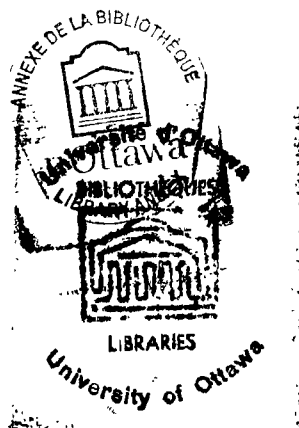


THE POLITICO-ECONOMIC CONTEXT AND IMPLICATIONS FOR
PRIMARY EDUCATION OF TANZANIA'S 1967 EDUCATIONAL POLICY

by Rev. Christian M. J. Kapinga

Thesis presented to the Faculty of
Education of the University of Ottawa
as partial fulfillment of the require-
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in Education



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CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

Rev. Christian M. J. Kapinga was born at Litembo in Tanzania, East Africa, on June 14, 1914. He was ordained priest at the Theological Seminary of Peramiho, East Africa, in 1944. He received a Diploma of Education from the University College of Dublin in 1963; a Gregorian University degree in Catechetics at Brussels in Belgium in 1964. He studied at the Faculty of Education of the University of Ottawa from September 1966 to December 1968 with the intention of obtaining the Master of Arts degree in Education..

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INTRODUCTION

1. General Situation

During the seventeenth century through the nineteenth century Europe saw an outpouring of theories about the nature of man in relation to the present or future state of society. Men became conscious of the variety of philosophies open to them in their personal lives, in their religious and political creeds, and in the ordering of their society. This period has been described by some historians as the "age of ideologies". It was during this age that the traditional order of mediaeval Europe gave way to a modern industrial society through a political, economic and social revolution.

In this second half of the twentieth century, a crisis has been precipitated by the political, economic and social revolution which is taking place in many countries of Africa. This revolution is an attempt by a few westernized leaders, with a wide variety of religious and ideological outlooks, to create modern states in accordance with the modern way of life where a colonial government had been superimposed onto traditional cultures. The particular problems of individual states vary in accordance with their special situations. Yet, all the developing countries are undergoing the same general experience and their reactions to it

are similar in theoretical content as well as in practical application.

All the leaders see the need for a strong government to educate the people in the new nationalism and to initiate a program of forced economic development. They are aware of their African lost heritage, of values which, now that they are independent, must be rediscovered - values such as symbolized by Senghor's "Négritude" or Nkrumah's "African personality" and Nyerere's "African Socialism". All these nationalist leaders recognize that education must play a key role in nation-building and in achieving social equality.

2. Stating the Problem

The schools, especially the secondary schools of the colonial period, in which only a few found opportunity and from which still fewer were selected for higher education, fostered the leaders in African nationalism. In December 1961, when Tanzania won its independence, East African nationalism had achieved its initial goal - the struggle for it was a phenomenon of the past. The new struggle for the leaders was to give form, meaning and stability to the national independence. A great part of this depended on the post-independence educational system and those responsible for its administration.

Already in mid-1960, of the more than 4,000 senior posts in the civil service, which generally require a

post-secondary qualification, only 380 were held by Africans. Consequently, the first step had to be obviously the expansion of secondary school facilities. It was intended within the proposed Three-Year Plan for 1961-64, to increase the numbers of African School Certificate candidates from 479 in 1960 to 2,275 in 1964 and the number of African High School Certificate candidates from 90 in 1960 to 300 in 1964. Thus, Tanzania decided from the very start of its struggle against ignorance, that the increase of places in primary schools was to be kept minimal - about two percent per year, or the equivalent of population growth.¹ Compared with many other African countries, the planned growth rate for primary education in Tanzania reflected a remarkable measure of restraint.

In 1964 Tanzania, following the publication of at least half a dozen documents on manpower needs and resources, produced a Five-Year Development Plan (1964/65 - 1968/69) which set as educational goals: an increase of 35 percent in Form I entry, an increase of 88 per cent in Form V entry, and a 202 per cent increase in the enrolment of students

¹ George Skorov, Integration of Educational and Economic Planning in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1966, p. 44.

from Tanzania entering the University of East Africa.² These post-primary enrolment percentages were determined largely by manpower needs as stated in the Five-Year Plan.³

In 1967, the indication that the vast majority of young people would continue to be self-employed in the rural economy and that even by 1980 wage paid employment would account for only a small proportion of occupations, had been quite obvious. It had been realized that manpower targets demanded only a relatively small number of trained people and had little relevance for the great majority who lived on the land. The major goal for education, then, had to be the productive use of the maximum volume of human resources in the nation as a whole.

Here is the root which permeates the 1967 educational philosophy of President Julius Nyerere: a better use of land which is abundant and people who are willing to work hard for their improvement.⁴ This educational policy, consequently, called for a major change in the content of primary education. Thence, the Tanzanian educational system must

2 A. C. Mwingira et al., The Process of Educational Planning in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1967, p. 69.

3 J. B. Knight, The Costing and Financing of Educational Development in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1966, p. 72.

4 Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 6.

prepare young people for the work they will do in a rural society where improvement will depend largely upon agriculture - it must produce good farmers.⁵ The aim of this policy is to make self-employment in peasant farming more productive for the over 12 million Tanzanians.

Experience, however, has shown that agricultural services at the primary education level intended as an investment for production or immediate economic development, are ineffective, if not detrimental. The problem, therefore, boils down to this: Is agricultural education relevant as the core of study for pupils in primary schools? The answer to this question leads to the formulation of the following hypothesis: Any extensive agricultural education at primary level is likely to encounter some difficulties and to cause the lowering of academic standards.

The title of the thesis is: The Politico-Economic Context and Implications for Primary Education of Tanzania's 1967 Educational Policy. The 1967 educational policy of Tanzania has many aspects at the various education levels. This dissertation is concerned with implications of that policy for primary education. The implications, however, will be considered, both historically and comparatively in their political as well as economic context. The goal is

⁵ Idem, ibid.

to develop in the long run, an effective system of primary education.

3. Main Relevant Sources

There are three main government documents with which this thesis will be dealing: Education for Self-Reliance,⁶ Arusha Declaration,⁷ and the Five-Year Development Plan (1964/65 - 1968/69). The analysis of these documents will be undertaken in the second chapter in which their nature will be defined.

Educational Research work which was carried out right after the launching of the Five-Year Development Plan has been concerned chiefly with case studies sponsored by the International Institute for Educational Planning. These studies aimed at shedding light upon the major problems confronting the educational planners. Recent noteworthy studies, after the Arusha Declaration, relating to Education for Self-Reliance, are those edited by Idrian N. Resnick.⁹ Most of

6 Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967.

7 TANU, The Arusha Declaration and TANU's Policy on Socialism and Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967.

8 The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1st July, 1964 - 30th June 1969, Volume I: General Analysis, Volume II: Programmes, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1964.

9 Idrian N. Resnick, ed., Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha, Longmans of Tanzania, 1968.

the contributors were at the time of writing Lecturers at the University College, Dar-es-Salaam. The articles convey the authors' general impression of the situation of education in Tanzania after the Arusha Declaration. Two more studies worth mentioning are: "Centralization in Education in Mainland Tanzania" by William Dodd and "Pressures and Constraints in Planning African Education" by Ernest Statler which appear in the Comparative Educational Review.¹⁰ One more study by F. Vuo is also worthy of mention, in this connection, which by the way alludes to some relevant points in the President's policy paper.¹¹ The special object of - and proper to - the present research work, however, is to assess, at least theoretically, the effect that a strong agricultural bias produces on the quality of education at primary level.

4. Procedure

In discussing Tanzania's 1967 education policy, as it affects the education at primary level the chapters have been arranged according to the hierarchy of needs. First there is the need for situating the problem of education in its overall political, social and historical context in which it

10 Vol. 12, No. 3, October 1968.

11 Frank E. W. Vuo, Some Administrative Aspects of University Adult Education, an unpublished thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia, 1968, pp. 58-60.

developed before and after independence. Secondly, since Tanzania's 1967 educational policy is very much influenced by some important decisions of the Government, originating from the three above mentioned documents, there is a necessity to analyze these major documents. Last but not least, there comes the appraisal. The necessity of evaluating calls for criteria. The criteria for the appraisal in this study are of two kinds: external criteria resulting from the comparison of recommendations of world-wide Educational Conferences and internal or intrinsic criteria originating from the fundamental rights of parents and pupils. Hence, the three following chapters:

Chapter I: Historical Factors Prior to Education for Self-Reliance - Here the background of the education development of Tanzania is described as a single historical continuum, influenced by the uncertainty of contemporary political, economic and social events, within national and international contexts.

Chapter II: Education for Self-Reliance as an Answer to Economic and Social Needs of Tanzania - This chapter attempts the analysis of the interdependence between economic productivity and education. This forms the analytical approach of education's place in the Tanzanian Gross Domestic Product. The Government documents, namely, the Five-Year Development Plan launched in 1964, the Arusha Declaration

and Education for Self-Reliance are described with respect to their aim of integrating education in the economic development.

Chapter III: The Implications of the Economic National Plan for the Quality of the Primary Education in Tanzania - The involvement of education, especially extensive agricultural education at primary level, raises many problems, both in the planning and in the administration of education. Some of the implications are discussed here and appraisal of the syllabus on the agricultural education at primary education level is attempted.

The conclusions drawn from these research findings have been limited, for clarity's sake, to three topics only, namely: educational planners, basis of educational planning and amount of agricultural education at primary educational level. This section contains also suggestions of follow-up studies.

5. Intended Contribution

The author understands only too well that this thesis report has brought to light some political and social issues which are particularly delicate. The aim of discussing these issues, however, was not to criticize the Tanzanian educational policy making as such, but to stimulate it in calling the attention of those concerned to consider also other

well-grounded factors which contribute essentially to the developing of an effective educational system academically, socially as well as economically.

CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL FACTORS PRIOR TO EDUCATION FOR SELF-RELIANCE

When Pliny the Elder wrote: 'Ex Africa semper aliquid novi', almost two thousand years ago, he was at that moment probably unaware that he was foretelling a long-range series of unexpected events which would take place in the future Africa. One of the unexpected events that baffled the British political skills was the so-called premature political independence of Tanganyika, which that country achieved on December 9, 1961, before its more developed neighbours, Kenya and Uganda, in East Africa. Least unexpected, however, was the making of the Arusha Declaration by which Tanzania became a socialist State, in 1967, and by which its system of education became a system of Education for Self-Reliance.

Many historical factors led to the formation of the system of Education for Self-Reliance. This chapter attempts to examine how some of the political aspects of this system were in the course of time responsible for the changes in the colonial educational system as well as, after independence, for the system of Education for Self-Reliance. The historical development of education in Tanzania can, broadly speaking, be shown as follows:

1. Tanzania's Early History
2. Education in the old "Deutsch Ost-Afrika"
3. Education in the former British Tanganyika Mandate, and
4. Education in the Independent Tanzania.

1. Tanzania's Early History

The attempt to fix a chronology of the tribes of Tanzania before colonization can be undertaken only through cross references. The Ngoni tribe, for instance, crossing the Zambezi River during the 'eclipse of Biharwe',¹ may provide a fixed date for the arrival of the tribes of south- and north-western Tanzania. Another movement between 1400 and the eighteenth century was that of the Nilotes who came to settle in the Musoma district of North Tanzania. By the early decades of the nineteenth century another Bantu group of a warlike people, related to the Zulu of South Africa, invaded Malawi and South Tanzania and dispersed the Yao and the Makua all over the area and settled in Tunduru and Masasi in south-eastern Tanzania.

The coastal strip of Tanzania was well known already in the first century A.D. by the name of "Azania", a Greek transcription of the Arabic name "Ajam" as is attested in

¹ Roland Oliver, The Middle Age of African History, Bristol, Oxford University Press, 1967, p. 45.

Periplus Maris Erythraei.² Arab and Chinese traders as well as Portuguese explorers were familiar with Tanzania's coastal tribes and also with those tribes along the great trade routes of central and southern Tanzania.

When at the end of the fifteenth century, Vasco da Gama and his ferocious Portuguese followers sailed up the coast of Eastern Africa and found Arab communities pursuing various activities there, clashes were inevitable. [...] For three hundred years a sprinkling of Portuguese adventurers held East Africa by sword. They perished, as they came, by sword, for the last remnants of those who had held sway with such ferocity over this coast were in 1698 pinned within the walls of the blood-soaked Fort of Jesus at Mombasa and annihilated ...

In 1832 a sheikh from Muscat, under the style and title of Sultan Seyyid bin Said, established his capital in Zanzibar. He and his successor extended their claims to the suzerainty over the entire hinterland. These pretensions were based on the fact that Arab trading caravans had penetrated as far as Lake Nyasa and Lake Tanganyika.³

From the above text it is obvious that the aim of the traders and explorers was not to develop the country in any way, but to rob it of its riches, if any, and of its inhabitants. No wonder, therefore, that the 1880 crazy

2 T. Lewicki, "External Arabic Sources for the History of Africa to the South of the Sahara" in the Emerging Themes of African History, edited by T. O. Ranger et al., Nairobi, East African Publishing House, 1968, pp. 16-17. For more information about "Azania civilization" see J. Clagett Taylor, The Political Development of Tanganyika, Stanford (California), Stanford University Press, 1963, pp. 6-7.

3 Eric Reid, Tanganyika without Prejudice, A Balanced Critical Review of the Territory and her People, London, East Africa Ltd., 1934, pp. 3-4.

European scramble for Africa found the people of Tanzania in a very confused and helpless situation.

Before the European scramble for Africa and for a long time during the colonial period, education was carried on by elders of the tribe, parents and relatives. Children were taught in an informal manner about agriculture and animal husbandry, bee-keeping, iron-working, pot-, basket- and mat-making etc., and, in the case of girls, also housekeeping and child-care. Young men and women would learn how to treat sickness through the use of local herbs and other remedies. They learned everything by doing it themselves. They were taught also the tribal culture, history, religious beliefs, good manners and government of the country. In a sense this system of handing down education was quite suitable to the contemporary needs. Compared to the present-day world civilization, however, the traditional pre-colonial African education is a primitive educational system which is not sufficiently effective in bringing about modern civilization.

The backward development of Tanzania in comparison with the other states in East Africa, economically, as well as educationally, is quite obvious even to-day. With a land area almost four times that of Great Britain, by far the largest in East Africa, with a population of well over twelve million, Tanzania's problems and potentialities are

still less well understood, both in Europe and North America, than those of the other East African countries.

What, then, is the main reason for the serious and extraordinary setback in Tanzania's development? Is it the infertility of the soil which has remained unattractive so long to agricultural European settlers? Is it the human disease or animal pests which have made Tanzania not a white man's country? In his study, "A Population Map of Tanganyika Territory", quoted by L. Dudley Stamp,⁴ C. Gillman came to the conclusion that it was not on account of climatic, economic or social conditions that settlers had not established homes there. But it was on account of its uncertain political position that Tanzania had lagged behind in its development.

2. Education in the Old Deutsch Ost-Afrika

In 1888, the wonderful land of Tanzania, then called Tanganyika, fell into the hands of the Germans. These colonizers had a very high regard for the country they called Deutsch Ost-Afrika. They thought of it as "the first rib protecting the heart of Africa, the strategic Mittel-Afrika".⁵

⁴ L. Dudley Stamp, Africa, A Study in Tropical Africa, New York, John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1953, p. 416.

⁵ Neil Macaulay, Mandates, Reasons, Results, Remedies, London, Methuen and Co. Ltd., 1937, p. 101 and p. 103.

After the Germans had completely pacified the warring tribes by unmercifully killing anyone in their way, they set about developing the country. They built the Central Railway westward from Dar-es-Salaam to Kigoma for strategic purposes.⁶ They imported a few of their fellow-countrymen to cultivate sisal, coffee and rubber on the slopes of Mount Kilimanjaro.

Educational activities, during the German rule, were undertaken chiefly by Christian missionaries. These hard-working pioneers laid the foundation of an African school system in the early period of colonization. Their valuable work, although based on divergent educational philosophies, is praiseworthy.

The type of school organized by the missions depended primarily on the nature of the mission. If the mission was of an evangelical character, there was a greater possibility that its missionaries came from the artisan class in Europe and the United States, and that they would teach manual skills in addition to the literacy classes found in all mission schools. If the mission was composed of the individuals with a more liberal education, the school curriculum reflected this. Anglican and Catholic missions - which constituted the great majority - generally established academic schools.⁷

Difficult circumstances beset the missionary educational efforts, such as scarcity of funds, limited personnel,

⁶ John Gunther, Inside Africa, New York, Harper and Bros., 1955, p. 404.

⁷ L. Gray Cowan et al. (eds.), Education and Nation-Building in Africa, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1965, p. 4.

unhealthy and unwelcome working conditions. Nevertheless, before World War I, mission schools such as Tanga School, opened in 1893, Lukuledi School in 1895, Kwirow School in 1904, etc., were firmly established in Western Tanganyika, to the north of the Central Railway Line and all along the coastal area. In 1913 there were a hundred schools with an attendance of about 6,000 pupils, having 16 European and 159 African teachers. When war broke out in 1914, the educational organization was greatly dislocated. At this point there were about 114,650 children of school age in a native population of approximately 4,150,000.

By 1918, war had left Tanganyika in a state of devastation and arrested development. Even where there was no actual destruction, the war had seriously dislocated the economic and educational life, and had brought development to a standstill. The return to normal economic and educational activities was further delayed by repatriation of all Germans, not only government officials and businessmen, but also missionaries, as authorized by Article 122 of the Versailles Treaty. This adversely affected native development, as everyone will admit who is familiar with the civilizing work of missionaries, both in the religious and educational spheres as well as in the economic and medical fields.

All natives of Tanganyika, Deutsch Ost-Afrika, had undoubtedly profited from the services of a number of German

institutions at Lyamungu, Amani and Mwanza, and from the commercial agencies like the Deutsche Ost-Afrikanische Gesellschaft, while a few Africans had profited also from the artisan schools in which reading, writing, Swahili and, in some cases, German and reckoning and a variety of trades were taught. After World War I all this had disappeared, the once Deutsch Ost-Afrika was entrusted to Britain and it became a British Mandate.

3. Education in the Former British Tanganyika Mandate

After the Armistice of 1918, the British mandatory government had to settle down to the task of repairing the damages caused by war in the new dependency.

In Britain, at the time when she assumed responsibility for Tanganyika under the League of Nations Mandate, the mounting scale of social problems had not by any means silenced opposition to the direct rule which government was being required to play in their solution, whilst in the dependencies the task of the colonial government was still seen as being to set up a sound administration, to maintain law and order and to provide the basic infrastructure of communications and utilities necessary for economic development. The terms of the Mandate [...] did not necessarily imply that the government itself should manage schools.⁸

Bearing in mind the laissez faire of the British colonial government in educational matters which lasted for more than

⁸ A. R. Thompson, "Ideas underlying British Colonial Education Policy in Tanganyika", in Idrian N. Resnick, Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha, Longman's of Tanzania Ltd., 1968, p, 16.

twenty years, as implied in the above text, this section of the first chapter is subdivided into the following topics:-

- a) Great Britain's Uncertain Start in the Mandate of Tanganyika;
- b) Defects of the Colonial Educational System;
- c) An Attempt to Organize a System of Education;
- d) A Further Attempt to Correct Defects in the System of Education.

a) Great Britain's Uncertain Start in the Mandate of Tanganyika

The laissez faire attitude of the British colonizers in educational matters can be explained also in a way other than the reasons mentioned by Thompson in the above text. The British, who took over the administration of Tanganyika, unlike the Germans, were not ruling by right of conquest, but by the appointment of the League of Nations. One consequence was that, from the very start, they were uncertain of their political position. This political uncertainty had, to a great extent, an influence upon the government's role in the education of the African. Thus the colonial system of education was bound to suffer some defects.

The mandatory principle which, by Article 22 of the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, contained the phrases "until they are able to stand alone" and "the mandatory shall make to the Council of the League of Nations an annual report to

the satisfaction of the Council",⁹ conflicted with all preceding notions of colonialism, nationalism and Empire. On account of this fact and because of the insistent demand of the Germans by spoken word as well as by publications etc. for the restoration of their former colonies, especially Deutsch Ost-Afrika, there was a persistent fear that "the British rule in Tanganyika must be a temporary affair".¹⁰

The effectiveness of the German tactics according to 'Gutta cavat lapidem, non vi, sed saepe cadendo' (the water wears away a stone, not by force, but by frequent dripping), enhanced by the unpreparedness of Great Britain in armaments, reached its climax in 1938 when "London seriously entertained the idea of giving the territory back to Germany".¹¹ British administrative policy showed clear signs of its uncertainty all through and after the second World War, so that in 1951 fears were expressed to the effect "that Tanganyika might be made an Indian state under United Nations trusteeship".¹² This persistent insecurity of Great Britain's tenure¹³ of

9 Neil Macauley, Op. Cit., p. 22.

10 Eric Reid, Op. Cit., p. 32.

11 John Gunther, Op. Cit., p. 411, cf. also Neil Macauley, Op. Cit., p. 69 ff.

12 Vernon McKay, Africa in World Politics, New York, Harper and Row, 1963, p. 17.

13 Eric Reid, Op. Cit., p. 30.

Tanganyika is consequently the principal reason why not only economic policy¹⁴ but especially the educational system, was never satisfactorily developed before the country achieved its independence in 1961.

From the outset the British had a pessimistic attitude towards Tanganyika. They believed the theory of some anthropologists that "the native (of Tanganyika) is but a child of a larger growth".¹⁵ Noteworthy is the description of Eric Reid:

The native in the mass is childlike. Likeable children they are, in many ways, children of the sun, often naughty children, but just children. Physically they become adult but most of them never develop mentally or morally beyond the status of a fifteen-year-old European.¹⁶

Reid,¹⁷ writing in 1934, had argued from the phraseology of the League of Nations, as formulated in Article 22, that the mandatory principle was applied to "all those backward races of mankind not able to stand by themselves", and had concluded:

¹⁴ Vernon McKay, Op. Cit., p. 39, cf. also Charlotte Leubuscher, Tanganyika Territory, A Study of Economic Policy under Mandate, London, Oxford University Press, 1944, p. 30, Sir Donald Cameron: "I regard Tanganyika as an extremely cruel country, and so long as I have breath in my body and can encourage and discourage people, I shall certainly not encourage even my worst enemy to go out and farm in Tanganyika ..."

¹⁵ Neil Macauley, Op. Cit., p. 121.

¹⁶ Eric Reid, Op. Cit., p. 215.

¹⁷ Eric Reid, Op. Cit., p. 34.

"Such races are not to be found in Iraq. They most certainly exist in Tanganyika." Neil Macauley, writing three years afterwards, followed the same trend of reasoning:-

Many competent and sympathetic observers with a lifetime experience in East Africa, are of the opinion that on the whole Africans of the tribes found in Tanganyika are definitely types of arrested development.¹⁸

The fact that Tanganyikans were considered "a backward race, types of arrested development" and "children of a larger growth" had a serious bearing on the system of African education. Consequently, in 1934, the whole system of education, as built up since 1925, according to the principles enunciated by the Advisory Committee on Education in the colonies in its memorandum on 'Native Education in British Tropical Africa',¹⁹ was strongly criticized. In his 'balanced, critical review of the Territory and her people', Eric Reid, guided by the preceding discoveries on the "mentality and character of the African", recommended that missionaries, even if their qualifications were not as high, were better fitted to be teachers of the natives; that education of the sons of chiefs and of other less ambitious children should be more or less on a

18 Neil Macauley, Op. Cit., p. 127.

19 Advisory Committee on Native Education in the British African Dependencies, Memorandum on Education Policy in British Tropical Africa (Cmd. 2374), London, Gt. Brit., Col. Pubs., March 1925. The general lines of educational policy are set out in Chapter XVIII of An African Survey.

Boy Scout principle; that teaching should be confined to the three R's and that elementary work in "the vernacular" was all that was required to be adequately developed in the four-year course of the primary school.²⁰

Perhaps at this stage it is useful to explain what is meant by "the vernacular". The official language of Tanzania is Swahili. Swahili is universally spoken all over East Africa and it is widely understood in the adjacent countries, while in North-West Madagascar and Southern Arabia a large number of individuals are found who speak it also.²¹ Because of this, Swahili is a Lingua Franca for international African conferences in both East and Central Africa. Being one of the great languages of the world, Swahili is not, properly speaking, a dialect, and therefore it is not a vernacular in the narrow sense of the word. Consequently, when the 1925 report on educational policy in British Tropical Africa recommended:-

20 Eric Reid, Op. Cit., p. 201.

21 Walter Fitzgerald, Africa, Social, Economic and Political Geography of its Major Regions, London, Methuen and Co. Ltd., 1967, p. 122.

The study of the educational use of the vernaculars is of primary importance. The Committee suggests co-operation among scholars, with aid from governments and missionary societies, in preparation of vernacular text books.²²

This meant that each tribe was to be taught in its own dialect. The same recommendation was repeated pari passu 28 years later in the famous Binns Report of the East and Central Africa Study Group.²³ Was the teaching of "vernaculars" only another tactic of the British Administrative policy on the principle of divide et impera, or was it a misconception based on the so-called "arrested development" of the native who, according to Eric Reid²⁴ lacked the wonder and creative desire to emulate common to mankind. Was it "the lack of wonder" of the native which led Eric Reid to advise that it was useless to attempt to educate the African boy up to university standard? Whether the system of education was prompted by an uncertainty of political position, or by a policy of divide et impera, or

22 Advisory Committee on Native Education in the British Tropical African Dependencies, Education Policy in British Tropical Africa, London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1925, pp. 3-8, quoted by L. Gray Cowan et al., Education and Nation-Building in Africa, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1965, p. 49.

23 A. L. Binns, "Report of the East and Central Africa Study Group" in African Education: A Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Africa, produced on behalf of the Nuffield Foundation and Colonial Office by Charles Batey, Printer to the University, Oxford University Press, 1953, p. 84.

24 Eric Reid, Op. Cit., pp. 217 and 228.

even by a misconception based on the prejudiced backwardness of the tribes of Tanganyika, it surely is to a great extent another factor responsible for the retarded development of Tanzania.

b. Defects of the Colonial Educational System

It is a fact that education in Tanzania has lagged behind both quantitatively and qualitatively on account of British policy, which in most respects was not very precisely defined.²⁵ A tendency to go slowly in encouraging the evolution of the native society was conspicuous in almost every department. Consequently the policy of educational administration was so cautious that Charlotte Leubuscher could give it emphasis in the following observation in 1944:

The educational policy applied in Tanganyika, including, as it did, first a rapid increase in expenditure without giving the country the native education it needed most, and then a severe contraction of educational institutions, appears as one of the least fortunate chapters in the history of the country's mandate.²⁶

In 1914 there were 114,650 children attending school in the territory housing a native population of approximately 4,150,000. The annual report for 1934 (20 years later),

²⁵ Colin Legum, Africa, A Handbook to the Continent, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1962, 1967, p. 422 ff.

²⁶ Charlotte Leubuscher, Tanganyika: A Study of Economic Policy under Mandate, New York, Oxford University Press, 1944, p. 89.

however, stated that out of approximately 1,000,000 native children of school age, not more than 164,573 children were on the register of elementary vernacular schools. Twenty-six years later, i.e. in 1960, the pupils attending primary school were numbered at 465,942. Six years later still, after independence was established, this number had almost doubled insofar as primary education was concerned. Why this sudden change of wind? The change came about because some of the obstacles in the colonial system of education had been removed.

The work of education in East and Central Africa was begun by missionaries of various denominations even before British rule was established. The provision of schools has always played an important part in missionary activity. With mission funds missionaries were able to provide education before the public revenues had been instituted. It was only gradually that a colonial government came to assume responsibility for co-ordinating, financing and directing the educational work. In accepting its responsibility, the British Colonial Government was powerfully influenced by the report of a Commission which the Phelps-Stokes Fund sent to visit East and Central Africa in 1924. In London, too, the Phelps-Stokes report had its effect. In 1925, the Advisory Committee on Native Education in the British Tropical Africa Dependencies, appointed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, produced a paper which laid down principles to guide British

policy in educational administration in Africa. Consequently, educational policy in Tanganyika had been guided ever since by the principles enunciated by the Advisory Committee, but always cum grano salis. Almost half the Phelps-Stokes report²⁷ speaks of adaptation of education to native life, as does the Advisory Committee on Native Education.²⁸

The Department of Education, however, which had been previously created in 1920, stressed exclusively the training of those who were required to fill posts in the administration and technical services. Accordingly, from 1925 to 1932, a considerable number of schools conferring some kind of clerical or technical training, were set up. But from 1933 onwards a much more cautious policy with regard both to the allocations of funds and the training of native clerks and artisans was adopted. In 1934 the whole system of education, as agreed upon in 1925,²⁹ was made the subject of a searching review and criticism in a memorandum by the Director of Education, when it became necessary to enforce a severe reduction in expenditures and a

27 L. T. Lewis, Phelps-Stokes Reports on Education in Africa, abridged, New York, Oxford University Press, 1962, pp. 23-106.

28 Gray Cowan et al., Op. Cit., p. 46.

29 Holy Ghost Fathers, Memorandum on Education in Tanganyika since 1925, Kisubi (Uganda), 1958, p. 5 sqq.

general curtailment of educational activities.³⁰

It is interesting to trace how this decadence crept in. The Memorandum of the Advisory Committee of the Colonial Office on Native Education in British Tropical Dependencies (Cmd. Paper 2374) was discussed in Dar-es-Salaam at a conference of all the agencies interested in education, convened by His Excellency, Sir Donald Cameron.

In his opening speech he concluded:

I have in front of me a copy of the Memorandum dealing with Education Policy in British Tropical Africa as submitted to the Secretary of State for The Colonies by the Advisory Committee on Native Education in the British Tropical Dependencies [...]

It is "the Charter of Education" for this Territory to which I commit this Government now.³¹

This happened on October 5, 1925. The conference proved satisfactory and the members agreed on all points discussed. But it was only on March 31, 1927, that the same Governor put into effect the suggestions of the Colonial Office Paper of March 1925 and the general policy agreed upon by the 1925 Dar-es-Salaam Conference.³² The African Education Regulations

30 "Annual Report for 1934. Colonial No. 105, 1935, pp. 158 sqq." quoted by Charlotte Leubuscher in Tanganyika Territory, Op. Cit., p. 83.

31 Holy Ghost Fathers, Memorandum on Education in Tanganyika since 1925, Kisubi (Uganda, E. Africa), Marianum Press, 1958, p. 9.

32 Department of Education, Report for 1923-1927, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printers, 1929,

came into force only in January, 1928. They too were well set towards a steady development of the African education. They mentioned records and registration of attendance to be kept, of subjects to be taught, of inspection, of the registration, appointment, transfer, dismissal, of teachers, their training and examination, the award of Teaching Certificates - all clearly defined; matters of the gravest consequence for the standardization of schools, carefully laid down; grants-in-aid to the schools of Voluntary Agencies very clearly detailed.

In 1928 the Voluntary Agencies started their work of educating the backward races of Tanganyika under the new regulations in full harmony and understanding with the government officials. These regulations were meant to correct the then existing defects in the education program as stated in Chapter I of the Phelps-Stokes Report:

Many of the failures of educational systems in the past have been due to the lack of organization and supervision [...] some systems are directed so exclusively to the training of leaders as to overlook the needs of the masses [...] other systems are directed entirely to the training of the masses and fail to provide for Native Leadership [...] The attitude of missionaries has been determined by the desire to impart their religious ideas to the native people. [...] The government officials have naturally thought of colonial administration and have felt the necessity for clerical help and such skilled workers as are needful for surveying of roads and other means of transportation. [...] The traders have joined, with the government, in demand for clerks. The settlers' demand has been primarily for laborers to till the soil [...] others have thought of them as economic assets to be exploited...³³

The pronouncement of the British colonial officials in favour of religious instruction for the education of the African people was a striking testimony and encouragement to the missionaries. They went about opening schools wherever possible, so far as their resources allowed them. But this was not looked on favourably by the Department of Education, whose festina lente policy was quite obvious. Accordingly, on March 28, 1933, at the Ninth Meeting of the Tanganyika Advisory Committee, fears and anxiety were clearly manifested about the threat to Bush Schools and then about the danger of reducing the number of Grade II Teachers' Training Schools. All this was caused by a circular of January, 1933, from the

33 L. J. Lewis, Op. Cit., pp. 10-11 and pp. 43-44.

Acting Director of Education. There was an unfortunate divergence of views of the members of the Advisory Committee at the Tenth Meeting in November, 1934, on the agenda: "Control of the opening of new schools." The Memorandum of the Governor read at this meeting says inter alia:

The criterion to be adopted by the Government in deciding whether to give or refuse approval to the opening of a school is presumably that laid down in Article 8 of the Mandate [...]. "The mandatory shall have the right to exercise such control as may be necessary for maintenance of public order and good government." This matter of the right of Government to forbid the opening of schools in Tanganyika was referred to the Colonial Office through Cardinal Burne and nothing more was heard of it.³⁴

Moreover, some of the existing schools were forced to close down. On account of the Memorandum from the Director of Education in 1934, it was admitted that under the existing grants-in-aid code, missionary societies had been encouraged to establish central and industrial schools "before elementary vernacular education had been adequately developed." In pursuance of the recommendations of the Director of Education, the number of government schools providing industrial and vocational education was considerably reduced. Missions were likewise obliged, by lack of resources, to curtail their educational activities. It was hoped that in this way the output of trained natives would be adjusted

³⁴ Holy Ghost Fathers, Op. Cit., p. 14.

to the requirements of the chief employing agencies, and the danger of a superabundance of trained Africans unable to make use of their acquired abilities would be avoided.

