices address them. The responses were presented in a Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’. The number of respondents who participated to answer the question is disclosed under each challenge.

Importantly, it should be noted that information from questionnaires were meant to gauge and collect information regarding the way AE practices address challenges facing adults. Data regarding AE policies in addressing challenges facing adults were collected through documentary review.

4.4.6.1 AE Policies and Practices in Addressing Income Poverty

The study sought to gain information from respondents’ perspective on the extent to which AE policies and practices address income poverty. As noted in Chapter 1 (section 1.7.6), poverty is multidimensional, multifaceted and complex. In Tanzania, poverty has many indicators. This can be manifested in various aspects of well-being of people including illiteracy, HIV/AIDS and income inequality. Thus, measuring poverty poses a critical challenge. In this study poverty was narrowly conceived in income related aspects. In this theme, 153 respondents (adult learners and educators) responded and the results are as presented in Table 4.10a.

The findings, as seen on Table 4.10a, show that 3 (1.9%) respondents strongly agreed that AE policies and practices address income poverty. Also, 34.4 percent of all respondents were those who responded that they did not agree that AE policies and practices address poverty. This was followed by those who responded that they agreed that AE policies and practices address

poverty (30.5%). Six respondents (3.9%) indicated that they strongly did not agree that AE policies and practices address poverty.

Table 4.10a: *AE Practices in Addressing Income Poverty (Adult Learners & Educators)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	3	1,9	1,9	1,9
	Agree	47	30,5	30,5	32,5
	I do not know	44	28,6	28,6	61,0
	Disagree	53	34,4	34,4	95,5
	Strongly disagree	6	3,9	3,9	99,4
	Missing	1	,6	,6	100,0
	Total	154	100,0	100,0	

Information from interview sessions shows that 60 percent of all the interviewed respondents agreed that AE practices address income poverty in Tanzania. More information can be read from Table 4.10b.

Table 4.10b: *AE Practices in Addressing Income Poverty (Policy Makers and Academicians)*

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	3	60,0	60,0
	I do not know	1	20,0	80,0
	Disagree	1	20,0	100,0
	Total	5	100,0	

In supporting those who did not agree that AE policies and practices reduce poverty, respondent 2 in an interview session had the following to comment:

Kwa msimamo wangu mimi si tu kwamba Elimu ya Watu Wazima pekee ndio imeshindwa kuondoa au kushughulikia umaskini bali ni sekta mbalimbali za kijamii na kiuchumi zimeshindwa na kwa ujumla wake serikali imeshindwa kuondoa umaskini hapa nchini. Nashangaa sana ninaposikia serikali inasema uchumi unakua wakati hali za wananchi zinazidi kuwa duni. Huwa najiuliza hivi elimu tuliyopata na wanayopata watanzania ina faida gani kama haiwasadhi kuondokana na janga hili la umaskini? Serikali lazima itambue kwamba umaskini ni mbaya na gharama sana. Kama kuna nchi zimeweza kuendelea na kuondokana na umaskini kutokana na elimu, pamoja na mambo mengine, kwa nini Tanzania tunashindwa? Tuseme kwa nini tushindwe kwa sasa wakati enzi ya Mwalimu Nyerere iliwezekana?

Researcher's translation:

In my view, not only AE alone has failed to address poverty but also various economic and social sectors and in totality the government has failed to eradicate poverty in the country. I wonder when the government claims that the economy is growing while the living condition of people is miserable. I ask myself, what is the value of education; if at all it does not help beneficiaries to get rid of poverty? The government should recognize that poverty is very expensive and bad. If there are countries that have developed due to (among other things) investment in education, why not

Tanzania? Let us say, why are we failing now while it was possible during the era of Nyerere's leadership?

Although data suggest that AE practices address poverty, practically and life situation of individuals suggest otherwise. In one of the reports URT (2005a:2) states:

Both the Poverty and Human Development Reports in 2002 and 2003 assessed the trend of poverty in the 1990s based on the Household Budget Surveys (HBS) of 1991/92 and 2000/01 (RAWG 2002, 2003). These surveys indicate that about 36 per cent of Tanzanians were living below the poverty line in 2000/01.

On the same vein, GoURT & WB (2002:87) has the following to witness regarding poverty in Tanzania:

Four decades after independence, between 15 million and 18 million Tanzanians still live below the poverty line of US\$0.65. Of these, nearly 12.5 million live in abject poverty, spending less than US\$0.50 on consumption a day.

And the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) report of 2005 on poverty in Tanzania confirms: "in 1990 the average American was 38 times richer than the average Tanzanian. Today the average American is 61 times richer" (UNDP, 2005:37). It should be noted that this report was for the year 2005. The current situation of poverty in Tanzania might be higher than 61 times. Taking into account the prevailing situation under globalization, is it possible for Tanzanians to be competitive in global arena while around one third of its people live below poverty line?

With regard to AE policies in relation to income poverty, the analysis shows that the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 and the Adult and Non-Formal Education Sub-Sector Medium Term Strategy 2003/2004-2007/2008 address poverty. However, the ETP does not speak directly if it will address income poverty rather it states: "The objectives of AE are....to promote the acquisition and development of basic knowledge and functional skills relevant to personal development and life in the community" URT (1995:83).

It can be argued that may be poverty is indirectly addressed through what is considered basic knowledge and functional skills. The problem is that it is difficult to know what these functional skills are. This is because basic skills may mean different things to different people. It was imperative for the policy to specifically address the issue of poverty as it did for literacy as it has been presented in the ongoing section. Income poverty needs special attention in the AE policy because it is the very source of other problems facing adults. URT (2001) observes that there is a positive and strong relationship between HIV/AIDS infections

and income poverty. Also, there is a strong relationship between income poverty and the level of illiteracy in the country. On the same vein Tilak (2006) argues that income poverty is a cause and effect of education poverty while also education poverty is a cause and effect of income poverty. To break the trap or the chain is, therefore, to educate the poor including adults.

