

Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children

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Abbreviations

ANAR Adjusted Net Attendance Rate	NFE Non-Formal Education
BEST Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania	OOSC Out-of-School Children
CMF Conceptual and Methodological Framework	OOSCI Out-of-School Children Initiative
COBET Complimentary Basic Education in Tanzania	PEDP Primary Education Development Plan
CSEE Certificate of Secondary Education Examination	PLR Pupil to Pit Latrine Ratio
DEO District Education Officer	PO-RALG President's Office – Regional Administration and Local Government
DPO Development Partners Organisations	PSLE Primary School Leaving Examination
DUCE Dar es Salaam University College of Education	REO Regional Education Officer
EFA Education for All	SEDP Secondary Education Development Plan
EGMA Early Grade Mathematics Assessment	SSME Snapshot of School Management Effectiveness
EGRA Early Grade Reading Assessment	TASAF Tanzania Social Action Fund
ESDP Education Sector Development Programme	UIS UNESCO Institute for Statistics
ETP Education and Training Policy	UNICEF United Nations Children's Fund
GPI Gender Parity Index	UPE Universal Primary Education
HBS Household Budget Survey	WASH Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
MOEST Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	WEC Ward Educational Coordinators
NBS National Bureau of Statistics	

Contents

Executive summary	6
1.	
Introduction	13
1.1. Research objectives and methodology	14
1.2. Education system in Tanzania	15
1.2.1. Autonomous education systems	15
1.2.2. Education system in Tanzania Mainland, 2012	16
1.2.3. Simplification measures taken in profiling OOSC	16
1.2.4. New education policy in Tanzania Mainland	17
2.	
Profiles of Out-of-School Children	18
2.1. Introduction	18
2.1.1. Out-of-School Children and their measurement	18
2.1.2 Data sources for measuring OOSC in Tanzania	18
2.1.3 Analytical framework	20
2.1.4 Note of caution	20
2.2 Dimension 1	20
2.2.1 Pre-primary exclusion	20
2.2.2 Regional disparity in pre-primary exclusion	22
2.3 Dimensions 2 and 3	23
2.3.1 Primary ANAR	23
2.3.2 Out-of-School Children at primary school age	24
2.3.3 School attendance of lower secondary school age children	24
2.3.4 Out-of-School Children at lower secondary school-age	26
2.3.5 Number and percentage of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania	26
2.3.6 Urban and rural and regional disparity in Out-of-School Children	27
2.3.6.1 <i>Urban and rural disparity in Out-of-School Children</i>	27
2.3.6.2 <i>Regional disparity in Out-of-School Children</i>	27
2.4 Profiles of the Never-Attended and Drop-out Children	30
2.4.1 School attendance of children in Tanzania	30
2.4.2 Children who never attended school	31
2.4.3 Children who dropped out of school	32
2.4.3.1 <i>Dropout rate</i>	32
2.4.3.2 <i>Education attainment¹⁰ of dropout children</i>	32
2.4.3.3 <i>Reasons for drop out of school</i>	33
2.4.4 Over age	35
2.4.5 Impact of poverty on Out-of-School Children	36
2.4.6 Impact of disability on Out-of-School Children	37
2.4.7 Impact of family structure on Out-of-School Children	38
2.4.8 Relationship between dropout and early marriage	38
2.4.9 Child labour in Out-of-School Children	39
2.5 Dimension 4 and 5	41
2.6 Projection of number of Out-of-School Children for 2015	42
3.	
Analysis of Critical Issues in the Implementation of Education Policies and strategies	43
3.1 Weak performance of the primary education sub-sector	44
3.2 Unsustainable expansion of secondary education	44

3.3 Limited human resource pool for quality teachers	45
3.4 Shortage of skilled workers	45
4.	46
Barriers and bottlenecks	46
4.1 Introduction	46
4.1.1 Analytical framework	46
4.1.2 OOSC profile and barriers and bottlenecks	46
4.2 Major bottlenecks in enabling environment	47
4.2.1 Education policy enforcement	47
4.2.2 Budget allocation and timely delivery of grants	48
4.2.3 Planning of education resources	49
4.2.3.1 <i>Education plan with population volume and growth</i>	49
4.2.3.2 <i>Education plan with population distribution</i>	49
4.2.4 Motivation of teachers	49
4.2.5 Quality of teaching and teacher training	49
4.3 Supply side barriers	50
4.3.1 Shortage of teachers	50
4.3.2 Shortage in classrooms and desks	52
4.3.3 Poor school infrastructure and facilities	53
4.3.4 Corporal punishment	53
4.3.5 Schools far away	54
4.3.6 Safety in and out of school	54
4.3.7 Shortage of textbook supply	55
4.3.8 Lack of provision for disability	55
4.3.9 Provision of sports and extracurricular activities	56
4.3.10 School inspection	56
4.4 Demand side barriers	57
4.4.1 Poverty	57
4.4.1.1 <i>Poverty in general</i>	57
4.4.1.2 <i>Indirect costs of schooling</i>	58
4.4.1.3 <i>Opportunity costs of schooling</i>	58
4.4.2 Perception of low value of education	59
4.4.3 Late start of primary schooling	60
4.4.4 Gender-related barriers	60
4.4.4.1 <i>Late start of school in boys</i>	61
4.4.4.2 <i>Early drop out of school among girls</i>	61
4.4.5 Weak family structure	62
4.4.6 Migration of households	62
4.4.7 Attitudes to Persons with Disability	63
4.4.8 Communal responsibility and involvement	63
4.4.9 Information on Out-of-School Children	63
5.	64
Conclusion and recommendations	64
5.1 Profile of Out-of-School Children	64
5.2 Quality of education	66
5.3 Barriers and bottlenecks	66
5.4 Recommendations	67
Appendices	69

List of Tables

TABLE 1: Basic facts on the United Republic of Tanzania	13
TABLE 2: School attendance status of children aged five	21
TABLE 3: School attendance status of children aged six	21
TABLE 4: Number of pre-primary school age children not in education in Tanzania	21
TABLE 5: Selected regional ranking of school attendance of children aged five	22
TABLE 6: Selected regional ranking of school attendance of children aged six	22
TABLE 7: Primary Adjusted Net Attendance Rate	23
TABLE 8: OOSC at primary school age	25
TABLE 9: Lower secondary Adjusted Net Attendance Rate	25
TABLE 10: Percentage of lower secondary attending primary school	25
TABLE 11: OOSC at lower secondary school-age	26
TABLE 12: Number of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania	26
TABLE 13: Urban/rural OOSC rate and number at primary school-age	27
TABLE 14: Urban/rural OOSC rate and number at lower secondary school-age	27
TABLE 15: Selected regional ranking on OOSC at primary-age by order of OOSC rate	28
TABLE 16: Selected regional OOSC situation at lower secondary-age by order of OOSC rate	28
TABLE 17: Selected regional OOSC situation at primary-age by order of OOSC number	29
TABLE 18: Selected regional OOSC situation at lower secondary-age by order of OOSC	29
TABLE 19: School attendance status of children by age	30
TABLE 20: Percentage and number of never-attended children by age group	31
TABLE 21: Selected regional ranking on percentage of never-attended children aged 11	32
TABLE 22: Selected regional ranking on number of never-attended children aged 11	32
TABLE 23: Dropout rate by age	32
TABLE 24: Education attainment of children who dropped out of school	33
TABLE 25: Reasons for not attending school, aged 7-13, Mainland	34
TABLE 26: Reasons for not attending school, aged 14-17, Mainland	34
TABLE 27: Over age by level (children aged 7-20)	35
TABLE 28: Over age by grade (children aged 7-20)	35
TABLE 29: Over age by grade, by male and female; urban and rural	35
TABLE 30: Population of children (5-17) by consumption quintiles	36
TABLE 31: Pre-primary children attending school, by consumption quintile, Mainland	36
TABLE 32: OOSC rate and number at primary-age, by consumption quintile, Mainland	37
TABLE 33: OOSC rate and number at lower secondary-age, by consumption quintile, Mainland	37
TABLE 34: Attendance status of children with disability, by age	37
TABLE 35: Schooling of children from different family structure, aged 11-12, Mainland	38
TABLE 36: School attendance status of girls engaged in some form of marriage, by age	39
TABLE 37: Percentage of OOSC involved in child labour, by age group	40
TABLE 38: Prime activity of economically active OOSC, by age group, Mainland	40
TABLE 39: Survival rate to last grade of primary education	41
TABLE 40: Dropout rate before last grade of primary education	41
TABLE 41: Primary repetition rate by grade	41
TABLE 42: Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education	41
TABLE 43: Survival rate to last grade of lower secondary education	42
TABLE 44: Dropout rate before last grade of lower secondary education	42
TABLE 45: Lower secondary repetition rate by grade	42
TABLE 46: Education performance of primary and lower secondary schools by BEST	42
TABLE 47: Correlation study	50
TABLE 48: Primary level: OOSC rate and 7-13 child population to teacher ratio	51
TABLE 49: Primary level: OOSC rate and regional per capita income (thousand)	57
TABLE 50: Primary level: OOSC rate and attendance rate at eight-years old	60
TABLE 51: Primary level: OOSC rate and GPI in attendance rate at 8 years old	61