Unfortunately, the policy of restricting the output of trained natives had been carried too far. The Police Force, for instance, was unable to obtain suitable recruits from central schools. Other Government Departments were in need of African staff. The Posts and Telegraphs Department complained of a shortage of native youths with an adequate general education. Even teachers for village schools were difficult to acquire. The situation was so unsatisfactory that a survey was necessary. The survey, called An African Survey, based on authoritative testimony, revealed that the means made available had not always been wisely used and that there had been a great deal of uncertainty in respect of the lines to be pursued in educational policy. Charlotte Lebuscher concludes her report for 1925-1934 with these words:

A particularly unfortunate result of the policy pursued in Tanganyika up to 1934 was that the activities and limited means of the missions were directed by an ill-advised grants-in-aid code to a disproportionate degree towards industrial education before vernacular education had been adequately developed.³⁵

Before passing on to the next period of educational progress a word must be said on the education of girls. It

³⁵ Charlotte Lebuscher, Op. Cit., p. 86.

will be remembered that Article 22 of the League of Nations had demanded that a permanent Commission be constituted which would advise both the Council and the Mandatory in all matters relating to the observance of the Mandates. Two of the members of the Permanent Mandates Commission (P.M.C.) who visited Tanganyika in 1929 in charge of the Education Chapter were Madame Bugge-Wicksell, a Swede, and Mademoiselle Dannevig, a Norwegian. Both were school teachers. Owing to insistent inquiries and reminders, particularly by Mlle. Dannevig, the government opened schools at Dar-es-Salaam, Tabora and Tanga for girls whose education until then had been left to missionaries. With the appointment of a Supervisor of Female Education in 1938, further advancement in the education of African girls was expected.

A comparison of the sums allocated in the general Budget to European, Indian and African education respectively is not uninteresting from a financial point of view. The wide divergence in the cultural level of the various communities, it was argued, made it necessary that separate schools should be provided for each on its own merits. Accordingly, more sums of money were allotted to the education of the European and Indian children than to that of the African children. The reasons given were that missions were spending money for the Africans and the European and Indian communities contributed money towards the education of their own children. Here

was the starting point of an ethnic segregational system of education about which V. K. Krishna of India had some pointedly critical remarks to make when he visited the country in 1954:

Here is a territory which has a history going back nearly three millenia [...]. In the field of education, a European child costs the administration 223 pounds a year, an African child costs the administration 8 pounds and 5 shillings a year, and an Asian child costs 31 pounds a year. I am sure it is not contended that the European child is so uneducated that it requires thirty times as much effort to teach it.³⁶

As early as 1929, an accusation was made against the P.M.C. that some of its members sometimes betrayed a lack of understanding with regard to economic and financial realities. Nevertheless, the criticism of Mlle. Dannevig that the expenditure on African education was not very high as compared to other expenditures, was quite justifiable. For there is no right-thinking person who would not challenge the truth of the dictum of the Chief Secretary of Tanganyika 'that for every Pound spent on education, at least £10. should be spent on the improvement of the living conditions of the natives'.³⁷

³⁶ Oliver Roland, A Short History of Africa, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, Penguin Books Ltd., 1962, p. 412.

³⁷ Mackenzie Kennedy, P.M.C. 34th Session, 1938, p. 155, quoted by Charlotte Leubuscher, Op. Cit., p. 86.

Nevertheless, in January 1935 the Governor-in-Council decreed concerning African education grants-in-aid that:

Para 5. Payment of grants-in-aid shall be at the absolute discretion of the Director of Education...

Para 22. The African Education Regulations of 1928 (Regulation 3 about the Advisory Committee and its meetings every year in March and September) are hereby revoked.³⁸

Thus was laid down the beginning of another new period of educational policy.

In 1935 the Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies in London published a fresh memorandum on The Education of African Communities, which put emphasis, not on the formal education of children in school, but on the co-operation between the schools and other educational agencies in raising the whole level of community life. In its stress on health, agriculture, environmental studies, adult education, co-operative societies, the co-ordination of all educational efforts, and the stimulation of African initiative, the memorandum foreshadowed the then contemporary developments in educational thought and policy.

The African governments, through their education advisory boards, studied the above document and went about adapting the new educational policy they proposed as this was

³⁸ Holy Ghost Fathers, Op. Cit., p. 15.

found suitable to their local conditions. In Tanganyika Mr. River-Smith, the then Director of Education, accordingly composed the first syllabus of instruction for use in African schools which he promulgated under the authority of the Education Ordinance, 1927, and the Education Regulations, 1934.

Under the new scheme, some progress in native education was made, particularly as regards the standard attained in elementary vernacular education. However, the success was incomplete owing to the shortage of money and staff. Consequently, during the period 1934-1944 Tanganyika compared unfavourably with Uganda, its neighbour, with regard to average school attendance, which was less than one quarter of all the African children of school age, while at the same time Uganda had one-third of the children of school age registered in some school.³⁹ Nevertheless, fresh educational advances were made again in 1947 after a long halt during the Second World War of 1939-1944.

e) An Attempt to Organize a System of Education

The publication of the Report on Mass Education in African Society, prepared by the members of the Secretary of State's Advisory Committee in 1944, put the African educational system in transition once more. This transition was

³⁹ Charlotte Leubuscher, Op. Cit., p. 82.

quite different from the one which occurred in Europe and North America after the Second World War which Kandel's book speaks of:

The First and Second World Wars challenged those countries that were involved to examine their educational systems [...]. The challenge led to examining [...] the provision of educational opportunities [...]. There was initiated a movement for the école unique or common school system in France and for "secondary school for all" in England, [...] in Germany [...] the Einheitsschule, [...] in the United States [...] there was a marked increase in enrollment of students in liberal arts colleges.⁴⁰

In Tanganyika, the question was not one of "equality of educational opportunities" nor of "elementary education for the masses and secondary education for the few", but rather one of organizing education for Europeans, Indians and other settlers, and African education for the bulk of the natives. This was, of course, the logical conclusion drawn from the report on Mass Education in African Society.⁴¹ The gist of that report had been that the education of African children in the ideas and techniques of the Western world would lead to disaster, since the end result would be the creation of a gap between them and the African society of

⁴⁰ I. L. Kandel, The New Era in Education, A Comparative Study, Massachusetts, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955, p. 41 f.

⁴¹ L. Gray Cowan, Op. Cit., p. 7: Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies, Mass Education in African Society, London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1944.

which they were members. The education of the school child must be aimed at raising the standard of living of the entire community. There is nothing wrong with this reasoning per se. It is quite in agreement with the 1924 Phelps-Stokes Report on "Adaptation of Education in East and Central Africa".⁴² Similar ideas were being adopted in China; and when UNESCO came into being two years later, the same thought was expressed under the term fundamental education. Strangely enough, when Nyerere wrote his "Education for Self-Reliance" in 1967, he again expressed the same idea - adaptation of education. But why did it not work during 40 years of the colonial system of education?

One of the biggest blunders made by colonial educators was that of segregating African children. Colin Legum makes the following observation:

Segregation is another factor in the total education picture of Africa. Social, economic and cultural differences among the different racial groups led to the establishment of separate schools, and in some instances resulted in separate education systems as in Kenya, Rhodesia and the Republic of South Africa.⁴³

The racial discrimination in education of which Colin speaks in the above-cited text had become a deciding factor in class stratification in Tanganyika. It was not a question

⁴² L. J. Lewis, Op. Cit., pp. 13-105.

⁴³ Colin Legum, Op. Cit., p. 424.

of whether or not one could pay the required fees, of whether one had sufficient intelligence, but rather the simple fact of one child having a white skin and the other a brown or black skin was reason enough for segregation. It meant that Europeans, Asians and Africans were to be educated as independent groups within the population. Separate development in the field of culture was emphasized by the administrative structure of education, by methods of finance, by differences in syllabus and by different levels of achievement deliberately imposed to fit in with different demands on the employment market.

Segregational education which aimed at separate development denoted, in effect, inequality of access. Immediately after the Second World War, people in East Africa began sensing this marked inequality between the three racial groups. Africans were not happy about it. But neither were the Europeans and Indians. Everyone, however, tried to put up a good front. There was too much hypocrisy in Tanganyika insofar as the motives behind some administrative programs could barely stand close scrutiny. For instance, the ground nut scheme, adopted in 1947, whose failure "gave an expensive, but in the long run salutary, demonstration of the need for thorough research and experimentation before attempting radical innovation

in tropical agriculture."⁴⁴ Segregation in education also needed thorough study, like any other radical innovation in the systematic promotion of the development of the Tanganyikan population.

In 1946, the Government of Tanganyika published a development plan for the period 1947-1956. At the same time, the Department of Education gave out its ten-year plan for the development of African education. A syllabus of instruction was drawn up which was supposed to embody the recommendations of the Report on Mass Education in African Society.⁴⁵ Because of the political awakening manifesting itself through the clarified Trusteeship status of the Territory and through the African Association, then the officially recognized organ of African opinion in Tanganyika, the ten-year education plan was subsequently revised on several occasions. In 1950, the experience of the first three years led to a total revision of the Ten-Year Development Plan. The Education Ordinances which included segregation in education, one for non-native education (chapter 264/5)⁴⁶ and the second for African education

⁴⁴ The Economic Development of Tanganyika, Report of a Mission organized by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Baltimore, The Johns Hopkins Press, 1961, p. 23.

⁴⁵ Dept. of Education, Syllabus of Instruction for African Schools, Dar. Govt. Printer, 1947.

⁴⁶ J. E. S. Lamb, Report on Non-Native Education, London, Col. Pubs., Nov. 1952.

(chapter 71) remained, however, unchanged. The language of instruction in African schools was Swahili, in European schools English, and in Indian schools the medium of instruction was Urdu or Gujerati, and in some cases English. For Africans and Asians, English generally began in the fourth grade. There were hardly any secondary schools in the country. The curriculum was such that after completing the course, students could earn a living in their communities or continue on with vocational training. European students were usually sent overseas or to Kenya, the Government paying part of the cost.⁴⁷

By 1952 education, like many aspects of African life, was in for a radical change. Educators in Africa were constantly under fire. They were criticized for providing too superficial an education and providing it for too few children; for being too bookish and impractical; for producing too many clerks and too few farmers; for utterly failing to check the flow of young people towards the towns, for the decline in agriculture, the break-up of tribal society, and the loosening of moral standards. The criticisms came from different sources. But to what extent were they justified? It was felt that the time was ripe for an authoritative study

⁴⁷ UNESCO, The World Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics, Paris, Place de Fontenoy, 1955, p. 714-717.

of educational problems in Africa. A study group for East and Central Africa was chosen under the chairmanship of Mr. A. L. Binns, Chief Education Officer for the Lancashire County Council, whose members visited Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia, Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Pemba, Uganda, Somaliland and Kenya between 1951 and 1952. Their report is known as the Binns Report.

The Binns study group was limited to the education of Africans, the evils of which were plain to all and needed to be corrected. The education of Asians and Europeans was not considered, for it was argued that these were far easier to deal with. The final Binns Report, which was very long and contained in extenso 93 recommendations⁴⁸ supplied the framework around which the Conference at Cambridge shaped itself. The Conference appreciated the report⁴⁹ but found some of the recommendations misleading,⁵⁰ while others needed a better formulation.

Interesting points were brought into discussion by the Binns Report in the Cambridge Conference. The Conference

⁴⁸ Charles Batey (ed.), African Education: A Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Africa. This report was produced on behalf of the Nuffield Foundation and the Colonial Office, Oxford, Printer to the University, 1953, pp. 58-141.

⁴⁹ Charles Batey, Op. Cit., p. 172 etc.

⁵⁰ Charles Batey, Op. Cit., p. 146 etc.

was divided into five groups, A to E. Each group studied one aspect of African education. Group A studied Responsibility and Control; Group B, The Expansion of the Educational System; Group C, The Teaching Profession; Group D, Organization and Curriculum; Group E, Education and the Adult. As far as this study is concerned, some conclusions reached in the discussions on "The Expansion of the Educational System" and on the "Organization and Curriculum" are worth noting. The Conference agreed that for some years the public demand will be heavily weighted in favour of boys. The members went on to say:-

In view of this we think that girls should be encouraged in every way, more especially by financial concessions of various kinds, to attend school and complete the course in approximately the same numbers as boys. In fact as there is so much leeway to make up in girls' education than boys, so that this approximate equality in numbers may be reached.⁵¹

From this text, it is clear that expansion of education for African girls had been neglected up to that time. The next big problem was that of wastage, which covered:

a) the loss of pupils who leave before completing a school course; b) undue retardation through repeating classes or taking longer to complete a course than the number of years prescribed. This was due not only to low standards of education and lack of good administration, but also to the economic demand for the services of the children outside school. The

⁵¹ Charles Batey, Op. Cit., p. 152.

third cause of wastage was that many schools of primary education did not attract government grants because, according to financial regulations, they existed outside the grant-aided system. The Binns Report went so far as to advise transfer of funds and personnel devoted to running the unassisted schools to adult education. This suggestion proved to be impracticable.⁵² In considering organization and curriculum of African education, the Conference suggested that training in race relations was a corollary which was to be encouraged cum grano salis.

To sum up, the influential Binns Report, though in some points misleading, caused the Department of Education to examine its system of African education more closely. As a result a new syllabus of instruction, issued in Swahili only, for use in African primary schools, was published in 1953. Another syllabus of instruction in Middle Schools was given out in the same year as a first trial and subject to alteration and modification in the light of experience.⁵³ At the end of the Ten-Year Plan (1947-1956), it was clear that the opposition of African opinion to many of the recommendations in the Binns Report was justified, and had not been overcome.⁵⁴

⁵² Charles Batey, Op. Cit., pp. 106, 154.

⁵³ Dept. of Education, Syllabus of Instruction for Middle Schools, London, Col. Pubs., December 1953.

⁵⁴ The Economic Development of Tanganyika, Op. Cit., p. 308.

The extension of school facilities to the African child population as a whole, and the ensuring of the secondary and higher education needed to produce leaders, which were the main targets at the beginning of the Plan, were never fully accomplished. In its report on African education during the Ten-Year Plan, the UNESCO Commission concludes cautiously:

In the course of the past 10 years, the most significant trend has been the expansion of primary and middle education.⁵⁵

d) A Further Attempt to Correct Defects of the Colonial Educational System

It has already been pointed out that in 1947, when Tanganyika ceased to be a British Mandate and became a United Nations Trust Territory under the British Administration, a Ten-Year Development Plan was launched. The plan aimed at making "the best use of available resources in expanding the school system at all stages so as not only to ensure that the greatest possible number became literate in the shortest possible time ---- but also to enable an increasing number of pupils to have the advantage of secondary and higher education".

The plan set as a goal for 1956 the provision of schooling for 36 per cent of children in the four-year village

⁵⁵ UNESCO, The World Survey of Education, II Primary Education, Paris, Place de Fontenoy, 1958, p. 1110.

school age group. One fifth of those completing village or primary education would continue in Middle Schools. On completing middle school one-tenth would end the final four years in secondary schools. This plan appears in a tabular form on the next page.

In the preceding discussion, it was also obvious that the experience in the first three years led to a revision of the Ten-Year Development Plan when, in 1950, it was recast and new targets were set for each year up to the end of 1956. The grounds for this revision were, undoubtedly, the lack of constitutional or comprehensive legal enactment providing for African education. Other difficulties in the way of the extension of African education were economic factors and the need to preserve a balanced system of education.⁵⁶ Since the plan aimed at increasing school enrolment three times in the period of ten years, this meant taxing the territory's resources to the full, which proved impossible.

The 1953 Binns Report, on which so much discussion has already taken place, gave a detailed picture of the situation of African education and dealt adequately with all the problems it presented.⁵⁷ Accordingly, the changes in

⁵⁶ UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Op. Cit., p. 1107.

⁵⁷ For a fuller statement the reader is strongly recommended to study the Report, African Education, which was published in 1953 on behalf of the Nuffield Foundation and the Colonial Office by the Oxford University Press.

Table I.-
Ten-Year Plan for African Education

| Grade | Enrolment in 1947 | Revised Targets Set for 1956 |
|---------|-------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1 to 4 | 100,000 | 310,000 |
| 5 to 8 | 12,000 | 33,000 |
| 9 to 12 | 550 | 2,000 |

UNESCO, World Survey of Education, II Primary Education, Paris, Place de Fontenoy, 1958, p. 1107 (1950).

Administration introduced in 1949 were reinforced. Strict differentiation in financing and control of education was made among several racial groups, Africans, Europeans, Indians, Goans and other non-natives. The curriculum was arranged in such a way that, on completion of the course, students were supposed to be able to earn a living in their own communities. There were no facilities for higher education within the territory. African schools were organized on a 4-4-4 plan, while non-native schools had a 6 - 6 plan or a 6 - 5 plan to fit in with the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate Examination. Enrolment trends in primary education can be visualized on comparing the figures year by year up to 1954 as given in the table on the following page.

From this table it was reasoned that the territory's illiteracy was being reduced by about 2 per cent a year. If the reduction rate of illiteracy in the yearly school age groups continued at this rate, it would take another thirty or more years after 1956 before all the territory's children of primary school age would be registered at some school. This would be somewhere between 1980 and 1990.

This system of education, no doubt, angered the African population of Tanganyika. Early in 1954 when Julius Nyerere, then a teacher at St. Francis College near Dar-es-Salaam, was nominated Temporary Member in the Legislative Council, delivered his first speech in the (Legislative)

Table II.-
Trends in Primary Education, Government Maintained, Aided
and Other Primary Schools

| Year | Schools | Teachers | | Pupils | | Average | Estimated | Primary |
|------|---------|----------|---------------|---------|----------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|
| | | Total | % fe- male | Total | % tea- cher | Enrol- ment 000's | Child popn. 5-14 yrs. 000's | Enrol- ment Ratio |
| 1946 | | | ... | 123,255 | ...) | | | |
| 1947 | 1,197 | | ... | 133,032 | ...) | 133 | 1,668 | 8 |
| 1948 | 1,304 | | ... | 125,586 | ...) | | | |
| 1949 | 1,310 | | ... | 152,854 | ...) | | | |
| 1950 | 1,480 | 4,399 | 18 | 188,649 | 43) | | | |
| 1951 | 1,574 | 4,543 | 17 | 212,973 | 47) | 201 | 1,747 | 11 |
| 1952 | 1,816 | 4,187 | 13 | 227,448 | 54) | | | |
| 1953 | 2,069 | 4,638 | 14 | 261,864 | 56) | 260 | 1,816 | 14 |
| 1954 | 2,324 | 4,128 | 15 | 291,091 | 57) | | | |

UNESCO, World Survey of Education, II Primary Education, Paris,
Place de Fontenoy, 1958, p. 1112.

Council, he criticized the educational system, saying:

I have been told that we are going too rapidly in the matter of education. In 1947, when the Ten-Year Plan came out, we had 13.1/2 per cent of our children of primary school age at school [...]. I am told that this year we may have about 30 or 31 per cent of children of the same age group at school. I am told also that the Government is aiming, by 1956, to attain the target of 36 per cent of our children of primary school age [...]. In 1956 we shall still have 64 per cent of our children of primary school age outside the schools [...]. I do not think, sir, that this gives us any cause for complacency in the matter of education.⁵⁸

A final attempt to correct the defects of the colonial system of multi-racialism took place in 1957 when the "Draft: Five Year Plan for African Education 1957-61" was discussed and authorized. Many factors led to the formation of this plan. But foremost was the United Nations' political influence in Tanganyika in deterring the administering authority from steps it might otherwise have taken. At the end of 1956, Julius Nyerere went to New York to give evidence on the political, economic and social situation of Tanganyika. Concerning education he showed clearly how the segregational system of education in Tanganyika was detrimental to the indigenous African population.⁵⁹ Questioned in the Trusteeship Council regarding the ambiguity of "multi-racialism" as a

⁵⁸ Julius K. Nyerere, Freedom and Unity, A Selection from Writings and Speeches 1952-1965, Dar-es-Salaam, Oxford University Press, 1966, p. 31.

⁵⁹ Nyerere, Op. Cit., p. 41 f.

political doctrine for Tanganyika, the special representative of the U.K. in 1956 replied that Tanganyika was "non-racial" rather than "multi-racial".

This "non-racial" position was explained by the then Tanganyika Governor, Sir Edward Twining, as follows:

Although we have called our policy a multiracial policy I think it can be better described as a non-racial policy by which I mean that all the peoples of Tanganyika, no matter what their origin, will be given equal opportunities, will be treated in exactly the same manner and will achieve positions on their own merit and not because of any racial considerations.⁶⁰

This statement of the governor had great influence in drafting the Five Year Plan for African Education. More emphasis was laid, among other things, on improving the quality of primary schools, increasing the middle schools, expanding technical education and delegating control over educational matters to African Local Authority. It is, perhaps, unnecessary to say that this period also saw more participation by local personnel in government affairs, in politics, economic affairs, culminating in the country's independence in December, 1961.

However, the plan was not fully realized because of two rather different aims: extending school facilities to the school population as a whole, and ensuring higher education

⁶⁰ Tanganyika Standard, May 19, 1957, quoted by Vernon McKay, Africa in World Politics, New York, Harper and Row, 1963, p. 39.

for future leaders, which brought out clearly the territory's main difficulties: inadequate funds and inadequately trained teachers.⁶¹

In 1959, at the request of the governments of Tanganyika and of the United Kingdom as the Administering Authority under the United Nations Trusteeship, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development organized an Economic Mission to Tanganyika. In its report, which appeared in 1961, the Economic Survey Mission to Tanganyika pointed out that on account of financial difficulties the Five Year Plan for African Education, 1957-61, had not been fully implemented.⁶² Among its very careful recommendations, one may gather the main defects of the colonial system of education as being:⁶³

- (a) lack of research aimed at improving the quality and organization of education in Tanganyika (No. 59), including teachers' education;
- (b) neglect in increasing the annual number of African school certificate candidates and in expanding the technical training facilities (Nos. 205, 210);
- (c) insufficient study to identify the most important

⁶¹ UNESCO, World Survey of Education, Op. Cit., p. 1110.

⁶² Report on Economic Development of Tanganyika, Op. Cit., p. vii.

⁶³ Report on Economic Development of Tanganyika, Op. Cit., p. 315.

causes of wastage and to determine how they may be best combatted (No. 208);

(d) neglect of the education of girls (No. 209);

(e) systems of education based upon ethnic groups (No. 217).

The colonial masters had no more time to correct these defects because, probably, at the time this report was being printed, they had to hand over the administration of the Government of Tanganyika to the African tribes who, less than thirty years earlier, were considered "a backward race, children of a larger growth, types of arrested development".⁶⁴

4. Education in Independent Tanzania

At independence in 1961 the new nation's leaders, being already fully aware of the above-mentioned educational defects, sought, as quickly as they could, to reshape the colonial system of education to fit the vastly changed national needs and aspirations which accompanied the new status. Almost the first move was to introduce the new Education Ordinance which came into force in 1962. The next thing was to launch the Three-Year Development Plan

⁶⁴ Eric Reid, Op. Cit., p.34 and Neil Macauley, Op. Cit., p. 127.

which was based on the survey undertaken by the World Bank Mission. The struggles, however, to accommodate this important new aspect of a changing educational system during the early years of independence, rather than to construct a totally new system of education, will now be discussed in this section under the following two sub-divisions:

- a) The Three-Year Planning of an extended system of education, and
 - b) The integration of the extended system in the programme of nation-building.
- a) The Three-Year Planning of an Extended System of Education, 1961-64.

Tanganyika's independence was achieved on December 9, 1961, sooner than any politician had dreamed possible five years before.⁶⁵ In his Independence Message the Prime Minister, Mr. Julius K. Nyerere, said:

I am sure that every one of us will celebrate Independence with great joy. Yet it is essential that we remember even on that day that what we have won is the right to work for ourselves, the right to design and build our future [...]. Poverty, ignorance and disease must be overcome before we can really establish in this country the sort of society we have been dreaming of [...]. From now on we are fighting not man but nature, and we are seeking to wrest from nature a better and fuller life for ourselves. In this struggle the only weapon is our own determination.⁶⁶

65 Vernon McKay, Op. Cit., p. 47.

66 Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., pp. 138-9.

The war against poverty, ignorance and disease, brought about by the wind of change in politics, had to be waged in a planned fashion through speeding up educational development. The foremost priority, therefore, was to launch a three-year planning period, 1961-64, in order to advance planning concepts to the stage at which priorities could be identified and the targets for the development of education expressed.

The educational planning machinery came into effect on January 1, 1962, less than one month after independence, by the Education Ordinance of 1961.⁶⁷

The principal provisions of the education ordinance are those which set up local educational authorities and define their functions, provide for the establishment of boards of governors and school committees, set out the powers of the minister and the Chief Education Officer in the control of schools, and a number of general provisions of which, from a planning point of view, by far the most important are the giving the power to pay subventions and grants-in-aid in accordance with prescribed conditions and that giving the minister power to make regulations for a specified list of purposes. Twenty-one such purposes are listed, including the provision of statistics and accounts, the prescription of the basic syllabus to be followed in schools in receipt and licenses to teach, and the prescription of the conditions under which subventions and grants-in-aid can be paid.⁶⁸

⁶⁷ Tanganyika Government, Education, Chapter 446 Supp. 61 of the Laws (Principal Legislation and Subsidiary Legislation), Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1962.

⁶⁸ A. C. Mwingira et al., The Process of Educational Planning in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco: International Institute For Educational Planning, 1967, p. 15.

The terms of the Ordinance of 1961 are such that the Minister of Education has complete control of the school system of general education, excepting higher education, for which the University of East Africa is responsible on behalf of the Government of Tanzania. Under the Minister's direction, therefore, the planners in the Ministry of Education had to prepare a five-year development plan for education (1964-69) in a form which could be used as a basis both for the discussion of national priorities and for the negotiation of annual budget appropriations. In their account of the Process of Educational Planning in Tanzania, Augustin C. Mwingira, then Assistant Chief Education Officer, and Simon Pratt, UNESCO expert, serving as education officer in Tanzania, sum up the principal aspects with which the planners were concerned as follows:

- a) the legal framework within which education in Tanzania is conducted;
- b) the administration of the education system and application of administrative resources to planning problems;
- c) the structure of the educational system in 1964;
- d) the economic and social objectives of the plan as they affect the educational system;
- e) teacher requirements and supply.⁶⁹

69 A. C. Mwingira et al., The Process of Educational Planning in Tanzania, Paris, UNESCO, 1967, p. 12.

The planners of the new educational system were not starting from scratch. They had before them the valuable experience of the trial and error of the colonial racial educational system. They had learned from the wisdom of the British colonial masters to leave no stone unturned and to take everything into consideration. Their chief concern, however, during the planning period 1961-64:

was not only to devise adequate administrative procedures for implementation of the present plan (1961-64), but also to create an administrative structure which could be expected to be an adequate vehicle for implementation of the next plan (1964-69).⁷⁰

The work of educational planning, however, started in 1962. The matrix of Africanization of Education was the Addis Ababa Conference, held in the capital of Ethiopia in 1961, which was organized and sponsored by UNESCO and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. In the Addis Ababa plan the African leaders called for a doubling of secondary education in five years and a 15 per cent increase in primary enrolment. In Tanzania, for reasons of cost, the primary education targets expressed at Addis Ababa were accepted, but cum grano salis. The planners decided that the objectives for primary education in Tanzania should be:

70 A. C. Mwingira et al., Op. Cit., p. 22.

- a) to fulfil all obligations implied by government approval of developments already carried out;
- b) to transform the existing primary school system into one of high quality which will be a more useful instrument of development;
- c) to estimate, by political judgment, the desirable rate of expansion of the primary school system, bearing in mind that the manpower development programs in post-primary education have economic priority, and to make provision accordingly.⁷¹

While planning was going on, certain necessary and urgent improvements in the educational system were being carried out. By the application of the Education Ordinance of 1961, the four distinct systems of African, Indian, European and other non-native education, which had existed in the country up to the time of independence, were replaced by a single integrated system.⁷² Moreover, in accordance with the provisions of the Three-Year plan, many lower primary schools were extended to Standard VI and so, by 1964, in addition to other factors, this helped the primary school enrolment to increase by about 62.7 per cent.

At the last stage of completion of the Three-Year Plan, secondary school fees were abolished and there was a noticeable overall increase in enrolment figures in secondary schools. In 1964, there were 19,897 pupils enrolled as

71 A. C. Mwingira et al., Op. Cit., p. 49.

72 Ministry of Education, Annual Report of 1964, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 8.

compared with 17,176 pupils in the previous year.⁷³ Worthy of note is also the selection and training of the new district education officers and primary school inspectors which was one of the major concerns of the Ministry of Education during the 1961-64 period.

Enrolment figures for the period 1961-64 (Table III) on the following page are of particular interest as a background to the next plan, 1964-69, from which the system of Education for Self-Reliance emerged. On comparing, one can notice those points of the system which were growing most rapidly at the beginning of the planning period, i.e. primary standards V - VIII; secondary, form 6 and University of East Africa. It is interesting to note also the enrolments in Standard I, form 1, and in teachers' colleges which are rising comparatively slowly.

b) Integration of the Extended Educational System
in the Programme of Nation-Building

The most significant historical factor in the economic development of independent Tanzania was the launching of the Five-Year Development Plan (1964/65 - 1968/69). This Plan not only denoted the ending of a preceding one and the beginning of another, but also, to a large extent, it ushered in a new and very important era in the history of economic

⁷³ Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., pp. 10, 12.

Table III.-

Progressive Development of Enrolment, 1961-64

| | 1961 | 1962 | 1963 | 1964 |
|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| <u>Enrolment of pupils</u> | | | | |
| Standard I | 121,386 | 125,521 | 136,496 | 140,340 |
| Standard V | 19,391 | 26,803 | 40,508 | 43,610 |
| Standard VIII | 11,740 | 13,730 | 17,042 | 20,348 |
| Total | 486,470 | 518,663 | 592,104 | 633,678 |
| Form 1 | 4,196 | 4,810 | 4,972 | 5,302 |
| Form 4 | 1,603 | 1,950 | 2,839 | 3,630 |
| Form 6 | 179 | 199 | 275 | 463 |
| Total | 11,829 | 14,175 | 17,176 | 19,897 |
| Students entering T.T.C. for initial courses | 939 | 933 | 933 | 1,150 |
| Tanzanians in University of East Africa | 206 | 218 | 324 | 415 |
| Tanzanian overseas students | 1,002 | 1,153 | 1,325 | 1,712 |
| Engineering students at Dar Technical College | 22 | 35 | 80 | 178 |
| Teachers in public primary schools | 9,885 | 10,273 | 11,100 | 12,044 |
| Teachers in public second- ary schools | 664 | 746 | 886 | 939 |

 A. C. Mwingira et al., Op. Cit., p. 64.

development of this young nation in general and in the history of the development of her educational system in particular. Presenting the Five-Year Development Plan to the Parliament of the United Republic of Tanzania on May 12, 1964, President Julius Nyerere said:

Our people wanted independence for two reasons: to establish their human dignity and self-respect; and to get an opportunity to create their own future. Independence asserted our dignity and established our opportunity. The opportunity has now to be used; and our national pride has to be given the basis of a healthy, educated, and prosperous people.⁷⁴

These words of the President contained the gist of the main targets of the current plan: the laying of the basis for a healthy, educated and prosperous people; the building of a characteristic Tanzanian nation; and the establishment of his people's human dignity and self-respect on traditionally true and sure foundations. No doubt, the role which the Ministry of Education was to play in this great task of providing manpower for the nation-building is quite unprecedented in the history of Tanganyika. (Cf. p. 52-3, table IV of categories in relationship with manpower). Incidentally, the Five-Year Development Plan of Tanzania has been praised and commented upon by a reasonably large number of scholarly

⁷⁴ The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1st July, 1964 - 30 June, 1969, Vol. I, Dar-es-Salaam, the Government Printer, 1964, p. vii.