4.4.6.2 AE Policies and Practices in Addressing Illiteracy

In this theme, documentary review has revealed that AE policy address illiteracy as it is stipulated in the policy, “The objectives of adult education are....to eradicate illiteracy, sustain post-literacy and numeracy” (URT, 1995).

However, since what is stipulated in the policy is not necessarily translated into practice, respondents were asked to respond to a question that sought to gather information on whether or not AE policies and practices address illiteracy. The responses were presented in a Likert scale in six point scales. Only those scales of which respondents selected are presented. Others do not appear as no respondent selected. A total of 154 respondents (adult learners and educators) participated in responding to this question: *Does AE practices address illiteracy?* The findings are as presented in Table 4.11.

Information from the Table 4.11 reveals that 44.2 percent of all respondents disagreed with the statement that AE practices address illiteracy. However, approximately one third of respondents (28.6%) agreed with the statement that AE policies and practices in Tanzania address illiteracy. Again, 39 (25.3%) and 3 (1.9%) respondents responded that they did not know and strongly disagreed respectively.

Table 4.11: AE Practices in Addressing Illiteracy (Adult Learners & Educators)

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	44	28,6	28,6
	I dont know	39	25,3	53,9
	Disagree	68	44,2	98,1
	Strongly disagree	3	1,9	100,0
	Total	154	100,0	

Basing on the data above, it can be argued that AE policies and practices do not address illiteracy as approximately 50 percent of respondents disagreed with the statement. The

position of the 50 percent of respondents might be connected to the reality that there is an increased number of illiterate adults (refer to Table 1.1). This can be a good indicator that AE practices, to some extent; do not address illiteracy that is why there is a rampant increase of illiterate population in Tanzania year after year.

In one of the interview session on the theme of illiteracy, respondent 2 had this to offer:

Kwa kweli mimi nashindwa kuelewa. Baada ya uhuru wananchi wengi walikuwa hawajui kusoma, kuandika na kuhesabu. Serikali ikachukua hatua madhubuti kuhakikisha kwamba kila mtanzania anajua kusoma, kuandika na kuhesabu. Jitihada hizi ziliza matunda kwani idadi ya wasiojua kusoma, kuandika na kuhesabu ilipungua. Kabla ya uhuru tulisema wakoloni ndio waliosababisha haya. Sasa hivi tutasingizia nini? Kwa nini watu wengi wasijue kusoma, kuandika na kuhesabu hata baada ya zaidi ya miaka 40 ya uhuru? Ni dhahiri ndugu mtafiti kwamba sera na utekelezaji wa elimu ya watu wazima haujatilia maanani suala la ujinga nchini na hii ni hatari. Yaani tunarudi tena enzi ya kusomeana barua!

Researcher's translation:

In fact I fail to understand. After independence, many people did not know to read, write and count. The government employed necessary measures to ensure that every Tanzanian knows to read, count and write. The efforts yielded good results as the number of people who did not know to read, write and count decreased. Before independence we attributed ignorance to colonialism. Now who is to be blamed? Why so many people still do not know to read, write and count even after more than 40 years of independence? It is obvious my dear researcher that AE policies and practices had not paid strong emphasis on illiteracy in the country. This is dangerous as it means that we are going back to that era of assisting each other to read letters!

Thus, as noted earlier in the conceptual framework specifically on the issue of enabling conditions, there is no way in which education in general and AE in particular can flourish without political will and commitment. This is in line with what HCT emphasizes that investment in humans is of paramount importance for any educational policy and practice to yield intended objectives.

Also the notion and view of the respondent that less attention to literacy is dangerous should be taken into account. Literacy as conceived in its broadest sense, it is a pre-requisite in a knowledge based economy and in fragmented labour market where competition is praised. This means that the contemporary AE policies and practices in Tanzania do neither support HCT and globalization assumptions and principles nor adheres to the national vision and Constitution and international conventions and declarations.

Data from documentary review have revealed that AE policy stipulates clearly about the eradication of illiteracy. It has also committed itself for regular literacy test after every three years. However, literature survey and conversation with stakeholders in AE and researcher's

experience has shown that the “every three years” national literacy tests stipulated in ETP (URT, 1995:88) are non-existent. Furthermore, the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 also recognizes the need for a learned and learning society. It also recognizes the preparation of people who are conscious about problems encountered in their environment and be able to solve them.

A synthesis of findings from questionnaire and interviews on the one hand and documentary review on the other, show that AE policies address illiteracy to some extent but AE practices are not addressing illiteracy to a larger extent. Thus, the claim that there might be good policy statements but poor practices holds water in this regard.

Illiteracy is a big hindrance towards development in developing countries including Tanzania. This is a challenge to both the nation and to an individual especially during this era where participation of people at the grass root level is emphasized. How can these people effectively participate in whatever socio-economic and political activity while they are illiterates? How are they going to acquire ‘modern’ values while they are illiterates? How are they going to fight against HIV/AIDS while they cannot read, write and count?

4.4.6.3 AE Policies and Practices in Addressing HIV/AIDS

As indicated elsewhere in this study, Tanzania in 1970s to 1980s was a model of success in improving health conditions of its citizen through AE. But, currently there are deadly diseases in the country threatening the growth of the nation (for example HIV/AIDS, malaria, and Tuberculosis). Bearing in mind the above situations, respondents were asked to answer a question that demanded them to respond in a six point Likert scale as to whether contemporary AE practices address HIV/AIDS or not. A total of 149 respondents participated in answering the question. The results were as presented on Table 4.12a. Information from interview are presented on Table 4.12b.