TABLE 52: Population of children by school-age group	69
TABLE 53: Population of children by age	69
TABLE 54: Regional ranking of school attendance of children aged five	70
TABLE 55: Regional ranking of school attendance of children aged six	71
TABLE 56: School attendance status of children aged five, by consumption quintile, Mainland	71
TABLE 57: School attendance status of children aged six, by consumption quintile, Mainland	71
TABLE 58: Number of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania Mainland	72
TABLE 59: Number of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania Zanzibar	72
TABLE 60: Regional OOSC rate and number at primary school-age by order of OOSC rate	72
TABLE 61: Regional OOSC rate and number at primary-age by order of OOSC number	73
TABLE 62: Regional OOSC rate and number at lower secondary-age by order of OOSC rate	74
TABLE 63: Regional OOSC rate and number at lower secondary-age by order of OOSC number	75
TABLE 64: Urban/rural OOSC rate and number at primary school-age	75
TABLE 65: Urban/rural OOSC rate and number at lower secondary school-age	76
TABLE 66: OOSC rate and number at primary school-age, by urban/rural and sex	76
TABLE 67: OOSC rate and number at lower secondary school-age, by urban/rural and sex	77
TABLE 68: Attendance rates by Region and by Gender	77
TABLE 69: OOSC rates by regions and gender	78
TABLE 70: School attendance status by age, Tanzania Mainland	78
TABLE 71: School attendance status by age, Tanzania Zanzibar	79
TABLE 72: Regional ranking on percentage of never-attended children aged 11	80
TABLE 73: Regional ranking on number of never-attended children aged 11	81
TABLE 74: Percentage of economically active children, by age	82
TABLE 75: Percentage of economically active children who are out of school, by age	82
TABLE 76: 2015 School attendance status of children aged five	82
TABLE 77: 2015 School attendance status of children aged six	82
TABLE 78: 2015 OOSC at primary school-age	82
TABLE 79: 2015 OOSC at lower secondary school-age	83

List of Figures

FIGURE 1: Regional administrative map of Tanzania	12
FIGURE 2: Model of research for Tanzania OOSC initiative	15
FIGURE 3: Five dimensions of exclusion	19
FIGURE 4: School attendance status of children aged five and six	21
FIGURE 5: Primary ANAR by age	24
FIGURE 6: School attendance of lower secondary school-age children by age	26
FIGURE 7: Percentage of Out-of-School Children by age	27
FIGURE 8: School attendance status by age	31
FIGURE 9: Percentage of never-attended children by age and gender	31
FIGURE 10: Dropout rate by age and gender	33
FIGURE 11: Education attainment of children who dropped out of school	33
FIGURE 13: Dropout rate in girls engaged in some form of marriage, by age	39
FIGURE 14: Percentage of OOSC involved in child labour, by age group	40
FIGURE 15: Success rate of 11 years' primary and lower secondary education	43
FIGURE 16: Correlation between population to teacher ratio and OOSC rate	52
FIGURE 17: Correlation between shortage of classrooms and OOSC rate	53
FIGURE 18: Distribution of primary school-age OOSC by consumption quintile, Mainland	57
FIGURE 19: Attendance status by age, Mainland	79
FIGURE 20: Attendance status by age, Zanzibar	79

Executive summary

1. Global Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI)

The Global Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI), a partnership between UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), was launched in 2010 to help countries to undertake focused research on the situations of Out-of-School Children.

The UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) estimated in the 2013 Global Monitoring Report that fourteen countries had more than 1 million children out of primary school in 2011, including Afghanistan, China, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Somalia, Sudan (pre-secession) and the United Republic of Tanzania. Phase one of the OOSCI Initiative focused on conducting studies in 26 countries. Tanzania joined the countries participating in the second round of studies.

2. The concept of Out-of-School Children

The OOSCI Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) which provides the guidelines for the Out-of-School study was developed jointly by UNICEF and UNESCO/UIS to help countries to undertake focused research on the situations of Out-of-School Children. By the CMF guideline, Out-of-School Children are children of primary or lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school. In Tanzania in 2012 when the Population and Household Census data was collected, these children were of the age between seven and 17 and were not attending primary or secondary schools (Standard I – Form IV), or any other education with formal equivalence. At the time, Zanzibar had already implemented its 2006 education policy, lowering primary entry-age to six, and this report has taken this fact into consideration.

Although not classified as out-of-school, children who are of pre-primary school age (5-6) are considered as not being in school. Children of primary and lower secondary school age (7-17) who are in primary and lower secondary education but are at the risk of dropping out of school are also covered within the context of the Out-of-School Children's study.

3. Research objectives and methodology

The objectives of this research were to:

- Increase access of policy makers and implementers to profiles of children and adolescents out of school in terms of who they are and where they are; why children are out of school, including an analysis of the supply side barriers, the opportunity costs of schooling and other demand side barriers and bottlenecks
- Provide specific information to explain why disabled children tend to be refused entry to school; improve the quality of data, data collection methodologies and instruments on children with disabilities in the EMIS and provide data and information on the capacity of the education system to respond to the specific needs of disabled children
- Assess the actual cost of primary and secondary education and assist policy makers and implementers to understand to what extent policies and strategies on capitation grants, TASAF social protection measures and other equalising measures within the primary and secondary education subsectors actually meet the cost for the education of vulnerable and marginalised children and what should be done to deal with identified gaps in existing policies and strategies
- Carry out a case study on socio-cultural values and practices that promote or hinder the educational participation of children from geographically or ethnically marginalised groups; analyse existing curricula to determine the extent to which positive cultural values and practices from marginalised population groups have been embedded to enhance demand for education.

UNICEF entrusted two teams of expertise to carry out both quantitative and qualitative research on Out-of-School Children: an international consultant was responsible for the profiling of Out-of-School Children, the analysis of barriers and bottlenecks, and the final writing of the Tanzania Country Report, whereas a Tanzania local research team was responsible for qualitative field study in the regions selected, with the support of the international consultant. The findings from the regional field formed part of the analysis on the barriers and bottlenecks.

3.1 Profile of Out-of-School Children

- The profile analysis presented in this report is the first of its kind in Tanzania on Out-of-School Children. Information on Out-of-School Children can be discovered from various publications and government databases, but they are limited, patchy, and inadequate. This report makes a systematic and comprehensive attempt at analysing children who are out of school. The findings reveal not only percentages and numbers, but also the phenomenon and its magnitude in Tanzania. The distinctive approach was made possible by direct analysis of micro data of the latest Population and Housing Census 2012, the latest Household Budget Surveys in both Mainland (2011/12) and Zanzibar (2009), and Education Management Information System (EMIS) data.