Table IV.-

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN 1964
 The educational system of Tanzania, showing relationship with manpower categories and teacher training system

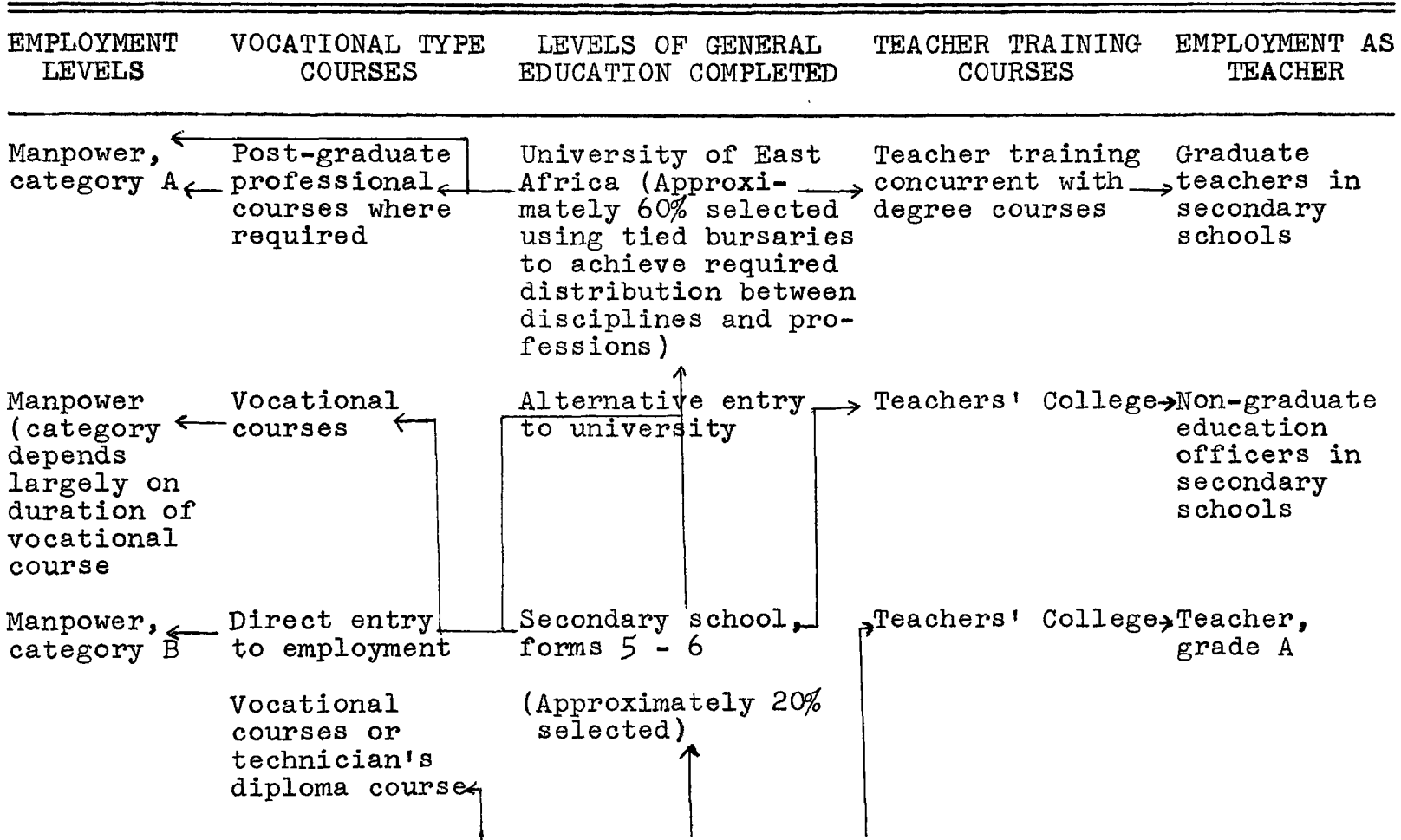


Table IV.-Continued
 THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN 1964

| EMPLOYMENT LEVELS | VOCATIONAL TYPE COURSES | LEVELS OF GENERAL EDUCATION COMPLETED | TEACHER TRAINING COURSES | EMPLOYMENT AS TEACHER |
|-------------------------|--|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Manpower, category C | Direct entry to employment | Secondary school, forms 1 - 4 | | Teacher, grade B |
| | Trade school (until 1964-65, now discontinued) | 25% selected (1964) (12% selection planned 1969) | Upgrading | |
| Manpower, category D | Direct entry to employment | Upper primary school | Teachers' College | College Teacher, grade C |
| | | (Approximately 40% selected) | | |
| Traditional occupations | Direct entry to employment | Lower primary school, standards I-IV | | |
| | | (Approximately 55% of children enter standard I) | | |

personalities.⁷⁵ Dr. C. Pratt, now in charge of the Political Science Department at the University of Toronto, has this to say about the Plan:

The Tanganyika Five-Year Plan is an able and highly professional document which has already deservedly attracted favourable professional comment. The Plan is far more than a forward projection of public capital expenditure plus an intelligent surmise of the developments that are likely in the private sector. It is a comprehensive and integrated economic plan in which all sectors of the economy are assigned individual and mutually consistent targets. So far as was feasible the planners also sought to make explicit the economic, financial, educational and general policy implications of the Plan [...]. Despite its technical detail and professional competence, the plan identifies its central objectives in terms at once comprehensible to the general public and also perhaps capable of enlisting widespread commitment to the achievement of the Plan.⁷⁶

This does not mean that the Plan had no weaknesses. It had its weaknesses, but that is by the way as far as this article is concerned. Stress must be laid on the 'widespread commitment to the achievement of the Plan'. In this the education

⁷⁵ R. Cranford Pratt, "The Administration of Economic Planning in a Newly Independent State: The Tanzanian Experience 1963-1966", in the Journal of Commonwealth Political Studies, Vol. 5, No. 1, Issue of March 1967, p. 58, Note 4. See for example R. Green, 'Four African Development Plans', 3 Journal of Modern African Studies (1965); P. Clark, Development Planning in East Africa (Nairobi, 1965); W. J. Keegan, 'Tanganyika's Five-Year Development Plan: Sober Realism or Buoyant Optimism?' in T. J. Farer (ed.) Financing African Development (Cambridge, Mass., 1965) and H. E. Smith, 'Economic Development and Planning in Tanzania' in H. E. Smith (ed.), Readings on Economic Development and Administration in Tanzania (Nairobi, 1964).

⁷⁶ R. Cranford Pratt, Op. Cit., p. 38f.

authorities, both ex officio and delegated, were really involved, because the required production of trained manpower in schools depended upon their accurate anticipation of matters to be covered, both in quantity and quality, in the shortest possible time.

The legal framework (cf. Table V on p. 56) within which, besides other necessary educational aspects, the education for manpower in Tanzania was to be conducted, realized that the training of teachers as required in the Plan represented "the sharpest break with the past". As far as the training of teachers was concerned, the targets were:

- a) To reduce the number of Teachers' Colleges from 22 at the beginning of 1964 to 11 at the end of 1970.
- b) To raise the intake of Grade "A" teachers progressively from 310 in 1964 to 1,500 at the end of 1969.
- c) To discontinue the intake of Grade "C" student teachers progressively from 861 in 1964 to 120 in 1967 and to nil in 1968.⁷⁷

(Cf. Table VI on p. 57, targets for quantitative development of education).

The obvious difficulties in reaching these targets were not only wastage of highly qualified teachers, largely due to new lucrative employment opportunities in the public services, nor the numerical shortage of staff in secondary

⁷⁷ Ministry of Education, Annual Report of the Ministry of Education, 1964, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 15.

Table VI.-
Targets for the Development of Education
1964-69

| | 1964 | 1969 | % increase |
|---|---------|-------|---------------|
| Tanganyikan students entering the University of East Africa | 175 | 528 | 202 |
| Pupils entering form 5 of secondary schools (higher school certificate course) | 680 | 1,280 | 88 |
| Pupils entering form 1 of secondary schools (school certificate course) | 5,250 | 7,070 | 35 |
| Students entering craft courses (Moshi Technical School and grant-aided establishments) | 188 | 350 | 86 |
| Students entering teacher-training courses, grade A | 320 | 1,500 | 369 |
| Students entering teacher-training courses, grade C | 920 | - | - |
| Pupils completing standard VIII (later standard VII) | 18,500 | - | - |
| Pupils entering standard V | 44,000 | - | - |
| Pupils entering standard I | 142,000 | - | - |

Source: Tanganyika Five-Year Plan ... Op. Cit., Vol. I, p. 67.

schools, nor, as in primary education, the formal qualifications of teachers actually in service falling far short of 'establishment' requirements.⁷⁸ They were especially caused by the serious shortages of graduate Tanzanians and, more generally, of experienced expatriate teachers with high academic qualifications. In order to give continuity to the education system, the Ministry of Education had concentrated its efforts on:

- a) the training of large numbers of Tanzanian, graduates as teachers (cf. Table VII, p. 59, "Training and Duties of Teachers");
- b) the encouragement of the recruitment of expatriates to direct entry to senior posts of experienced teachers from overseas who are willing to remain in Tanzania until an adequate supply of Tanzanian graduates is forthcoming for secondary, technical and teachers' colleges.⁷⁹

From the above text it can be deduced that the implementation of the manpower target of self-sufficiency by 1980 as projected in the complex Five-Year Plan of Development was not an easy task for the Minister of Education. Because, while the adoption of excessively high targets for

⁷⁸ Nota bene: The 'establishment formula' allows for provision of one and a half teachers per class in secondary schools. That means, "of every four teachers employed against the establishment for school certificate classes (form 1 to 4 known as standard IX and XII) two shall be graduates, one other shall be of education officer rank but not usually a graduate and one shall be a grade "A" teacher". Source: Ministry of Education.

⁷⁹ A. C. Mwingira et al., Op. Cit., p. 78.

Table VII.-

Training and Duties of Teachers

| Qualification | Method of Entry | Usual teaching duties |
|-------------------|--|---|
| Grade C | Eight years' primary education plus two years' training | Usually teach standards I to VI |
| Grade B | Now produced only by upgrading of Grade C teachers, but formerly mainly by two years' training of students with eight years' primary and two years' secondary education | Usually teach standards VI to VIII |
| Grade A | Eight years' primary plus four years' secondary education, followed by two years' training | Usually teach standards VI to VIII; also forms 1 and 2 in secondary schools and forms 3 and 4 Swahili |
| Education Officer | Formerly a promotional post only, except where some overseas degrees or other qualifications are held which are not recognized as equivalent to UEA graduates. New two-year course for direct entry began in 1965. | Usually teach in secondary schools forms 1 to 4 |
| Graduate | By taking a degree recognized as equivalent to those of the University of East Africa. Professional training as a teacher is also nearly always required. | Secondary schools, forms 1 to 6 |

the production of high-level manpower may have forced him to curtail development proposals for primary education, the adoption of deflated figures of required manpower in the sectors could just as effectively prevent educational development by prolonging the shortage of teachers.

Shortage of adequate financial resources is another serious drawback in the implementation of the Five-Year Plan in all sectors, education included.

... no education target can be reached without adequate resources whether they are teachers, pupils qualified to benefit from education, money or organization; without these, any argument as to whether the manpower targets are set high enough when translated into educational terms is largely academic because frustration is unavoidable.⁸⁰

In 1966 some decisions of the Tanzanian Government in relation to foreign affairs had serious consequences in attracting outside help for implementing the Five-Year Plan. Following the union with Zanzibar, early in 1965 the Tanzanian Government allowed the East Germans to open a consulate-general in Dar-es-Salaam. This seemed to be against the concession to West Germany's Hallstein doctrine which forbade full diplomatic recognition of East Germany. In retaliation, the German Federal Government, being considerably upset, immediately stopped all military aid to Tanzania; unilaterally and without notice, broke a Five-Year Training and Aid

80 A. C. Mwingira et al., Op. Cit., p. 48.

Agreement relating to the Air Wing and returned all their technicians overnight. President Nyerere was, thus, forced to reject aid which Tanzania badly needed to implement the Five-Year Development Plan.

On November 15, 1964, President Nyerere held a rally in Dar-es-Salaam to consider a quarrel with the U. S. Government, when the Tanzanian Government believed an American Congo-based conspiracy to be brewing against it. A little later, two U. S. officials, because of their misconduct, were asked to leave Tanzania. As a result, these disagreements for a long time suspended and greatly slowed down proposed further aid discussions.

The break with Britain brought about very high economic costs. Concerning this, President Nyerere writes in his "Principles and Development":

Tanzania's action in adhering to the O.A.U. decision on Rhodesia has meant that the £7.5 million interest-free loan which had been agreed between the two Governments but not actually signed, has now been "frozen". This money is, therefore, not available to pay for development work within the first two years of the Five-Year Plan. This "break" will also have adversely affected any question of further aid for the later years of the Plan.⁸¹

There had been some other political decisions which affected foreign diplomatic relations and, consequently,

⁸¹ Julius K. Nyerere, Principles and Development, A Memorandum of the President of The United Republic of Tanzania and President of Tany, June 1966, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1966, p. 11.

handicapped external aid. But the three mentioned above are the major decisions which most adversely affected the Five-Year Plan and forced the Government to seek some other means for accomplishing the Plan. In his presidential speech, "Our Economy", of June 13, 1966, Mr. Nyerere made some very indicative statements as to what means of implementing the Plan he had in mind:

1965 was not an easy year for Tanzania [...] difficulties were beyond our control [...] The experience of the past year shows two things. First, that we cannot rely on outside help [...] But secondly, the last year shows that we can do more for our own development than we had thought possible [...] We cannot stop our effort now. We have to increase it. When you have pushed a load a little way up a hill it is no use relaxing. You have to go on. Otherwise the load may fall back to its original position - and perhaps crush the people in the process [...] It is in this spirit of ever increasing self-reliance that Tanzania must face the coming financial year.⁸²

Although outside help was not forthcoming in the manner planned at the outset, the load of the Five-Year Plan did not "fall back to its original position". At the end of 1966, the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Development Planning presented a Report on the Mid-term Review of the achievements to that date in implementing the Plan's objectives since its inception in July 1964. With regard to the achievements in producing required manpower in schools, the

⁸² Julius K. Nyerere, Principles and Development, p. 11.

Report had this to say in general:

Expansion of secondary and higher education is the key-stone in producing the trained manpower needed for economic and social development. The goals set in the Five-Year Plan for this vital part of the programme have been substantially met in all cases and in several they have been exceeded. If this rate of achievement is sustained, Government's ambitious long-range Plan policy of full self-sufficiency at all skill levels by 1980, will be met, except for occupations requiring highly specialised skills.⁸³

As far as the educational system of Tanzania was concerned, this was the closing chapter of historical achievements which formed the background for the next historical event: the system of Education for Self-Reliance, which is the theme of the present dissertation. Education for Self-Reliance is henceforth considered to be the basis on which the building of the Tanzanian society of "a healthy, educated and prosperous people" was founded less than six years after independence.

SUMMARY

The aim of this summary is to give a short general view of the historical background of the present educational system. It wants at the same time to show the link between

⁸³ Ministry of Economic Affairs and Development Planning, A Mid-Term Appraisal of the Five-Year Plan July 1964 - June 1969, Dar-es-Salaam, National Printing Co. Ltd., 1967, p. 19. The text on the various levels of education appears in the appendix.

the colonial educational system and the post-independence system of education for self-reliance. The following are some of the historical factors.

Before and even during the colonial period, education for most of the African youths was carried on by elders of the tribe, especially by parents and relatives. The nature of that education differed from tribe to tribe to the extent that tribes themselves were different as regards occupation and beliefs.

A form of education based on literacy was introduced in the colonial period by Catholic and Protestant missionaries during the German rule. Official government participation in educational activities began when, on account of the expensive immigrant labour, the need for clerks and craftsmen in administration, railways and plantations, was acutely felt. At the outbreak of the 1914-18 war, the educational organization was greatly dislocated.

After the armistice of 1918, Tanganyika was a British Mandate. The new government, however, was very slow in resuming educational activities in the Mandate of Tanganyika. It was only in 1928 that the African Education Regulations, as contained in the Memorandum of the Advisory Committee of the Colonial Office, came into force.

During the years up to 1947 education in Tanzania was very much marked by fluctuation. First, there were rapid

advances in education because central schools were opened for education beyond the primary level. Then, in 1934, the system was criticised in that it induced rapid increases in expenditure. As a result, a number of schools providing both vocational and industrial education were considerably reduced. Missionary societies were strictly forbidden to open new schools without the written permission of the Department of Education.

There are a number of reasons why the British Administration of Tanzania developed a tendency to go slowly in encouraging the educational evolution of the natives. First of all, the political position of the British Administration, for several reasons, seemed uncertain. Secondly, some British administrators had believed the false theory of some anthropologists that the tribes of Tanzania were types of "arrested development". Thirdly, the onset of a world-wide economic depression between 1929-1931 caused a retrenchment in all government departments, including education. Finally, the policy of restricting the output of trained natives tended to discourage educational planning and development. In the years following 1934, the regressive effects resulting from the above historical factors were clearly felt.

With the coming into being of the United Nations in 1945, after the Second World War, Tanzania became a Trusteeship Territory. The British administering authority had to

assume new responsibilities, namely among others, "to develop self-government [...] and to transmit regularly to the Secretary General, for information purposes, statistical and other information of a technical nature relating to economic, social and educational conditions". According to the above obligations, the need for progress in education was already apparent. Hence, education was given a major emphasis in the Ten-Year Development Plan introduced in 1946.

On implementing the overall target of the Ten-Year Development Plan, Middle Schools and Secondary Schools were increased in number. But, at the same time, there was a growing awareness of defects in the Middle School curriculum. Its concentration on fitting pupils to earn their living in urban occupations, was not in keeping with the economic realities. On the other hand, when more emphasis began to be placed on agriculture, animal husbandry and general handicrafts - against a background of rising national feeling - this experiment provoked justifiable suspicions and, consequently, met with only limited success. Moreover, the establishment of racial separate schools resulting in a separate education system was a source of many complaints.

In 1957, a final attempt was made to correct the defects of the colonial system of education. But the Five-Year Plan (1957-1961) for African Education was not fully realized because of lack of adequate funds and adequately

trained teachers.

In comparison, however, with the longer period of the Mandate, much was achieved in education during the Trusteeship period. Primary school places had been made available for over 50% of the children reaching school age. By 1961, the number of African pupils sitting for the Cambridge School Certificate examinations was a little short of 700.

On December 9, 1961, when Tanzania achieved independence, the new nation possessed only a handful of African citizens with university or professional qualifications. As a consequence, there was a great shortage of properly trained personnel to fill the many top level positions in government service, commerce and industry. Thus, the educational establishment which was taken over in 1961 from the colonial rulers, was ill equipped and hardly designed to meet the requirements of an independent country.

The need to adapt and expand the inherited colonial system of education to the country's requirements, rather than reconstruct a new one, was especially obvious during the Three-Year Plan of Development (1961-64) after independence. Two important events influenced the system of education: One of the first measures of the new government was to enact an Education Ordinance which made provision for a single system of Education - thus abolishing the racial separate systems

of education - in Tanzania. Provision was also made for the legal framework of educational planning and administration which would be in force henceforth.

The year 1964 is an important date in the history of Tanzania. In it the Union of Tanganyika and Zanzibar was accomplished; the Three-Year Plan of Development (1961/2-1963/4) which was based on the survey undertaken by the World Bank Mission ended, and a new Five-Year Plan of Development (1964/5-1968/9), drawn up by an international team of economists, discussed and launched by the People's National Assembly, began. The implication of this current Five-Year Development Plan for the educational system was the more significant as the Ministry of Education was to play an unprecedented role in the provision of manpower requirements for the nation-building.

In 1966 economic effects of certain Government policies and decisions tended to retard the implementation of the Five-Year Plan. The chief decisions which affected Tanzanian development in all departments, including education, were: the quarrel with West Germany, disputes with the U.S.A., breaking diplomatic relations with Britain, the boycott of South African goods and the threat to leave the Commonwealth if South Africa remained a member. As a result, outside help was very much mutilated. The outside help which could still be expected came much later than anticipated and not always

in the form in which it was needed. On the other hand, experience of the year before showed that Tanzanians could do more for their own development than they had ever thought possible. Hence, it was thought that the time had come when "African socialism and self-reliance" should be declared as the two government policies for Tanzania. This was finally done when on February 6, 1967, the Government issued what is called "the Arusha Declaration" to the nation.

With the Arusha Declaration, Tanzania became an African, self-reliant, socialist State. Thus, the system of education was required to adapt itself to the ideology of socialism and self-reliance, involving itself in answering to the economic and social needs of the nation as presented in the Five-Year Development Plan.

CHAPTER II

EDUCATION FOR SELF RELIANCE AS AN ANSWER TO THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL NEEDS OF TANZANIA

In the last chapter the Tanzanian educational system was described as a single historical continuum influenced by contemporary political, economic and social factors within national and international contexts. The overall conclusion was that during the colonial régime educational development "was shabbily treated by Britain"¹ and during the post-independence era, although there has been remarkable progress in education, at least insofar as numbers are concerned, nevertheless "the evidence exists of a genuine conflict between expectations and realities".²

In this Second Chapter, the Tanzanian education system is conceived as part of a whole at a given moment in 1967/68, after some important decisions of the Tanzanian Government had been made which affect this system. These influential factors are, first of all, the Five-Year Plan of Development

¹ Walter Rodney, "Education and Tanzania Socialism" in Idrian N. Resnick, ed., Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha (Tanzania, East Africa), Longmans of Tanzania Ltd., 1968, p. 71.

² Idrian N. Resnick, Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha (Tanzania, East Africa), Longmans of Tanzania Ltd., 1968, p. 8.

launched in 1964,³ second, the two 1967 government documents, namely the Arusha Declaration⁴ and Education for Self-Reliance.⁵ These documents are interrelated insofar as each deals, in its own way, with the economic development of Tanzania.

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze two of the above-mentioned documents in particular: the Five-Year Development Plan, and Education for Self-Reliance, in their aim of integrating education with economic development. The points to be considered are, therefore, the following:

1. The economic needs of Tanzania according to the Five-Year Development Plan, 1964/69.
2. The role of Education for Self-Reliance in the economic National Plan, 1964/80.

³ The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1st July, 1964 - 30th June, 1969, Volume I: General Analysis, Volume II: Programmes, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1964.

⁴ TANU, The Arusha Declaration and TANU's Policy on Socialism and Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967.

⁵ Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967.

1. The Economic Needs of Tanzania According to the Five-Year Development Plan, 1964/69.

The contact with Western civilization during the colonial years has forced the countries of Africa to adapt themselves to new elements based on European society. A better standard of living was one of the goals aimed at on seeking self-government. But with the achievement of independence, there was still a long way to go to reach a better standard of living. Independence does not make poor people rich, illiterate people literate, hungry people well-fed, or sick people well. Difficult problems, some economic, some social, some national and some international, have to be solved before real progress can be achieved. The chances of survival are very slim indeed if independence is followed by economic stagnation and repression. Moreover, it would be a sordid ending to a not inglorious chapter of Tanzania's history if, during the first three or four years after independence, the economic foundations laid by the colonial rulers proved insufficient to bear the strain.

In order to avoid economic stagnation and repression, by 1961, right after independence, Tanzania, in a survey of 1962 which was based on the Report of a Mission organized by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development,⁶

⁶ The Economic Development of Tanganyika, Report of a Mission organized by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1961, 1963.

arranged a three-year plan of development covering the period of 1962/64.⁷ It was, however, not until 1963, when another attempt at serious economic planning began for the five-year period 1964/69.⁸ The circumstances which led to the formation of the Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development are described by William Tordoff as follows:

A 1963 report on manpower showed that only 23 per cent of Tanganyika men (in 1957) and 7.5 per cent of Tanganyika women over fifteen years of age had ever attended school; that only 4.5 per cent of the population were wage-earners; that fewer than 0.1 per cent of Tanganyika's people occupied highly skilled positions; that the great majority of the people of both sexes and of all ages were working on the land, at very low productivity; that the average per capita annual income was less than £20 of which 40 per cent took the form of subsistence income; and that a combination of poor nutrition and inadequate medical care and housing resulted in a life expectancy at birth of only 35 to 40 years.⁹

The Staff of the Directorate of Planning, with some world famous economists, at the request of the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, prepared a Five-Year Development Plan, an extremely elaborate masterpiece,¹⁰ as Dr. C.

7 George Tobias, High Level Manpower Requirements and Resources 1962-1967, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1963.

8 Robert L. Thomas, Survey of the High Level Manpower Requirements and Resources for the Five-Year Development Plan, 1964-65 to 1968-69, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1965.

9 William Tordoff, Government and Politics in Tanzania, Nairobi, East African Publishing House, 1967, pp. 184/5.

10 Idrian N. Resnick, "Educational Barriers to Tanzania's Development", in Resnick, Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha, Longmans of Tanzania Limited, 1968, p. 125.

Pratt has already pointed out:¹¹

Six senior economists were the senior staff of the Directorate (of Planning) [...]. All six were expatriates and had been provided under one form or another of technical assistance. The Director of Planning was M. J. Faudon, an experienced and extremely able French economist and planner. The French Government provided a second economist, the Governments of the United Kingdom and the Federal Republic of Germany each seconded a senior economist, and the United Nations' agencies provided two more. As is so often the case, the expatriate experts were on short two-year contracts and this international and highly able team began to disperse within a few months of the publication of the Plan.¹²

Tanzania launched the new Five-Year Plan of Development on July 1, 1964. The reader will remember that the nature of this Plan has already been commented upon by Professor Pratt, whose text has been quoted by the present writer in the preceding chapter. The period 1964/65-1968/69 was the first phase of a National Development Plan covering a period of 15 years which, as the Honourable A. S. N. Swai, M.P., Minister of State, writes:

11 Ut. supra, p. 46.

12 R. Cranford Pratt, "The Administration of Economic Planning in a Newly Independent State: The Tanzanian Experience 1963-1966", in the Journal of Commonwealth Political Studies, March 1967, Vol. 5, No. 1, p. 47.

embraces by 1980 a vision of Tanganyika as a nation of 14 million inhabitants enjoying twice the present average individual income, an expectancy of life at birth of 50 instead of the present 35 to 40 years and a level of education qualifying all those needed to fill the main positions in the country.¹³

From the above words, it will be seen that the targets of the Plan up to the year 1980 are the following:¹⁴

- (a) To double the income per capita which in 1964 stood at less than shs. 400/ per annum.
- (b) To be self-sufficient in manpower needs except for those occupations that require highly specialized skills, and finally
- (c) To improve the nation's average life expectancy from 35 to years in 1964 to 50 years in 1980.

At the time of writing this essay the Plan is already four years old and a mid-term review has officially been made to identify elements in policy and implementation which need special attention. Moreover, important changes in the political sphere have taken place and the Plan must now be implemented against the background of the Arusha Declaration whose dominant characteristics are socialism and self-reliance. It is against this background that the economic and social needs of the Plan must now be described:

¹³ A. Z. N. Swai, "Approach to Economic Planning" in The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1st July, 1964 - 30th June, 1969, Vol. I, General Analysis, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1964, p. 1.

¹⁴ Ministry of Economic Affairs and Development Planning, A Mid-Term Appraisal of the Achievements under the Five-Year Plan, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1968.

a) To raise the per capita income

Sociologists see economic power as the basic criterion of social position. In Europe, Canada, and in the States, the economic power resides within "a relatively few corporations which become linked to one another and to the principal financial institutions through interlocking directorships".¹⁵ It is so, perhaps, because these countries are made up of industrial societies whose economy, as Philip Cox contends,¹⁶ is of mixed type referred to inaccurately as "free enterprise", "capitalism", "creeping socialism", "social fascism" and "the monster state".

Of Canada it can, certainly, be said that on account of free enterprise the income distribution is unequal. There are people with highly paid occupations who, therefore, have the most money and, consequently, their income class per capita may well constitute \$10,000 per annum and over. Again, there are others with low-paid occupations who have an income of, say, \$2,000 or under, and so form a low-income class of about \$1,000 per capita. What, in this country, is the lowest yearly income per capita would constitute the highest

¹⁵ John Porter, The Vertical Mosaic, An Analysis of Social Class and Power in Canada, University of Toronto Press, 1965, 1966, p. 231.

¹⁶ Philip W. L. Cox et al., Education in Democracy, The Social Foundations of Education, Toronto, McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., 1961, p. 261.

yearly income in Tanzania. But that is not the case.

Tanzania is a poor country, although it has over 12 million inhabitants, possesses many natural resources, and enjoys a healthy climate. The average per capita income of under £20 (\$60) per annum was the result of the 1963 survey which was conducted with a view to the present National Plan. In 1967, however, the income per capita had risen a little higher, as one gathers from the Presidential Address of Mwalimu Julius Nyerere:

Let me, therefore, state once again, what the real position is. If all the wealth of all the people in this country were put into one big heap, and then divided equally between all the people who live in Tanzania, each person would receive goods to the total value of Shs. 525/- (approx. \$75). That is all he would have for a year [...]. This means that the total wealth of the country is valued at about shs. 5,455,000,000/-. Out of that amount, nearly 10 1/2 million people have to eat and clothe themselves; we have to run our schools, our hospitals [...]. etc., etc. But in addition, it is from this same amount that we have to invest for a better life in the future [...]. In fact, the total wealth available to be spent by all the people of Tanzania during one year is much less than the amount which the Government of the United States of America spends on military forces in one week [...]. However we divide our wealth between us, we are a poor country.¹⁷

It is obvious that there has been a steady and remarkable growth in the economy of the country in all sectors. For, taking into account the evolution of the Gross Domestic

¹⁷ Julius Nyerere, After the Arusha Declaration, Presidential Address to the National Conference of the T.A.N.U., Mwanza, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 10.

Product, the per capita G.D.P. in 1954 was reckoned to be shs. 326/-, and in 1962 shs. 392/-, and was expected to stand at shs. 586/- in 1970.¹⁸

In 1964, at the start of the Five-Year Development Plan, the per capita income figure was put at 19 pounds 6 shillings. This was based on a population figure of about 10,500,000. The August census figures, announced on 28/12/67, show a population total of 12,231,000.

If the per capita income were based on the present gross national income figures and the new population figures, it would certainly show a decline. But the calculation would be purely mathematical.

The real wealth of the people has increased, despite the occasional drop in the prices of certain cash crops.

It is foreseen that the 1967 census will have a big impact on future planning, which will very much depend on the density of population as shown in the new figures. The next Five-Year Plan will be compiled according to these figures in order to provide proper social services and a better distribution of trained manpower, in places where there is more demand.

At the end of 1966 the average yearly income had reached the amount of shs. 525/-. This was certainly more

¹⁸ Ministry of Economic Affairs and Development Planning, Op. Cit., p. 5.

than the expected increase in the per capita income of 0.8 per cent as estimated at the Addis Ababa Conference of African States on Development of Education in Africa in 1961. Later, in 1964, this percentage amount was recalculated for each country on the basis of more recent information, as can be gathered from the Final Report of the Lagos Conference, also held in 1964.¹⁹ For Tanzania it was calculated that:

... if these investment programmes are duly implemented and the production targets actually achieved. The Gross Domestic Product would increase on average by 6.7 per cent per year. This means a growth rate in average individual incomes more than twice as high in real terms as in the past. In these circumstances the standard of living of the average Tanganyikan by 1970 would be 50 per cent higher in real terms than in 1960/2.²⁰

However, the Mid-Term Appraisal revealed that between 1964 and 1966 the Gross Domestic Product increased at an average rate of about 5% only. This increase was obviously less than the calculated Plan target of 6.7%. The cause of this decrease in the average rate per cent was said to have been due to some difficulties beyond

19 International Conference on the Organization of Research and Training in Africa in Relation to the Study, Conservation and Utilization of Natural Resources, Lagos, Nigeria, 28 July to 6 August 1964, Final Report of the Lagos Conference, Paris, UNESCO in association with ECA, 1964, p. 53.

20 The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1st July, 1964 - 30th June, 1969, Volume I: General Analysis, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1964, p. 4.

control. In his speech to the National Assembly in 1966, Mwalimu Julius Nyerere explained as follows:

1965 was not an easy year for Tanzania. We experienced two major difficulties - widespread drought conditions which reduced the output of certain important crops, and big decreases in the world market price of certain of our major exports. These two factors have resulted in the slowing down of the speed of our advance towards better economic standards of our people. But, these difficulties have not stopped that advance.²¹

These words of President Nyerere suggest that agricultural output has the largest share in the economy. To borrow the phraseology of a Tanzanian politician, Mr. Al Noor Kassum, now Secretary General of the Economic and Social Council which is one of the six main organs of the UN in New York: Agriculture for Tanzania is as bread and butter for Europe and North America. For, although the next largest contribution to the Gross Domestic Product is expected to come in the near future from the processing and manufacturing industries, most of these industries will depend on the output of agriculture for their raw materials. It is, therefore, understandable why the Arusha Declaration stresses the agricultural aspect of the Five-Year Development Plan:

²¹ The Ministry of Information and Tourism, Our Economy 1965-67, Speech by the President Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere to the National Assembly June 13, 1966, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1966, p. 2.