As data indicates from Table 4.12a, approximately half of respondents (adult learners and educators) agreed that AE practices address HIV/AIDS. This is represented by 71 respondents (46.1%) who answered the question: *Do AE practices address HIV/AIDS?* agreed on the same ground.

Table 4.12a: AE Practices in Addressing HIV/AIDS (Adult Learners & Educators)

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	1	,6	,7
	Agree	71	46,1	48,3
	I dont know	28	18,2	67,1
	Disagree	42	27,3	95,3
	Strongly disagree	7	4,5	100,0
	Total	149	96,8	
Missing	System	5	3,2	
Total		154	100,0	

Table 4.12b: AE Practices in Addressing HIV/AIDS (Policy Makers and Academicians)

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	4	80,0	80,0
	Disagree	1	20,0	100,0
	Total	5	100,0	

Again, from Table 4.12b, 80 percent of respondents agreed that AE practices address HIV/AIDS. This means that for every 100 adults in the population under study, 20 of them disagreed that AE addressed HIV/AIDS.

However, as presented in this study Tanzania is one of the countries most hit by the HIV/AIDS epidemic leave alone malaria and other diseases. Respecting the respondents' views that AE practices address HIV/AIDS then there might be something wrong since there is endless increase in HIV/AIDS infections year after year (see for example, NACP, 2005; URT, 2005). Additionally, Maoulidi (2004) has the following opinion regarding AE and HIV/AIDS. She holds:

...while Tanzania has high proportions of adults who know about HIV/AIDS, the reality is that the life skills necessary to enable the population to fight this menace is appalling. According to the Tanzania Reproductive and Child Health Survey (TRCHS) of 1999, only 4 percent of women use condoms, while a 2003 African Youth Alliance (AYA) study puts that figure at less than 1 percent, suggesting that female youths are not only engaged in unprotected sex at an early age but also at risk of unwanted pregnancies and STI/HIV/AIDS. The disconnection between HIV knowledge and safe sex practices makes adult education more than relevant for the wider population.

A survey of AE policy has revealed the same problem encountered when analyzing poverty. The policy does not directly commit itself to the battle against HIV/AIDS. Further survey has

revealed that in 2001 URT conceived a policy on HIV/AIDS. It is in this policy that URT acknowledges the role of education in the battle against the epidemic. It states:

HIV/AIDS is preventable! Transmission of infection is preventable through changes in individual behaviour, hence education and information on HIV/AIDS, behavioural change communication as well as prevention strategies are necessary for people and communities to have the necessary awareness and courage to bring about changes in behaviour at the community and individual levels. URT (2001:6)

It is worthy noting that this is a National HIV/AIDS policy and not AE policy. Documentary review data suggest that AE policy does not really address HIV/AIDS. These findings suggest that a war against HIV/AIDS is far from winning if adults who form the risky population are neglected or denied their right to be informed in a proper way.

4.4.6.4 AE Policies and Practices in Relation to Income Inequalities

Income inequality is a source and effect of lack of education to some segments of the population in Tanzania (GoURT & WB, 2002). This study intended to collect information on whether or not AE policies and practices address income inequality. The question was: *Do AE practices address income inequality?* Responding to a question on whether AE practices address income inequality in an interview session, a respondent said:

Awali ya yote ni suala lililowazi kabisa kwamba sasa Tanzania kuna tofauti kubwa za kipato miongoni mwa wananchi hasa wanaoishi vijijini na wale wa mijini. Na hata ndani ya kijiji pia kuna tofauti za kipato. Naamini hata katika ngazi ya familia kuna tofauti za kipato pia. Unajua bwana suala la kupunguza tofauti za kipato mimi naona ni gumu kidogo. Elimu ya Watu Wazima itafanyanyaje kupunguza tofauti za kipato miongoni mwa watanzania? Nionavyo mimi, nafikiri hili suala lichukuliwe na sekta zote za kijamii na kiuchumi na si kuachiwa Elimu ya Watu Wazima pekee. Hata hivyo ukilinganisha jinsi Elimu ya Watu Wazima ilivyokuwa wakati wa nyuma ambapo hata watu wa vijijini walikuwa na maisha bora kuliko sasa, naweza kusema sasa hivi Elimu ya Watu Wazima haifanyi chochote kuhakikisha kwamba tofauti ya kipato miongoni mwa wananchi inapungua.

Researcher's translation:

First of all it is obvious that currently in Tanzania there is a big gap in income among people especially between those who live in rural areas and those in urban areas. Also within a village there are income inequalities. Even within the family there are income inequalities. The issue of reducing income inequality seems to be difficult. How can AE reduce income inequality among Tanzanians? The way I see, I think this issue should be handled in collaboration with all social and economic sectors. However, if you compare the way AE did in the past whereby rural people had better life than at the moment; I can say that AE currently is doing nothing to ensure that income inequality is reduced among people.

Also, the information from questionnaires and interviews came up with the following evidence. About 138 (86.8%) respondents participated to answer this question. This means that 21 (13.2%) did not respond. Of those who responded to the question, 28.6 percent did not agree that AE policies and practices addressed income inequality whereas 22.7 percent

responded that they did not know if AE policies and practices addressed income inequality. Again 17.5 percent and 13.0 percent of respondents who answered this question indicated that they strongly disagree and agree respectively. The information is as presented in Tables 4.13a and 4.13b.

Table 4.13a: *AE Practices in Addressing Income Inequality (Adult Learners and Educators)*

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	7	4.5	4.5
	Agree	20	13.0	17.5
	I don't know	35	22.7	40.3
	Disagree	44	28.6	68.8
	Strongly disagree	27	17.5	86.4
	Missing	21	13.6	100.0
	Total	154	100.0	

From Table 4.13a, added up together, those who strongly agree and those who agree make up 17.5 percent of all adult learners and educators participated in the study. Table 4.13a further reveals that around 46.1 percent (if modifier ‘strongly’ is removed from disagree) of respondents disagree that AE practices address income inequality. The findings presented concur with the study by GoURT & WB (2002) that argue that there is income disparity in Tanzania.