3.2 Barriers and bottlenecks

The analysis on barriers and bottlenecks is based on four parts of work:

- 1) Profile of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania
- 2) Desk review on publications in recent years, including Tanzania BEST 2013/2014 and 2011 Tanzania Education Sector Analysis
- 3) Analysis of relationships between out-of-school rate and education related data available from Tanzania Government
- 4) Findings from the recent qualitative research carried out by Dar es Salaam College of Education (DUCE) in the seven regions in the country. Additionally, interviews were conducted during the research with officials at the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and at the President's Office - Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG). Issues related to barriers and bottlenecks are derived from the demand side, concerning children and their parents, and the supply side of education which involves government and other stakeholders. The analysis seeks to highlight key barriers and bottlenecks that affect the inclusive education of Out-of-School Children.

3.3 Quality of primary education

During the profiling of Out-of-School Children and the research on barriers and bottlenecks, the author came to realise that there are serious issues with the quality of primary education in Tanzania. The

problem is so profound that the report devoted one additional chapter to explain the findings.

4. Tanzania Country Report on Out-of-School Children

Findings and recommendations of the OOSC profiling and the barriers and bottlenecks analysis are presented in this Tanzania Country Report on Out-of-School Children¹.

4.1 Tanzania profile of Out-of-School Children, 2012

Pre-primary school age (five and six):

- About 1.4 million children are at the pre-primary school age of five, of whom 31.7 per cent attend pre-primary and 1.3 per cent attend primary. The rate of children not attending school (neither pre-primary nor primary) is 67.1 per cent, and the total number is 939,000.
- About 1.4 million children are at the pre-primary school age of six, of whom 24.6 per cent attend pre-primary and 18.8 per cent attend primary. The rate of children not attending school (primary and above) is 56.6 per cent, and the total number is 797,000.

Primary and lower secondary school age (7-13):

- There are about 8.5 million children of primary school age (7-13 years), of whom 23.2 per cent are out of school. The total number of Out-of-School Children at this age is 1,969,000.
- There are about 3.7 million children of lower secondary school age (14-17), of whom 40.9 per cent are out of school. The total number of Out-of-School children at this age is 1,523,000.
- In summary, about 2 million primary-school-age children and 1.5 million lower-secondary-school-age children are out of school in Tanzania. The numbers together total 3.5 million Out-of-School Children aged between seven and 17, and represent close to one in every four primary-school-age children and more than two in every five lower-secondary-school children.

Late entry to and early departure from school:

- Late entry to and early departure from schools are common in Tanzania. School attendance delays its peak until the age of 11, when 85 per cent of children are in school. By the age of 15, a third of those who entered school have left school.

1. This report used findings of the Qualitative Field Study in the regions. More detailed information on the field study can be made available upon request to the UNICEF.

- Compared with boys, girls enter school earlier and also leave school earlier. Towards the age of 16 and 17, the percentage of girls leaving school picks up rapidly.
- Compared to girls, the performance of boys is less impressive. They lag behind girls to be more likely attending primary school while already at the lower secondary school age, and are also much more likely to repeat than girls. As a consequence, more boys are over-age in school.

Over-age and repetition rate:

- Repetition rate is high in lower grades of primary education. Because of this, the over-age rate builds up rapidly from 24.2 per cent in Standard I to 42.8 per cent in Standard IV. Its effect continues into later stages of education. At the lower secondary school, 46.9 per cent of children are over-age for their grades.

Children who have never attended school:

- There is a large number of children who have never attended school: at the primary school age, 20.0 per cent or 1.7 million children have never attended school, and at the lower secondary age, 10.4 per cent or close to 400,000 children have never attended school. The percentage is so high and so persistent across different ages that, if improvement is not made, for the next coming decade, at least 10 per cent of the entire young adult population will have never entered the education system.
- In contrast to the above conclusion which is based on 2012 Census data, the BEST recorded close to full registration in primary education but with a very high dropout rate. The subsequent Qualitative Field Study found that many children did not register, or they registered but dropped out after a short period of attendance. In this respect, the Census and the BEST do not contradict each other.

Children who dropped out of school:

- The majority of children who dropped out of school left after they had completed primary education. Those who dropped out before the completion of primary education did so in most cases during the early stages of primary education (Standards I-IV). To be more specific, of the dropout children between the age of 14-17, about 80 per cent left education with their primary schooling completed, and of the dropout children between the age of seven and 13, about 80 per cent left school at the lower Grades of 1-4, i.e. Standards I-IV.
- When asked why children dropped out of school, only a small proportion of respondents highlighted affordability

as a reason for dropping out. School related problems such as: 'the school is useless or uninteresting; failed examination, and too far away', predominate the list of reasons for dropping out. At the primary school age, nearly half of the children who dropped out of school gave the same reasons for dropping out as those mentioned above.

- A significant proportion of children leave school after they have finished only the primary level of education. There seems to be a perception in the society that completion of primary education, or in some cases completion of just some primary grades, is sufficient for a child.

Urban and rural and regional disparities:

- A significant gap exists between urban and rural areas. Rural children are much more likely to be out of school, and they are also much more likely to be over-age when in school
- There is a huge variation between different regions. Depending on where children live, the likelihood of being out of school could be as little as 6.4 per cent and as high as 44.3 per cent, for example. There also tends to be a concentration of Out-of-School Children where half of Out-of-School Children live in fewer than ten regions.

Impact of poverty and other social-economic factors:

- Impact of poverty is real. Both percentage and number of Out-of-School Children are high in economically less fortunate families. About 1 million, or 60 per cent of Out-of-School Children of primary school age live in the poorest 20 per cent of households, with large family size of 6.3.
- Poverty influences different aspects of a child's life, many indirect and invisible. This is reflected in the answers to 2011/12 HBS surveys, in which only a small proportion of respondents selected affordability as the reason for dropout.
- The report additionally analysed impact of disability, family structure, and child labour.

4.2 Projection of number of Out-of-School Children for 2015

Based on the population projected² using 2012 Census data, in 2015, there were 2.2 million Out-of-School Children at the primary school age of 7 to 13, and 1.7 million Out-of-School Children at the lower secondary school age of 14-17. In total, 3.9 million children of school age 7 to 17 are out of school. At the pre-primary school ages, around 1 million five-year-olds and 900,000 six-year-olds attend neither pre-primary nor primary schools. This

2. This projection is based only on population projected, without taking into consideration any other parameters.

projection assumes that all conditions have remained the same, except for the growth of population.

For 2016, children aged six, who are not attending primary education, will be classified as Out-of-School Children. However, since the lower secondary education will be free, there will be an impact on those who would otherwise not enter secondary education. Additionally, as children aged six who are not in school, are classed as out of school, theoretically, children aged 17 who are not in school, should not be classed as out of school. The percentage and number of Out-of-School Children are less predictable.

4.3 Quality and Internal Efficiency of primary education

Based on EMIS/BEST data published by the Tanzania Government, this report found the following fact: assuming 100 children enrol in primary Standard I, about 30 will drop out of school, 35 fail the primary school leaving examination, and only 35 complete primary education successfully and qualify for further education. Of these 35 children who have been successful, assuming they all enrol in lower secondary education, only 15 will complete the education and qualify for further A-Level education. In summary, for every 100 children who are enrolled in Standard I, only 15 finish the basic education and qualify for further study.

The report observes that the very low internal efficiency of basic education has limited the production of qualified human resources for both skilled labour force and quality teachers. At the very bottom of this human resource pyramid, the primary education has limited size of the human resource pool to be only 35 per cent. The poor quality in primary education is particularly problematic. Despite the great effort made in recent years, expansion of lower secondary education has come to a standstill because of the limited and stagnant production of successful candidates from primary education.

The report concludes that the poor performance of primary education is changing the landscape of education in Tanzania and requires immediate attention from the Tanzanian Government. Only when the vicious cycle of poor primary education is broken and the shortage of a skilled labour force dealt with at its roots, can Tanzania be on the path to its targeted goal of reaching middle income status by 2025.

4.4 Barriers and bottlenecks

As a serious consequence of poor education performance, a perception of low value of education is held by parents, communities, as well as children themselves, and is widespread, deeply rooted, and pervasive in all wealth quintiles.

Evidence can be found by:

- a) so many children out of school in Tanzania
- b) response to HBS survey questionnaires
- c) findings from the Qualitative Field Study
- d) desk review, including UNESCO reports and international research reports.