AGRICULTURE IS THE BASIS OF DEVELOPMENT. A great part of Tanzania's Land is fertile and gets sufficient rains. Our country can produce various crops for home consumption and for export.

We can produce food crops [...] such as maize, rice, wheat, beans, groundnuts etc. And we can produce such cash crops as sisal, cotton, coffee, tobacco, pyrethrum, tea, etc. Our land is also good for grazing cattle, goats, sheep and raising chickens, etc.; we can get plenty of fish from our rivers, lakes and from the sea. All our farmers are in Areas which can produce two or three or even more of the food and cash crops enumerated above, and each farmer could increase his production so as to get more food and more money. And because the main aim of development is to get more food, and more money for our other needs, our purpose must be to increase production of these agricultural crops. This is the only road through which we can develop our country.²² (My italics)

In the same way, in his Paper on Education for Self-Reliance, President Mwalimu Nyerere insists on education geared to agriculture:

Our United Republic has at present a poor, underdeveloped and agricultural economy [...] We have very little capital to invest in big factories or modern machines; we are short of people with skill and experience. What we have is land in abundance and people who are willing to work hard for their own improvement [...]. Our educational system must produce good farmers.²³

It can be concluded that the educational system of Tanzania, for many years to come, will be greatly involved

²² TANU, The Arusha Declaration and TANU's Policy on Socialism and Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1967, p. 14.

²³ Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, pp. 6-7.

in the expansion of agricultural commodities. This education-agriculture involvement will be clarified in the next section. As a result of this involvement, a gradually increasing output of agriculture will determine, to a large extent, the growth of the Gross Domestic Product and, consequently, also the growth of the per capita income of the nation.

b) To be Self-Sufficient in Manpower

This section will consider, first, the necessity of manpower in economic development; second, the position of manpower in Tanzania at the formation of the Five-Year Plan of Development; and, third, the aim of training high-level personnel in Tanzania.

i. Necessity of Manpower

Both at the Conference of African States on the development of education in Africa, held at Addis Ababa in 1961, and at the Conference on the Development of Higher Education in Africa, held at Tananarive in 1962, it was agreed that economic development is highly dependent on skills of the sort which are taught in institutions to students of 15 years of age and upwards. For instance, during the Addis Ababa Conference it was stated:-

Plans for economic and social development depend on adequate supply of teachers, technicians, agricultural assistants, nurses, book-keepers, secretaries, medical technologists, clerks and other secondary level skills. Whereas the numbers required at the university level are so small that deficiencies can be met by external recruitment at relatively small cost, the numbers required at the secondary level are so large that deficiencies seriously handicap development.²⁴

However, manpower planning requires knowledge of the nature of the needs, both economic and social, in order to decide on the quantity and quality of the personnel. It is obvious that this requirement can be met only by conducting manpower surveys. The Conference on the Development of Higher Education in Africa, held at Tananarive in 1962, has the following comment to make on the surveys of manpower, which is "an activity of very recent origin in Africa:²⁵

On the basis of these surveys (the methodology of which might be improved and standardized through exchanges of views and experience between specialists and university staff) it will be possible to decide how many university graduates should be trained and what their qualifications should be, to define the types of training necessary and to assess the resources needed by university in order to provide this training.²⁶

²⁴ Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, 15-25 May, 1961, Final Report, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, p. 10.

²⁵ Robert L. Thomas, "Problems of Manpower Development" in Idrian N. Resnick, Op. Cit., p. 106.

²⁶ UNESCO, The Development of Higher Education in Africa, Report of the Conference on the Development of Higher Education in Africa, Tananarive, 3-12 September 1962, Paris, UNESCO, 1963, p. 54.

The Tananarive Conference goes on to explain the necessity of each of the three categories of personnel in the process of economic development: High-level personnel, junior executive personnel and other personnel at the lower end of the ladder, respectively, who "will be of considerable assistance to them (high-level and junior executive personnel) in discharging their functions as leaders and in disseminating the knowledge and techniques that are of such decisive importance for development."

ii. Position of Manpower in Tanzania

This sub-division considers the position of manpower in Tanzania at the time of the formation of the Five-Year Development Plan, 1964/69. Previous to the formulation of the Development Plan, there had taken place various manpower surveys, the nature of which is by far too complex for the scope of this dissertation. Suffice it to mention that in 1961, the Quinquennial Advisory Committee had recommended a pattern of development for 1962/67 which proved inadequate. Then the report of Hunter and Harbison in 1962 presented other recommendations to the governments of East Africa for comment.²⁷

²⁷ A. C. Mwingira et al., The Process of Educational Planning, Paris, UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1967, pp. 18/19.

The Hunter and Harbison report coincided with the Tobias Manpower Survey.²⁸ After that, there took place the economic survey of the six world-famous economists, already mentioned in the preceding section, from whose data the Five-Year Plan of Development was prepared. Commenting on this Plan, President Nyerere said to the National Assembly of 1966:-

After the first few months of operation of the Five-Year Plan it became clear to us that the whole question of the organization and administration of development planning must be re-examined. This was, therefore, made the subject of a detailed investigation by a team of British experts, headed by Professor Ross of the University of East Anglia. Their Report has been considered by the Economic Committee of the Cabinet chapter by chapter, and many of its administrative recommendations have now been implemented [...]. It is not Government's intention to publish this detailed and extremely valuable document.²⁹

As far as the Ministry of Education is concerned, however, there were two manpower projections supplied to it, whose estimates were contained in the booklet A Guide for the Ministry of Education in Preparing Policies and Programmes, Ministry of Development Planning, September 1963, (unpublished), and in the Survey of the High-Level Manpower Requirements and Resources for the Five-Year

28 George Tobias, Op. Cit., ut. supra.

29 The Ministry of Information and Tourism, Our Economy 1965-67, Speech by the President Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere to the National Assembly June 13, 1966, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1966, p. 4.

Development Plan 1964/65 - 1968/69 (Thomas Report), Directorate of Development and Planning, Dar-es-Salaam, 1965.³⁰ The Thomas Report revealed:

For example, at the time of the 1964 manpower survey there were only 18 architects in Tanzania, 156 civil engineers, 4 chemical engineers, 1 industrial engineer, 27 chemists, 75 agronomists, 2 dieticians, 146 professional accountants, 9 professional librarians, 49 pharmacists, and so on. Estimated effective demand for the Five-Year Plan period for occupations of this kind, as well as those for technicians (5,778), office workers of various kinds and skilled 'modern' craftsmen (20,910), was at a similar low level (by comparison with any developed country with a comparable population).³¹

From the above it is obvious that Tanzania's position of manpower was not at all satisfactory at the formulation of the Five-Year Plan. Since manpower was to play an important and essential part in the implementation of the Plan of Development, an accurate planning of manpower, taking all circumstances into account, had to be made. To achieve this, consequently, the manpower planners had to be guided very specifically by consideration of certain aims.

iii. The Goals of Manpower Planning in Tanzania

Tanzania aims at attaining self-sufficiency in trained manpower by the year 1980. The goals for manpower

³⁰ A. C. Mwingira et al., Op. Cit., p. 39

³¹ Robert L. Thomas, "Problems of Manpower Development", in Idrian N. Resnick, Op. Cit., p. 110/11.

planning are two: Africanization of high-level manpower and development of human resources for adequately implementing the Five-Year Plan.

Africanization of vacancies at the top end of the ladder in the government administration, both central and provincial, has been a forcible popular demand since the pre-independence period. As this was carried on at a rather swift pace, after independence, the pressure for "africanizing" top level posts in the army and in commerce was very strongly felt.

Tanzania had begun its independence with about 75% of the British Government staff staying on, of whom as many as 50% planned to leave, at the end of the first year of independence. Mwalimu Nyerere very bravely asked the British officials to stay on, but he met with the full force of opposition. At that time he had a very small number of trained native personnel to run the Government administration and the economic machinery of the country efficiently. Only 1.7 per cent of the school-age population attended Forms I to IV in 1963.

In order to fill some of the higher posts and at the same time effect africanization to a certain extent, the Government adopted a system of up-grading. This system of upgrading was carried out by means of training workers already in the job. During the first years of the Five-Year

Plan, a total of additional 2,860 government workers had been trained in full-time training schools by various government ministries.³²

Since workers in the co-operative movement and in the NUTA (National Union of Tanganyika Workers) pressed likewise for africanization, Mwalimu Nyerere appointed an Africanization Commission in 1962 to inquire into the matter. (There have been many Presidential Commissions on various enquiries concerning various complaints which are not within the scope of this essay.) Suffice to mention that by the middle of 1963 it had become obvious that some of the Tanganyikan officers who had been made permanent secretaries had proved unequal to their responsibilities, owing chiefly to the lack of adequate training. Thus it was clear that, although Tanzania had correctly decided that most of the middle and higher-level posts should not remain indefinitely in the hands of foreign nationals, nevertheless, "these posts required a secondary or higher educational base for effective performance."³³

The next point to be considered now is the development of human resources. In Canada and in the United States of

³² Ministry of Economic Affairs and Development Planning, A Mid-Term Appraisal of the Achievements Under the Five-Year Plan, 1964-1969, Dar-es-Salaam, National Printing Co., 1967, p. 22.

³³ Robert L. Thomas, Op. Cit., p. 109.

America, the economy has created many opportunities for an increasing proportion of persons with professional, technical or managerial skills, i.e. individuals who have completed higher education. The case in Tanzania is quite different. In Tanzania, it is certainly essential to produce the needed skills in the quantity and quality required. Nevertheless, it is likewise essential to assure that the scarce resources are not wasted on producing skills in excess of the ability of the economy to utilize them. Therefore, another goal of manpower planning was to economise while developing human resources or skills to implement the Five-Year Plan. In a wealthy country this would not have been necessary.

Tanzania, however, is so desperately short of resources for all development purposes that finding the sheer means of carrying on a programme of human resources development becomes as much of a central issue as those which would appear to outsiders to have far more substance.

With the economic planners (including their manpower wing) scratching to find resources to meet the many needs of development, it was inevitable that the educational plant - so large a charge against scarce resources - would come under scrutiny to determine if the same planned outputs could be produced with less money.³⁴

Following the recommendations of manpower planning, Tanzania has channelled students entering the University of East Africa into the faculties which produce the skills most urgently required, such as engineering, medicine, agronomy,

³⁴ Robert L. Thomas, Op. Cit., p. 118.

veterinary science, secondary school teachers, architects, geologists and others. Even scholarships from foreign donors are accepted only if there is a need for known skills.

The improvement of food production is considered as corps d'élite and requires also an adequate development of human resources. Everything is being done to give academic prestige to Agricultural Centres where agricultural research is being carried out under EACSO.³⁵ The importance of training specialists in rural economy for Tanzania, whose economy will continue to be based on the development of stock-breeding and agriculture, forestry and fishing for a long time to come, is very much stressed in Education for Self-Reliance.

As it is in the rural areas that people live and work, so it is in the rural areas that life must be improved [...]. It would be grossly unrealistic to imagine that in the near future more than a small proportion of our people will live in towns and work in modern industrial enterprises. It is, therefore, the villages which must be made into places where people live a good life; it is in the rural areas that people must be able to find their material well-being and their satisfactions.³⁶

The Village Settlement Schemes which Mwalimy Nyerere had in mind already before the National Plan was drafted call for modern-trained farmers who will use machinery,

³⁵ UNESCO, Final Report of the Lagos Conference, Op.Cit., p. 16. (EACSO = East Africa Common Services Organization.)

Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Op. Cit., p. 6f.

operate irrigation plants on a large scale and handle big investments.³⁷ Thus, trained manpower is one of the main targets of the National Plan of Development which greatly affects the present educational system.

c) To Improve the Nation's Average Life Expectancy

Life expectancy is the third main target of the National Plan of Development. The object of this section is to analyze this target in relation to the present system of education. For convenience's sake, the following points will support the analysis: first, life expectancy in developed countries; second, life expectancy in Tanzania; third, prevention of disease and famine as a means of assuring a longer life expectancy.

i. Life Expectancy in Developed Countries

It is said that the span of life in developed countries is much longer than in under-developed countries. In the present century, because of generally improved conditions, older age groups show remarkable growth. In the United States of America, the number of individuals of

³⁷ Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere, "Address by the President to Parliament, 12th May, 1964" in the Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1st July, 1964 - 30th June, 1969, Volume I: General Analysis, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1964, p. 13.

sixty-five years of age and older is four times as great as it was at the beginning of the century.³⁸ The study of Ralph Tyler and Richard Miller shows that the United States population was expected to be "196 million by 1965, 260 million by 1980 and 350 million by the turn of the twenty-first century".³⁹

This rapid increase in population in developed countries during the last two centuries is now being looked upon with fear by different diagnosticians. Basic assumptions regarding food supply and opportunities of employment in administrative, economic or industrial capacities have coloured men's attitude towards population growth, usually thought of as "population explosion". This gloomy attitude has compelled men to resort to birth control measures. But the educator, as Philip Cox puts it, sees the threatening population growth in another perspective:

³⁸ Pikunas et al., Psychology of Human Development, Toronto, McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961, pp. 305/6.

³⁹ Ralph W. Tyler et al., "Social Forces and Trends" in W. Warren Kallenbach et al., Education and Society, Columbus, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1963, 1966, p. 8.

concern with this fundamental quandary leads the educator to consider many other problems and opportunities connected with population trends. The increasing number of older people make his concern with geriatrics and gerontology compulsory. Hence, he advocates and co-operates with measures for the security of older people, including pre-retirement counsel, programmes for health insurance, visiting nurses and rest homes, and plans to insure the continued participation of retired persons in civic, economic, and cultural activities of family, neighbourhood, and community.⁴⁰

While the more developed minority of mankind, despite the use of the pill and other contraceptive devices, continues to pull ahead in life expectancy and population growth, and while the less developed majority of mankind, whose economy is still at an experimental stage in the world market, is lagging behind in life expectancy and population growth because of disease, poverty and ignorance, the dividing gap between them grows wider.

ii. Life Expectancy in Tanzania

Tanzania has decided to pull ahead in life expectancy. At the formulation of the Five-Year Plan of Development it was discovered that "a combination of poor nutrition and inadequate medical care and housing resulted in a life expectancy at birth of only 35 to 40 years".⁴¹ Hence, the

⁴⁰ Committee on Ageing "Selected References on Ageing: An Annotated Bibliography, 1955" quoted by Philip W. L. Cox, Education in Democracy, The Social Foundations of Education, Toronto, McGraw Hill Book Company Inc., 1961, p. 310.

⁴¹ The United Republic of Tanzania and Zanzibar, Op. Cit., p. 13.

Five-Year Plan formulated as one of its targets the improvement of the nation's average life expectancy in the following manner:

Finally, social structures will continue to be heavily influenced by the activities of the health services in their campaign against infant mortality and the endemic diseases. It is estimated that these activities, in fact, will raise the present life expectancy at birth of 35 to 40 years to about 50 years by 1980. Consequently, the 1980 age pyramid of population will be different from that at present, insofar as between now and 1980 the segment of the population below 16 years of age will grow faster than that above.⁴²

This passage deals with one important aspect of the social development of Tanzania, taking due account of the future average growth of 2.2 per cent, the rate which was estimated by the planners. (See Table VIII, p. 95.)

The population census of 1967 shows that Tanzania's population has increased by 34.6 per cent in the past 10 years. At the census of 1957 the population was given as 9,088,000 and at the last census of 1967 the population stands at 12,231,000. By 1992 the United Republic's population is expected to have doubled if the present growth rate is maintained. Until then Tanzania remains underpopulated and has room for millions more though the Government has not as yet set an ideal optimum number.

⁴² The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1st July, 1964 - 30th June, 1969, Volume I, General Analysis, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1964, p. 13.

Table VIII.-
The Evolution of Population

| | ACTUAL | | TARGET | |
|-------------------------|--------|------|--------|------|
| Year | 1954 | 1962 | 1970 | 1980 |
| Population (million) | 8.3 | 9.4 | 11.3 | 14.1 |

iii. Means of Assuring a Longer Life Expectancy

One of the basic needs of peoples in Africa, taken into account in assessing development priorities in the different countries, and the improvement of the standards of health, seems to have a very great impact. Since the Addis Ababa Conference in 1961 and that of Tananarive in 1962, people in Tropical Africa are making efforts to improve the existing health services. Tanzania is not lagging behind in improving the standards of health for its citizens.

In the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar research is carried out under EACSO in tropical medicine for bilharzia, malaria and elephantiasis control.⁴³

For, it is believed that improvement of health partly depends on the discovery of a better way of disease prevention and cure for the sick. Moreover, disease attacks men most successfully when their standard of general health is poor and the conditions under which they live expose them to a constant danger of infection. Low standards of general well-being come from lack of sufficiently nourishing food, close and frequent contact of healthy persons with sick people suffering from contagious disease, living crowded together in one small room, and so on. In view of the above, the

⁴³ UNESCO, Final Report of the Lagos Conference,
Op. Cit., p. 16.

National Plan provided for the following:⁴⁴

In the pursuit of improved standards of health for the citizens of Tanganyika increasing emphasis will be placed on the preventive aspects of medicine and the need to extend health services into rural areas in the activities of the Ministry of Health. These can be summarized in three sections, Health Centres, Hospital Services and Medical Training facilities.

It was decided, for instance, that the rural health centres would be the headquarters for the preventive health services in the countryside. There maternity and child welfare services, basic clinical services, a supervision centre for rural dispensaries and a temporary headquarters for environmental health services would be located. Projections were made as to the cost of all these services up to 1968/69. Arrangements were also made with UNICEF for equipment and transport.

Research into the existing African diets, with a view to obtaining a clearer picture of the shortcomings, is being attempted by special teams of workers. Conditions under which people work and live are being improved, pure water supply is being provided, increased production of food as well as its wise conservation is being taken care of.

During the Mid-term Appraisal, the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Development Planning was unable to assess progress in health conditions. Indirectly, however,

⁴⁴ The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Op. Cit., Vol. II, p. 118.

improvement of one aspect - the standard of general health - was indicated by the results achieved by better methods of crop husbandry, live-stock rearing and farming. For example, the population of cattle at the end of December, 1966, was estimated at 10,997,000, i.e. an increase of about 29.37 per cent over the 1963 figure.

Commenting on the fact that tea, maize, groundnuts and rice production was inadequate, Mwalimu Julius Nyerere told the National Assembly in 1966:

In almost all branches of production, therefore, the people of Tanzania have the right to feel proud and happy about their efforts in 1965. It was no small achievement to overcome the 35 per cent fall in the world price of our biggest single export commodity, sisal. It was an even bigger achievement that, during the same year, we were able to get through a period in which rice production was almost halved by bad weather, and maize production was inadequate for the same reason, without having to ask for outside help from any nation or international agency to meet this emergency. We did it ourselves this time [...]. Only the hard work of our people enabled us to surmount it. Clearly, we have come some way towards the position where we shall feed ourselves and also build up reserves which can be used against disaster, or made available to other peoples in time of famine.⁴⁵

Eventually, prevention of famine leads to improvement in life expectancy because death by famine, as it occurred in Mali in 1913-14 and in Ruanda-Burundi in 1943, where 36,000 perished,

⁴⁵ Mwalimu Julius Nyerere, Our Economy 1965-1967,
Op. Cit., p. 7.

can thus be avoided.⁴⁶

It is reasoned, however, that as far as the National Plan of Economic Development is concerned, the improvement in the life span puts an onus on the productive efforts of the nation. This onus "will be borne by a proportionally smaller active population".⁴⁷ The answer to that can be formulated in the following manner. Tanzania is now in its post-Arusha Declaration period. People are being educated and trained for socialism and self-reliance not only with respect to the tilling of the land, but also with respect to the socialist organization of labour:

The effect of such a policy would be to create a society with a wide scope for participation and experiment in the agricultural economy. The fact that all citizens will come into contact with the problems of agriculture should engender a scientific awareness - the necessity for fertilisers, irrigation, soil conservation and labour-saving devices being well known.⁴⁸

Because of the above mentioned "scientific awareness" and "labour-saving devices", the "onus borne by a proportionally smaller active population" for the service of the many will certainly not be beyond their capacity to handle.

⁴⁶ René Dumont, False Start in Africa, London, André Deutsch Ltd., 1966, 1967, p. 26

⁴⁷ United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Op. Cit., p. 13.

⁴⁸ Walter Rodney, "Education and Tanzania Socialism", in Idrian N. Resnick, Op. Cit., p. 78.

In conclusion, it may be asked how the target of life expectancy is related to the present system of education. In the last paragraph it is pointed out that Tanzanian socialism will remain for a long time agrarian in character.⁴⁹

In fact, there are already in Tanzania Village Settlements of a collectivised form of agriculture. In order to achieve a longer life expectancy in the Village Settlements as in all the rural areas, the crux of the health problem is the education of the majority of the people towards a consciousness of the need for betterment in living standards. The most important function of educators must, therefore, be to help the people to help themselves. This is what is meant by Education for Self-Reliance in relation to a longer life expectancy.

2. The Role of Education for Self Reliance in the Economic National Plan of 1964/80

The purpose of this section is to analyze the President's Paper on Education for Self-Reliance with respect to its integration in the National Plan. In order to bear in mind the link with the preceding, it should be recalled that, as a result of political influences, economic surveys and

⁴⁹ TANU, The Arusha Declaration and TANU's Policy on Socialism and Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p, 17. See also: Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, pp. 6/7.

manpower planning, the educational system in Tanzania at this moment has undergone tremendous changes. The particular educational change in question at this point is the one brought about by the President's Paper on Education for Self-Reliance. The aim of the President's Paper is to give a global viewpoint on the role of the system of education with respect to the National Plan of Nation-building.

In nation-building, education plays a very important and essential role. The setting of economic development depends on it. Cultural and social development also form an integral part. Therefore, in attempting to analyze the President's Paper, economic, cultural and social aspects of education must be taken into account. Consequently, this second section can be treated under the following two headings:

- (a) Importance of Education in the Setting of a National (economic, cultural and social) Development Programme
- (b) Education for Self-Reliance as an Educational Programme for the National (economic, cultural and social) Needs of Tanzania.

- a) Importance of Education in the Setting of a National Development Programme

The remarkable Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, held at Addis Ababa in

1961, was a turning point in the history of education in Africa in that, first, it gave education its proper place in economic and social development planning and, secondly, it established an inventory of educational needs and a programme to meet these needs.⁵⁰ The members of the Addis Ababa Conference agreed that, although education would have some value, even if it contributed nothing to economic development, nevertheless, in the present situation, it was, of course, most essential that education should play a central role in the economic development.

The economic aspect of education consists of its effect in increasing the productive capacity. It is a well-established theory among economists that "increases in the national income are attributed, not merely to the accumulation of physical capacity, but also to the improvement of human capacity through research, education, inventions, and the improvement of public health..."⁵¹ From the above assertion it seems that there is an interdependence of economic development and educational development. The educational system of a country, however, is an integral part of the country's overall plan for economic and social development,

⁵⁰ Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, 15-25 May, 1961, Final Report, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, pp. 24 and 27.

⁵¹ Conference of African States, 1961, Op. Cit.,
p. 9.

and as such it cannot be isolated from the whole. Although it is difficult to assess the proportion of the increase in production which is due to education, nevertheless education must be regarded as an essential investment in the country's economy.

In the inventory of educational needs, discussed at Addis Ababa in 1961, "Africanization of Education" was the theme reflected in the speeches of nearly all the delegates. These delegates spelled out their views on how curricula and teaching methods must be adapted to African conditions and interests at all levels.⁵²

In his address to the members of the Addis Ababa Conference, Professor Paul Mercier remarked that there were two basic requirements of independence: assuming one's place in the free world while still retaining one's special character. In the independent African countries, he said, education was in a state of "the rediscovery of a lost dignity [...] a renewal of continuity with the past" which for a time was scorned or unknown. He went on to say that, while economic needs are satisfied by the knowledge of present techniques, educational needs are satisfied not only by modernization but also by the rediscovery of traditional

⁵² Richard Greenough, Africa Calls [...] Development of Education, the Needs and Problems, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, 1962, p. 34.

cultures.⁵³

During the discussions which followed Professor Paul Mercier's address, African Ministers and Directors of Education laid emphasis on the development of "African Personality", and the rediscovery of "African heritage", to which an important place was to be allotted in education. They said:

An understanding of African customs, language, psychology and sociology [...] can do much to help the work of doctors, demographic experts, statisticians, historians, sociologists and other specialists [...]. The art forms that filled the leisure hours of our fathers must be revived [...] the old rituals and songs must be enriched with rhythms of modern dramas and the harmonies of absolute music. The dance and the incantations must be integrated with the riches of modern drama and the exquisite form of the ballet. The oral philosophy and history must blossom into a treasure of literature. The carvings of wood, the models in clay, the bronze creations must be nurtured in our schools as distinct contributions to the world heritage of art.⁵⁴

In conclusion it must be said that education in the poor African countries, in their attempt to promote economic, cultural and social development, does not offer an easy solution to educators. Both economists and educators are woefully ignorant of the exact relation between education and economic growth. Some look upon education particularly as a long-term investment. Others think that people need

⁵³ Paul Mercier, "Socio-cultural Factors and Programs for the Development of Education", in the Final Report of the Addis Ababa Conference, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, pp. 93/4.

⁵⁴ Richard Greenough, Op. Cit., p. 35.

only to be educated for economic development to take place. However, there is a need of research in the interdependence of education and economy, if both are to be planned in the light of fuller knowledge in order to produce the best results quantitatively and qualitatively.

b) Education for Self-Reliance as an Educational Programme for the National Needs of Tanzania

On 6 February, 1967, the National Executive Committee of the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU), which is the only political party in the country, issued the Arusha Declaration. This document elaborated two important policies for the Tanzania Government - socialism and self-reliance. Shortly afterwards, in March, 1967, there followed the Presidential address by Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere on Education for Self-Reliance. Since these two documents set the climate for change in the system of education and called upon agencies and ministries to organize themselves accordingly, this section of the second chapter of the present dissertation will be devoted to their analysis. The points for discussion will be:-

- i. The nature of the Arusha Declaration
- ii. The nature of the President's Paper on Education for Self-Reliance, and
- iii. The main points (economic, cultural and social) in the two Documents with respect to national needs.

i. The Nature of the Arusha Declaration

Arusha is the name of a small town in Tanzania, with a population of 32,348, situated at the foot of Kilimanjaro Mountain. On February 6, 1967, the National Executive Committee of the governing political party (TANU), which had met in Arusha from the 26-29 January, 1967, issued what is called the "Arusha Declaration" to the nation.

The nature of the Arusha Declaration consists in that it actually mobilizes the Tanzanian Government, and, consequently, its citizens, to a socialistic nation-building through self-reliance. Tanzanian socialism has been discussed for several years, to wit, since the creation of the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) in July 1954. In its constitution TANU incorporated, among others, the aim: "To ensure that this country shall be governed by a democratic socialist government of the people". At this point it was seen that the time had come for implementing, by a decree of the National Assembly, the official introduction of a socialistic government.

Self-reliance is the second keyword in the Arusha Declaration. Self-Reliance means that a Tanzanian must work his way towards a better life through his own efforts. He must face the problems of life and solve them, and not just sit back and wait till someone else does it for him. The basis of a person's improvement must be his own efforts.

ii. The Nature of the President's Paper on Education for Self-Reliance

After the Arusha Declaration, Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere wrote two booklets: Education for Self-Reliance and Socialism and Rural Development. Both of them aimed at explaining how socialism and self-reliance, as contained in the Arusha Declaration, were to be implemented. President Nyerere's Education for Self-Reliance attracted widespread attention and was discussed in a Conference on Education, held in Dar-es-Salaam in April 1967, attended by all education officials, and all the heads of secondary and primary schools, and college principals, under the chairmanship of the Minister of Education. In its recommendation, "the Conference endorsed wholeheartedly the aims of Education as outlined in the President's Paper on 'Education for Self-Reliance'".⁵⁵

The nature of the message of Education for Self-Reliance consists in the rediscovery of the lost dignity of agriculture and in giving it the highest social recognition and rewards. The chief educational objective of the system of Education for Self-Reliance is that education from primary

⁵⁵ Ministry of Education, Conference on Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Printpak Tanzania Limited, 1967, p. 3.

school through university must contribute to improving the standards of life in the rural areas where more than 96 per cent of the population is agricultural.⁵⁶

iii. The Main Points of the President's Paper,
Education for Self-Reliance

The aim of this sub-division is the analysis of the President's Paper on Education for Self-Reliance. It is obvious that analysis of anything involves a resolution of the whole into its constituent parts to find out their nature, proportion, function or relationship. The purpose of breaking up the President's Paper into its parts or main points is to discover their relationship with the set-up of the programme of nation-building in Tanzania, whose political philosophy is socialism and self-reliance and whose target is a quick rural development. Therefore, the main educational objectives discussed by the Paper hinge on three policy-making ideas:-

- aa) Education for socialism - Ujamaa
- bb) Education for self-reliance - kujitegemea
- cc) Education for rural development - maendeleo vijijini.

⁵⁶ Victor Kimesera, "Workers Education", in Idrian N. Resnick, Op. Cit., p. 242.

aa) Education for Socialism - UjamaaAfrican Socialism in general

The policy of socialism greatly influenced the new educational system introduced in Tanzania last year. However, it should be kept in mind that the socialism spoken of here is an African socialism. Although both African socialism and European socialism may be defined generally as "a system of communal ownership of the means of production, established for the purpose of making the distribution of income, wealth, opportunity and economic power as nearly equal as possible,"⁵⁷ African socialism is a traditional way of life of people who are community-centred, while European socialism is an ideology formulated by a few thinkers when industrialism required concentration of wealth.

It is, however, difficult to define, in sensu stricto, African socialism because it represents vast abstractions which have not, as yet, been analyzed by its exponents. African socialism is, in sensu lato, an attempt to find an ideology which will serve as a guide to the solution of economic and social problems on a day-to-day basis. In this sense, it is, as Paul E. Sigmund says in the introduction

⁵⁷ Carl A. Landauer, European Socialism, A History of Ideas and Movements, Los Angeles, University of California Press, 1959, Vol. I, p. 5.

to his book:

The socialism of the new nations is thus fed by anti-foreign feelings, by a passion for social equality, and by a desire for rapid economic development. It is influenced by the Marxist analysis of capitalism and the Leninist description of imperialism, but it does not accept the entire Marxist theory (the Klassenkampf = class struggle) as the basis of action.⁵⁸

Although the chief exponents of African socialism, such as Mboya, Nkrumah, Senghor, Sekou Touré and Nyerere agree that African socialism is different from European socialism or communism, nevertheless, they differ among themselves in explaining positively what African socialism really is, as Chandler Morse testifies:

Ideologically, the African Socialist countries considered here (i.e. Ghana, Guinea, Senegal, and Tanganyika) have chosen a middle road, lying somewhere between what they regard as the extremes of capitalistic organization, exemplified mainly by the United States, and of communist organization, chiefly exemplified by the USSR. But this middle road itself is rather wide ...⁵⁹

Léopold Sédar Senghor, for instance, certainly stands for a middle course between capitalism and communism.⁶⁰ He considers African Socialism as a reaction against capitalistic

⁵⁸ Paul E. Sigmund, ed., The Ideologies of the Developing Nations, New York, Frederick Praeger, 1963, p. 17.

⁵⁹ Chandler Morse, "The Economics of African Socialism" in William H. Friedland et al., African Socialism, Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1964, 1965, p. 36.

⁶⁰ Léopold S. Senghor, "African Socialism" in Paul E. Sigmund, The Ideologies of the Developing Nations, New York, Frederick Praeger, 1963, p. 245.

and communistic materialism - one that would integrate moral, if not religious, values with political and economic contributions of the two great revolutions.

Mr. Obafemi Awolowo, the Nigerian leader, does not agree with the way Nyerere explains African socialism (ujamaa = familyhood, brotherhood). He thinks the meaning of "brotherhood" is ambiguous, because the way it is understood by Tanzanians is not the same as that understood by the Fulani. Nevertheless, both Awolowo and Nyerere presumably accept the fact that African socialistic democracy is unique:

The thoughtful views of Awolowo and Nyerere reflect African awareness of the basic truths and values of democracy and the dignity of the individual man, which are not a western monopoly but date back to the philosophy of Buddha and Confucius. The task of making democracy work in Africa is the task of Africans.⁶¹

Social Political Thinking of Dr. Julius K. Nyerere

Philosophy leads to policy. Dr. Julius K. Nyerere's social political thinking has led to the formulation of the system of Education for Self-Reliance and also has singled him out as one of the most outstanding contemporary African statesmen, politicians and educators.

⁶¹ Vernon McKay, Africa in World Politics, New York, Harper and Row, 1963, p. 285.

Nyerere's belief in African forms of democracy is stimulating and the research of certain American scholars has confirmed that there is democratic freedom of discussion with Africa's single parties.⁶²

The democratic political thinking of Nyerere, although it shows certain resemblances to the democracy of ancient Greece, as outlined in Plato's Republic,⁶³ is, in fact, traditionally African.