On the contrary, 80 percent of policy makers and academicians agreed that AE practices address income inequality in Tanzania. Moreover, a critical eye on AE policy observed that there is no place in the policy addressing income inequality.

Table 4.13b: *AE Practices in Addressing Income Inequality (Policy Makers and Academicians)*

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	4	80.0	80.0
	Disagree	1	20.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	

The findings from Table 4.13a and Table 4.13b imply disagreement between policy makers and academicians on the one hand and adult learners and educators on the other on the issue of income inequality. Policy makers see their world differently from that of learners and educators. These might lead into difficulties in implementation of policies since policy

makers have different view on income inequality hence developing AE policy basing on their world and not that of adult educators and learners. This is one of the essences of top down approach that sometimes impede effective implementation of most meaningful AE programme in developing countries (see for example Adams, 1994). While there is disagreement among stakeholders in AE, Duke (2005) holds that AE requires grassroots, bottom up development in a participatory partnership approach that includes recognition of indigenous knowledge and starts with programmes that are of immediate relevance to peoples' contexts.

4.4.6.5 AE Policies and Practices in Addressing Unemployment

Under this theme, the researcher wanted to understand how AE policies and practices equip Tanzanians especially adults to be competitive and hence employable in the labour market. A total of 154 adult learners and educators were accessed through questionnaires while 5 policy makers and academicians were contacted through face-to-face interviews. The results from questionnaires are presented in Table 4.14a whereas those from interviews are presented in Table 4.14b

Table 4.14a: *AE Practices in Addressing Unemployment (Adult Learners and Educators)*

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	5	3,2	3,2
Agree	77	50,0	53,2
I do not know	35	22,7	76,0
Disagree	34	22,1	98,1
Strongly disagree	3	1,9	100,0
Total	154	100,0	

Half of the respondents (50.0%) agreed that AE practices address labour market signals and unemployment. On the other hand 24 percent of respondents did not agree that AE practices address labour market signals and unemployment.

Table 4.14b: *AE Practices in Addressing Unemployment (Policy makers and Academicians)*

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Agree	2	40.0	40.0
Disagree	3	60.0	100.0
Total	5	100.0	

Information from interviews (Table 4.14b) revealed that 60 percent of respondents did not agree that AE practices address labour market signals and unemployment.

Researcher's documentary review has disclosed that AE policy says nothing as to how adults will be helped to acquire skills, knowledge and values that will make them competent and employable in the current fragmented and competition and knowledge based labour market. Rather the policy insists on the acquisition of basic knowledge and functional skills without stipulating specifically the skills. In this globalization era, an individual (or a nation) can hardly develop if he/she does not respond to the current labour market signals and he/she will be a loser in seeking employment.

One of the basic assumptions in HCT is that education leads to employability of individuals possessing that education or certain skills. The logic behind such assumption is that the labour market is not fragmented. This held water in Tanzania during the era of socialism whereby the government employed almost all graduates from different levels of education system.

However, in 1990s due to the fall of USSR and the Berlin Wall, the situation changed. Socialism ideology was replaced by capitalism in the new brand of globalization. In Tanzania it was associated with Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) in which private sector, among other conditionalities, were warmly welcome at least in the provision of all social and economic services. The labour market was not excluded and it started to be fragmented and competitive. Although unemployment can not be attributed hundred percent to globalization at least it is responsible to some extent. In line with this, Hobart (1998:4) voices:

...it was clearly recognized that unemployment is the most serious consequence of the changing world of work. The changes in the world of work include the globalization of the economy, the increasing significance of the informal economy and small business, but also the neglect to address the needs of this sector.

This indicates that the world of work has changed and is still changing at a high pace. To cope up with changes especially to adults, AE should be considered a window for acquiring new skills and to be employable in the labour market. Globalization looked in different angles, offer both advantages and disadvantages. People with less skills, have little to gain from globalization, whereas people with necessary skills, are winners and may benefit a lot from globalization. Tanzanians to be winners in this era of globalization, AE should be considered one of the panaceas.

4.4.7 Voices of Respondents on Challenge Oriented AE Policies and Practices

There are several issues that respondents raised with regard to the future of AE policies and practices in Tanzania. A summary of the findings are as presented in Table 4.15a and 4.15b.

Table 4.15a: *Voices of AE Stakeholders on Challenges Oriented AE Policies and Practices*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Political will and commitment + Legislative measures	78	50.6	50.6	50.6
	Resource allocation	31	20.1	20.1	70.8
	Curriculum issues	27	17.5	17.5	88.3
	Lifelong and Lifewide + multi sectoral approach to AE	8	5.2	5.2	93.5
	Well trained Adult educators	7	4.5	4.5	98.1
	Elevating the status of AE unit to directorate at MoEVT	1	.6	.6	98.7
	MoEVT to be a coordinator and IAE the implementor	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	154	100.0	100.0	

As it can be learned from Table 4.15a, about half of respondents raised their voices by saying that there should be political will and commitment plus legislative measures comprising 50.6 percent. The other factor frequently mentioned, on the same table, was resource allocation (20.1 percent). Then 17.5 percent of respondents called for the need to address issues pertaining to the curriculum. Also, voices were raised on such issues like lifelong learning, well trained adult educators, elevating the status of AE at MoEVT, and that MoEVT to be a coordinator.

Table 4.15b: *Voices of AE Stakeholders on Challenges-Oriented AE Policies and Practices*

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Political will and commitment + Legislative measures	1	20.0	20.0
	Lifelong and Life wide + multi sectoral approach to AE	1	20.0	40.0
	Let us go back to Nyerere and Freire	3	60.0	100.0
	Total	5	100.0	

Data from Table 4.15b show that political will and legislative measures was least mentioned (20.0%). Also lifelong and lifewide plus multi sectoral approach to AE had the same

frequency (20.0%). Indeed most of academicians and policy makers (60%) raised their voices by saying that there is a need to go back to Nyerere and Paulo Freire.