In addition to the poor education performance and the perception of low value of education, the report identified a number of key education supply side barriers that are strongly linked to the high percentage of Out-of-School Children. There is a severe shortage of quality teachers, particularly primary school teachers. Schools are unfavourable because of insufficient classrooms and desks, poor sanitation facilities, often with no running water, and widely spread corporal punishment. Schools are too far away from children's residences.

On the demand side, the report recognises that poverty is a key reason why many children do not attend school. The indirect cost of schooling is high. The high opportunity costs of schooling continue to keep children away from school. It is common for children, particularly boys, to start school late, and for girls to leave school early. Tanzania has a high proportion of families with very weak family structure, leaving many children without proper parental care of their education. Children with disabilities continue to be disadvantaged.

There is also much to be improved in the governance of education. The planning of education resources seems to be barely in line with the growth of the population, and consequently little improvement has really been made. This is evident for example in the deployment of teachers and the allocation and distribution of grants. The morale of teachers is low.

There is also an issue with the enforcement of the education policy. Late entrance to school is widespread, and so is non-attendance in schools. School inspection visits have increased but their efficiency and effectiveness are still very much in doubt.

4.5 Recommendations

The following are recommendations made in the order of importance, based on the research carried out thus far on Out-of-School Children in Tanzania:

1. Awareness-raising on Out-of-School Children at all levels within the government

Although government officials are aware of the existence of Out-of-School Children, many do not understand the

magnitude and the extent of the problem. This raising of awareness is particularly important at the root level of education governance, i.e. Regional, District, and Ward Level Education Offices.

2. Awareness-raising within the government on the current status of Tanzania's primary education and on the importance of primary education

Late entry to school, high repetition rate in early primary grades, significant over-age, high dropout rate at early primary grades, poor school-leaving examination pass rates, and a perception among parents of low value of education are, amongst others, strong indications of poor primary education. The weak performance of primary education requires immediate attention of Central Government and calls for adjustment in the Government's strategic planning for higher level of investment, better resource planning, and more efficient and effective management.

This recommendation is made in spite of the fact that many international organizations have been helping Tanzania with programmes related to primary education, some with great success. Primary education cannot rely on external aid that is, more often than not, of finite duration, limited coverage, and inadequate sustainability. The poor status of Tanzania's primary education is in need of an improved national strategy on education, with greater Government commitment on a nationwide scale. This requires clear prioritization and strong enforcement within the new policy and consistent effort at all levels of government.

The recommendation also calls for awareness-raising amongst international organizations and NGOs to provide help where possible to improve primary education across the country.

3. Prioritising critical inputs

The education system cannot function without the most basic inputs. Improving access to quality teachers in adequate numbers, classrooms and desks, sanitation facilities and running water, school safety, and learning materials including textbooks, is critical for learning to take place. Schools should be encouraged to become more favourable to children, particularly at primary level, with less corporal punishment, more sports and extracurricular activities, and more child-friendly methods of teaching. The recommendation calls for a friendly learning environment where children are motivated to pursue their aspirations and interests.

4. Providing school meals to children in poverty, if not possible to all children

School meals are effective in improving school attendance and in combating long distances to school and dropping out due to opportunity costs of schooling. The recommendation also calls for other innovative ways to encourage less privileged children to enter and continue their education: stronger links between TASAF and school attendance, scholarships for bright and hardworking students, bursaries, etc. All avenues should be explored to encourage children to succeed in education and to become role models for others to follow.

5. Enhancing law enforcement on compulsory primary education, starting with ensuring all children, particularly boys, enter primary school by the age of six (under the new education policy)

The government should conduct a nationwide campaign to raise awareness of the importance of timely entry to primary education. The earlier children go to school, the better it is for the country and for its people, especially for girls who tend to drop out more, as they get older. In addition, every effort should be made to encourage schooling of the 10 per cent of children who are likely to never attend school in their life. This would optimise the contribution that the nation's human capital can make to its development.

Once children enter school, the government should find ways to protect them from dropping out of school, particularly those who are vulnerable and marginalised. In some cases, special measurement may be needed to deal with dishonest and corrupt WECs and Village Leaders who collude with parents to keep children out of school.

6. Improving school management by providing purposeful and practical training to school heads and school management teams

Head teachers should be equipped with managerial skills that deal with planning as well as day-to-day school management of schools. In addition, in relation to the new regulation on direct fund transfer to schools, training should be provided to head teachers on financial management.

7. Improving transparency and accountability in school management, and enhancing school monitoring and evaluation system

If the school inspection system is to be effective, findings and recommendations made by inspectors need to be followed. The existing recruitment method of inspectors and the procedure of school inspection should be studied to explore different ways to save cost and improve efficiency.

8. Improving motivation of teachers

This includes:

- a) better living and working condition for teachers
- b) better, and more training for teachers, both in and out of service
- c) stronger professional support and mentoring for teachers, particularly newly recruited teachers and teachers who have been assigned to new locations.

The Government should also explore possibilities of recruiting and deploying teachers locally to reduce cost, and to explore possibilities of a decentralised teacher recruitment process.

9. Awareness-raising at all levels of Tanzanian society, on the importance of education and also the importance of parental care in children's education

A parenting strategy should be developed and implemented to ensure that parents and caregivers understand and also take responsibility for the proper care of their children's educational needs and support. Additionally, the Government should seek ways to encourage communal responsibility and involvement in the running of schools. In these respects, the country should promote sharing of good practices and approaches, and encourage parents and local communities to work with schools for a common goal of an improved standard of education, particularly in areas where there is a large number of Out-of-School Children.

10. Improving school accessibility for children with disability, and providing training to all teachers on how to support children with disability

Increase the number of special education schools in the country and the number of specialist teachers of children with special educational needs.

11. Providing guidance to the implementation of the new education policy

The field work strongly indicates that this has not been sufficient. Deliberate effort is thus needed in preparing not only the schools, but also parents, on the implementation of the new education policy. This includes the curriculum preparation, school provisioning for extra students at both primary and lower secondary schools, raising parents' awareness of the change in duration and entry age of primary education, and other specific measures.

12. Researching into, and close monitoring of possible implications of the new education policy when implemented in Tanzania's practical context

Currently, for example, a large proportion of children in Tanzania enter school late and leave school early after finishing Standard VII but without further lower secondary education. The pattern of late entry has shown to be persistent in Zanzibar two years after the implementation of the new education policy. If the situation continues without change, the new education policy will mean that those children who do not attend secondary education will have their duration of education reduced by one year, from seven years to six years. It is also unfortunate that children who are in this situation, are often the ones who are least privileged, who live in rural areas, and who are girls. Reduction of one year in the education duration may have indirect consequences the new policy does not intend, and more research should be conducted in this respect to avoid an adverse impact.

13. Analysing further to identify pockets of Out-of-School Children and weaker primary schools, by conducting a quantitative analysis on the full 2012 Census data and the BEST records

The current profiling is based on 10 per cent micro data only. This analysis should be carried out to the level of District or even Ward. It is typical of the situation that Out-of-School Children are often found in pockets of geographical locations and cultural contexts, and further study will help direct Government effort with efficiency. Such research can help the Government to be in a position to subsequently monitor and evaluate any improvement.

14. Improving the EMIS system

The existing system needs to improve its reliability through a consistency and validity check. In the long term, the government should seek to link vital registration with the Education Information System to track education progress of every child after birth.

15. Reviewing, by Tanzania Government, of the education related questionnaires on all national surveys, including the population census

The questionnaires should be such that it is possible to extract information not only on the current attendance but also past attendance. All existing questionnaires, both contents and wordings, should be redesigned. Not only on the current attendance but also past attendance. All existing questionnaires, both contents and wordings, should be redesigned.