The African concept of democracy is similar to that of the ancient Greeks, from whose language the word "democracy" originated. To the Greeks, democracy meant simply "government by discussion among equals". The people discussed, and when they reached agreement the result was "people's decision":

Mr. Guy Clutton-Brook, writing about Nyasaland, describes traditional African democracy as follows: "The elders sit under the big tree and talk until they agree." This "talking until you agree" is the essential of the traditional African concept of democracy.⁶⁴

Nyerere's democracy, by which he means a government by discussion as opposed to a government by force, and a government by discussion among people or their chosen representatives, as opposed to a hereditary clique, is the uniting power of a society of equals.

Equality of the members, according to Nyerere, is fundamental to any social grouping to which an individual

62 Vernon McKay, Op. Cit., p. 284.

63 William Callaghan, An Outline of Plato's Republic and Dialogues, Boston, Student Outlines Company, 1938, p. 13.

64 Julius K. Nyerere, "One-Party Rule", reprinted by Paul E. Sigmund, Op. Cit., p. 197.

belongs.

Thus the ideal society is based on human equality and on a combination of the freedom and unity of its members. There must be equality, because only on that basis will man work co-operatively. There must be freedom, because the individual is not served by society unless it is his. And there must be unity, because only when the society is united can its members live and work in peace, security and well-being.⁶⁵

Nyerere contends that the traditional African family has the above requirements⁶⁶ and, as such, it is a pattern of a social, political unit. He argues that, since the principle of sharing is basic to the harmonious family and is a practical recognition of equality, consequently every member of the social unit has the obligation to work in order to be able to contribute to the pool of things to be shared.

In his book, Freedom and Unity, in which he attempts to give an historical understanding of the development of Tanzania and of the philosophy which it is trying to practice, the talk on Ujamaa (familyhood) shows the originality of his political thinking which he describes as "African".

⁶⁵ Julius K. Nyerere, Freedom and Unity, Uhuru na Umoja, A Selection from Writings and Speeches 1952-65, Dar-es-Salaam, Oxford University Press, 1966, p. 8.

⁶⁶ Julius K. Nyerere, Socialism and Rural Development, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 1.

But we are "African Socialists", we operate in Africa and the road to our goal will be determined in large part by the economic and social conditions which now exist in this continent [...] we adopt it (African Socialism) because we have to move towards the socialist goal of human equality and dignity along the road which is appropriate to us.⁶⁷

The political philosophy of Julius K. Nyerere is baffling, not only to many western thinkers, but also to other African leaders, as, for instance, the case of Obafemi Awolowo testifies. Nonetheless it has been and is instrumental to the national unity and to both modern economic and social development in Tanzania. Of his study on ujamaa, Fred G. Burke concludes:

Ujamaa is more the product of an attitude of mind growing out of a colonial experience than it is an indigenous fountainhead of contemporary political theory. Nonetheless, it has supplied a convenient and powerful ideology which is evolving into a comprehensible, flexible, and dignified ethos for programs and policies that spring from the complex physical and psychological needs of an emergent and dynamic people.⁶⁸

Influence of Nyerere's Ujamaa Doctrine (Socialism) on Tanzania's Education System

It must, however, always be borne in mind that the prevailing social conditions in Tanzania are unique in that they have little in common with those in other African

67 Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., pp. 17/18.

68 Fred G. Burke, Tanganyika: "The Search for Ujamaa", in William H. Friedland et al., Op. Cit., p. 219.

socialistic States and are also quite different from those of European or American pluralistic societies. Concerning educational administration in pluralistic societies, Kandel writes:

The character of educational administration is thus determined in general by two factors - the theory of the State and the theory of education that is prevalent.⁶⁹

But concerning educational administration in a one-party State, such as Tanzania, one is prone to say with Dr. H. S. Stead:-

... the nature of educational system will depend on the nature of the society which establishes it. No society sets up a mode of education which will destroy it.⁷⁰

Therefore, the governing party's (TANU) policy on Socialism and Self-Reliance contains the moral values and philosophy of education of which Mwalimu Nyerere, as the President of TANU, is the exponent. He says in his Paper:

69 I. L. Kandel, The New Era in Education, A Comparative Study, Cambridge, Mass., Houghton Mifflin Company, The Riverside Press, 1955, p. 119.

70 Quoted by Belle Harris, "An Ideological Institute for Tanzania" in Idrian N. Resnick, ed., Op. Cit., p. 155.

Although we do not claim to have drawn up a blueprint of the future, the values and objectives of our society have been stated many times. We have said that we want to create a socialist society which is based on three principles: equality and respect for human dignity; sharing of the resources which are produced by our efforts; work by every one and exploitation by none. We have set out these ideas clearly in the National Ethic; and in the Arusha Declaration and in earlier documents [...] Most often of all, our Government and people have stressed the equality of all citizens [...] We are, in other words, committed to a socialist future and one in which the people will themselves determine the policies pursued by a Government which is responsible to them.⁷¹

The above text underlines socialism as the philosophical or ideological foundation of education in Tanzania. From now on, consequently, education has to be administered with respect to the principles of socialism concerning equality, living together, and working together for the common good:

Our education must therefore inculcate a sense of commitment to the total community and help the pupils to accept the values appropriate to our kind of future, not those appropriate to our colonial past.

This means that the educational system of Tanzania must emphasize co-operative endeavour, not individual advancement; it must stress concepts of equality and the responsibility to give service which goes with any special ability, whether it be in carpentry, in animal husbandry, or in academic pursuits. And in particular, our education must counteract the temptation to intellectual arrogance; for this leads to the well-educated despising those whose abilities are non-academic or who have no special abilities but are just human beings. Such arrogance has no place in a society of equal citizens.⁷²

⁷¹ Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, pp. 5/6.

⁷² Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., p. 7.

After stating what is expected to be achieved by the educational system of Tanzania, the President's Paper deals with basic elements in the 1966 system of education which either discourage assimilation of the social goals or encourage attitudes of inequality, intellectual arrogance and individualism.

First, a selective education, designed to meet the interests and needs of a very small portion (of those who entered the school system) was enabling only 13% of the primary school leavers to receive a place in a secondary school. Although the purpose of a primary school education was the preparation of pupils for secondary school, 87 per cent of the children who finished primary school failed to enter secondary school. The same process operated again at the next highest level, when entrance to university was the question at issue. Mr. Nyerere concluded:

Education now provided is designed for the few who are intellectually stronger than their fellows; it induces among those who succeed a feeling of superiority, and leaves the majority of the others hankering after something they will never obtain. It induces a feeling of inferiority among the majority and can thus not produce either the egalitarian society we should build, nor the attitudes of mind which are conducive to an egalitarian society. On the contrary, it induces the growth of a class structure in our country.⁷³

73 Julius K. Nyerere, Ibid., p. 10.

The second element discussed in the Government Paper concerned the disapproval of the idea of service related to status and the salary which a secondary or a university education is expected to confer upon its recipient. For, it had been observed that graduates and secondary school leavers were of the opinion that salary and status were a right automatically conferred on them by the degrees or certificates they obtained. They regarded education in the light of a man being too precious for the rough and hard life which the masses lived. Thus it was concluded, "the fact that Tanzanian education is such as to divorce its participants from the society it is supposed to be preparing them for",⁷⁴ made the school a separate entity from the society into which it should be incorporated.

The third point elaborated by Mwalimu Julius Nyerere in his Education for Self-Reliance is directed at the contempt shown by school-leavers for the traditional system, which they call Old-fashioned. For instance, the so-called "educated people" despised the wisdom and knowledge gained from experience, of the "uneducated" traditional farmers in their methods of farming and of making nutritious traditional foods. He concludes:

⁷⁴ Julius K. Nyerere, Ibid., p. 10.

Our present system encourages school pupils in the idea that all knowledge which is worth while is acquired from books or from "educated people", meaning those who have been through a formal education [...]. And from the school they acquire knowledge unrelated to agricultural life.⁷⁵

The fourth and last, but not least, point of the Government document discusses the failure of the school system to make the school population of healthy and strong young men and women contribute to the increase in output of the National Gross Product. It is argued that in Tanzania it is falsely assumed that these strong young men and women should be protected from rough work while they themselves consume the output of the older and often weaker people. Consequently, students have adopted the attitude of not spending any of their vacation time on a job which could improve the lives of the people but for which there is no pay - "jobs like digging an irrigation channel or a drainage ditch for a village, or demonstrating the construction and explaining the benefit of deep-pit latrines, and so on."⁷⁶

It is, therefore, the purpose of the educational system for socialism that the knowledge and strength of the secondary school and college population are to be related to the needs of the village community.

⁷⁵ Julius K. Nyerere, Ibid., p. 9, ff.

⁷⁶ Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 13.

bb) Education for Rural Development

The "problem of primary school leavers" caused great concern in Nyerere's social political thinking. The inherited colonial system left 87 per cent of the children who finished primary school and failed to enter secondary school with a feeling of inferiority and uselessness. Moreover, owing to the fact that they finished primary school at 12 or 13 years of age, they were too young to be useful citizens, even if they had wished it. On the other hand, owing to a limited financial situation, it would take a long time before universal primary education could be provided, and increasing the number of secondary school places was out of the question, and so very few would have an opportunity of going on to university. The Government document concludes:

This problem, therefore, calls for a major change in the content of our primary education and the raising of the primary school entry age so that the child is older when he leaves, and also able to learn more quickly while he is at school.⁷⁷

The above led to the formulation of two important principles in the educational system of Tanzania:

Education publicly provided must be general education for the masses.

Further education for a selected few must be education for the service of the many. Because there can be no other justification for taxing the many to give education to only a few.

77 Julius K. Nyerere, Ibid., p. 14.

The implication of these principles in practice boiled down to a radical change in the setting of the curriculum, syllabus and examinations. This was a serious consequence of the ideology of the system of Education for Self-Reliance, namely, formal education given at the primary, secondary and university levels must be a complete education in itself, at each of the three levels, not one leading to another per se:

Instead of the primary school activities being geared to competitive examination which will select the few who go on to secondary school, they must be a preparation for the life which the majority of the children will lead. Similarly, secondary schools must not be simply a selection process for the university, teachers' colleges, and so on. They must prepare people for life and service in the villages and rural areas of this country. For, in Tanzania, the only true justification for secondary education is that it is needed by the few for the service to the many.⁷⁸

Just as the National Plan for Development had to be implemented against the background of the Arusha Declaration, likewise the problem of primary school leavers had to be solved against this same background. Now, the Arusha Declaration put emphasis on agriculture as the basis of development.⁷⁹ Consequently, there was a need also to see agriculture introduced in schools in order to tackle the problem

78 Julius K. Nyerere, Ibid., p. 15.

79 TANU, The Arusha Declaration and TANU's Policy on Socialism and Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, pp. 14/17.

of the primary school leavers. Therefore, President Nyerere argues in his paper:

... Tanzania will continue to have a predominantly rural economy for a long time to come. And as it is in the rural areas that people live and work, so it is in the rural areas that life must be improved [...] this improvement in village life will not, however, come automatically [...] Our educational system [...] has to prepare our young people to play a dynamic and constructive part in the development of a society in which all members share fairly in the good or bad fortune of the group, and in which progress is measured in terms of human well-being, not prestige, building, cars, or other such things, whether privately or publicly owned [...] It must also prepare young people for the work they will be called upon to do in the society which exists in Tanzania - a rural society where improvement will depend largely upon the efforts of the people in agriculture and village development [...] It must produce good farmers.⁸⁰

The document suggests a number of ways how this can be achieved. It suggests that the content of primary education must be reconstructed so that primary school activities are a preparation for rural life; that the primary school entry age must be raised so that the child, when he leaves school, is old enough for agricultural work; that every school should have a farm which is an integral part of the school; that, finally, the school community should consist of people who are both teachers and farmers, and pupils and farmers.⁸¹ The document foresees, meanwhile, that for a school to

⁸⁰ Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., pp. 6-8.

⁸¹ Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., pp. 14-17.

arrange a yearly scheme of work to fit education for rural development, a considerable flexibility in the overall education system must be provided. Thus only will education for rural development be able to bring forth the required results.

cc) Education for Self-Reliance

Self-reliance has been dealt with very extensively in the Arusha Declaration. The Declaration concludes:

In order to maintain our independence and our people's freedom, we ought to be self-reliant in every possible way and avoid depending upon other countries for assistance. If every individual is self-reliant, the ten-house cell will be self-reliant; if all the cells are self-reliant the whole ward will be self-reliant; and if the wards are self-reliant the District will be self-reliant. If the Districts are self-reliant, then the Region is self-reliant, and if the Regions are self-reliant, then the whole Nation is self-reliant and this is our aim.⁸²

The policy of self-reliance, as stated in the Arusha Declaration, was widely misunderstood, not only by people overseas, but also by most of the politicians themselves in Tanzania. In his speech to the TANU Delegates' Conference, at Mwanza, in 1967, Mwalimu Julius Nyerere had to clear up some of the misunderstandings. He said, among other things:

82 TANU, Op. Cit., p. 18.

Self-reliance is a positive affirmation that we shall depend upon ourselves for the development of Tanzania, and that we shall use the resources we have for that purpose, not just sit back and complain because there are other things we do not have [...]. We are not saying to other people: "Please come and develop our country for us [...]" We do not believe that anyone else can develop our country for us and, even if they could, we would not be willing to give up the determination of our own policy [...]. But our real emphasis will be on using the skills that we already have, and on developing the natural resources that we now possess [...]. The emphasis of our development will be in the rural sector, and particularly in agriculture.⁸³

Mwalimu Julius Nyerere, on writing his paper on Education for Self-Reliance, intended that the acquiring of an attitude of self-reliance, which does not wait for the Government, or Local Council, or anyone else, to come and do this or that for people before they can make any progress, should be inculcated in the system of education. He wanted the school system to be organized in such a way as to produce self-reliant individuals who do not depend on anyone else for food, clothing or shelter. By so doing he probably had in mind to deal parasitism a deadly blow at its root, as William H. Friedland says:

⁸³ The Ministry of Information and Tourism, After the Arusha Declaration, Presidential Address to the National Conference of the TANGANYIKA AFRICAN NATIONAL UNION, Mwanza, 16th October, 1967, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 3.

Attacks on parasitism are very often directed against elements in African society capable of increasing production but unwilling to do so [...]. Thus leaders concerned with initiating the process of economic development or of increasing the standard of living of their people continually inveigh against the failure to work. In Tanganyika, leaders often engage in manual labour on community development projects to show that no shame attaches to getting one's hands dirty. In denouncing parasites, the argument is frequently heard that the obligation to labour is traditional. Julius Nyerere, for example, he said: "In traditional African society everybody was a worker [...]. Those of us who talk about the African Way of Life and [...] take a pride in maintaining the tradition of hospitality [...] do well to remember the Swahili saying, Mgeni siku mbili; siku ya tatu mpe jembe - or, in English, "Treat your guest as a guest for two days; on the third day give him a hoe." In actual fact, the guest was likely to ask for the hoe even before his host had to give him one - for he knew what was expected of him, and would have been ashamed to remain idle any longer."⁸⁴

This attitude of willingness to do manual - especially farm - work, is taken into account when the document says that school communities should become self-reliant. The President's paper goes on to say that all schools, but especially secondary and other forms of higher education, should contribute to their own upkeep; that they should be economic communities as well as social and educational communities. It underlines that each school should have, as an integral part of it, a farm or workshop, which provides the food eaten by the community and makes some contribution to the total

⁸⁴ William H. Friedland, "Basic Social Trends" in Friedland et al., African Socialism, Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1964, p. 17.

national income;⁸⁵ that students at university medical school or other post-secondary levels should do for themselves all their washing up and cleaning; that the student who shirks manual work or fails to do it properly should have his degree downgraded accordingly.

The last important aim of the system of Education for Self-Reliance is the integration of the school community into village life. The document recommends that "children learn from the beginning to the end of their school life that education does not set them apart, but is designed to help them become effective members of the community - for their own benefit as well as that of the country and their neighbours".⁸⁶ Moreover, the pupils should realize that they are being educated by the community in order that they may become intelligent and active members of the community. There is a need, therefore, of a meeting place for the members of the school community and those of the local non-school community where both will learn the meaning of living and working together for the good of all. Naturally this mutual access is provided by the village farm where all can learn new farming techniques and take pride in their achievement.

85 Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., p. 17.

86 Julius K. Nyerere, Ibid., p. 23.

A Reply to Some of the Objections

The remaining three pages of the document try to find a solution to some of the difficulties to be encountered in the implementation of this educational system. These difficulties concern, principally, examinations, division of the school year, and the level of academic learning.

With regard to examinations at the end of an educational phase, it is suggested that Tanzania should set an examination based on things taught and combine it with a teacher-and-pupil assessment of work done for the school and community. It is believed that this would be a more appropriate method of selecting entrants to secondary schools, university and teacher training colleges than the present, purely academic procedure.

The present school year, with its rigid division into terms and holidays, seems to be inappropriate to the new educational system because animals cannot be left unattended on the school farm during vacations, and crops require planting, weeding and harvesting at different seasons. In this respect, also, as in others, the Government should avoid laying down detailed, rigid rules. Each school, consequently, should have considerable flexibility.

The last objection concerns the academic level of learning. This is argued as follows: According to the Government White Paper, primary education is to be structured

on a basis of integration into village life of the 87 per cent of primary school leavers who do not continue their education. This carries a serious risk that the level of education attained by the 13 per cent who leave primary school and enter secondary school, will not be as high as is required by international standards. In consequence of this, university standards will surely be lower still. This problem is dealt with in the White Paper as follows:

Our sights must be on the majority; it is they we must be aiming at in determining the curriculum and syllabus. Those most suitable for further education will still become obvious and they will not suffer. For the purpose is to provide a different education - one realistically designed to fulfill the common purposes of education in the particular society of Tanzania. The same thing must be true at post-primary schools [...] (the object) must not be aimed at university entrance.⁸⁷

In conclusion of this section it can be said that the aim of Education for Self-Reliance as an educational programme for the economic and social needs of Tanzania consists chiefly in transforming the school community into a social unit oriented to a rural life in modern agricultural environments. With the integration of the school population into village life it is hoped that the Gross National Product will increase so as to affect beneficially the economic development of the country.

⁸⁷ Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., p. 17.

Table IX.-

School Population
Enrolments in Formal Education 1961 and 1966

| CATEGORIES | 1961 | 1966 |
|--|---------|---------|
| No. of children attending primary schools (Stds. 1-8) | 486,470 | 740,991 |
| No. of primary Std. 7 and 8 leavers | 11,740 | 52,574 |
| No. of pupils in Public Secondary Schools | 11,832 | 22,836 |
| No. sitting for School Certificate Examination | 1,603 | 4,747 |
| No. sitting for Higher School Certificate Examination (Form 6) | 196 | 768 |
| No. of teachers in training | 909 | 2,560 |
| No. of students entering the University of East Africa | 60 | 410 |
| No. of students attending post-secondary Education Overseas | | 2,325 |

Source: Annual Report of the Ministry of Education, 1966, Dar-es-Salaam.

Summary

The purpose of this second chapter was to consider education as a means of solving some of the economic and social problems, for instance the per capita income, sufficiency in manpower and life expectancy. For this reason it was necessary to analyze the three documents dealing with both economic and educational development.

Analysis of the Five-Year Development Plan, 1964-69, showed that although agricultural output has the largest share in the economy, the next largest contribution to the Gross Domestic Product is expected to come from the processing and manufacturing industries. But industries depend again on the output of agriculture for their raw materials. The conclusion was that since both agriculture and industries are in need of human capital also for their development, the training of manpower in Tanzania would have to be concentrated in both agricultural and industrial education.

The two documents, however, i.e., the Arusha Declaration and Education for Self-Reliance set the climate for the change in the system of education. Analysis of these twin-documents has shown that the nature of their message consists in the rediscovery of the lost dignity of agriculture among the so-called educated Africans. Consequently, the chief educational objective contained in Education for Self-Reliance

is that education from primary school through university must contribute to the improvement of rural areas where more than 96 per cent of the population is agricultural.

On analyzing the document: Education for Self-Reliance, it was obvious that, as an educational programme, it has for its aim the transformation of the school community into a social unit oriented to a rural life in modern agricultural environments. This education-agriculture involvement suggests that the content of education at all levels must be reconstructed so as to be agriculture-oriented. For instance, the content of the primary education must be organized in such a way that all school activities are permeated by agricultural education from the time children start schooling. At the time when the boys and girls leave primary school, they must be already good farmers.

Obviously, the involvement of primary education in agricultural development so as to affect beneficially the Gross Domestic Product poses many implications. Some of the implications resulting from the interdependence between the economic development and educational development, already at the primary education level, will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER III

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE ECONOMIC NATIONAL PLAN FOR THE QUALITY OF THE PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TANZANIA

In Chapter II of this dissertation much was said about the interdependence between economic development and educational development. Educational planning and administration can no longer be considered as something apart from economic affairs. There is an involvement of education in manpower projections, for instance, and in the rural economic productivity. The implications resulting from this involvement raise many problems at the educational planning level as well as at the educational administration level.

The purpose of the following reflections is to discuss the involvement of primary education, from the administration point of view, in agricultural development. Here planning, both of economic development and of education, is involved. Therefore, before discussing the implications resulting from the involvement of primary education in agricultural growth, it seems logical to indicate first one or two areas where planning problems raise the need of further studies to find preferable or, at least, flexible solutions. Consequently, this chapter will consider implications stemming from:

1. Involvement of Economic planning in educational planning;
2. Involvement of Primary Education in agricultural development.

1. Involvement of Economic Planning in Educational Planning

With the Arusha Declaration in 1967 education in Tanzania had again to undergo a substantial change in order to involve itself not only in manpower production but also in agricultural orientation at all education levels. This was not an easy thing to do. In 1964, the educational system had to be adapted to the manpower projections of the Five-Year Development Plan for the period 1964/69. Scarcely had the plan neared its end, in 1967, when the educational system was required to adapt, this time, to the TANU policy as stated in the Arusha Declaration. This leads naturally to the questions of who the educational planner is, and whether elaborate manpower statistics and projections should be the basis upon which to found an educational Plan. Consequently, this section is subdivided into:-

- a. Who the planner of education is, and
- b. Whether manpower projections are a basis of educational planning.

a. Who the Planner of Education is

The process of manpower planning in Tanzania has given rise to "quite a number of issues in the manpower/education field which have been the subject of hot debate".¹

In 1964, two manpower projections were supplied to the Ministry of Education² which defined jobs within the manpower planners' purview in the following manner:-

Category A - Jobs normally requiring a university degree
(These include what are usually termed the "professions" and certain jobs in the upper echelons of the government and private sector managerial ranks.)

Category B - Jobs which normally require from one to three years of formal post-secondary (Form 4) education/training. (These include medical personnel below the level of physician, and technicians in various fields, as well as primary

¹ Robert L. Thomas, "Problems of Manpower Development" in I. N. Resnick, ed., Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha, Longmans of Tanzania Limited, p. 107.

² Ministry of Development Planning, A Guide for the Ministry of Education in Preparing its Development Policies and Programmes, September 1963 (unpublished), and Directorate of Development and Planning, Survey of the High Level Manpower Requirements and Resources for the Five-Year Development Plan 1964/65 - 1968/69 (Thomas Report), Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1965.

and secondary school teachers without university degrees.)

Category C - Jobs which normally require a secondary school education for standard performance of the full array of tasks involved in the occupation.

This category includes skilled office workers and the skilled manual workers in the "modern crafts" (those involving precision metal working, electricity and electrical machinery).³

From the above text it can reasonably be concluded that the assumptions which had to be made by the manpower planners in allocating jobs into these three categories were essentially assumptions about the characteristics of the output of the educational system. In this context it is worthwhile noting the remark of Mr. A. C. Mwingira:

The position which has been reached in practice is that, given the data provided by the manpower surveys together with the acceptance of planning for the development of trained manpower as a key objective of the plan, further clarifications still seem to be needed regarding the assumptions which have been used in translating these data and objectives into targets for educational development, it seems, moreover, that the machinery for making such clarifications could be improved.⁴

³ R. L. Thomas, Survey of the High-Level Manpower Requirements and Resources for the Five-Year Development Plan, (1964-65 to 1968-69), Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1965, p. 2.

⁴ A. C. Mwingira et al., The Process of Educational Planning in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1967, p. 39.

Since Mr. Augustin C. Mwingira was at that time Assistant Chief Education Officer in the Planning Department of the Ministry of Education, when, in the above text, he asks for "further clarifications regarding the educational assumptions", presumably he had not been included in the machinery responsible for educational assumptions in the manpower planning. The question of who is responsible for educational assumptions in manpower planning leads naturally to the question of who the educational planner is.

In 1966 a crisis occurred among the University students in Dar-es-Salaam which, according to educators and politicians in Tanzania and outside, was the immediate cause of the present system of Education for Self-Reliance. Idrian N. Resnick has described it as follows:-

In 1966 legislation was drafted requiring students finishing their education at Form VI and above to the National Service. The main elements of the National Service Bill were that these students would serve for two years, six months of which would be spent at a National Service camp and eighteen months of which would be spent at their normal job. During the Camp months they would receive National Service pay and during the remaining eighteen months they would receive only 40 per cent of their contractual salary - the remainder going to the National Service. After many months of informal and formal discussions and much protesting by the students at having been singled out for conscription and subjected to financial sacrifices which they considered unjust, 393 students (323 from the University College) demonstrated against the bill on 22 October, 1966. At the end of the demonstration, which culminated at State House with the submission of a letter to the President, the students were ordered by President Nyerere to leave their institutions and return to their homes.⁵

In a petition read by the students' spokesman, the nearly 400 students, who demonstrated against the Government's compulsory National Service, outlined their objections to the scheme. At this point, almost for the first time, President Nyerere did some systematic thinking about educational policy. He writes in his Education for Self-Reliance:

... the events of 1966 do suggest, however, that a more thorough examination of the education we are providing must be made. It is now clearly time for us to think seriously about this question: What is the educational system in Tanzania intended to do - What is its purpose?⁶

⁵ Idrian N. Resnick, Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha, Longmans of Tanzania Ltd., 1968, pp. 9-10.

⁶ Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 5.

The result of the President's thinking was the new system of Education for Self-Reliance. Following the new policy statement on Education for Self-Reliance, the Minister of Education formed a permanent body to study and work on the implementation of the new policy.

As a result, the Minister directed that a conference on education be convened in order to bring together all the senior officers in the Ministry and in the field to

- a) acquaint and study the Arusha Declaration;
- b) study the new policy on Education for Self-Reliance;
- c) discuss and recommend means and ways how this new policy can be implemented in all schools and colleges.

This Education Conference of great historical significance was held at the University College, Dar-es-Salaam, from Monday, 10th, to Friday, 14th April, 1967. [...] The Conference endorsed wholeheartedly the aims of Education as outlined in the President's paper on "Education for Self-Reliance".⁷

For a research worker, here is an interesting case of education planning. Senior educational officials come together "to study and work on the implementation" of a new system of education which has been planned by the President of a country. Obviously the president could not afford to be a full-time education planning specialist. But President Nyerere is at the same time an educationist who in his ideas bears a great resemblance to President Jefferson of the U.S.A. Nevertheless, in order to fit the many scattered

⁷ Ministry of Education, Conference on Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Printpak, Tanzania Limited, 1967, pp. 2-3.

aspects of education together into a unified balanced system of education, any planner needs to be a specialist in two or more related subjects, and not simply a specialist in some particular aspect of education.

Moreover, the selected background papers at the Dar-es-Salaam Education Conference were all read by political leaders who certainly attach high importance to education development and planning.⁸ Nevertheless, it can be asked generally: should a politician dabble in education planning? No doubt, in developed countries and in most of the underdeveloped countries it is accepted among educational specialists and administrators that the educational planners need not, indeed should not, dabble in politics because of the attendant risks. But whether the politician should assume the role of an educational planner, for which he is neither fitted nor inclined, is a question which is not yet clearly answered.

The success of any educational planning depends largely on whether the educational specialists and political administrators accept the proposition that education planning requires normally a long-term view and a larger frame of reference than a single politician or economist can have. Educational planning cannot be everybody's business, because

⁸ Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., pp. 12-26.

the result will be either chaos or loss of educational integrity. In conclusion it must be said with Professor Philip H. Coombs:-

Without the broad participation and support of all interested parties - teachers, administrators, research workers, political leaders - no plan, however logically conceived, would stand a chance of being implemented. In reality, there is no single educational planner ensconced in a seat of power: all those who must share responsibility for the day-to-day conduct and for the aims of education must be, in a sense, educational planners.⁹

b. Whether Manpower Projections are a Basis of Educational Planning

It was pointed out in the preceding chapter on pp. 82-83 that the Education Conferences held in Addis Ababa in 1961 and at Tananarive in 1962, both agreed that economic development is highly dependent on skills of the sort taught in colleges to students of 15 years of age and upwards. The participants at the Tananarive Conference recommended manpower surveys as the basis "to decide how many university graduates should be trained and what their qualifications should be, to define the type of training necessary and to assess the resources needed by the university in order to

⁹ Philip H. Coombs, "Some Reflections on Educational Planning in Latin America", in Raymond F. Lyons, ed., Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning, Lessons from Latin America, Paris, UNESCO, 1965, p. 8.

provide this training."¹⁰ The Conference at Addis Ababa noted that "if education is to be integrated with economic development and to pay its way in purely economic terms, one of the principal changes must be a shift in curricula away from philosophic and literary studies towards natural science and its various applications".¹¹

From the above, the conclusion seems to boil down to the fact that estimates of manpower requirements can be a necessary criterion for educational planning. The writer thinks this should be accepted cum grano salis.

Besides being discussed at the African States' Education Conferences, the "manpower" factor in educational planning was later also discussed at several other education conferences by economists, educators and government officials.

In November 1963, a Study Group of participants from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (O.E.C.D.) member countries gathered in Paris to discuss the "Organizational Implications of the link between Education

¹⁰ UNESCO, The Development of Higher Education in Africa, Report of the Conference on the Development of Higher Education in Africa, Tananarive, 3-12 September, 1962, Paris, UNESCO, 1963, p. 54.

¹¹ UNESCO, Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, 15-25 May, 1961, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, p. 10.

and Economic Growth".¹² Again in 1964 the International Institute of Educational Planning organized a five-week seminar in Paris in April-May to learn how educational planning can best contribute to the process of economic growth in developing countries. This seminar brought together over 80 participants: educators, economists, sociologists and political scientists, including many key figures of national governments and international agencies. One third of the participants were from Latin American countries, most of the others were from Western Europe and the United States, but some came from Asia, Africa and the Soviet Union. Their discussions brought into sharper focus a variety of key questions and problems which confront educational planners in their attempt to link education to economic and social development.¹³

Among the countries which participated in the above seminars, it was noted that most of them took manpower requirements into account among other factors in drawing up

¹² O.E.C.D. Study Group in the Economics of Education, Organizational Problems in Planning Educational Development, Paris, O.E.C.D., 1966. The members of O.E.C.D. are Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America.

¹³ Raymond F. Lyons, ed., Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning, Lessons From Latin America, Paris, International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO, 1965.

programmes for schools. On the one hand the United Kingdom had educational planning which did not make use at all of manpower estimates in setting up educational plans. While, on the other hand, only Turkey based its educational development on forecasts of manpower requirements.¹⁴

As has already been pointed out on p. 134-5, Tanzania is another country which has based its education development on the high-level manpower forecasts. Introducing the Five-Year National Plan for Development in 1964, President Nyerere said, among other things:

... One of the major long-term objectives of our planning is to be self-sufficient in trained manpower by 1908. This means a carefully planned expansion of education. This expansion is an economic function: the purpose of the Government expenditure on education in the coming years must be to equip Tanganyikans with the skills and the knowledge which is needed if the development of this country is to be achieved. It is this fact which has determined Government educational policy.¹⁵

In order to reach the target for sufficiency in high-level manpower the Tanzanian Government decided: (1) to limit the primary school enrolment to 50 percent of the primary school age population; and (2) to allocate

¹⁴ O.E.C.D. Study Group in the Economics of Education, Op. Cit., p. 88.