Once Narayan and Patel, authored a book titled, *Voices of the Poor: Can any one Hear Us?* (Narayan & Patel, 2000). The authors try to, among other things, understand poverty from the perspectives of the poor themselves hence raising their voices. Thus, in this study the question was asked: *What are your suggestions regarding adult education policies in relation to national challenge?* This question aimed at collecting views and opinions from AE stakeholders on the best way of making policy and practicing AE programmes. The researcher's role was to present the findings and raise the voices of these stakeholders in AE. However, it is not certain if any one will hear them.

4.5 Summary

To sum up, in this chapter the whole process of data presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion of themes or major research findings have been presented. The section on presentation of research findings was preceded by a succinct description of characteristics of research respondents. In this section, tables, charts and graphs have been employed to visualize all characteristics of the respondents.

Then followed the presentation of research findings. The interpretation and discussion of themes (research findings) in this chapter have been done based on the research objectives, questions and themes drawn from the respondents' voices.

The findings of this study suggest that adults in Tanzania know less about educational policy in the country. Hence, it is safe to comment that there should be purposeful efforts among all stakeholder in AE and education in general to make sure that all adults are made aware of the policy governing education in the country.

The status of AE in Tanzania is very low, according to the findings of the study. Various reasons are responsible for this. The reasons include lack of political will and commitment, misconception of AE, negative attitude of government officials towards AE and AE to be considered a second rate.

The study has disclosed that illiteracy, poverty, HIV/AIDS, income inequalities, and unemployment are among the challenges facing adults in Tanzania. Of these challenges, poverty and HIV/AIDS were frequently mentioned.

The little knowledge of adults on educational policy can be attributed to the bias of the government of the United Republic of Tanzania towards primary and secondary education but against AE. The same reason can be, to the larger extent, attributed to low status of AE.

In the next chapter which is the last one, the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study are presented.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Involving the poor in decision-making and getting resources to them requires strengthening their ability to act for themselves. This occurs through investments in human capital such as education and health, investments in social capital such as local-level institutions and participatory processes, and support for community-based development efforts planned and implemented from the bottom up. These efforts require responsive institutions and legal and regulatory policies that enable, not hinder, local participation. We recognize, however, that crafting responsive institutions and creating an enabling environment facilitates the participation of all stakeholders, not just poor people (World Bank, 1996).

5.1 Introduction

This section presents the summary of the major findings of the study, conclusion and recommendations. The first section deals with summary of major findings whereas the second section presents the conclusion of the study. The last section provides the recommendations of the study.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The main research question to this study was: *Are contemporary AE policies and practices in Tanzania addressing national challenges?* Thus, together with such main question in mind, the conceptual framework, research objectives, research questions and themes that emerged during data collection, analysis, interpretation and discussion form a base for the summary.

The purpose of this study was to investigate contemporary AE policies and practices in addressing national challenges facing adults in Tanzania using views and opinions from adult learners, adult educators and policy makers and academicians in three regions of mainland Tanzania (Dar es Salaam, Mara, and Ruvuma). The study used mainly quantitative strategy in data collection although qualitative was also used in data collection, presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion of the findings. The main data collection methods were questionnaires, interviews, and documentary reviews.

A total of 159 respondents were involved in the study of which 88 (55.3%) were females hence over represented in the study than males. The study managed to access 145 adult learners, 9 adult educators and 5 policy makers and academicians.

Adhering to the research questions and the data collected, presented, analyzed and interpreted, a summary of findings in this study can be summarized as follows: Starting with knowledge on policy governing Pre-primary, primary, secondary, teacher and AE in Tanzania, most respondents did not know the policy, since 44.7 percent named the policy wrongly compared to those who named it correctly represented by 23.9 percent.

When it comes to the match between AE policy statements and AE Practices it was found that 15.6 percent indicated that policy statements are in line with what practiced in AE classes. On the other hand 47.4 percent of adult learners and educators indicated that policy statements and what is practiced in AE classes are not in line.

Regarding the status of AE in Tanzania, the study reveals that the status of AE in Tanzania was low since 48.0 percent of adult learners and educators indicated that the status of AE in Tanzania was low whereas 34.4 percent responded that the status of AE is moderate. On the part of policy makers and academicians, 80 percent of them indicated that AE is accorded low status.

Political will and commitment has been found to be the major source for AE low status in the country since it was frequently mentioned (42.1%) than any other factors responsible for the low status of AE in the country. Only eight (8%) respondents indicated that the misconception of AE was responsible for low status of AE in Tanzania.

The study also found that poverty is the main challenge facing adults in Tanzania. Poverty was frequently mentioned (45.5%) as a challenge facing adults in Tanzania followed by HIV/AIDS (30.5%) and illiteracy (15.7). Policy makers and academicians stated that poverty (40%) was the main challenge facing adults in Tanzania.

The findings in connection to AE policies and practices in addressing income poverty show that AE policies and practices did not address income poverty as 34.4 percent of adult learners and educators indicated so. This was followed by those who indicated that they agree that AE policies and practices address income poverty (30.5%). About 60 percent of policy makers and academicians agreed that AE practices address income poverty.

Furthermore, a synthesis of findings from questionnaires and interviews on the one hand and documentary review on the other, show that AE policies address illiteracy to some extent but AE practices were not addressing illiteracy to a larger extent. Thus, the claim that there might be good policy statements but poor practices holds water in this regard.