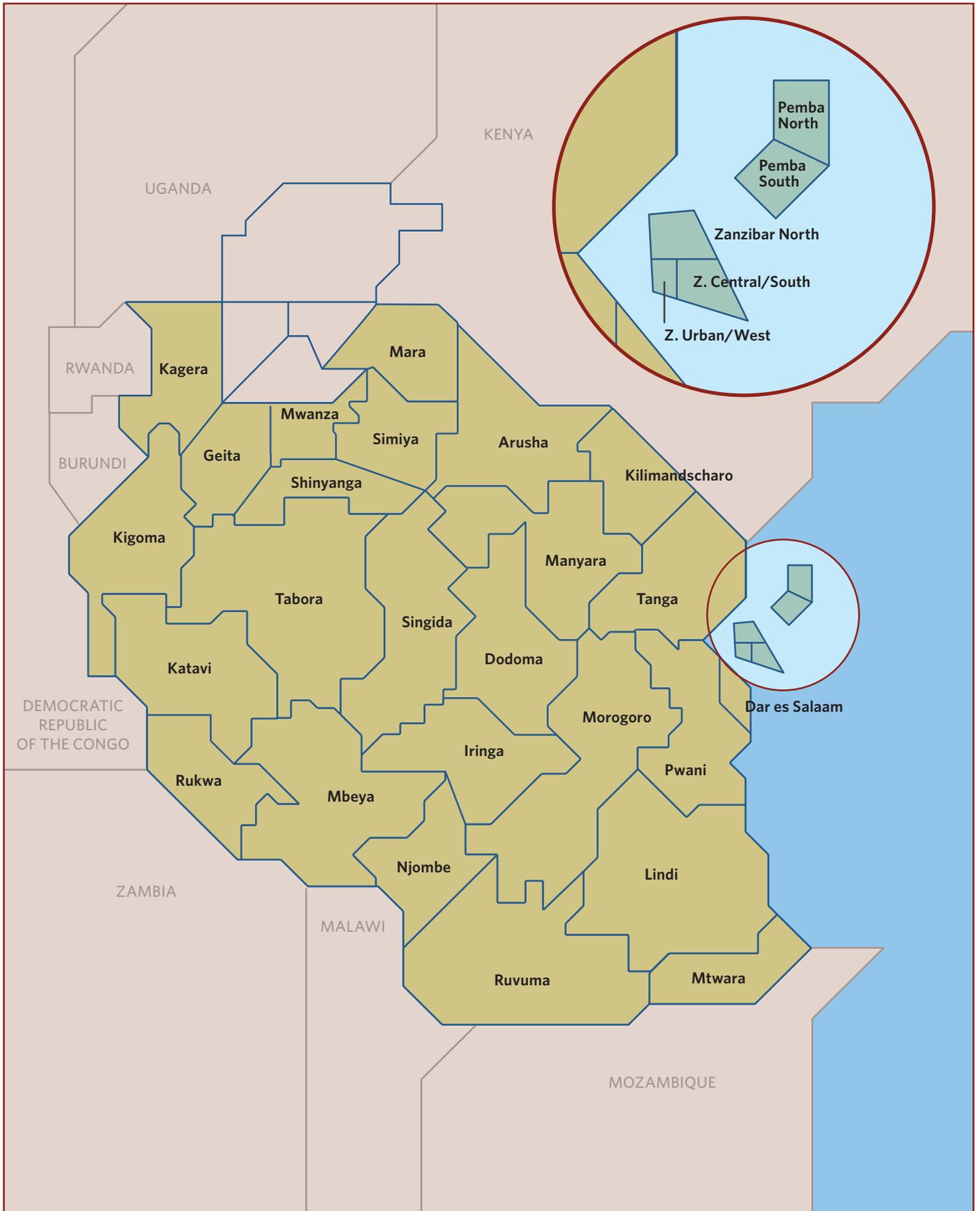


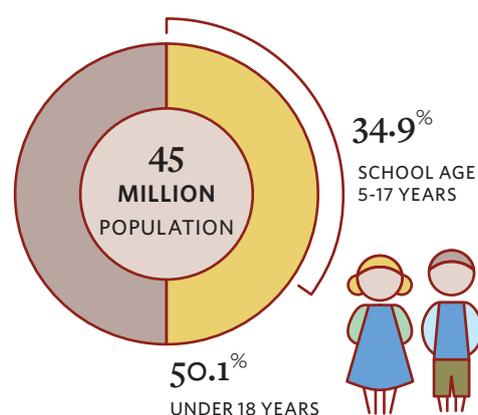
FIGURE 1: Regional administrative map of Tanzania

1. Introduction

The United Republic of Tanzania comprises two autonomous regions, namely Tanzania Mainland and Tanzania Zanzibar. It is bordered by Kenya and Uganda to the north, Rwanda, Burundi, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo to the west, Zambia, Malawi, and Mozambique to the south, and the Indian Ocean to the east. There are 30 administrative regions, distributed in the regional administrative map³ of Tanzania as seen in Figure 1.

According to the Tanzania Population and Housing Census 2012, the country has close to 45 million people. The Tanzania population is very young with about half under the age of 18. School age children (5-17) occupy some 35 per cent of the total Tanzanian population, numbering about 15 million. The percentage of orphans is relatively high at nearly eight per cent.

Tanzania's population density is low, and the majority of its people live in rural areas, with the urban population at about 30 per cent. Average household size is just under five. The mean age at first marriage in Tanzania is 24, with males marrying at 26 years whilst females marry at 22 years. The life expectancy at birth is 61 years.



Indicator	Tanzania	Tanzania Mainland	Tanzania Zanzibar
Population	44,928,923	43,625,354	1,303,569
Population under 18 years (% of total)	50.1	50.1	49
Sex ratio of population under 18	99.8	99.8	99.4
School age population 5-17 years (% of total)	34.9	34.9	33.4
Orphanhood 0-17 years (one or both parents died)	7.7	7.7	5.8
Urban population (% of total)	29.6	29.1	46.3
Population density (population per km²)	51	49	530
Mean age at first marriage - male	25.8	25.7	26.3
Mean age at first marriage - female	22.3	22.3	23.3
Life expectancy at birth	60.9		
Average household size	4.8	4.7	5.1
GDP (nominal) 2012 estimate		607.76	656.26

TABLE 1: Basic facts on the United Republic of Tanzania | Source: Tanzania population and housing census 2012, except life expectancy and GDP

3. TUBS - Own work. This vector graphics image was created with Adobe Illustrator. This file was uploaded with Commonist. This vector image includes elements that have been taken or adapted from this: Pemba North in Tanzania (zoom.svg (by TUBS)). Downloaded from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions_of_Tanzania and redrawn in Adobe Illustrator.

Tanzania has been enjoying stable peace even before independence. It is the second largest economy in the East African Community and the twelfth largest in Africa⁴, and its economy is growing rapidly with growth projected by the African Development Bank Group to remain above seven per cent⁵. Nevertheless, Tanzania continues to be one of the 60 low income countries of the world⁶. The population below the poverty line in 2012 was 28.2 per cent.

1.1. Research objectives and methodology

The UIS estimated in the 2013 Global Monitoring Report, that more than 59 million children of primary school age were out of school in the world and nearly half of these children would probably never enter a classroom. Fourteen countries had more than 1 million children out of primary school in 2011, including Afghanistan, China, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Somalia, Sudan (pre-secession) and the United Republic of Tanzania.

The Global Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI), a partnership between UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), was launched in 2010 to help countries to undertake focused research on the situations of Out-of-School Children. The Phase One of the OOSC Initiative focused on conducting studies in 26 countries. Tanzania joined the countries participating in the second round of studies.

The goal of the Global OOSC Initiative is to achieve a breakthrough in reducing the number of OOSC. In Tanzania, the study sought to:

- Increase access of policy makers and implementers, to profiles of children and adolescents out of school in terms of who they are and where they are; why children are out of school, including an analysis of the supply side barriers, the opportunity costs of schooling and other demand side barriers and bottlenecks.
- Provide specific information to explain why disabled children tend to be refused entry to school; improve the quality of data, data collection methodologies and instruments, on children with disabilities in the EMIS, and provide data and information on the capacity of the education system to respond to the specific needs of disabled children.
- Assess the actual cost of primary and secondary education and assist policy makers and implementers to understand to what extent policies and strategies on

capitation grants, TASAF social protection measures and other equalising measures within the primary and secondary education sub-sectors, actually meet the cost for the education of vulnerable and marginalised children and what should be done to deal with identified gaps in existing policies and strategies.