¹⁵ Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere, "Address by the President to Parliament - 12th May, 1964", in the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, 1st July, 1964 - 30th June, 1969, Vol. I, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1964, p. xi.

post-primary educational facilities exclusively in accordance with manpower needs. Estimates were made for the period from 1965-1980 and for the Five-Year Plan 1964-1969. The reader will remember the unsatisfactory position of manpower at the commencement of the Five-Year Plan commented upon on page 85 of this dissertation. According to manpower planners it was estimated that during the period of the plan there would be a total increase of 110,000 wage jobs and 18,643 of these new jobs would be in high level occupations.¹⁶ As far as training of personnel was concerned, the various Ministries, i.e. of Agriculture, Health, Lands Settlement and Water Development, the Central Establishment Office and the Ministry of Regional Administration, were required to organize training courses for their own personnel. Technical education and teacher training were the responsibility of the Ministry of Education.¹⁷

It is understandable that before the other ministries, including the East African inter-territorial organizations, for example, East African Railways and Harbours, East African Income Tax Organization, East African Post and Telegraphs Administration, East African Common Services Organization and East African Airways, can get candidates to train for

16 Idrian N. Resnick, ed., Op. Cit., p. 7.

17 A. C. Mwingira et al., Op. Cit., p. 32.

their respective jobs, it is the function of the educational system as illustrated in Table IV on pp. 52-53 of this dissertation to supply a sufficient yearly output of the various types of high-level manpower. Consequently in planning an educational system responsible for supplying manpower, the educational planners are necessarily controlled by the manpower statistical information as far as school enrolment is concerned and by required manpower academic training as far as education level is concerned.

The "Manpower factor" in education planning has caused many conflicting issues in Tanzania which are not within the scope of this essay. Those issues serve as a warning against the limitations and pitfalls of basing education on manpower projections alone. However, according to Professor Frederick Harbison,¹⁸ estimates of manpower requirements are useful criteria for educational planning so long as they are used with caution and supplemented by other criteria. At the same seminar of 1964 Professor Barnes reminded the participants that all government decisions about education and training implicitly reflect manpower policies, as Guy Benveniste reports:

¹⁸ See in Philip H. Coombs, "Some Reflections on Educational Planning in Latin America", and also in Guy Benveniste, "Highlights of the Seminar", in Raymond F. Lyons, ed., Op. Cit., pp. 9 and 97-98.

The Latin American participants were divided on the relevance of manpower projections to educational planning in their countries. Those participants who had undertaken manpower studies were aware of their usefulness and also of their limitations. Other participants, particularly those more familiar with educational problems, tended to be skeptical.¹⁹

Tracing the discussions in the Addis Ababa and Tanagerive Education Conferences as well as the reports of the two Seminars in Paris referred to in this essay, there emerges unmistakably one important criterion for educational planning, i.e. "popular (or social) demand for education". Education is something more than the production of manpower as Dr. Hilliard observes.²⁰ Therefore, education must serve, Dr. Hilliard continues, not merely economic development, but also national development, which is a much broader concept and embraces important objectives well beyond economic growth. The Conference of Addis Ababa is even more emphatic in this respect. It says:

19 Ibid., p. 99.

20 See in Philip H. Coombs, Op. Cit., p. 10, in Raymond F. Lyons, ed., Op. Cit., p. 10.

Education does not have for its primary purpose a greater production of goods and services. The purpose of education is to broaden understanding, so that men may make the fullest use of their innate potential, whether spiritual, intellectual, or physical. Education would, therefore, have value, even if it contributed nothing to economic development. Education is listed among the universal human rights; it is necessary for the full development of the human personality, and is grounded in respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms.²¹

By "popular demand for education" is meant the choices of parents and pupils which would correspond to the pattern indicated by the economy. But since individual choices are more often than not motivated by tradition, considerations of social status, employment etc., rather than by a clear view of economic needs, more research is needed on the problem of how public demand for education can be brought into line with economic growth. This must not, however, be allowed to give rise to an organization in which those responsible for manpower forecasts work separately - quite the contrary. In most countries, not excepting Tanzania, there remains much, if not everything, still to be done in order to achieve the co-operation which is desirable between educators and economists in planning economic and educational development.

Summing up, as regards involvement of education in manpower requirements in Tanzania, there emerged the question

²¹ Conference of African States in the Development of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, 15-25 May, 1961, Final Report, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, p. 9.

of who the educational planner should be and also of whether manpower estimates should be the basis upon which to found an educational plan. Although public demand for education may determine the way these questions should be tackled, there is yet a new opportunity for expanding research in the vast problems of education planning arising from the interdependence between qualified manpower and current educational programmes. The problems are probably not so complicated in practice as they appear in theory. For, in developing manpower for economic growth, education need not neglect the development of the individual and other higher aims of society; in strengthening science and technology, it need not abandon or weaken the humanities.

2. Involvement of Primary Education in Rural Development

The aim of this section is to discuss the aptness of agricultural education at primary level. Since improvement in agriculture is only part of the sum-total of what gives satisfaction in rural life, it is necessary that the other factors should also be briefly mentioned. Both Agriculture and the other factors, such as beauty of the rural environment, transactions of the village market, economic elements of agricultural exchange, roads, engineering and building of highways and bridges, hygiene and sanitation in the open country, home crafts, food preservation and preparation,

maintenance of houses etc. and entertainments in the village, are included in what is called rural development. The discussion of this section will be conducted under the following headings:

- a) The historical background of rural education,
- b) The reliance on agricultural education at primary level, and
- c) The relevance of agricultural education at primary level.

a) The Historical Background of Rural Education

In order to appraise the difficulties encountered in planning primary education for rural development, it will be useful to introduce the argument by a short historical background on rural education in Tanzania:-

- i) Before Independence;
- ii) At the designing of the Five-Year Development Plan;
and
- iii) After the Arusha Declaration.

i) Historical Background of Rural Education Before Independence

The problem of rural development is an old story and is met with in every low-income country. In contemporary developing countries, for instance, those of Latin America, Asia and Africa, rural development has been discussed and

planned several times during the past forty years.

A study of East, Central and South Africa by the Second African Education Commission under the auspices of the Phelps-Stokes Fund, in co-operation with the International Education Board, in 1924, recommended adaptation of education to the needs of rural communities in the general development of Africa. It quoted General Ramstrong as saying:

The temporal salvation of the Negroes for some time to come is to be won out of the ground. Teaching and farming go well together in the present condition of things. The teacher-farmer is the man for the times. He is essentially an educator throughout the year.²²

The recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Report were never implemented because of the lack of a genuine appreciation of agriculture in the native opinion and of the lack of a constructive and enduring initiative on the part of the colonial educators. This subject came under consideration again in the Binns Report of 1952. At the Conference held in King's College, Cambridge, from the 8th to 20th September, 1952, the Group responsible for recommending education for rural development was criticized for having written as if it wanted pupils to remain on the land. In defense the group answered:

²² L. J. Lewis, Phelps-Stokes Reports on Education in Africa, New York, Oxford University Press, 1962, p. 29.

We do not suggest that all the pupils should become farm labourers. We want the African countryside to develop in much the same way as the English countryside. There you have a community which depends on the land: not only the farmers and those directly employed in agriculture, but also all those who live by supplying goods and services to farmers - professional and commercial men and so on. We want a healthy rural community life to balance the industrial community life.²³

In 1959, the United Nations Trusteeship Council sent a Mission to the Trust Territories of Tanganyika and Ruanda-Urundi for a reconnaissance before responsible government could be considered. In the report concerning the educational advancement in Tanganyika (now Tanzania) the Mission noted the following, among other things:

A strong agricultural bias in the curriculum in both the primary and the middle schools was given because some four-fifths of the pupils at the primary schools were expected to return to their village occupations; about the same proportion of pupils in middle schools did not go on to higher education and, with the expansion of the middle school system, the majority of them would also go into agricultural activities. The curriculum, with its emphasis on handwork and agriculture has only been in operation in the middle schools some three or four years but appears not to have been a great success in the majority of schools.²⁴

23 A. L. Binns, "Report of the East and Central Africa Study Group", in Africa Education, produced on behalf of the Nuffield Foundation and the Colonial Office, by Charles Batey, Printer to the University of Oxford, Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1953, p. 156.

24 UN Trusteeship Council, Rural Economic Development of the Trust Territories, Report submitted by the Food and Agriculture Organization Concerning Land Tenure and Land Use Problems in the Trust Territories of Tanganyika and Ruanda-Urundi, United Nations (Mimeographed) 1959, pp. 167-168.

Right after the FAO Mission had completed their survey, another Mission organized by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development made its appearance in Tanganyika. As far as agricultural education was concerned, the Mission noted that the place of agricultural instruction in the general educational system was a matter of some controversy in Tanganyika. Agricultural teaching in the Middle Schools was not well received by many Africans and was widely held not to lead to any very satisfactory practical results. The Mission observed:

Nevertheless, the fact remains that the greatest part of African population will continue to live by agriculture and animal husbandry, and that as the school population at levels above Standard IV increases, an increasing part will consist of persons destined to make their living from the land. The Mission, therefore considers that the links between pupils in Standards V-VIII and the land should be maintained.²⁵

Several reasons have been given why agriculture in schools during the colonial period met with little success, if any at all. The most obvious causes of these unfortunate failures of agricultural education were due to the neglect of government and mission systems of education in that they lacked organization and supervision.²⁶ It has been explained

²⁵ The Economic Development of Tanganyika, Report of The Mission Organized by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, Baltimore, the Johns Hopkins Press, 1961, 1963, p. 314.

²⁶ L. J. Lewis, Op. Cit., pp. 22, 90 and 161.

also that as far as agricultural instruction was concerned, the difficulty had been the lack of sufficiently qualified staff to teach the course. In 1956, for instance, in approximately 232 middle schools, there were eighty-five teachers only who had gone through an agricultural course at Ukiriguru or Tengeru.²⁷

As was pointed out earlier in the course of this dissertation, with the rising of political awareness, a great number of protests were received from Africans regarding the racial educational systems which tended to provide the Africans with an inferior level of education. The provision of agricultural education in the African Education only was assumed to be a device for limiting the teaching of the more academic subjects. Consequently, the United Nations Mission was informed that:

African students from Tanganyika attending Makerere College, Uganda, very often had difficulty following the courses because of insufficient secondary education and often their inadequate knowledge of English. Generally, Tanganyika students at Makerere, needed one or two years of general courses and special instruction in English before they were able to catch up with other students.²⁸

27 UN Trusteeship Council, Op. Cit., p. 168.

28 Ibid., p. 169.

ii. Rural Development as Conceived in the
Five-Year Plan 1964/69

At the formulation of the Five-Year Plan for the period 1964/69, although agricultural education for a better and increased production was foreseen, no provision was made for agricultural education in primary schools. The general policy of developing rural areas was expressed in the following manner:

The Government's policy for developing rural production is guided by recommendations formulated in 1961 by a World Bank Mission in its report on the economic development of Tanganyika. This policy consists in following a two-fold approach in agriculture via the improvement approach and the transformation approach. [...] The improvement approach requires continuing, widespread and co-ordinated action by community development staff and extension services to change individual behaviour and to teach technical improvements...²⁹

The changing of individual behaviour and the teaching of technical improvements was to be effected by educating the adults, according to the words of President Nyerere.³⁰

President Nyerere argued that the Tanzanian children of school age at the time of launching the Plan would not have an impact on the economic development for five, ten, or even twenty years, while the attitudes of the adults in, for

²⁹ United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Op. Cit., Vol. One, p. 14.

³⁰ United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Op. Cit., Vol. One, pp. xi-xii.

instance, Sukumaland, had an immediate impact.

This is the reason why a substantial proportion of the \$6,026,000 proposed for agriculture, forests and wild life development were allotted to the training of practising farmers in various Training Centres.³¹ The sum of \$5,000,000 was put aside for primary education "to assist Local Authorities in converting their primary school systems to the seven-year course and to provide for controlled expansion of the Lower Primary School".³² Nothing was provided for financing the training of agricultural teachers or the buying of agricultural tools. Agricultural education at primary level was simply not discussed.

iii. Rural Education After the Arusha Declaration

The second chapter of this dissertation³³ tried to define, among other things, the nature of the Arusha Declaration as nothing else than a strong self-determination of the Tanzanian Government and its citizens to develop the natural resources that they now possess, particularly in agriculture, using the skills that they already have along socialist

³¹ United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Op. Cit., Vol. Two, p. 24.

³² United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Op. Cit., Vol. One, p. 67.

³³ Ut supra, p. 106.

lines. The conditions for such a development were stated to be hard work and intelligence:

Unintelligent hard work would not bring the same good results as the two combined. Using a big hoe instead of a small one; using a plough pulled by oxen instead of an ordinary hoe, the use of fertilizers, the use of insecticides; knowing the right crop for a particular season or soil, choosing good seeds for planting; knowing the right time for planting, weeding, etc.; all these things show the use of knowledge and intelligence. And all of them combine with hard work to produce more and better results.³⁴

It is obvious that knowledge of the above things and their intelligent use cannot be achieved without training. Since formal education in schools is the customary method of acquiring knowledge of those things and for training in their intelligent use, it seemed fitting to the tenor of the Arusha Declaration that the educational system, even at primary level, should be re-arranged in such a way that it prepares "good farmers".³⁵ To achieve this, an Education Conference was held in Dar-es-Salaam in the first half of 1967, in which a syllabus with much agriculture was composed for the various levels of education.³⁶

³⁴ TANU, The Arusha Declaration and TANU's Policy on Socialism and Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 15.

³⁵ Julius K. Nyerere, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1967, p. 8.

³⁶ Ministry of Education, Conference on Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Printpak Tanzania Limited, 1967, pp. 3-12.

b) Reliance on Agricultural Education at Primary Level

The Arusha Declaration has pointed out that the Tanzanian Government and people made a big mistake in putting emphasis on money and industries as a basis for the Five-Year Development Plan. But then, on the one hand, subsequent events showed that many of the Development Plan targets could not be reached because insufficient outside help, both financial and technical, had been received.³⁷ On the other hand, however, experience showed that Tanzanians could do more for their own development than they had thought possible.

These facts are well-known to all of us. The parts of our Five-Year Development Plan which are on target, or where the target has been exceeded, are those parts which depend solely upon the people's own hard work. The production of cotton, coffee, cashewnuts, tobacco and pyrethrum has increased tremendously for the past three years. But these are things which are produced by hard work and the good leadership of the people, not by the use of great amounts of money.³⁸

From the above text, the reason is clear why the Government of Tanzania puts much reliance on agricultural production. Since education plays an important positive role in bringing about agricultural growth especially in the

³⁷ Ministry of Information and Tourism, Our Economy 1965-1967, Speech by the President Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere to the National Assembly June 13, 1966, Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, p. 15. See also TANU, the Arusha Declaration, p. 11.

³⁸ TANU, Op. Cit., p. 16. See also Ministry of Information and Tourism, Op. Cit., p. 15.

early stages of development, President Nyerere, in his paper on Education for Self-Reliance, has ordered that education in Tanzania must produce good farmers.³⁹ Consequently, the Conference on Education for Self-Reliance "resolved that the major aim in the primary school should be to prepare the child for life in his community (which, for the most part, would be a rural peasant community) and to train him for a life of service to that community".⁴⁰ What the members of the Dar-es-Salaam Education Conference agreed upon to be the role of the primary school was the application of the principle of "a complete education in itself at every educational level" laid down by President Nyerere:

The implication of this is that the education given in our primary schools must be a complete education in itself. It must not continue to be simply a preparation for secondary school. Instead of the primary school activities being geared to the competitive examinations which will select the few who go on to secondary school, they must be a preparation for life which the majority of the children will lead.⁴¹

Since the Arusha Declaration put much emphasis on agriculture and asked the government to see to it that people

39 Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., p. 8. See also in Appendix 3 more relevant texts on Agricultural Education at primary level taken from the Paper on Education for Self-Reliance.

40 Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., p. 5.

41 Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., p. 15.

are educated and trained in modern methods of agriculture,⁴² naturally the members of the Dar-es-Salaam Education Conference had no other alternatives than to think out a way in which agricultural education could be given in primary schools. They resolved that:

... all subjects in the primary school should be related to agriculture and that where possible every school (should) have a school farm where local cash and food crops should be grown and modern farming techniques practised with the help and advice of the local agricultural extension officer.⁴³

In conclusion, taking into account all that has been discussed so far, it can be said that Tanzania has put much reliance on agricultural education at the primary level in the hope that it will contribute to agricultural growth. Nevertheless, it can be asked to what extent agricultural education at primary level is relevant to agricultural development.

c) The Relevance of Agricultural Education at Primary Level

Modern civilization has made the school curriculum so exclusively devoted to the literary and other conventional elements of the school program as to cause most native

⁴² TANU, Op. Cit., p. 17.

⁴³ Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., p. 5. Relevant texts on agricultural education at primary level from the Report of the Dar-es-Salaam Education Conference will be found in Appendix 4.

Tanzanians to think that agriculture was not really important. At the moment, perhaps there is no more vital problem of education in Tanzania than that of helping the government and the people responsible for policy-making to understand the present younger generation and especially how to bring about a genuine appreciation of agricultural education at the various education levels. The scope of this section of the dissertation is to discuss the relevance of agricultural education at primary level. At the outset, certain definitions are necessary. Therefore, the section is subdivided into

- i. the meaning of "Education at Primary Level";
- ii. the type of Agricultural Education Relevant for Primary Schools.

- i. The Meaning of Education at Primary Level

In educational matters each country applies its own policies through its own administrative agencies and although it uses the same terminology as other countries, it applies to them different meanings. Thus even education differs in meaning not only from period to period but what is more from one country to another.

Generally speaking, education is a process whereby new knowledge is transmitted or acquired by man. Insofar as it is a process of transmitted new knowledge, John Dewey defines education as "a fostering, a nurturing, a cultivating

process".⁴⁴ But insofar as it is a process of acquiring new knowledge "education is not infrequently defined as consisting in the acquisition of those habits that affect adjustment of an individual and his environment".⁴⁵ In the following discussion the writer will use the term education as denoted by John Dewey in the above definition. To the receiver, education in its broad sense is a perceived experience, a new knowledge "which leads to a change in future behaviour patterns - both external behaviour patterns such as physical action, and internal behaviour patterns such as cognition, reflection, and other mental processes".⁴⁶

What is the meaning of "at primary level"? According to the 1962 Education Ordinance of Tanzania "primary school means a school providing instruction during the first eight years of formal education with a syllabus approved by the Chief Education Officer".⁴⁷ Up to January 1968 the primary system has already undergone a big change:

⁴⁴ John Dewey, Democracy and Education, New York, The Free Press, 1916, 1966, p. 10.

⁴⁵ Ibid., p. 46.

⁴⁶ Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., "Education and Agricultural Growth: The Role of Education in Early-Stage Agriculture" in C. Arnold Anderson et al., eds., Education and Economic Development, Chicago, Aldine Publishing Company, 1965, p. 202.

⁴⁷ Education, Chapter 446 of the Laws (Principal Legislation), Dar-es-Salaam, Government Printer, 1962, p. 3.

Immediately after independence the primary system was changed from a 4.4 system (I-IV Lower Primary, V-VIII Upper Primary) to a 4.2.2 system (I-IV Lower Primary, V-VI Extended Primary, VII-VIII Upper Primary), and with the introduction of the Five-Year Plan to a 4.3 system (I-IV Lower Primary, V-VII Upper Primary) - this last reorganization should be fully effective in January 1968.⁴⁸

As by now the change-over to a seven- instead of an eight-year primary school system is completed, "education at primary level" in Tanzania means the process of assimilating new knowledge by youngsters of seven to fourteen years of age through Standard I - VII. With genuine agreement on the importance of the ordinary primary school subjects, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, languages (Swahili and English), Geography, history and civics, hygiene and character, the Tanzanian policy makers have singled out agriculture and domestic science as a priority in the syllabus of the primary school.⁴⁹ While it is not advisable to teach those subjects irrespective of, or in isolation from, the pupils' environment, it is also important to understand that, in linking ordinary primary school subjects with agriculture in the rural

⁴⁸ Solomon N. Eliufoo, "The Aims and Purposes of Tanzanian Education since Independence" (Excerpts from the Speech delivered by the Hon. S. N. Eliufoo, M.P., Minister for Education, United Republic of Tanzania, to the Conference on the Role of the University College, Dar-es-Salaam, in Socialist Tanzania, 11 March 1967) in Idrian N. Resnick, ed., Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha, Longmans of Tanzania Limited, 1968, p. 35.

⁴⁹ Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., p. 5.

communities, there are certain things which are possible and other things which are not possible for the pupils to assimilate.

ii. The Type of Agricultural Education
Relevant for Primary Schools

The agricultural orientation of rural primary schools has been viewed by the Tanzanian Education policy-makers as an adaptation of the rural child to his environment, and of education for life. This seems to be a sound principle. The part that primary school teachers are expected to play in this process of agricultural orientation is to help the child already at school to apply basic arithmetic and science, for example, towards an understanding of plants and animals of the locality as well as an understanding of the problems facing the local community or making use of the existing resources. But the information given concerning agricultural orientation will only be understood and assimilated by the rural child to the extent that his or her mental capacity allows. Because whatever is perceived, by intellect or by sense organs, is understood according to the manner and capacity of perception. (*Quid quid percipitur secundum modum percipientis percipitur* - whatever is perceived is understood according to the nature of the one who perceives.)

There are levels of understanding the same thing, because there are levels in the capacity and manner of perception

of the same thing in various individuals. Hence there are levels of cognition or knowledge, according to levels of education. In order, therefore, to be able to tell how much agricultural information a primary school boy or girl can assimilate, one must be clear about the levels of education relevant for agriculture. This last essay of the dissertation will, therefore, be discussed under the following headings:

- aa. Levels of education relevant for agriculture;
- bb. Agricultural Education Relevant for Primary Schools;
- cc. Appraisal of the agricultural education at primary level in Tanzania.

aa. Levels of Education Relevant for Agriculture

There are two major types of education: formal and informal. Since primary school education belongs to formal education, the major subdivisions of formal education grouped according to institutional medium, level or content of instruction, and characteristics of recipients, are: primary education, normally in Tanzania for age-group 8-14; secondary (plus vocational, extension, or technical) education, normally in Tanzania for age-group 15-21 after primary school; college and university (diploma, undergraduate, graduate or even university adult) education, normally in Tanzania for age-group

21 plus - after some years of secondary training.

Consequently, there are, according to Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., four areas in which formal education can be considered to affect agricultural progress:

First, the education of the farmers. By farmers I mean those persons who work the land to grow crops, including owner-operators, tenants, laborers, and unpaid family workers. Second, the education of those serving farmers directly, such people as extension agents, district agricultural officers, community development experts, and so forth. Third, the education of those serving farmers indirectly; businessmen who buy and sell goods produced or used by farmers, manufacturers who produce items used by farmers in production, etc. Fourth, the education of those who are leading the farmers and/or who are making policies which affect farmers. In the latter category, of course, there are times when those who are the leaders of farmers are not necessarily those who are making the policies affecting the farmers.⁵⁰

Except for the first level, i.e. the education of the farmers, all the other agricultural education levels presuppose in the recipients at least a secondary, and in some cases a university education. In very rare cases would a completed primary education only suffice for the subsequent agricultural education in those top areas.

Formal basic education required for training good farmers can be given either at the primary school to pupils of 8 - 14 years of age, or to adults of 15 or more years of age. The content of this education has already been discussed on page 162.

⁵⁰ Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., Op. Cit., p. 204.

An education of this kind provides the individual farmers with infrastructure skills such as reading, writing and reckoning, which facilitate or improve further assimilation of agricultural knowledge. These infrastructure skills (comparable to roads, bridges and dams of a country) are the individual's overhead capital which contribute to the acquisition of a greater efficiency in decision-making and a greater incentive to further study useful for increased agricultural production:

For example, the ability to keep records of one's farm operations and to make simple calculations in order to perform simple kinds of budgeting are extremely useful devices enabling a farmer to determine optimum factor combinations, to reduce costs, and to increase output.⁵¹

Thus an adult with the basic general education hitherto discussed, normally is able to acquire an agricultural education which provides him with the aptitude for self-discovery of new knowledge concerning the operation of his own farm, and with an awareness of the importance of decision-making in all respects of rural life. With primary school pupils the case is a little different.

bb. Agricultural Education Relevant for Primary Schools

Basic education or literacy essentially transmits the same body of general knowledge and skills both to primary

⁵¹ Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., Op. Cit., p. 209.

school pupils and to adult farmers. On the one hand, adult basic education disseminated via extension courses enhances more readily receptivity to, and immediate practice of, new ideas in the control of one's own destiny. On the other hand, basic education at primary school level, although it meets with an immediate receptivity, rarely is put into immediate practice. It is like a planted seed which takes a long time to germinate, a much longer time to reach maturity and bear fruit. In this case it may be asked what kind of agricultural education should be transmitted at primary level that will, in the long run, bear the expected fruit? The cases of Brazil⁵² and Ghana⁵³ show that as regards the content of agricultural education at primary level, there are two major avenues for education of future agricultural producers: extension education and rural primary school agricultural orientation.

Extension education is normally an out-of-school educational process. This, however, can also take place while

⁵² Alvara Chaparro, "Education and Training for Agricultural Development" in Raymond F. Lyons, *Op. Cit.*, p. 76. See also: Educational Studies and Documents No. 33: Secondary Technical and Vocational Education in Underdeveloped Countries, Paris, UNESCO, 1959, p. 11.

⁵³ Educational Studies and Documents No. 33: Secondary Technical and Vocational Education in Underdeveloped Countries, Paris, UNESCO, 1959, p. 24.

the pupil is still at school, as in the case of Tanzania.⁵⁴

The same sort of thing has also been tried in other places:

Vocational or practical agricultural schools have often been tried as a means of training future farmers. Such schools differ widely in the age groups of their pupils (from 12 to 18), in length of training (one to four years), in entrance requirements (from three to eight years of primary education), in type (boarding and day schools), in curricula, in size, and even in wealth.⁵⁵

A successful farmer must be both a good technician and a good businessman. In order to produce good farmers via extension education, three major kinds of knowledge are required.⁵⁶

(1) Knowledge about new inputs which are available and which will in fact produce favourable results: new seeds, varieties, breeds of animals, animal feeds, fertilizers, pesticides, sprays, farm implements and equipment (mobile and immobile); food inputs which will improve the nutritional level of the farm family as preventive health measures; and also other kinds of health measures.

(2) Knowledge about new techniques of production: time and technique of planting (depth, elevation, watering, drainage, and spacing); maturation and protection of crop or animal (weeding, spraying, feeding, fertilizing plus timing and rate of application); harvesting, culling, weaning, feeding and fattening, inoculation, general medication (spraying, dipping, vaccinating, pills); and crop rotation, cover, forage, soil conservation.

⁵⁴ Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., p. 6.

⁵⁵ Alvarro Chaparro, Op. Cit., p. 77.

⁵⁶ Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., Op. Cit., p. 212.

(3) Knowledge how to economize in production and marketing (i.e. the farmer's net return or maximum output for minimum cost). In production the farmer requires knowledge about how best to combine factor inputs and the optimal combination of output mix. (The farmer should have an idea of the process which effects a change in money income and a change in the price of goods.⁵⁷) In marketing the farmer needs knowledge about new and improved techniques of marketing such as how to sell, how to prepare for market (grading, quality control, processing, packing, storing, transporting) and how to secure accurate price information.

The first two are the technical aspects of farming; the third largely involves the economic aspects of farming. Tanzania's policy makers would like to see many of the above topics dealt with at primary education level.

The second major avenue for formal education of the farmers is the primary school agricultural orientation. This consists in developing a genuine appreciation of agriculture and a recognition of its vital contributions to the life of the community. In support of the above statement the words of General Armstrong are quoted again here:

⁵⁷ Paul A. Samuelson et al., Economics, An Introductory Analysis, Toronto, McGraw Hill, 1966, p. 479.

The temporal salvation of the colored race for some time to come is to be won out of the ground. The negro race will succeed or fail as it shall devote itself with energy to agriculture and mechanic arts or avoid these pursuits, and its teachers must be inspired with the spirit of hard work and acquainted with the ways which lead to material success. Teaching and farming go well together in the present condition of things. The teacher-farmer is the man for the times; he is essentially an educator throughout the year.⁵⁸

In order to instil in the hearts of the primary school pupils a genuine belief in agriculture, it is necessary to use every school activity that can be enlisted. Foremost, the primary school teachers must have a genuine belief in agriculture. Secondly, the tenor of the school must arouse in its members a strong interest in gardening, farming and tree-planting. Thirdly, the three R's must be adapted to agricultural pursuits and to rural community life. For instance:

The adaptation of the teaching of arithmetic to agriculture: Various calculations with regard to the food crops of the community: number of families having crops of various kinds, comparisons of the amounts of different cereals and vegetables; the length of time taken to consume the crop; the amount sold; the value of the crop; the amount of water in plants, the extent of the soil or humus; the importance of varying crops (proportion of the tribe to the

⁵⁸ General Armstrong, quoted in L. J. Lewis, Op. Cit., p. 97.

nation); value of domestic animals and their life (chickens, goats, sheep, cows, dogs, cats, etc.).

The adaptation of reading and writing to agriculture:

Pupils of Primary schools in upper standards may profitably be given reading and writing material relating to garden, farm, the life of domestic animals, nutritious foods, drawn from magazines, bulletins, and books describing rural life not only in Tanzania but also in other parts of the world where agriculture has received proper recognition, such as Canada, Denmark, China, United States of America, Brazil, Malagasy, West Indies, etc.

Maintenance of gardens and farms and the rearing of domestic animals: Pupils should never be made to share in these activities as punishment or merely for payment of expenses at the school. Forced agricultural labour for pupils who have already had hard work on the farm will obviously only deepen their dislike for it. Teachers must attempt to get pupils interested in manual work by involving themselves in it, for instance by surveying the gardening, farming and marketing operations in the surrounding area and by taking an active part in developing the school farm.

The above description of the basic agricultural orientation attempts to convey the quality of agricultural education at primary level, which has been effective and

efficient at Tuskegee Institute⁵⁹ among the American Negroes of the rural districts and in Barbados, West Indies⁶⁰ and has been suggested by the long and useful experiences at the Roman Catholic Agricultural College of Honduras in South America. But any extensive reliance on agricultural education at primary level not only would encounter many difficulties but also would in the end be ineffective and detrimental.

cc. The Appraisal of the Agricultural Education
at Primary Level

The following discussion does not aim at evaluating primarily the agricultural education of Tanzania, because this research of comparative education is not based on any data of a follow-up study. But the purpose of the appraisal is to discuss theoretically first, the legal planning of education at primary schools in Tanzania; second, the content of that education according to agreed-upon norms; and third, the economic value of agriculture in primary schools as economists would see it.

The legal planning of Education in Tanzania. According to the tenor of the Education Ordinance of 1961 educational planning is within the jurisdiction of the Minister of

59 L. J. Lewis, Op. Cit., p. 31.

60 Harold G. Bayne, Principal of the Teacher Training College, Barbados, Personal Correspondence with the Author, April, 1968.

Education.

The Minister shall, in accordance with the powers conferred and the duties imposed upon him by this Ordinance, be responsible for the promotion of education and for the progressive development of schools in Tanganyika.⁶¹

In fact, the Chief Education Officer, sitting in committee with his assistant chief education officers, constitutes a de facto educational planning commission.⁶² Similarly, Local Education Authorities count among their functions the responsibility for submitting to the Minister plans for the promotion and development of education and for carrying out such plans when approved by the Minister.⁶³ Tanzania legally recognizes also the rights of parents to have a say in the promotion and development of education as a matter of general principle.

In the exercise and performance of all powers conferred and duties imposed upon them by the ordinance, the Minister and Local Education Authority shall have regard to the general principle that so far as is compatible with the provision of efficient instruction and training and the avoidance of unreasonable public expenditure, pupils are to be educated in accordance with the wishes of their parents.⁶⁴

61 Education Chapter 446 of the Laws (Principal Legislation), 1962, p. 4.

62 Report of the UNESCO Education Planning Mission for Tanganyika, June to October, 1962, Paris, UNESCO, 1963, Chapter 12.

63 Education Chapter 446 of the Laws (Principal Legislation), 1962, p. 5.

64 Ibid., p. 4.

In spite of all the legislation, there has been a conflict of competence for educational planning among the ministries in 1964, notably the Treasury, the Directorate for Development Planning and the Ministry of Education.⁶⁵ Again, prior to the Conference on Education for Self-Reliance, held at the University College of Dar-es-Salaam in 1967, there is no indication that the Local Education Authorities and parents were asked to express their opinion. These facts increase the importance of devising some equitable machinery for testing public demand in educational planning in order to ensure parents' rights for the required education of their children.

The content of education at primary level according to universal consensus: Education given at the primary level all over the world is considered "basic" in the infrastructure sense or in the sense of a "social overhead capital". The Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec says that primary school education "must furnish each individual with the intellectual tools that will help him to profit fully from subsequent school courses and from the lessons of life itself".

⁶⁵ Robert L. Thomas, "Problems of Manpower Development", in Idrian N. Resnick, ed., Op. Cit., p. 106. See also A. C. Mwingira et al., The Process of Educational Planning in Tanzania, Paris, UNESCO, 1967, p. 45.