When it comes to AE policies and practices in addressing HIV/AIDS, 46.1 percent of adult learners and educators agreed that AE policies and practices address HIV/AIDS whereas, 80 percent of policy makers and academicians agreed that AE practices address HIV/AIDS.

Findings relating to AE policies and practices in relation to income inequality, revealed that the adult educators and learners did not know whether AE policies and practices address income inequality, this is represented by 22.7 percent. Again, 13.0 percent indicated that AE policies and practices address income inequality. On the other hand, 80 percent of policy makers and academicians agreed that AE practices address income inequality.

The study observed that almost half of adult educators and learners (50.0%) did agree that AE address unemployment. More than half of policy makers and academicians (60%) disagreed that AE practices address unemployment.

The last observation is with regard to the voices of respondents on challenge-responsive AE policies and practices. This should be read with great care as it sounds like recommendations to the study while in a real sense; these are voices of respondents with regard to effective and efficient AE policies and practices. The respondents voiced that for AE policies and practices to be effective the following have to be in place; political will and commitment and legislative measures, resources allocation, curriculum issues and they called for the need to go back to Nyerere and Freire.

5.3 Conclusion

Basing on the foregoing summary of findings, the study has the following to offer as conclusion. The study concludes that there is little knowledge on the policy governing pre primary, primary, secondary, teacher and AE in Tanzania. Also, it is concluded that AE is accorded low status in Tanzania. Moreover, the study concludes that there is mismatch between policy statements and practices.

When it comes to AE policies and practices in relation to challenges facing adults in Tanzania, the study concludes that, for most challenges studied, AE policies and practices did not address them with the exception of HIV/AIDS.

Lastly, it is concluded that stakeholders in AE call for a need to execute and redress such issues like political will and commitment and legislative measures, resources allocation, curriculum issues, lifelong and Life wide and multi sectoral approach to AE, well trained adult educators, and the need to go back to Nyerere and Freire.

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1 Recommendations to all Stakeholders in AE

Reflecting on the summary of the findings and conclusions just presented, this study has the following as recommendations to all stakeholders in education in general and AE in particular:

- With regard to the knowledge of adults on policy governing pre primary, primary, secondary, teacher and AE in Tanzania, it is high time now to make sure that adults are conscientized to read and understand the document. The government should shoulder the deployment of the document up to rural areas. This will enable adults to implement it effectively and efficiently.
- The status of AE in Tanzania needs an emergency therapy. It is recommended to politicians, policy-makers, academicians and the general public to revive the status of AE in the country with a kin reference to 1970s and 1980s under the late Nyerere leadership.
- Concerning the way AE policies are related to practices, it is recommended that policy makers should be proactive and forward looking in making policies especially for adults. Also, policy making process should be a cyclical event rather than terminal. The feedback of continuous evaluation of policy should be plugged back into policy.
- The top down approach should be exploded in AE policies and practices. It should be noted that adults will participate in learning if they are engaged in planning what to

learn and if what they learn have immediate utility. Thus, needs and interests of AE clientele should be the first priority both in AE policies and practices.

- Finally, it is recommended to “hear the voices of AE stakeholders” as presented in the conclusion. The voices of stakeholders in AE especially primary beneficiaries or in economic language ‘customers’ will facilitate educational innovations and reforms to be effective and efficient.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Further Research

First, it is recommended that there should be a study to investigate as to why adults in Tanzania join AE programmes.

Second, this study was confined to three regions of mainland Tanzania and to adult learners, adult educators and policy makers and academicians in public or government run institutions and offices. Further study of the same nature can be conducted in a wider geographical area and which will involve more sample from other institutions running AE programmes in Tanzania especially civil societies and Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF OSLO-NORWAY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

This questionnaire aims at seeking the information from adult education stakeholders regarding adult education policies and practices in Tanzania. The aim of the study is to appraise the contemporary adult education policies and practices in Tanzania in relation to global and local challenges.

Dear respondent your participation in this study is of paramount importance so as to make this study fruitful and achieve the desired objectives. Your responses will be treated with strict confidentiality. Please do not identify yourself in this paper.

[Questionnaire Number _____ (To be filled by the researcher)]

Personal Particulars

1. Gender: (Tick whichever applicable)

Male

Female

2. Education level: (Tick whichever applicable)

Level	Tick
No schooling	
Pre- and Primary Education	
Secondary (Ordinary)	
Secondary (Advanced)	
Degree	
Adult Education	

3. Age: (Tick whichever applicable)

Age Group	Tick
18-20 years	
21-30 years	
31-45 years	
46+ years	

4. Work Experience (If employed) (Please tick whichever applicable)

Years	Tick
No experience	
0-5 years	
6-10 Years	
11-15 Years	
16+ Years	

Adult Education Policies and Practices

5. In your understanding do you know a policy that govern pre-primary, primary, secondary, teacher and adult education in Tanzania?

YES [] NO []

6. If your answer in question (5) above is YES, what is the name of the policy?

7. Do you agree with the contention that the policy governing pre-primary, primary, secondary, teacher and adult education in Tanzania address Poverty? (please tick only one applicable)

Challenge	Tick
Strongly agree	
Agree	
I don't know	
Disagree	
Strongy disagree	

8. Do you agree with the contention that AE practices address illiteracy? (please tick only one applicable)

Challenge	Tick
Strongly agree	
Agree	
I don't know	
Disagree	
Strongy disagree	

9. Do you agree with the contention that AE practices address HIV/AIDS? (please tick only one applicable)

Challenge	Tick
Strongly agree	
Agree	
I don't know	
Disagree	
Strongy disagree	

10. Do you agree with the contention that AE practices address income inequality? (please tick only one applicable)

Challenge	Tick
Strongly agree	
Agree	
I don't know	
Disagree	
Strongy disagree	

11. Do you agree with the contention that AE practices address labour market signals and unemployment? (please tick only one applicable)

Challenge	Tick
Strongly agree	
Agree	
I don't know	
Disagree	
Strongy disagree	

12. Do you agree with the contention that AE practices address ICT? (please tick only one applicable)

Challenge	Tick
Strongly agree	
Agree	
I don't know	
Disagree	
Strongy disagree	

13. Do you agree with the contention that AE practices address privatization and liberalization? (please tick only one applicable)

Challenge	Tick
Strongly agree	
Agree	
I don't know	
Disagree	
Strongy disagree	

14. Do you agree with the contention that AE practices address decentralization? (please tick only one applicable)

Challenge	Tick
Strongly agree	
Agree	
I don't know	
Disagree	
Strongy disagree	

15. Basing on your own experience is the government of Tanzania and Tanzanians giving adult education the status it deserves?