- Carry out a case study on socio-cultural values and practices that promote or hinder the educational participation of children from geographically or ethnically marginalised groups; analyse existing curricula to determine the extent to which positive cultural values and practices from marginalised population groups have been embedded to enhance demand for education.

Two teams of expertise worked together to achieve the objectives set out by the Global OOSC Initiative. The model of the programme can be described in Figure 2.

The two teams had clear duties and responsibilities. The international consultant was responsible for the profiling of Out-of-School Children, the analysis of barriers and bottlenecks, and the final writing of the Tanzania Country Report, whereas the team of Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE) was responsible for carrying out a qualitative study in the regions selected, with the support of the international consultant. Both teams were supported by UNICEF Tanzania. The country report of the study on the situation of Out-of-School Children comprises three key parts:

1. OOSC profiling

OOSC profiling provides statistical and quantitative analysis of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania based on the most recent Census, Household Survey, and BEST data available in Tanzania.

2. Barriers and bottlenecks

The analysis on barriers and bottlenecks is a combination of four parts of work: profile of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania, desk review on publications in recent years, analysis of relationships between out of school rate and education related data available from Tanzania government, and findings from the Qualitative Field Study in the seven regions of the country. The study of barriers and bottlenecks analyses the reasons why children are out of school and identifies areas where solutions must be found in order to improve the country's inclusive

4. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economy_of_Tanzania

5. <http://www.afdb.org/en/countries/east-africa/tanzania/tanzania-economic-outlook/>

6. <http://iufost2014.org/index.php/program/developing-country-sponsorship/13-program/60-list-of-low-income-and-low-middle-income-countries>

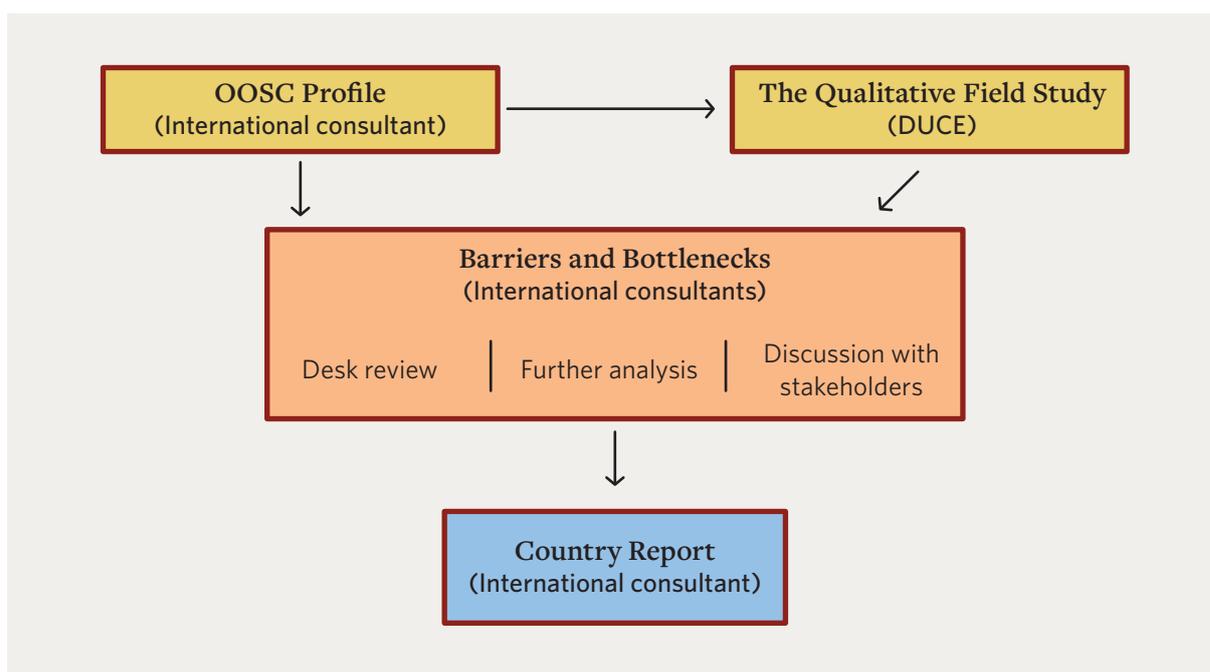


FIGURE 2: Model of research for Tanzania OOSC initiative

education and reduce the number of Out-of-School Children. This includes an analysis of existing policies and strategies to identify gaps and areas of improvement.

3. Conclusions and recommendations

These are made based on findings from the profiling of Out-of-School Children and the analysis of barriers and bottlenecks.

Qualitative Field Study

The Qualitative Field Study was carried out by Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE) in parallel with the OOSC profiling and the analysis of barriers and bottlenecks. The study sets out to understand reasons why children do not attend, or drop out of school, and their related socio-cultural, economic, and political backgrounds. A team of six researchers first conducted a case study in Mara Region to deepen understanding of the socio-cultural and economic factors affecting the education of children. Furthermore, together with additional research assistants, the team carried out a qualitative study in Mara, Tabora, Lindi, Dar Es Salaam, Geita on Tanzania Mainland, and Unguja Urban-West and North Pemba in Zanzibar. The team interviewed Regional and District Education Officers, school heads and teachers, school committee members, Out-of-School Children and children who are at risk of dropping out, parents, Village Leaders, and other key informers. The Case Study and the Qualitative Study are both

presented separately in their respective reports, and can be made available upon request. In addition, the findings from these two studies are integrated in the analysis of barriers and bottlenecks, and are referred together as the Qualitative Field Study and are used as one of the four key components of the analysis, as described earlier.

1.2. Education system in Tanzania

1.2.1. Autonomous education systems

The education system in Tanzania is complex. To start with, the country is separated into two autonomous systems, one for Tanzania Mainland and one for Tanzania Zanzibar. Additionally, both systems have gone through changes in recent years. Prior to 2010, the two systems operated in the same form of 2-7-4-2-3+, meaning two years for pre-primary education, seven years for primary education, four years for Ordinary Level (i.e. lower secondary), two years for Advanced Level (i.e. upper secondary), and three years or more for tertiary education, with the primary school starting age at seven years old. In 2010, Zanzibar started the implementation of its new education policy, which is 2-6-4-2-3+ with lowered primary entry age from seven to six. The Mainland, on the other hand, continued its old education system, until recently, in January 2016, a new education policy came into effect, and changed the system to 1-6-4-2-3+ with primary entry age also lowered from seven to six. The new education policy in the Mainland is the same as that of Zanzibar, except that for pre-primary, children on

the Mainland are required to attend at least one year, at an age between three and five. In Zanzibar, children are required to attend pre-primary when they are aged four and five.

1.2.2. Education system in Tanzania Mainland, 2012

The education system in Tanzania during 2011-12 consisted of three streams:

- 1) Formal education made of Basic and Higher Non-Technical Education
- 2) Technical and Vocational Education
- 3) Non-formal Education such as folk education, COBET, etc.

The structure of the Basic and Higher Non-Technical Education System was in the form of 2-7-4-2-3+, meaning two years for pre-primary education, seven years for primary education, four years for Ordinary Level (i.e. lower secondary), two years for Advanced Level (i.e. upper secondary), and three years or more for tertiary education.

The study of Out-of-School Children concerns pre-primary, primary, and lower secondary school age and school grades.

Further details in this category of the Basic and Higher Non-Technical Education System are as follows:

- Academic year from January to December, with a mid-year break between mid-May and mid-July
- Pre-primary education of two years' duration, meant for children aged five and six

The pre-primary education was neither compulsory nor free. However, at least one year of pre-primary was required before admission into primary education was allowed. This provision of one year of compulsory pre-primary education continues within the new ETP on the Mainland. In Zanzibar, pre-primary education continues to be for two years.

- Primary education was of seven years' duration, and the official age was 7 to 13

Primary education was compulsory and free, but most schools charged fees for supplies such as school security, and required parents to pay for items such as uniforms.