If it accustoms the school child to understand, to distinguish, to view with a critical eye, to seek information, to delve deeply, to judge objectively, to develop the whole range of his talents and tastes, then will elementary education supply well-prepared candidates for more advanced study, then will it stimulate personal and cultural achievement among its pupils. Hence "formation" more than "information" is the goal which the elementary school must set for itself.⁶⁶

Similarly, the Regional Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States on Primary and Compulsory Education, held at Karachi, in 1960, following the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of the Child (1959), declared that:-

- (i) The child shall be given an education which promotes his general culture and enables him, on a basis of equal opportunity, to develop his abilities, his individual judgment and his sense of moral and social responsibility and to become a useful member of society;
- (ii) The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and guidance;
- (iii) The child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation which should be directed to the same purpose as education; and
- (iv) It shall be brought up in a spirit of understanding, tolerance, friendship among people, peace and universal brotherhood and in full consciousness that his energy and talents should be devoted to the service of fellow men.⁶⁷

⁶⁶ Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec, Part Two, Quebec, Pierre Des Marais, Printer for the Government of the Province of Quebec, 1964, p. 100.

⁶⁷ Educational Studies and Documents, No. 41, The Needs of Asia in Primary Education, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, pp. 39-40.

The ruling of the recent Conference of Education and Scientific and Technical Training in Relation to Development in Africa, held in Nairobi, Kenya, East Africa, July 1968, that "primary education in rural areas should provide the same basic knowledge and promote the same values as primary education in urban areas" voiced the same universal idea which was already adopted at the Addis Ababa Education Conference in 1961.

The skills on which primary education concentrates - reading, writing and counting - must have some value in any occupation whatsoever, and the habit of analysis which any kind of education must stimulate, is of special value in occupations whose technology is revolutionized by development, and not least in agriculture, which is the family occupation of the vast majority of children in primary schools.⁶⁸

The above-mentioned education conferences, both in Asia and Africa - to name a few - inculcate the same idea that is contained in the Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec, that "no longer can the elementary course be considered terminal".⁶⁹ Consequently, it is not quite clear how education at primary level can be "complete in itself" as implied in the President's Paper: Education for Self-Reliance.⁷⁰ Again, although the

⁶⁸ Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, 15-25 May 1961. Final Report, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, p. 11.

⁶⁹ Ibid., p. 99.

⁷⁰ Julius K. Nyerere, Op. Cit., p.15.

Education Conference held in Nairobi, Kenya, July 1968, states that "the contents of primary education should have an agricultural bias",⁷¹ the syllabus of Primary Education agreed upon by the Conference on Education for Self-Reliance, held at Dar-es-Salaam in 1967, has placed too strong a bias on agricultural education in declaring that "all subjects taught in the primary school should be related to agriculture ...". Experience, however, has shown already that too much agriculture at primary level at the expense of other necessary subjects, not easily related to agriculture, is detrimental.

The Mission (of the UN Trusteeship Council) believes, in view of the great number of protests it received from Africans regarding the amount of time spent, particularly in the middle schools on agricultural and practical training, that the Administering Authority might review the matter in order to ensure that the time spent on these subjects does not affect the teaching of the more academic subjects [...]. The Mission was informed that students in the trade schools and African students from Tanganyika attending Makerere College, Uganda, very often had difficulty following the courses because of insufficient secondary education and often their inadequate knowledge of English. Generally, Tanganyika students at Makerere College needed one or two years of general courses and special instruction in English before they were able to catch up with other students. The necessity of the early teaching of English in the primary schools was thus brought to the attention of the Mission. The Mission notes that the Council itself passed a recommendation on this question at its twentieth session.⁷²

⁷¹ "Education and Development in Africa" in The Nationalist, August 10, 1968.

⁷² UN Trusteeship Council, Op. Cit., p. 168-69.

From the above text it can be argued that, since at the time when there was not much emphasis on agriculture in primary schools, the academic standard was already low, now that there is an additional strong agricultural bias, the standard of education at primary level, especially in foreign languages, will likely be lower still. Already in this first year of the system of Education for Self-Reliance one hears talk from many quarters expressing the demand to make changes in the system.

A plea to make changes in the Tanzanian education system was made by the National Assembly member for Tabora East, Mr. A. E. Kaombwe, in a letter which he sent to the Minister of Education yesterday. The letter urged that the Ministry should establish junior secondary schools or intermediate schools to prepare primary school leavers before they undertook secondary education. He said that the reason for this suggestion was that [...] Tanzania students would have a low level of English when they entered the University of East Africa while their counterparts from Kenya and Uganda would be ahead of them. He added that the best thing is to increase the primary school in Tanzania from seven years to 10 years, the last two years should be spent in the Intermediate School.⁷³

In conclusion it can be said that considering the above there is a reasonable amount of evidence that either the curricular subjects or the processes of learning and teaching do not satisfy the special needs of the primary school children, nor do they succeed in aiding their progress

⁷³ "'Change School in Tanzania' Call", in the Tanganyika Standard, July 25, 1968, p. 5.

in developing their intellectual abilities in all respects as is generally expected. Consequently, a follow-up study of the learning difficulties seems appropriate in order to ensure that the right curricular changes will be eventually made by the responsible educational planners. Otherwise Tanzanians will be suffering from the resulting inequality of opportunity for many years to come.

The economic value of agricultural education in primary school. The problem to be discussed here briefly is agricultural education as a productive investment. It is a recognized fact among economists that "increases in the national income are attributable not merely to the accumulation of physical capital, but also to the improvement of human capacity and efficiency through education etc."⁷⁴ The study of Wharton in Brazil showed that increase in human skills caused quite a significant increase in production.⁷⁵ Thus, for the productivity of economy, both human and non-human capital is necessary. In economic terms, therefore, expenditure on education may be regarded as an investment, in the sense of providing a cadre of skilled labour.

⁷⁴ Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, 15-25 May, 1961, p. 9.

⁷⁵ Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., "The Economic Impact of Technical Assistance: A Brazilian Case Study", in the Journal of Economics, Vol. 42, No. 2, May 1960.

Investing in equipment might yield society an interest-return of say, 10 or 15 per cent per annum. Investing in people, by providing more in the way of education, can step up their economic productivity greatly - and the record suggests that this is indeed true - [...] a 15-25 per cent per annum return (the amount estimated by the Economic Council of Canada for high school and university completion).⁷⁶

In the light of the above, money spent on agricultural education in Tanzania can be regarded as an investment only at the extension education level. But agricultural extension services at the primary level have already proved wasteful, both in Brazil and Ghana.⁷⁷ The reason that has been given for the wastefulness of too much agricultural knowledge at an early age is that "the results are slow to show, and children forget or do not put their learning to good use". Another argument which does not favour agricultural education at an early age is that people are moving from place to place, from rural areas to urban ones and vice versa. Therefore, it does not make sense when by means of education children from the lower strata of society are indoctrinated to remain in their places. What Myrdal said about the American Negro can (mutatis mutandis) apply also to the Tanzanian:

⁷⁶ Paul A. Samuelson, Op. Cit., p. 833.

⁷⁷ Educational Studies and Documents No. 33, Op. Cit., pp. 5 and 14.

"What Negro youth in the cotton district needs," Myrdal has written, "is not perfection in growing cotton [...] but a training that will help them to get out of the cotton districts and to compete for jobs in the expanding sectors of the American economy."⁷⁸

What emerges from the preceding discussion is that the primary school syllabus of Tanzania with its strong bias on agricultural education, seems to offer little opportunity for the development of other skills such as are essential for agriculture as well as for industry. There also seems to be little provision among the curricular subjects for education for excellence and education for equality of opportunity in the promotion of the country's economy. Consequently, there is a need of research to ascertain the right combination of agricultural extension services and the more academic subjects at primary level, if possible, that will ensure both education for excellence and for equality of opportunity.

⁷⁸ Myrdal, quoted by Paul Nash, Authority and Freedom in Education, An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education, New York, John Wiley, 1966, p. 33.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the involvement of primary education in agricultural development. With the Arusha Declaration in 1967 education was required to be geared not only to the manpower production but also to agricultural orientation at all school levels. Thus the planning, both of economic development and of education, was involved in some implications, for instance who the planner of education is and whether manpower projections should be the basis of educational planning.

In discussing who the educational planners of the current educational system were, it was found out that first the manpower planners in Tanzania assumed also the role of planning education in that they allocated jobs into three categories according to the level of education of the prospective job candidates. That meant the assumptions made in defining who should do what had to be essentially the assumptions about the characteristics of the product of the educational system.

With the emergence of some political issues, the President also assumed the role of educational planner. The product of his thinking was the new system of Education for Self-Reliance whose main theme is to found a program for a complete education at each education level. Following

this educational new policy, the Minister of Education convoked senior educational officials who, in a Conference, endorsed wholeheartedly the aims of education as outlined in the President's paper on "Education for Self-Reliance". The application of this new education programme necessitated the introduction of much agricultural education at both primary education level and at secondary education level.

In discussing the involvement of manpower projections in educational planning, it was found out that so far Tanzania is one of the few countries in the world where the "manpower factor" plays a very important role in educational planning. This policy, however, is the source of many conflicting issues, because education based solely on manpower projections necessarily has limitations and pitfalls quantitatively as well as qualitatively. The discussions in the Addis Ababa and Tananarive Education Conferences and also the reports of the two Seminars in Paris show unmistakably that the most important criterion for educational planning is the popular or social demand for education, namely, the choices of both parents and pupils. Through research this public demand for education can be both known and also brought into line with the demand for economic development.

The next topic discussed in this chapter concerns the involvement of primary education in rural development.

Events after the Arusha Declaration show that the Tanzanian Government puts much reliance on agricultural production for the increase of the Gross Domestic Product as conceived in the Five-Year Development Plan. Consequently, the Government has to see to it that people are educated and trained both formally and non-formally in modern methods of agriculture. So far as this dissertation is concerned, it was asked to what extent agricultural education at primary level was relevant to agricultural development. The answer was that, considering the results of experiments of the same in Brazil and Ghana, the only kind of effective agricultural education at primary level is that which consists in developing a genuine appreciation of agriculture and recognition of its vital contribution to the life of the community. Extensive agricultural education at primary level not only would encounter many difficulties but also would in the end be ineffective and detrimental.

The last discussion dealt with the appraisal of the agriculture education at primary level as contained in the syllabus agreed upon by the Conference on Education for Self-Reliance held at Dar-es-Salaam in 1967. At this Conference it was declared that all subjects taught in the primary school should be related to agriculture. Experience of the Tanganyikan colonial system of education gives a reasonable amount of evidence that when there was not much emphasis on

agriculture in primary schools, the academic standard was already low. Now that there is an additional strong agricultural bias, the standard of education at primary level will likely be lower still. Only a follow-up-study could show that hopefully this is not the case.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this thesis was to present the involvement of the system of Education for Self-Reliance, already at primary education level, in Tanzania's economic and social needs. The implications of the agricultural education resulting from the present educational system, particularly, were discussed and the respective emphasis on agriculture in primary schools, as expressed in the syllabus, was appraised, at least theoretically, in the hope of calling the attention of the educational policy-makers to find out the right combination of agricultural activities and the more academic subjects, that will ensure for the primary school leavers an education both for excellence and for equality of opportunity.

a) Summary

For a better understanding of the evolution of the educational system in Tanzania, a description of historical factors prior to the system of Education for Self-Reliance was undertaken. History reveals that before the colonial period education, for most of the African youths, was carried on by elders of the tribe. This kind of education differed from tribe to tribe according to occupation and beliefs. During colonial times, which extended from 1888 to 1961,

education based on literacy was first introduced by missionaries during the German rule and, later on, the German Government officially participated in the educational activities which, at the outbreak of the 1914-18 war, were greatly dislocated.

Under the British Mandate from 1918 - 1947 and, later on, from 1947 - 1961 education in Tanzania, then Tanganyika, was very much marked by fluctuations. First, there were rapid advances, then, the system was criticized and a tendency to go slowly in encouraging educational evolution of the natives was developed. The reasons for the go-slow policy were first, the political uncertainty of the British Administration; secondly, the belief in the false theory of the backwardness of the tribes of Tanzania, thirdly, the economic depression between 1929-1931; finally, the policy of restricting the output of trained Africans.

With the coming into being of the United Nations in 1945, however, Tanzania became a Trusteeship Territory, Education was given a major impetus in the Ten-Year Development Plan of 1946. Middle and Secondary Schools were increased in number; more emphasis was placed on agriculture, animal husbandry and handicrafts. Nevertheless, the establishment of racial separate schools against a rising political awareness was a source of many complaints. Consequently in 1957, a final attempt was made to correct some of the defects of the

system of education. But the Five-Year Development Plan (1957-61) was not fully realized because of lack of adequate funds and trained teachers. However, during the Trusteeship period, comparatively much was achieved in education in that primary school places were available for over 50% of the children, and a number of African pupils were able to sit for the Cambridge School Certificate Examinations.

On December 9, 1961, when Tanzania achieved independence, a great shortage of properly trained personnel to fill the many vacancies in government service, commerce and industry was acutely felt. The need to adapt and expand the inherited colonial system of education to the country's requirements, rather than construct a new one, seemed to be imperative. During the Three-Year Plan of Development, therefore, a new Education Ordinance was enacted, which abolished the racial separate systems of education and made provision for a single system of education. A legal framework of educational planning and administration was also created. There were rapid advances in education development, at least, quantitatively. In 1964, with the launching of the new Five-Year Development Plan (1964/65-1968/69), the educational system had to be adapted to the requirements of manpower training. In 1966, however, the effect of certain political issues tended to retard the implementation of the Five-Year Plan. These political issues, for instance, the

quarrel with West Germany after the Union of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, the breaking of diplomatic relations with Britain on account of Rhodesia, the disputes with U.S.A. etc. caused the shortage of outside financial help. The only sure way left for implementing the Plan was self-help. Hence, it was obvious that the time had come for the declaration of socialism and self-reliance as the two policies of the country.

The Arusha Declaration of the policy of Socialism and Self-Reliance set the climate of change in the system of education. The President's Paper of Education for Self-Reliance which followed the Arusha Declaration had for its aim that education from primary school through university must contribute to the improvement of the rural areas. The improvement must be effected by agricultural education already at the primary education level, so that education even at this level is complete in itself. At the time when the boys and girls leave primary school, they must be already good farmers.

Obviously, the involvement of primary education in agricultural development poses many implications. In fact, it has been a matter of some controversy since colonial times and, consequently, it met with little success. Appraisal of the current syllabus with its strong bias on agricultural education at primary level showed that there

is a need of research to ascertain the right combination of agricultural education and the more academic subjects at primary level to insure that education-agriculture involvement at this stage will be not only non-detrimental but also effectual in producing primary school leavers having an education both for excellence and for equality of opportunity.

b) Conclusions

The findings of this research on the politico-economic context and implications of Tanzania's 1967 educational policy lead to the conclusions which revolve around three topics: the educational planners, the basis of educational planning and the reliance on agricultural education at primary level.

1. The Educational Planners: Educational planning is not the business of one man alone. Whatever the legal framework for planning which is adopted, it must bring together under a single head, or within a department or a coordinating committee, men who have different training and interests and even different standards of value, such as economists, educators, agronomists, historians, sociologists, philosophers, geographers, politicians and religious ministers. Co-operation to reach a common language among educational planners is what is needed to make any system of education fruitful.

2. The basis of educational planning. Public demand is the basis for education planning. Educational planners have a duty to be well-informed on the kind of education parents want for their children or students are in need of. Through decent research it should be practically possible to bring into line the public demand for education and the educational requirements for economic development.

3. The reliance on agricultural education at primary level. Any extensive reliance on agricultural education at primary level is likely to encounter some difficulties and to cause the lowering of academic standards. Contrary to this proven experience are the examples of the Soviet Union and China, as Professor René Dumont maintains. Nevertheless, even the Soviet Union is finding its university students averse to the agricultural policy, as Professor Paul Nash testifies. There is consequently, a need of research concerning the above hypothesis to make the truth clear. However, whether or not there is an effective agricultural education, research has shown that, one-third to one-half of rural children can always be expected to move into non-agricultural occupations. Therefore, the aim of primary education should always consist in preparing children both for further education and for further training on the job whether agricultural or industrial.

Moreover, for the primary school leavers that will remain on the land, the long-term agricultural needs are not for the kind of simple agricultural education that can be given at the primary level. Even in Tanzania, good farmers will need to know in the near future how to operate machinery and how to assimilate new agricultural techniques from writings, broadcasts, television and demonstrations. Therefore, primary schools should provide not agricultural instruction as such but functional literacy, knowledge of mechanical principles, adaptability to technical changes and progress, and an appreciation of the sources of information.

The author considers this thesis report lastly, to be a substantial realization of the original intention. At the same time, however, it must be recognized that the discussion herein initiated is necessarily incomplete and consequently, it merits extension. In the course of this dissertation, the reader must have noticed, many problems have been revealed where research would be welcome. The above conclusions, nevertheless, suggest some areas where, probably, there is a need of one or two and even more follow-up studies according to significant and different aspects. The aim of the follow-up studies would be, for instance, to ascertain the effects of the agricultural instruction at all education levels, so that the findings would form a basis for action in the improvement and adaptation of services, intended for

the self-realization of the pupil or student and of the nation. For goals are often too readily set and aims too ambitiously expressed. Unless a systematic scientific examination is made of the achievements, there is always danger that progress may be slowed up or even upset in the economic, social and educational development of the nation.

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The achievement of the Phelps-Stokes Commission inspired the 1925 Memorandum of the Advisory Committee on Education in British Tropical Africa. Part of the 1925 Memorandum (pp. 3-8) is incorporated in the book Education and Nation-Building. The contents of this section has been referred to in this report as it is the first Government historical Charter of Education in the then Tanganyika Mandate.

Anderson, C. Arnold, et al., eds., Education and Economic Development, Chicago, Aldine Publishing Company, 1963, 1965, xi-436 p.

An edition of the papers presented at the Conference on the Role of Education in the Early Stages of Development, held in Chicago on April 4-6, 1963, sponsored jointly by the Committee on Economic growth of the Social Science Research Council and comparative Education Centre of the University of Chicago. The major purpose of the Conference was inquiry and analysis of relations between education and economic development in an historical perspective. The book has been profitable in this dissertation in discussing the implications resulting from the interdependence between education and economic development.

Batey, Charles, ed., African Education: A Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Africa, produced on behalf of the Nuffield Foundation and Colonial Office, Oxford, University Press, 1953, 187 p.

The volume contains three reports: Report of the West Africa Study Group, Report of the East and Central Africa Study Group, and finally, Record of the Cambridge Conference Proceedings. The Report of the East and Central Africa Study Group has been useful in pointing out the colonial policy in inculcating a racial educational system in Tanganyika.

Batten, T. R., Problems of African Development, London, Oxford University Press, 1960, 1964, Part One, "Land and Labour", 140, and Part Two, "Government and People", 152 p.

Dr. Batten has worked in the Education Department of Nigeria, was for six years Vice-Principal of Makerere University College, East Africa and is now Senior Lecturer at the University of London Institute of Education. His present book is a study of the economic, social and political developments that have taken place or are envisaged in East, West and Central Africa. As such, the contents of this study supports the economic needs as described in the present dissertation.

Binns, A. L., "Report of the East and Central Africa Study Group", in African Education: A Study of Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Africa, produced on behalf of the Nuffield Foundation and Colonial Office, by Charles Patey, Printer to the University of Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1953, xii-187 p.

African Education contains three reports: first, Report of the West Africa Study Group; second, Report of the East and Central Africa Study Group; and, third, Record of the Cambridge Conference Proceedings. Report of the East and Central Study Group is found on pp. 58-141. This Report has been useful in pointing out the colonial policy in inculcating racial school system.

Carter, J. Roger, The legal framework of Educational Planning and Administration in East Africa, Paris, Unesco, 1966, 32 p.

Every educational system lives within its own special legal system. This legal system is the product of past legislation and accumulated administrative rules, regulations, relationships and routines that for all practical purposes have become common law. However, after independence, Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda had to reshape the legal system to fit the new shape that education itself had to take. This transitional aspect is studied by J. Roger Carter, adviser on Legislation to the Ministry of Education in Kenya, and his findings are presented here. No doubt, they contribute to the present study on one aspect concerning the legal framework of the Educational system in Tanzania.

Clark, William, After Independence in East Africa, (Occasional Paper No. 1), London, The Overseas Development Institute, 1962, 12 p.

This is an address given to a joint meeting of the Royal African Society and the Royal Commonwealth Society on February 1st, 1962, at 160, Piccadilly, London, W.1, by William Clark, Director of the Overseas Development Institute. The paper discussed, among others, education and suggested ways how education could help to speed up the country's development. No doubt it is a useful document for the present dissertation as it touches the subject of manpower and agriculture with which this study is concerned.

Conant, James, B., Thomas Jefferson and the Development of American Public Education, Los Angeles, University of California Press, 1962, x-164 p.

Dr. Conant has written in this book a brief history of American public schools, employing Jefferson's educational ideas as the basis for discussing the public school development. Jefferson had a lifelong interest in a total education program. This author of the Declaration of Independence advocated free elementary schooling, the careful selection of secondary school students and a free university education. The contribution of the contents of this book to the present study has been utilized in pointing out the similarity between Jefferson's idea of a total education program and Nyerere's idea of a program of a complete education at each educational level.

Comparative Education Review, Vol. 12, No. 3, October 1968.

This is the official journal of the Comparative Education Society, an organization of scholars and teachers of Comparative Education, whose object is to advance knowledge in this field. The contents of some articles of the present number has been useful in situating some educational problems of the present system of education of Tanzania.

Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Addis Ababa, 15-25 May 1961. Final Report, Paris, Unesco, 1961, 127 p.

Unesco, jointly with the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa convened a conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, at Addis Ababa in Ethiopia in 1961. For ten days, representatives of 34 African countries, as well as four European countries with African responsibilities established an inventory of educational needs. The Conference decided to examine (1) development of education in relation to African culture, (2) educational needs for economic and social development, (3) Education as basis in economic and social development. The result of their investigation is one of the bases of the present thesis.

Conference on Education and Scientific Training in Relation to Development in Africa, in Unesco National Commission United Republic of Tanzania Newsletter No. 7, Dar-es-Salaam, July 1968, 3 p.

The Conference, jointly organized by Unesco and the Organization of African Unity (OAU) in co-operation with the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) held in Nairobi (Kenya) from 16 to 27 July, 1968, was attended by participants from 35 African countries etc. The Conference took into account the conclusions of previous Conferences held in Addis Ababa (1961), Tananarive (1962), Abidjan (1964), Lagos (1964) and studied the future role of Unesco in Africa. Among its recommendations in a special way, the integration of education in the overall economic and social planning supports the present study on Education for Self-Reliance.

Cowan, G. et al., eds., Education and Nation-Building in Africa, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1965, 403 p.

Three well-known authorities on African Government and education: L. Gray Cowan, Director of the Institute of African Studies, Columbia University; Father James O'Connell, Senior Lecturer, Department of Political Science, University of Ibadan, Nigeria; and David Scanlon, Professor of International Education and Co-ordinator of Studies, Institute for Education in Africa, Teachers College, Columbia University; have gathered together in one book important documents, statements, and speeches on educational policy that shed light on the historical expansion of education in Africa. Contents of this book has been referred to in the present dissertation particularly to prove the need of correlating the extension of education with economic growth.

Diamond, Stanley, et al., The Transformation of East Africa, Studies in Political Anthropology, New York, Basic Books, 1966, xiv-623 p.

The essays contained in the above volume were constructed for a faculty-student seminar on problems of Nation-Building and modernization in East Africa at the Maxwell Graduate School, Syracuse University, U.S.A. Most of the authors are members of the Syracuse University or some other University in the U.S. and are acquainted with the problems of East Africa through research or lecturing in East African University Colleges. The contributors of this book explore the colonial heritage, the evolution of political systems, resources and problems of economic development, the growth of urban society native and missionary religions, education, racial minorities, and other subjects. Transformation of E. Africa represents a significant achievement in an approach to understanding "underdeveloped countries". The present dissertation has made use of information on economic development and education contained in Diamond's work.

Dumont, René, False Start in Africa, London, André Deutsch, 1966, 1967, 320 p.

Originally published in French under the title L'Afrique Noire est Mal Partie, translated by Phyllis Nants Ott, the book analyzes what Dumont considers has gone wrong and what should go right in Africa. He emphasizes the necessity of agricultural reform to provide capital basis for economic take-off into a full industrialized society. When the book first appeared, President Nyerere ordered every civil servant to have a copy and read it. It is believed that the content of Dumont's thesis instigated Nyerere's Paper Education for Self-Reliance. Dumont's conclusions largely drawn from his experience of former French colonies, although exhilarating, are severe and, some of the criticism at least, are certainly misleading.

Education, Chapter 446 of the Laws (Principal Legislation) and Subsidiary Legislation, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1962, 19 p.

This booklet contains the famous 1961/2 Education Ordinance whereby an integrated system of education was introduced. For the present dissertation it serves to establish the change of the educational system from the colonial period to post-independence.

Evelin, S. Thomas, Elements of Economics, London, Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, 1952, 1961, viii-605 p.

The object of this book is to present the elementary principles of Economic Science for various professional and academic needs for which basic knowledge of Economics is required. The author of the book has gathered many practical and up-to-date examples which make the volume of service and of interest, not only to students, but also to the layman, the educator and the man of affairs. The information on the involvement of education in economic production has been freely utilized in the present dissertation.

Fisher, Carol, "Education", in Diamond Stanley, et al., eds., The Transformation of East Africa, Studies in Political Anthropology, New York, Basic Book, 1966, pp. 494-509.

Carol Fisher, Assistant Professor of Citizenship and Anthropology at Syracuse University, is currently Field Coordinator of the Program of Eastern African Studies Research Project on village settlement in Tanzania. In the article "Education", she reports the pattern of education throughout East Africa (Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, and Malawi) as inherited from the colonial administration and as an adaptation of the British educational System. She attempts to answer the question of the Africanization of the curriculum as envisaged by the 1961 Education Conference in Addis Ababa. The contribution of this article has been the confirmation to the present study's findings concerning the difficulties encountered in the extensive change of curriculum which may affect the quality of education, particularly at primary level.

George, Betty, Education for Africans in Tanganyika, A preliminary Survey, Washington, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin 1960, No. 1919, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1961, 97 p.

A monograph by the specialist on Africans in the Division of International Education of the U.S. Office of Education. The scope of her survey includes background and full details of organization of education, its administration and finance, the current system of primary, middle and secondary, vocational and technical training teacher training and higher education. The free use of this monograph has been valuable for the present work.

Gunther, John, Inside Africa, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1953, 1955, xvi-952 p.

This volume covers the whole vast area of Africa comprehensively. The author traces the history of Africa from the days of the Pharaohs and the Phoenicians to the contemporary political explosions in different parts of the so-called Dark Continent. Men such as Strijdom of South Africa, the Sultan of Zanzibar, Nasser of Egypt, Nkrumah of the Gold Coast, Haile Selassie of Ethiopia, Kenyatta of Kenya, Nyerere of Tanganyika and other leaders are presented, together with the forces which shaped them, for good or evil. The book's contents on Tanganyika at the raising of political awareness has been useful in the present dissertation.

Holy Ghost Fathers, Memorandum on Education in Tanganyika since 1925, Kisubi (Uganda, E. Africa), Marianum Press, 1958, 32 p.

This Memorandum describes the position of Catholic missions in educational development of Tanganyika since the "Charter of Education" was promulgated in 1925. It has been profitable in proving the deliberate go-slow policy of the British colonial education.

Kandel, I. L., The New Era in Education, A Comparative Study, Cambridge, The Riverside Press, 1955, xviii-388 p.

The author, long recognized as an international authority in Comparative Education, presents logically and clearly the forces that determine the character of world-wide education. The contents of the books have been helpful in attempting to point out the political philosophy which influences the educational philosophy of the present system of education in Tanzania.

King, Jane, Planning non-formal Education in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco, 1967, 40 p.

Unesco was anxious to answer the following question: What general strategies and principles should a country follow in the planning process of non-formal education? Jane King, under the professional supervision of Raymond Lyons, a senior staff member of the International Institute for Educational Planning in Paris, made an inventory and an investigation of some of the most important activities of non-formal education in Tanzania. Her findings are presented here and they contribute to the present research on formal education.

Knight, J. B., The Costing and Financing of Educational Development in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1966, 80 p.

John B. Knight - a consultant to International Institute for Educational Planning and a Staff member of the Institute of Economics and Statistics, University of Oxford - provides valuable insights into the economic aspects of educational planning in Tanzania. His monographs furnish material for the evaluation or appraisal of the system of education for self-reliance in respect to the relative poverty of the country.

Legum, Colin, ed., Africa, A Handbook to the Continent, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1962, 1967, xii-558 p.

Under the editorship of Colin Legum, more than forty international experts on African affairs have collaborated to produce an unbiased, objective reference volume, whose aim is to go behind the news presenting the significant background facts and analyzing development trends. Thus the book has been profitable in describing the historical background of the present educational system in Tanzania.

Leubuscher, Charlotte, Tanganyika: A Study of Economic Policy under Mandate, New York, printed for the Royal Institute of International Affairs by Oxford University Press, 1944, 217 p.

This is a study of the League of Nations mandatory system and its application in Tanganyika. In Part One, Dr. Leubuscher, a British political economist, gives the background and framework of the League of Nations mandates in Africa. In Part Two, she analyzes in detail the working of British Administration and economic development of Tanganyika. The final part examines and evaluates results. Her criticism on the then educational system forms a strong and stringent argument concerning the defects of the colonial educational system.

Lewis, L. J., Phelps-Stokes Reports on Education in Africa, New York, Oxford University Press, 1962, 213 p.

The Reports on Education in Africa as reported by the two African Commissions in 1922 and in 1924 respectively were available by the present Trustees and the Oxford University Press, in an abridged book form, on the occasion of the 50th jubilee year (1961) of the Phelps-Stokes Fund's foundation. The Phelps-Stokes Reports have been utilized by the writer of this thesis report to support the argument on the failure of those responsible for adaptation of education to native life in Tanzania, although forewarning had been given them by the experience of others elsewhere in similar environments.

Lyons, Raymond F., ed., Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning, Lessons from Latin America, Paris, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1965, 117 p.

This book is the product of a five-week seminar in Paris in April-May 1964, convoked by the International Institute for Educational Planning. The seminar's aim was to learn and to bring into sharper focus a variety of key questions and problems which confront educational planners in all developing countries. Their findings have been utilized in the discussions contained especially in the third chapter of this dissertation.

Macaulay, Neil, Mandates, Reasons, Results, Remedies, London, Methuen, 1937, xii-213 p.

The book contains a short, accurate and readable presentation of the late German colonies' past and contemporary circumstances which were once more threatening to embroil the chief European Powers. The contents of the narrative form another argument on the political uncertainty of the British which influenced the colonial education system.

McKay, Vernon, Africa in World Politics, New York, Harper and Row, 1963, xii-468 p.

The book describes the major African issues in international relations. Vernon McKay is professor of African Studies at the School of Advanced International Studies at The Johns Hopkins University, began with a study of the history of European imperialism in Africa in 1934, then in 1945 turned to the current African issues. The present narrative of contemporary history of politics in Africa since 1945 has been useful in tracing political developments in Tanganyika Trusteeship.

Ministry of Economic Affairs and Development Planning, A Mid-Term Appraisal of the Achievements Under the Five-Year Plan, July, 1964 - June, 1969, Dar-es-Salaam National Printing Co., 1967, 39 p.

This mid-term Review has been made with a view to acquaint the Honourable Members and the public at large with the achievements that have been made during the two and a half-years since the Plan was begun. The Plan's objectives in various sectors of the economy have been viewed at a global angle and weighed against actual performance. This review supports the thesis report in giving a tangible result of some of the educational objectives.

Ministry of Education, Annual Reports of the Ministry of Education 1963-1966, Dar-es-Salaam, National Printing Co., 1967, 4 volumes: 1963 vol. 16 p.; 1964 vol., 44 p.; 1965 vol., 73 p.; 1966 vol. v-92 p.

These reports give, first, main events of the year; second, Historical Background of education; third, general summary of the present educational system; fourth, Educational Legislation and Administration; and finally, Miscellaneous. They have been very useful in describing the post-independent system of education in Tanzania.

Ministry of Education, Conference on Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, Printpak Tanzania Limited, 1967, 36 p.

This is the final Report of the Conference on Education for Self-Reliance and the Arusha Declaration held at the University College, Dar-es-Salaam, from 10th to 14th April, 1967. The Hon. S. N. Eliufoo, M.P. was chairman and all the Regional Education Officers, heads of Public Schools, Principals of T.T.C.'s, Ministry of Education Officials and Education Secretaries General participated. This final Report is of paramount importance in this dissertation as it explains the implications of Education for Self-Reliance for the various education levels.

Ministry of Information and Tourism, After the Arusha Declaration, Presidential Address to the National Conference of The Tanganyika African National Union, Mwanza, 16th October, 1967, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1967, 19 p.

The Presidential Address expresses in very concrete terms what is meant by "self-reliance" and by "war against exploitation" in the Arusha Declaration. It explains the responsibilities of leaders especially in the rural development. As far as the present research is concerned, the notions on self-reliance and leadership in rural development are valuable in educational context of the present system.