YES []
NO []

16. If the answer for question number (15) is NO, the reasons for not giving the status it deserves are:

17. What are your suggestions regarding adult education policies in relation to national challenges?

18. What are your suggestions regarding adult education practices in relation to national challenges?

Thank you for your participation

Appendix B: Interview Guide

**UNIVERSITY OF OSLO-NORWAY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH**

1. Researcher's introduction
2. Would you kindly give your brief history?
3. Please tell me, are you aware of a policy governing pre-primary, primary, secondary, teacher and adult education in Tanzania? What is the name of the policy?
4. Please will you explain the challenges or problems facing you as an adult?
5. Among the challenges mentioned in question 4, please will you rank them according to the way they affect you?
6. Please will you elaborate the way current adult education policies and practices meet the challenges you outlined in question 4?
7. The way you see the challenges, please can you tell me, what do you think adult education can help to address?
8. In terms of prioritization, what challenges should come first in addressing them?
9. Please will you talk a bit about the quality and quantity of adult educators, teaching and learning materials, and supply and demand of adult education?
10. Please will you explain on the resource allocation in terms of government budget?
11. Is there any linkage between adult education programs and other levels of education and other sectors (Intra and inter-sectoral linkages)?
12. What are your suggestions on adult education policies and practices so that adults should benefit fully from their education?
13. Anything more which you think is important to this study but these questions have not touched?
14. Have you any question in relation to the study which you wish to know from the researcher?

Thank you.

Appendix C: Documentary Review Guide
UNIVERSITY OF OSLO-NORWAY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

1. Objectives of AE in Tanzania
2. Education budgetary allocation
3. Challenges facing adults
4. AE policies in addressing challenges facing adults in Tanzania

Appendix D: Study Consent Form

**UNIVERSITY OF OSLO-NORWAY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH**

You are being asked to consent for your participation into a study that aims at examining the way adult education policies and practices address national challenges in Tanzania. You are asked to participate in this study because you are among the important adult education stakeholders thus a potential respondent in this study.

Study procedures

This study will involve five in-depth interviews and two hundred questionnaires. Four in-depth interviews will be with adult education policy makers at MoEVT, one with adult educator (Academician) at UDSM. Questionnaire will be used to collect data from adult learners and adult educators. The decision to participate in this study is important and therefore you are requested to answer a few questions on your opinion, knowledge, and experience.

Confidentiality

The information gathered will be confidential; your information will be accessed only by a researcher. In any way, information will not be linked to your individual name. Your name will not be mentioned in any paper or report of this study. Your identity to this study will base on the agreed identification item (ID).

Benefits

There is no direct benefit for your participation in this study. However, the information that you are going to provide to us will help in making adult education policies and practices more responsive to learners' needs and challenges. Additionally, your participation will assist in finding suggested solutions to the way adult education policies and practices in Tanzania should look like.

Participation

Participation into the study is voluntary. You have the right to decline participation or withdraw from the study at any point of the interview. Your decisions whether to participate or not will not in any way interfere with your participation in adult education programs or your employment status. Equally important, you are not subjected to say why you are quitting the study.

If you agree to participate into the study, please, give your signature hereunder.

Signature of the respondent

Date

Signature of the interviewer

Date

Appendix E: Time Schedule

Table 7.1: Time schedule

S/ No	Activity	Time/Duration
1	Research topic Submission	23 rd April 2007
2	Literature Review	01 st April 2007-4 th April 2008
3	Research Proposal Submission	16 th May 2007
4	Developing Research Instruments	17 th May- 1 st June 2007
5	Research Proposal Seminar	25 th May 2007
6	Piloting instruments	1 st June-10 th June 2007
7	Meeting with a supervisor	11 th June 2007
8	Data collection	18 th June-10 th August 2007
9	Data Presentation, Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion	20 th August-1 st December 2007
10	Consultation with Supervisor	28 th August 2007
11	Thesis Submission I (Supervisor)	15 th October 2007
12	Consultation with supervisor	29 th October 2007
13	Consultation with supervisor	12 th November 2007
14	Thesis Submission II (Supervisor)	26 th November 2007
15	Consultation with supervisor	17 th December 2007
16	Thesis Submission III (Supervisor)	January, 2008
16	Thesis Submission IV (FPI)	February 2008
19	Thesis Defence	April to June 2008

Appendix F: Clearance Letter (UiO)



UNIVERSITETET I OSLO
DET UTDANNINGSVITENSKAPELIGE FAKULTET

To whom it may concern

Institute for Educational Research
P.O. Box 1092 Blindern
N-0317 Oslo

Date: 2007-06-12
Your ref.:
Our ref.:

Visiting address:
Sem Sælandsvei 7, Helga Eng's Building, 5th floor
Telephone: +47 22 84 44 75
Fax: +47 22 85 42 50
www.uv.uio.no

ASSISTANCE IN THE CONDUCTION OF FIELD-WORK

This is to confirm that the student from Tanzania, Blackson Kanukisya, born 28.10.1972, is a second year student in the Master programme in Comparative and International Education at the Institute for Educational Research at the University of Oslo, Norway.