The seven years of primary education comprised seven Standards, namely Standard I to Standard VII. Pupils automatically progressed from one Standard to the next at the end of each year. Official age for Grade was strictly followed. Progression to secondary education while still under the official age was not permitted, although some private schools allowed children of outstanding calibre to skip Standard VII. A student might repeat more than one year in any of the Standards.

- Lower secondary (O-Level) was of four years' duration, and comprised Form I to Form IV

The official age for this level was 14 to 17. Children made the transition from Standard VII to secondary education after they had successfully passed the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) and were selected for secondary education. Lower secondary education was neither compulsory nor free. One had to pass the National Form II Examination to progress to the next form, Form III.

Children may attend Technical and Vocational Education and Non-Formal Education. However, by the CMF guideline, they are all classified as Out-of-School Children unless the education has the official equivalence to formal education. As defined by the UIS, 'Any children of primary or lower secondary school age who are not enrolled in primary or secondary education are considered to be out of school. This includes a small number of children in pre-primary education and in non-formal education. Children of primary school age who are enrolled in pre-primary education are counted as out of school, because the educational content of pre-primary education and the pedagogical qualifications of its teaching staff are not equivalent to the standards required for primary education. Children in NFE programmes are also considered to be out of school, because the nature of these programmes is not, in general, equivalent to that of formal primary and lower secondary education.'⁷

1.2.3. Simplification measures taken in profiling OOSC

At the time of the 2012 Census data collection, Zanzibar had already started the implementation of its new education policy while the Mainland was still operating under the old education policy. At the time in Zanzibar, there were two cohorts of students, one that followed the old education system and the other that followed the new policy. The primary schools accommodated children between the ages of six and 13 (the two cohorts together, that is those that entered under the old policy and those that entered

7. 'Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All - Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children', Box 2.1.

under the new policy). The lower secondary schools accommodated children between the ages of 14 and 17. The lower secondary schools continued as usual as the implementation was yet to have the impact due to a delayed ripple effect.

By 2012, the new policy had already been in place in Zanzibar for two years. However, analysis on the census data shows that in reality little has changed. Both Zanzibar and Mainland Tanzania continued to have almost identical patterns of late entry to primary education.

In order to calculate the number and percentage of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania as a country, this report simplifies the situation by adopting 2-7-4-2-3+ as the education system in place in both the Mainland and Zanzibar, and estimates the rates and number of OOSC for primary ages between seven and 13 and for lower secondary ages between 14 and 17. However, the analysis also provides statistics individually on ages five and six, so that the new situation in Zanzibar is available and analysed.

1.2.4. New education policy in Tanzania Mainland

Below is a brief description of the new education policy effective on Tanzania Mainland from January 2016:

- The Government shall set up procedures for pre-primary education to become compulsory and to be provided to children between the ages of three and five years for a period of not less than one year.
- The Government shall set up procedure for basic education to become compulsory from Standard I to Standard VI and from Form I to Form IV and to be provided for ten years. The age for joining Standard I will be between four and six years, depending on the progress and ability of a child to manage the studies at the given level.
- The government shall set up procedure to ensure that the period for the completion of education and training at different levels of education, after the basic education, aims at a student attaining the required skill in accordance with the National Award Structure.
- The Government shall ensure a free basic education⁸ in the public system.

8. Basic Education now covers pre-primary, primary and lower secondary levels.

2. Profiles of Out-of-School Children

2.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on Out-of-School Children of pre-primary, primary, and lower secondary school age, and presents statistical findings on profiles of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania. In particular, the chapter makes direct use of micro data from the latest available census and household surveys, not only to generate percentages and numbers, but also to understand the phenomenon and magnitude of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania.

The analysis follows the OOSC Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) guidelines developed jointly by UNICEF and UNESCO/UIS, but goes far beyond the recommended scope. To overcome limitations of data generated from a single survey, multiple data sources have been used. This chapter includes a significant number of tables that are not part of the table templates recommended in the CMF guide but are helpful for the understanding of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania.

Tanzania's education policy 2014 came into force in January 2016. It is strategically different from the education policy of 1995, which was in place during 2011-2012 when the census and surveys used for this chapter were conducted. It is important therefore that contents of this chapter be read with caution and the change of education policy taken into consideration when any profile details are quoted.

2.1.1. Out-of-School Children and their measurement

The OOSC Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) guidelines measure Out-of-School Children and assess the risk of in-school children dropping out of school using five dimensions of exclusion.

Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school. In Tanzania in

2012, pre-primary education was not compulsory but was required for admission to primary education. By the CMF standard, pre-primary age is defined as one year before the official entry age to primary education. As such, in Tanzania only children at the age of six have been considered for Dimension 1 in Tanzania Mainland. In Zanzibar, Dimension 1 covers five-year-old children. To serve Tanzania, the study provides data for both five- and six-year-olds.

Dimension 2: Children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school. Children who attend pre-primary or non-formal education are counted as out of school. As such, in Tanzania, a 7-year-old child attending pre-primary school or a 13-year-old child attending vocational training will both be classified as Out-of-School Children and both fall into Dimension 2.

Dimension 3: Children of lower secondary school age (ages 14-17) who are not in primary or secondary school. Similar to Dimension 2, children who attend pre-primary or non-formal education of lower secondary school age are counted as out of school.

While Dimensions 1, 2, and 3 study children who are not in school, Dimensions 4 and 5 concern children who are currently in school, but at risk of dropping out. As such, the former is specified by age and the latter is specified by grade.

Dimension 4: Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out. A 16-year-old child attending primary or a 10-year-old child living far away from school, for example, may be at risk of dropping out of school, because the former is over-age and the latter may find the way to school too dangerous.

Dimension 5: Children who are in lower secondary school but at risk of dropping out. For example, a child of 16 may have to work to support his or her family and the difficult juggle between school and work may well result in his or her dropping out of school.

2.1.2 Data sources for measuring OOSC in Tanzania

Measuring Out-of-School Children in a country is always challenging. To begin with, published information is usually on in-school children, and Out-of-School Children have rarely been studied systematically. To compile and to match available information to the definitions and dimensions of OOSC, recommended in the CMF guide, is hard, to say the least.

Adding to this, if one is to use an alternative method and generate tables directly from raw data, there is the tremendous difficulty of locating, selecting, and obtaining

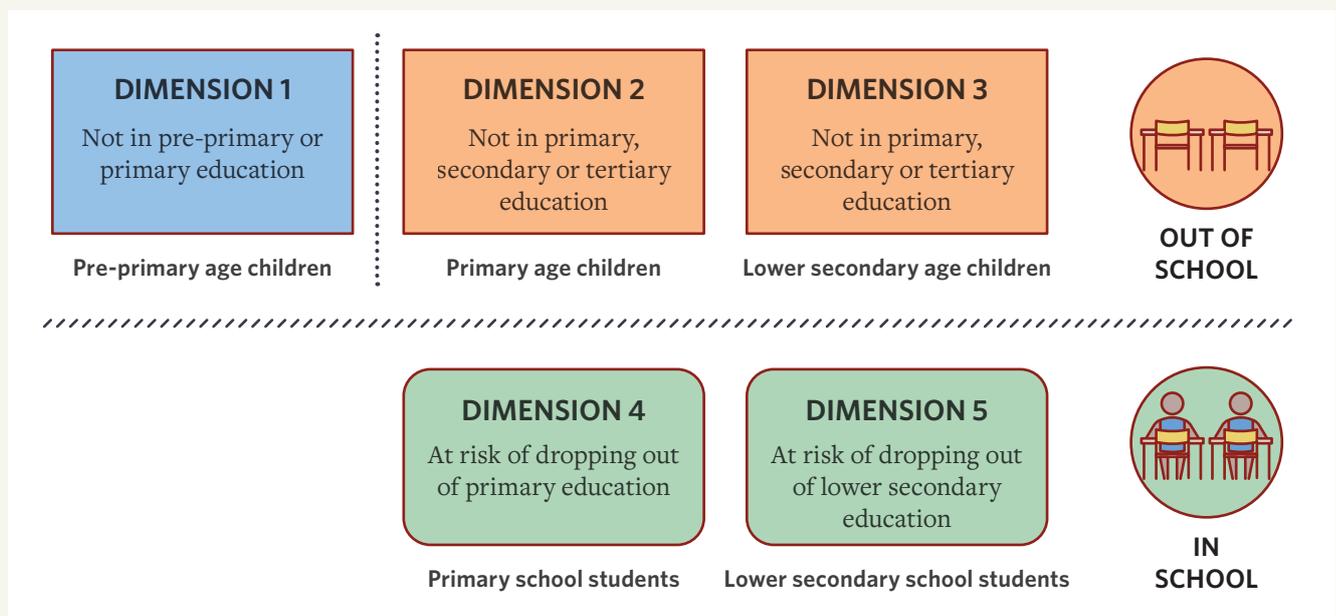


FIGURE 3: Five dimensions of exclusion | Diagram by Dr M Q Hasan and Dr j Zhang, based on Figure 1 of CMF guide Version 2011

micro data from different government departments and processing it accordingly. The CMF provides some explanations in this respect, but the guidelines are still being improved.