Ministry of Information and Tourism, Our Economy 1965-67 - Speech by the President Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere to the National Assembly June 13, 1966, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1966, 21 p.

This is a review of two economic years - in relation to Capital Formation and External Help. Self-Reliance is recommended because outside help cannot be relied upon on account of its fickleness. The document is useful in that it backs Education for Self-Reliance.

Mustafa, Sophia, The Tanganyika Way, London, Oxford University Press, published by the East African Literature Bureau, 1961, xiii-139 p.

In the foreword to the book, President Julius Nyerere writes: "In fact there are many stories woven into the overall picture (of political development in Tanganyika); they are stories of endeavour, struggle, triumphs and setbacks - and courage. This book is one of those stories." However, the narrative has certainly some contribution to make to the history of party politics prior to independence. As such it is useful in this research, partly to determine the factors which caused fluctuations in education in the colonial period.

Mwingira, A.C. and Simon Pratt, Process of Educational Planning in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1967, 102 p.

The book contains the report of a study organized by the International Institute for Educational Planning and carried out by Augustin C. Mwingira, then Assistant Chief Education Officer, and Simon Pratt, a Unesco expert serving as an education officer in Tanzania. The authors give attention to each of the essential steps involved in formulating an educational plan. The setting of priorities and targets in the light of manpower requirements makes an extensive contribution to the writer's dissertation. Most of the statistical illustrations are taken from this study.

Nash, Paul, Authority and Freedom in Education, An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1966, x-342 p.

Although the primary tool of analysis in this book's contents is philosophy, other disciplines are employed, when appropriate, such as history, sociology, psychology and economics. Dr. Nash's economics have been utilized freely in the present dissertation.

Nyerere, Julius K., "Nationalism and Pan Africanism", in Paul E. Sigmund, Jr., ed., The Ideologies of the Developing Nations, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1963, pp. 205-211.

Paul Sigmund gives excerpts from a Speech delivered by Nyerere to the Second Pan-African Seminar, World Assembly of Youth. It is reprinted from Way Forum, No. 40, September 1961. In this speech, Mr. Nyerere defines what he means by African Socialism. The article has some material to contribute to the present research which aims, among other things, at determining Tanzanian political philosophy.

-----, "Address by the President, Mwalimu Julius K. Nyerere, To Parliament - 12th May, 1964, in The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Tanganyika Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1st July, 1964 - 30th June 1969, Volume I: General Analysis, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1964, pp. vii-xvi.

This address introduces the Five-Year Development Plan to the National Assembly. It defines the Plan, explains the goals, and suggests the manner in which the objectives can be achieved. Education, of course, was one of the most important major long-term objectives, insofar as Tanzanian educators were responsible for training sufficient manpower by 1980. No doubt, this address is one of the primary sources of information for the present research.

-----, "Ujamaa: The Basis of African Socialism", in William H. Friedland, et al., ed., African Socialism, Stanford, Stanford University Press, 1964, 1965, pp. 238-247.

This address is also found in Nyerere's book: Freedom and Unity (Uhuru na Umoja), already described (pp. 162-171), as one of the three papers which Mr. Nyerere published during his release from government office. The others were: "The Second Scramble", and "TANU and People", "Ujamaa" can be translated as "familyhood": The speech contributes material for the present dissertation in dealing with school and community integration.

-----, "An Address by the President of the Republic of Tanganyika at the Inauguration of the University of East Africa", in L. Gray Cowan, et al., eds., Education and Nation-Building, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1965, pp. 309-313.

This article was reprinted from the West African Journal of Education, February 1964, pp. 7-9. In it Mr. Nyerere, first Chancellor of the University of East Africa, touches many topics of interest to educators. Against discrimination under any cover, however, he recommends the practice of equality and respect to human dignity. This is the ethic of Education for Self-Reliance which is one aspect of the present dissertation.

-----, Freedom and Unity/Uhuru na Umoja, a Selection from Writings and Speeches 1952-65, Dar-es-Salaam, Oxford University Press, 1966, xii-366 p.

In his introduction to the book, Mr. Nyerere writes that Freedom and Unity has been published in the hope that [...] it shall contribute to the growth of those social attitudes which underline harmonious living for men in society. An attempt has been made to give an historical understanding of the development of Tanzania and the philosophy which it is trying to practice. The book has been of much service to the present dissertation in delineating the philosophy of education in Tanzania.

-----, Principles and Development, A Memorandum by the President of the United Republic of Tanzania, and President of TANU, June, 1966, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, Published by the Ministry of Information and Tourism, 1966, 13 p.

This Memorandum is an answer to the complaints which appeared in the Press that economic development of Tanzania was jeopardized and had been already retarded by some of the government decisions especially in relation to foreign affairs. The contents of the Memorandum have supported the argument that certain political policies and decisions influence economy and, consequently, education in the country.

-----, Socialism and Rural Development, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1967, 31 p.

In this booklet, President Julius K. Nyerere, explains his Ujamaa Socialism in practice, thereby indicating Tanzania as it must develop. Equality of all the members, self-reliance and co-operation in building up socialist villages are the ideas developed in this pamphlet. As such it embodies the argument of the dissertation on the integration of the school into the community around.

-----, Education for Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1967, 26 p.

This White Paper contains the new policy statement on Education by the President of Tanzania. The Minister for Education formed a permanent body in the Ministry under his chairmanship to work out the implementation of the new policy which was adopted, mutatis mutandis, in the historical Education Conference at the University College, Dar-es-Salaam in 1967. This document is the subject of the present thesis report.

Pratt, R. Cranford, "The Administration of Economic Planning in a Newly Independent State: The Tanzania Experience 1963-1966", in the Journal of Commonwealth Political Studies, Volume 5, No. 1, March 1967, pp. 38-59.

Dr. R. C. Pratt, now in charge of the Political Science Department at the University of Toronto, was Senior Lecturer at Makerere University College of East Africa, then was Principal of the Dar-es-Salaam University College in Tanzania. The above is a critical article on the Five-Year Development Plan and, as such, the contents contributes to the historical factors prior to Education for Self-Reliance which forms the ground of the present investigation.

Reid, Eric, Tanganyika Without Prejudice: A Balanced, Critical Review of the Territory and her People, London, East Africa Ltd., 1934, xi-240 p.

Sir George Stewart Symes, then Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Tanganyika Territory, on writing a foreword to the book, said that the author, in writing summarily of past history and present policies, had expressed opinions based on his personal inquiries and experience. Reid's discoveries, however, have supported the arguments on the insecurity of the Mandate and the ridiculous fable about the alleged arrested development of the people of Tanganyika.

Report of a Mission organized by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development at the request of the Governments of Tanganyika and United Kingdom, The Economic Development of Tanganyika, Baltimore, The Johns Hopkins Press, 1961, 1963, xxviii-548 p.

The Report is the work of the eighteenth General Economic Survey Mission organized by the World Bank. It gives a general view of the present state of the economy and of the prospects and problems of further development. It was used for planning the Three-Year Development of post-independent Tanzania. In this dissertation it serves as an important source of criteria on which educational development of Tanzania right after independence, was based.

Report of the Conference on the Development of Higher Education in Africa, Tananarive, 3-12 Sept. 1962, Paris, Unesco, 1963, 339 p.

The aim of the Conference was to give a careful and serious thought to the development of higher education in Africa within the framework of the Plan for the Development in Africa established by the Conference of African States at Addis Ababa, in May 1961. The conclusions and recommendations for the development of higher education in Africa comprise the staffing of high level manpower vacancies in the cultural, social and economic development of African countries. As such, the report is a valuable document in respect to manpower requirements of Tanzania reviewed in the research.

Resnick, Idrian N., ed., Tanzania: Revolution by Education, Arusha (Tanzania, East Africa), Longmans of Tanzania, 1958, 252 p.

The contributors of this book: scholars, teachers, politicians, civil servants, nationals and expatriates, are a few of the many people involved in Tanzania's revolution and their thinking is centered on the pressing need for radical change in the substance and form of education in Tanzania. This book contributes to the exploration of the present research by presenting diverse opinions on many aspects of education in Tanzania.

Samuelson, Paul A., et al., Economics, An Introductory Analysis, Toronto, McGraw-Hill Company of Canada, 1964, 1966, xxvi-902 p.

The Canadian edition is based on the American one by Professor Samuelson. It presents the most recent data available and refers to events of current importance in the Canadian economic structure, e.g. how the Canadian institutions function; the open nature of the Canadian economy and its impact on economic structure and policy. This book's contents has been utilized by the author in situating the implications stemming from the inculcation of agricultural education at primary level as an investment.

Secondary Technical and Vocational Education in Underdeveloped countries, UNESCO Educational Studies and documents No. 33, Paris, Unesco, 1959, 34 p.

The analysis of secondary technical and vocational education measured against economic development, with particular reference to manpower, based upon data from three countries: Brazil, Ghana and the Philippines, now in the process of rapid development, was carried out for Unesco by the Economic Intelligence Unit, London, in December, 1957. This study has been incorporated in Volume III of the World Survey of Education in the period 1960-61. In the present work the findings of this study have been used in the discussion concerning agricultural education at primary level in Tanzania.

Sigmund, Paul E. Jr., ed., The Ideologies of the Developing Nations, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1963, pp. 205-211.

Paul E. Sigmund, Jr., a graduate of Georgetown University, received his M.A. and Ph.D. degrees from Harvard University. He has taught at Harvard for several years and is now Associate Professor of Politics at Princeton University. In this book, Professor Sigmund provides a comparative political thought and ideologies of the leaders of developing nations, presenting their articles, speeches and books. The contents has been useful in the present dissertation by supporting the argument and peculiar ideology which backs the system of Education for Self-Reliance which pursues its own course without accepting the ideologies of either East or West.

Sloan, Ruth C., "Tanganyika", in Helen Kitchen, ed., The Educated African, A country-by-country Survey of Educational Development in Africa, New York, Frederick A. Praeger, 1962, pp. 145-159.

This short article, revolves more or less around five major aspects in which education developed: (1) the historical and geographical context, (2) the educational goals of the colonial powers, (3) the nature and scope of the educational system, (4) the pattern of post-independence educational expansion and, (5) the university educated elite. The findings of Ruth Sloan have been useful in establishing the reliability of the findings of the present research in so far as the article reached the hands of the author when the thesis report was ready for the final typing.

Smilansky, M. et al., eds., Evaluating Educational Achievements: Summaries of some studies carried out by the Henrietta Szold Institute on Schooling in Israel, Unesco Educational Studies and Documents No. 42, Paris, UNESCO, 1961, 46 p.

The Summary studies published in the above booklet represent a sample of the educational evaluation conducted by the Henrietta Szold Institute in Jerusalem. They do not cover the whole system of education nor do they deal with every aspect of any one school, but they indicate how and why some of the proposed improvement is being implemented in Israel schools. These studies have been useful in the present dissertation in suggesting reasons which call for a follow-up study in the current system of Education for Self-Reliance in Tanzania.

Stamp, L. Dudley, Africa: A Study in Tropical Development, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1953, x-568 p.

The author of this book attempts to look at the continent of Africa with elimination of any racial and political bias; considers its geographical background as an environment for human activity and studies the responses which have been evoked from the natives by those who, in the last century, have penetrated in the interior of Africa and have molded its fortunes. The contribution of this book to the present thesis has been its attempt to find out the causes which let Tanganyika's development lag behind the other East African countries.

Study Group in the Economics of Education, Organizational Problems in Planning Educational Development, Paris, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (O.E.C.D.) Publications, 1966, 109 p.

In November 1963 the Group brought together economists, educators and government officials from O.E.C.D. Member countries to discuss the "Organizational Implications of the link between Education and Economic Growth". The present volume contains the papers submitted to the meeting. The findings of the Conference on the implications resulting from the interdependence between education and economic productivity have been used in the third chapter of this dissertation.

TANU, Katiba ya Tanganyika African National Union, Research Department, TANU Headquarters, Dar-es-Salaam, Mwananchi Printing Co. Ltd., 1966, 32 p.

This is the constitution of the Tanganyika African National Union which is the present governing political party. Its contribution to the present dissertation consists in that the TANU Constitution backs the Arusha Declaration and Education for Self-Reliance.

-----, The Arusha Declaration and TANU's Policy on Socialism and Self-Reliance, Dar-es-Salaam, The Government Printer, 1967, 29 p.

This is the Government document which put into effect the proposed socialism and self-reliance policy in all the spheres of life in Tanzania. Education for Self-Reliance is a result of the Arusha Declaration. As such the two documents on the Arusha Declaration and Education for Self-Reliance are always studied together on account of their intimate relationship. Hence, the relevance of the Arusha Declaration to the present dissertation!

Taylor, J. Clagett, The Political Development of Tanganyika, Stanford (California), Stanford University Press, 1963, 254 p.

The study presents the history of Tanganyika's political development from 1880, when German control was first felt in the country, to December 1961, when Tanganyika achieved independence. It emphasizes the part played by racial co-operation throughout. The separate racial system of education during the colonial period discussed in the present dissertation is like an antithesis contrary to this historical racial co-operation.

The Needs of Asia in Primary Education, A Plan for the Provision of Compulsory Primary Education in the region, Unesco, Educational Studies and Documents, No. 41, Paris, Unesco, 1961, 60 p.

This document contains a summary of the findings of preliminary studies on the extension of compulsory primary education in Asia for the General Conference of Unesco Asian Member States: Afghanistan, Burma, Laos, Malaya, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand, and Viet Nam; held at Karachi from 28 December 1959 to 9 January 1960; the contents of this report has been utilized in the present work to define "education at primary level".

The United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar, Tanganyika, Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1st July, 1964 - 30th June, 1969, Volume I: General Analysis, Dar-es-Salaam, the Government Printer, 1964, xvi-114 p.

The Five-Year Development Plan is an extremely elaborate masterpiece which was prepared by six world-famous senior economists. It created far-reaching implications in all the Government Ministries and departments. Its projections on manpower influence greatly the present educational system. As such it is the subject of this study.

Tordoff, William, ed., Government and Politics in Tanzania: A collection of Essays Covering the Period from 1960 to July 1966, Nairobi (Kenya, E. Africa), East Africa Publishing House, 1967, 257 p.

The six essays which make up this book are reports of a very careful research on the make-up and working of the African Government on the mainland of Tanzania. Five were published originally as articles in some scientific journals and consequently, there are gaps in the contents of the book. Nevertheless the book as such is a valuable source of precise information concerning some rare government documents utilized in the present comparative study on education.

U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare - Office of Education, Contemporary Issues in American Education, Washington, D. C., U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965, 158 p.

This volume has been made possible by the Consultants' Papers prepared for use at the White House Conference on Education July 20-21, 1965, Washington, D.C., which was convoked by President Johnson. The papers sought to answer the immense question: How can a growing nation in an increasingly complex world provide education of the highest quality for all of its people? The contribution of the various participants in the Conference has been useful, all other things being equal, in discussing the quality of primary education in Tanzania.

Vezeau, Roland, L'Afrique Face au Communisme, Paris, Imprimerie Edimpra, 1967, 276 p.

L'objet de ce livre est d'étudier l'intervention révolutionnaire du communisme international en Afrique, ainsi qu'elle fait partie intégrale du programme communiste pour la domination mondiale. Il fait connaître, à travers quelques documents et faits choisis, les lignes principales de la stratégie et de la tactique communistes afin d'éclairer ceux qui veulent préserver leurs pays et leurs peuples de la tyrannie marxiste. Ce livre fournit des renseignements à l'égard de l'intégration scolaire dans la communauté, qui est l'objet du système scolaire au Tanzanie, et que traite la thèse présente.

APPENDIX 1

LEAGUE OF NATIONS COVENANT

Article 22

To those colonies and territories, which as a consequence of the late war have ceased to be under the sovereignty of the States which formerly governed them, and which are inhabited by peoples not yet able to stand by themselves, under the strenuous conditions of the modern world, there should be applied the principle that the wellbeing and development of such peoples form a sacred trust of civilization, and that securities for the performance of this trust should be embodied in this Covenant.

The best method of giving practical effect to this principle is that the tutelage of such peoples should be entrusted to advanced nations who, by reason of their resources, their experience, or their geographical position, can best undertake this responsibility, and who are willing to accept it, and that this tutelage should be exercised by them as Mandatories on behalf of the League.

The character of the Mandate must differ according to the stage of the development of the people, the geographical situation of the territory, its economic conditions and other similar circumstances.

Certain communities, formerly belonging to the Turkish Empire, have reached a stage of development where their existence as independent nations can be provisionally recognized subject to the rendering of administrative advice and assistance by a Mandatory until such time as they are able to stand alone. The wishes of these communities must be a principal consideration in the selection of the Mandatory.

Other peoples, especially those of Central Africa, are at such a stage that the Mandatory must be responsible for the administration of the territory under conditions which will guarantee freedom of conscience and religion, subject only to the maintenance of public order and morals, the prohibition of abuses such as the slave trade, the arms traffic and the liquor traffic, and the prevention of the establishment of fortifications or military and naval bases, and of military training of the natives for other than police purposes and the defence of territory, and will also secure equal opportunities for the trade and commerce of other Members of the League.

There are territories, such as South-West Africa and certain of the South Pacific Islands, which, owing to the sparseness of their population, or their small size, or their remoteness from the centres of civilization, or their geographical contiguity to the territory of the Mandatory, and other circumstances, can be best administered under the

laws of the Mandatory as integral portions of its territory, subject to the safeguards above mentioned in the interests of the indigenous population.

In every case of Mandate, the Mandatory shall render to the Council an annual report in reference to the territory committed to its charge.

The degree of authority, control, or administration to be exercised by the Mandatory shall, if not previously agreed upon by the Members of the League, be explicitly defined in each case by the Council.

A permanent Commission shall be constituted to receive and examine the annual reports of the Mandatories and to advise the Council on all matters relating to the observance of the Mandates.

APPENDIX 2

THE MANPOWER SITUATION

Achievement in Producing Required Trained Manpower in Schools:

1. General

Expansion of Secondary and higher education is the key-stone in producing the trained manpower needed for economic and social development. The goals set in the Five Year Plan for this vital part of the programme have been substantially met in all cases and in several they have been exceeded. If this rate of achievement is sustained, Governments' ambitious long-range Plan Policy of full self-sufficiency at all skill levels by 1980, will be met, except for occupations requiring highly specialised skills.

2. Secondary Education

The Plan provided for an output of approx. 25,000 from Form IV during the 5 Plan Years. At the mid-point in the Plan slightly over half this amount has been produced. The outputs from Form VI are also on schedule. The Plan provided for 3,720 for the Five Years. At mid-point about half this amount has been produced.

3. University Education

The number of individuals planned to enter U.E.A. in the school years beginning July, 1964, July, 1965 and July, 1966, totalled 898. This goal has been met and slightly surpassed.

4. Technician Level

These are 2 or 3 years post-secondary (Form IV) training courses for specific occupations (often called "sub-professional"). They are made up mainly of Group A Primary Teachers, Engineering Technicians, Agricultural and Veterinary Technicians. Owing to the Ministry of Education's success in meeting the goals for Secondary output it has been possible to secure a sufficient number of trainees to meet the inputs so far to these institutions as provided in the Plan.

5. Other Actions in the Field of Education

(a) Guiding Bursary Awards to meet National Skill Requirements:-

Students entering the University of East Africa have been channelled into the faculties which produce the skills most urgently needed in Tanzania. This change from wholly unguided pupil choice has brought about dramatic increases in the number of students entering courses for Engineering, Medicine, Agronomy, Veterinary Science, Secondary Teachers, Architects, Geologists and others. Yearly enrollments in Engineering for example rose from 4 or 5 per year Pre-Plan to over 38 last year; in Medicine they rose from 7 or 8 to over 30; Graduate Secondary teachers from 4 or 5 per year to over 120; In addition, overseas donor scholarships have been similarly channelled toward the skill requirements of the Five-Year Plan. This has been accomplished through the establishment of a Civil Service Advisory Committee to the Cabinet Committee on Higher Education. All foreign donors now submit their scholarships to this Committee which accepts on behalf of the Government only those that meet known skill needs. Those which do not meet these needs are either declined, or negotiations are undertaken to change their offers so that they do.

(b) Required Post Graduate Government Service:-

All persons receiving Government Bursaries for higher education are required (and have been since 1964) to serve the Government for a fixed period of years, after graduation. In the case of University Graduates the required period of service to Government is five years. Most Tanzanians who receive higher education do so on Government Bursaries.

(c) Vocational Guidance:-

In order to provide Secondary students with the factual basis upon which to make the best possible vocational choice a 140 page illustrated Careers Guidebook - "Careers for Nation Building" - was written and published in 1965. It contains a description of all occupations which require a secondary education, or higher, as a base. For each such occupation the work is described in detail, together with the education and training necessary, wages or salaries offered and finally a picture of employment prospects in the occupation for the

Five Plan Years. These Careers guide-books were distributed to all Secondary School Libraries and to all Careers Masters, Labour Exchange Officers, Universities and Public Libraries.

APPENDIX 3

Relevant Texts on Primary Education from President Nyerere's Paper:

Education for Self-Reliance

- | Page | Text |
|------|--|
| 6 | Tanzania will continue to have a predominantly rural economy for a long time to come and as it is in the rural areas that people live and work, so it is in the rural areas that life must be improved. |
| 8 | (The educational system of Tanzania) must also prepare young people for the work they will be called upon to do in the society which exists in Tanzania - a rural society where improvement will depend largely upon the efforts of the people in agriculture and in village development. [...] <u>It must produce good farmers</u> ; it has to prepare people for <u>their responsibilities</u> as free workers and citizens in a free and democratic society, albeit a largely rural society. |
| 9 | Although only about 13 per cent of our primary school children will get a place in a secondary school, the basis of our primary school education is the preparation of pupils for secondary school. Thus 87 per cent of the children who finished primary school last year (1966) [...] do so with a sense of failure, of a legitimate aspiration having been denied them. Indeed, we all speak in these terms, by referring to them as those who have failed to enter secondary schools, instead of simply as those who have finished their primary education. |
| 10 | ... the fact that Tanzania's education is such as to divorce its participants from the society it is supposed to be preparing them for. This is particularly true of secondary schools, [...] but to some extent, and despite recent modifications in the curriculum it is true of primary school too. We take children from their parents at the age of 7 years, and for up to 7.1/2 hours a day we teach them certain basic academic skills. [...] But the school is always separate; it is not part of the society. It is a place children go to and which they and their parents hope will make it unnecessary for them to become farmers and continue living in the villages. |

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| 14 | The "problem of the primary school leavers" is in fact a product of the present system. Increasingly children are starting school at six or even five years of age, so that they finish primary school when they are still too young to become responsible workers and citizens. [...] This problem, therefore calls for major changes in the content of our primary education and for the raising of the primary school entry age so that the child is older when he leaves, and also able to learn more quickly while he is at school. |
| 15 | The implication of this is that the education given in our primary schools must be a complete education in itself. It must not continue to be simply a preparation for secondary school. Instead of primary school activities being geared to the competitive examinations which will select the few who go on to secondary school, they must be a preparation for life which the majority of the children will lead. |
| 16 | We should determine the type of things taught in the primary school by the things which the boy or girl ought to know - that is the skills he ought to acquire and the values he ought to cherish if he or she is to live happily and well in a socialist and predominantly rural society and contribute to the improvement of life there. Our sights must be on the majority; it is they we must be aiming at in determining the curriculum and syllabus. |
| 17 | ... every school should also be a farm; that the school community should consist of people who are both teachers and farmers, pupils and farmers. Obviously, if there is a school farm, the pupils working on it should be learning the techniques and tasks of farming. But the farm would be an integral part of the school - and the welfare of the pupils will depend on its output, just as the welfare of a farmer depends on the output of his land. |

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|------|--|
| 18 | ... on a school farm pupils can learn by doing. The important place of the hoe and of other simple tools can be demonstrated; the advantage of the improved seeds, of simple ox-ploughs, and of proper methods of animal husbandry can become obvious; and the pupils can learn by practice how to use these things to the best advantage. The farm work and products should be integrated in the school life; thus the properties of fertilizers can be explained in the science classes and their use and limitations experienced by pupils as they see them in use. |
| 19 | ... each school must have considerable flexibility. |
| 21 | But although primary schools cannot accept the same responsibilities for their well-being as secondary schools, it is absolutely vital that they, and their pupils, should be thoroughly integrated into the village life. |
| 22 | ... this integration [...] will have to be done deliberately with the conscious intention of making the children realize that they are being educated by the community in order that they shall become intelligent and active members of the community. One possible way of achieving this would combine for primary school pupils the same advantages of learning by doing as the secondary school pupils will have. |
| 23 | ... the children should be involved not only in the work, but also in the allocation of any food or cash crop produced. They should participate in the choice between benefit to the school directly, or to the village as a whole, and between present or future benefit. By these and other appropriate means the children must learn from the beginning to the end of their school life that the education does not set them apart, but is designed to help them be effective members of the community. |

| Page | Text |
|------|---|
| 24 | <p>For the majority of our people the thing which matters is that they should be able to read and to write fluently in Swahili; that they should have an ability to do Arithmetic and that they should know something of history, values, and workings of their country and their government, and that they should acquire the skills necessary to earn their living. [...] Things like health science, geography and the beginning of English, are also important, especially so that the people who wish may be able to learn more by themselves in later life. But most important of all is that our primary school graduates should be able to fit into, and to serve, the communities from which they come.</p> |

APPENDIX 4

Relevant Texts on Agricultural Education at Primary Level from the Report of the Dar-es-Salaam Education Conference held from Monday 10th to Friday, 14th April, 1967, pp. 5-8.

1. The Role of Primary School

a) The Conference resolved that the major aim and effort in the primary school should be to prepare the child for a life in his community (which for the most part would be a rural peasant community), and to train him for a life of service to that community.

b) It was agreed that the primary school teacher had a vital role to play in this policy of integrating the pupil into his community. The teacher must act as the essential link between school and village. In order to succeed in this task it is not enough for him to carry on his class work in isolation, but he must go out into the villages to co-operate with parents and act as a leader in the community, and must do all in his power to invite parents and village leaders to assist him with his work in the school classroom.

2. Agriculture

It was resolved that:

a) all subjects taught in the primary school should be related to agriculture and that where possible every school (should) have a farm where local cash and food crops should be grown and modern farming techniques practised with the help and advice of the local agricultural extension officer.

b) where land is available, and the community around it engages in block farming, the school should take advantage of this and have their shamba (agricultural holding) in the block. In any case the school farm must be closely integrated with the village and follow the best recommended local farming practice.

c) The school farm should be organized on a communal basis and that produce or profit from the farm should be used for the benefit of the school community, (i.e. school feeding schemes, block school fee payments, purchase of extra school and sports equipment, etc.) In addition, if sufficient land is available, smaller co-operative plots worked by groups of pupils should be encouraged.

d) every effort should be made to secure the co-operation and assistance of Local Councils, Co-operative Societies and parents in supplying the initial supply of agricultural implements to open the projects, and in the subsequent purchase of seeds and fertilizers. Where applicable, all marketing should be through the local co-operative society.

e) School farm activities should include the maintenance of the proper records, and all members of the school, both teachers and pupils - must be fully involved in the project.

f) Schools in urban or other areas of actual land shortage should emphasize other productive activities such as poultry, rabbit and bee-keeping, fishing, fish ponds, carpentry and other suitable handicrafts with a local relevance.

3. Curriculum Revision

a) Science: The Conference noted and recommended the following proposed changes:

... At the moment there are two science syllabuses, namely agricultural science and general science. What is really needed is one integrated science course with emphasis on agriculture, health and nutrition. This must, of course, be co-ordinated with activities in the school shamba. The subject Panels concerned will soon start on the task. Meantime, the agricultural syllabus is being translated into Swahili and a start has been made on development of materials, books and equipment - for teachers and pupils.

b) Mathematics: The Conference noted and recommended the following curriculum changes:

... The introduction of the metric system in East Africa is important, so is the application of mathematics to agriculture. The goal is to enable the school leaver to use mathematics effectively in his every-day life.

g) Domestic Science

i. The Conference recommended the following proposals and noted the following progress made:

"The aim of Domestic Science education is to help pupils become better family members and later establish successful homes. The use of local dishes and materials is strongly emphasized with a view to improving the flavours and nutritional value. The problem is one of books written for this country and by local authors. One Domestic Science School Inspector has started to work on a manuscript for use at primary level and it is hoped that the manuscript will be completed soon.

ii. It was emphasized that the main aim of the syllabus was to make the training provided more localised with the use of local dishes and materials. The Conference noted that it was necessary to reduce as far as possible reliance on imported foodstuffs for school feeding schemes, as soon as possible.

Educational Broadcasts

The Conference welcomes the proposal that the school broadcasts should place greater emphasis on school farming activities, nutrition, and health, and expressed the view that school broadcasts should concentrate on supplementary material, rather than on repetition of items from the normal school syllabus which for most part could be adequately covered by the teacher. The Conference emphasized:

... iii. the need for some primary school inspectors in each region to begin to specialize in certain difficult subjects - such as science and agriculture.

5. School Terms

The need to adjust school terms to the agricultural year has already been accepted. For the Primary Schools, it was further recommended that the Regional Education Officers, subject to consultation with the Ministry, should be authorized to adjust dates locally to suit conditions in their Regions, if this becomes necessary for urgent farming activities such as sowing, weeding and harvesting. Similarly, head teachers of Primary Schools, in consultation with the District Education Officer, should be authorized to place the whole school on urgent farming activities for a day or two in or outside the school farm.

6. School Entry Age

It was agreed that the policy enforcing the minimum enrolment age of 7 plus, should be enforced in all areas.

APPENDIX 5

Table X.-

Table of School Population in Non-Formal Education, 1965

| Literacy Classes | 1965 | Civil Service Inservice Training | |
|---|---------|--|---------|
| Literacy classes | 569,642 | Civil Service in-service training courses | 2,010 |
| Community development follow-up classes | 16,539 | Correspondence and evening courses | 5,100 |
| District and farmers' training centres | 5,000 | Residential adult courses (Kivukoni College) | 60 |
| Training within Industry (TWI) courses | 189 | | |
| TOTAL | | | 598,540 |

The total does not include enrolments in evening courses arranged by the Ministry of Education in certain centres.*

* Jane King, Planning non-formal education in Tanzania, Paris, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, 1967, p. 12.

APPENDIX 6

ABSTRACT OF

The Politico-economic Context and Implications for Primary Education of Tanzania's 1967 Educational Policy¹

In the present study of the above named, an attempt has been made to present the evolution of the Tanzanian educational policy in its politico-economic context as well as in its implications, especially, for the Primary Education. The purpose of this research was not to give ideal solutions to educational problems originating from Tanzania's 1967 educational policy, but to indicate to the educational policy makers, some particular areas where problems necessitate further systematic scientific studies to find preferable solutions.

The first chapter of this dissertation deals with the historical factors prior to Education for Self-Reliance. The fact is that political influences during the colonial period have played an important role in shaping up the educational system that was to be inherited at independence, in 1961. The purpose of discussing the historical background was to point out defects in the colonial system of

¹ Christian Kapinga. Thesis presented to the Faculty of Education of the University of Ottawa, Ontario, November 1968, for the degree of M.A., xvii-230 p.

education and the efforts made to correct them. Some of these defects could easily creep into the post-independence system of education even in that of Education for Self-Reliance, under some apparently blameless guises. The post-independence educational policy, therefore, was broadly discussed in order to put in a clear light its emphasis on adapting and expanding the inherited colonial system of education to the country's requirements rather than constructing a new one immediately. The Five-Year Development Plan (1964/65-1968/69), however, called for the adaptation of the educational system to manpower production in order to increase the Gross Domestic Product. This fact formed the closing of the historical background and a preparation for the next educational system.

The System of Education for Self-Reliance, resulting from the Arusha Declaration, has been broadly discussed in the second chapter as an answer both to the goals of the Five-Year Development Plan and to the requirements of the kind of Society Tanzania is trying to build. The nature of its message consists in the rediscovery of the lost dignity of agriculture in which much instruction has to be given from primary school through university. This education-agriculture involvement necessarily called for a reconstruction of the educational content at all education levels. In attempting this change, as the findings have brought to

light, difficult problems have been unavoidable.

It has been shown in the third chapter that the involvement of primary education in extensive agricultural instruction poses many implications. Experience of other places, such as Ghana, Brazil and Iran, has shown that not only are difficulties encountered, but it is also detrimental. The attention of educational policy makers was called to the fact that agricultural education which is likely to be assimilated at primary education level is an agricultural orientation. This consists in instilling in the hearts of the pupils a genuine belief in agriculture as a vital contributor to the life of the community.

In support of the conclusions from the findings of this research, the assertions which served as basis for the argument were taken from the reports of the African Education Conferences of Addis Ababa, Tananarive and Nairobi; the two seminars at Paris on the interdependence between economic productivity and education, as well as the Conference on the Needs of Asia in Primary Education.