In the second year our students are required to write a Master thesis of 80 to 110 pages. This thesis should preferably be based on field studies conducted in the student's country of origin. The field-work may incorporate interviews with educational practitioners and decision-makers, class-room observation and documentary analysis. The type of data gathered should of course be discussed with the relevant authorities. It is our hope that the work produced by the student will not only benefit him in his academic career but also be of use to the future of his home country.

We kindly ask you to give Mr Kanukisya all possible assistance during his field-work in Tanzania.

Yours sincerely


Berit Karseth
Dep. Head of Department


Mette Oftebro
Senior Executive Officer

Appendix G: Clearance Letter (MoEVT)

UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Cable: "ELIMU" DAR ES SALAAM
Telex: 41742 Elimu Tz.
Telephone: 2121287, 2110146
Fax: 2127763



POST OFFICE BOX 9121
DAR ES SALAAM

In reply please quote:

Ref. ED/HA.97/294/01/66

Date: July 4, 2007

- To:
1. Director, Policy and Planning Department,
 2. Chief Education Officer, MOEVT,
 3. Director, Institute of Adult Education,
 4. Regional Administrative Secretary-Ruvuma and Mara.

Dear Sir/Madam,

Re: Research Clearance for Mr. Blackson Kanukisya

The above-mentioned researcher is doing research on the "**Contemporary Adult Education Policies and Practices in Tanzania; Are they meeting local and global challenges?**" He is looking for the access to some data on adult education provision for the purpose of accomplishing this study. He will therefore need to collect data and necessary information from your office.

By this letter you are being requested to provide *the above researcher with* the needed assistance that will enable him complete the research study successfully.

The period by which this permission has been granted is from **July 1st to 31st August 2007**

By copy of this letter, he is required to submit a copy of the report (or part of) to *the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education and Vocation Training* for documentation and reference.

Yours faithfully

Dr. E. M. Nkumbi
For Permanent Secretary

Cc Mr. B. Kanukisya

Appendix H: Clearance Letter (Ruvuma Region)

JAMHURI YA MUUNGANO WA TANZANIA
OFISI YA WAZIRI MKUU
TAWALA ZA MIKOA NA SERIKALI ZA MITAA

Mkoa wa Ruvuma
Simu Nambari 2602256/2602238
Fax Na.2602144



OFISI YA MKUU WA MKOA,
S.L.P. 74,
SONGEA

Kumb. Na.RUV/L.10/11/7

06/08/2007

Katibu Tawala wa Wilaya,
S.L.P. 1,
SONGEA.

YAH: KIBALI CHA UTAFITI MR B. KANUKISYA

Namtambulisha kwako mtajwa hapo juu kuja kufanya utafiti katika wilaya yako, utafiti huo unaohusu "**Contemporary Adult Education Policies and Practice in Tanzania; Are they meeting local and global challenge?**".

Utafiti huo utafanyika kuanzia tarehe 1Julai hadi tarehe 31 Agosti, 2007.

Mponda, I.A.
Kny. KATIBU TAWALA MKOA
RUVUMA

Nakala:-

Mr B. Kanukisya,
S.L.P. 9121,
DAR ES SALAAM.

Appendix I: Clearance Letter (Mara Region)

THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA
PRIME MINISTER'S OFFICE
REGIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

MARA REGION

Telegraphic Address: "REGCOM"
Telephone +255 28
622305/2622004/2622005
Fax: +255 28 2622764
E-mail: rasmara@juasun.net



OFFICE OF REGIONAL COMMISSIONER,
P.O. BOX. 299,
MUSOMA,
TANZANIA.

In reply, please quote:

Ref. No. FA 190/227/01/1

13th July, 2007

Mr. Blackson Kanukisya,
P. O. Box 91921,
Dar es Salaam.

RESEARCH PERMIT

Refer to the above subject together with Permanent Secretary's letter Ref. No. ED/HA.97/294/01/66.

I am glad to inform you that the permission for the research in this region has been granted from July 1st to August 31st, 2007.

The needed assistance will be provided to enable you to conduct your research successfully about "Contemporary Adult Education Policies and Practices in Tanzania; Are they meeting local and global challenges?".

We extend our cordly cooperation in this matter.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'E.M. Mulemwa'.

Mulemwa, E.M.

**For REGIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE SECRETARY
M A R A.**

Copy to:

Permanent Secretary,
Ministry of Education and Vocational Training,
P.O. Box 9121,
Dar es Salaam.

Appendix J: Clearance Letter (UDSM)



UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM
OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR
P.O. BOX 35091 • DAR ES SALAAM • TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/3(B)
Date: 30th July, 2007
To: The Deputy Vice-Chancellor - Planning Finance and Administration,
University of Dar es Salaam.

UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr. Blackson Kanukisya** who is a bonafide staff of the University of Dar es Salaam and who is at the moment conducting research. Our staff members and students undertake research activities every year especially during the long vacation.

In accordance with a government circular letter Ref.No.MPEC/R/10/1 dated 4th July, 1980 the Vice-Chancellor was empowered to issue research clearances to the staff and students of the University of Dar es Salaam on behalf of the government and the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, a successor organization to UTAFITI.

I therefore request you to grant the above-mentioned member of our University community any help that may facilitate him to achieve research objectives. What is required is your permission for him to see and talk to the leaders and members of your institutions in connection with his research.

The title of the research in question is "**Contemporary Adult Education Policies and Practices in Tanzania: Are they Meeting Local and Global Challenges?**".

The period for which this permission has been granted is from **1st August 2007 to 30th August, 2007** and will cover the following areas/offices: **University of Dar es Salaam (Interviews with Lecturers, adult learners and educators at different positions).**

Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advice him as to which alternative areas/offices could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research and Publications, Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.


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VICE-CHANCELLOR

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