To identify data sources on Out-of-School Children, and education in Tanzania in general, and to assess its suitability for the study, a thorough and in-depth investigation was carried out on all recent (last five years) and nationally representative data sources in Tanzania. In the process, documentation as well as data collection tools were extensively analysed.

The list below presents those chosen for the study, together with brief descriptions and reasons as to why they were selected:

2012 Population and Housing Census

- Conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS). Most data was collected during the last week of August 2012.
- Complete enumeration covering both Mainland and Zanzibar
- Has two questions on education, capturing current school attendance status and grade, attending or completed
- Disaggregation is possible by gender, region, locality, and disability
- Indirect measurement, over age for example, at risk of being excluded, is possible
- 10 per cent randomly selected micro data was obtained from the NBS and was used with a weighting factor of 10.

2011/12 Household Budget Survey, Tanzania Mainland

- Sample household survey conducted by the NBS with 10,168 HH covering only Mainland Tanzania
- Data was collected between October 2011 and October 2012
- Survey included thirteen questions on education, capturing current attendance, grade, reasons for dropout, absence from school, etc.
- Data was rich in information for further disaggregation and analysis, such as reasons for dropout, poverty, child labour, etc. which were not possible from the census micro data
- Full micro data was obtained from the NBS.

2009/10 Zanzibar Household Budget Survey

- Sample survey conducted by the Office of Chief Government Statistician, Zanzibar, with sample size 4,296 HH covering Zanzibar only
- Data was collected between June 2009 and May 2010
- The data, being more than 5-years-old, was primarily used to compare with census findings
- Full micro data was obtained from the NBS
- The data did not include any wealth quintiles or equivalent proxy variables.

2009/13 Tanzania: administrative data on education (BEST)

- Administrative data managed by the Ministry of Education
- Age specific enrolment and repetition data by gender was obtained for years, 2009-2014
- Data obtained allowed measurement of survival, drop out, and repetition rates, as well as measurement of primary to lower secondary transition rate.

In addition to the above selected data sets, two other sources, namely 2012-13 National Panel Survey (third round) and 2011-12 Tanzania HIV/AIDS and Malaria Indicator Survey, were also possible data sources but were not selected for profiling.

2.1.3 Analytical framework

This chapter uses the Population and Housing Census 2012 wherever possible, and the Tanzania Mainland 2011-12 Household Budget Survey (HBS) as supplement when needed. The chapter endeavours to follow the CMF guidelines but goes beyond the recommendations to reach a comprehensive understanding of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania.

Both the census and the survey data are limited. Only the current year attendance status and grading were available and no data was collected on attendance of the previous year, which is crucial for the understanding of flow rates (dropout, progression and repetition). The chapter therefore uses accumulative dropout, i.e. dropout without details on dropout time, and other indirect means to analyse dropout and repetition. Single year dropout and repetition are available but through the EMIS data only.

Age heaping⁹ was noticed in both data sets, but no age imputations were applied and age data was taken as recorded in the data.

Once general numbers and rates were estimated, further analysis was carried out to examine inequalities and disparities. All estimates were disaggregated where necessary by gender, urban and rural, and region. Additionally, the information was also analysed with respect to individual socio-economic conditions, including poverty, family structure, disability, early marriage, and child labour.

School attendance in Zanzibar was analysed on the basis of the old education policy where the primary-age is 7 to 13. As is pointed out earlier in the introduction of this report, even though Zanzibar's new education policy had been in place for some time when the 2012 Census collected data, the effect of the policy implementation on school entry is not obvious. The majority of six-year-olds are still in pre-primary, if they are attending. Attendance pattern is similar to that of the Mainland.

Due to limited space, only tables necessary for a comprehensive presentation are included in the main chapter. Please refer to Appendices for any other tables.

2.1.4 Note of caution

Since only randomly selected 10 per cent census micro data was used with a weight of 10 for analysis, numbers and percentages may vary slightly from other published data, due to the random selection of 10 per cent data, rounding, and collapsing or elimination of categories.

2.2 Dimension 1

Dimension 1 highlights children of pre-primary school age who are excluded from pre-primary or primary education. In Tanzania in 2012, the pre-primary school age was five and six. Pre-primary education was not compulsory and not free, but one-year attendance was required as a prerequisite for entrance to primary Grade 1.

2.2.1 Pre-primary exclusion

Table 2 and Table 3 present the school attendance status of children aged five and six respectively.

In total, about 1.4 million children are at the pre-primary school age of five, of whom 31.7 per cent attend pre-primary and 1.3 per cent attend primary. In other words, 32.9 per cent, or only one in every three five-year-olds, attend school, and almost all of them attend pre-primary. The rate of children not attending school at this age is about 67 per cent, and the total number is close to one million (939,000).

Boys and girls have similar opportunities of attending schools, but the urban and rural disparity is wide. A child living in an urban area will have more than doubled his or her chance of attending school; nearly 60 per cent of five-year-olds are in school in urban areas, whereas in rural areas this figure is only 25 per cent.

The situation is better for children aged six, among whom the total attendance rate increases to 43.4 per cent. Nevertheless, this still leaves 56.6 per cent, or more than half of the 1.4 million six-year-olds out of school. Boys now fair slightly worse than girls, and the urban and rural

9. When people read an analogue scale or report numeric results, a commonly found effect is that certain preferred end-digits are reported substantially more often than the general pattern that the distribution suggests. These digits are typically multiples of five and 10, possibly combined with tendencies to avoid certain unpleasant numbers like, e.g. 13. This type of misreporting leads to unusual heaping at the preferred digits and the observed data actually presents a biased, though well-understood image of the true distribution. This tendency is called digit preference or age heaping, if the reported numbers refer to ages.

	Total population	Attending pre-primary	Attending primary	Attending pre-primary or primary	Children not attending pre-primary or primary school	
					Rate	Number
Tanzania	1,399,750	31.7	1.3	32.9	67.1	938,540
Tanzania Mainland	1,360,500	31.4	1.3	32.7	67.3	915,840
Tanzania Zanzibar	39,010	41	1	42	58	22,620
Male	708,140	30.8	1.3	32.1	67.9	481,010
Female	691,610	32.6	1.3	33.8	66.2	457,530
Urban	320,070	58.2	1.3	59.6	40.4	129,370
Rural	1,079,400	23.8	1.3	25	75	809,080

TABLE 2: School attendance status of children aged five | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	Total population	Attending pre-primary	Attending primary	Attending pre-primary or primary	Children not attending pre-primary or primary school	
					Rate	Number
Tanzania	1,407,400	24.6	18.8	43.4	56.6	797,190
Tanzania Mainland	1,369,030	24.2	18.9	43.1	56.9	778,760
Tanzania Zanzibar	38,010	38.1	13.6	51.7	48.3	18,360
Male	705,060	24.7	17.2	41.8	58.2	410,070
Female	702,340	24.5	20.4	44.9	55.1	387,120
Urban	319,080	41.3	29.9	71.2	28.8	91,940
Rural	1,088,060	19.7	15.5	35.2	64.8	705,190

TABLE 3: School attendance status of children aged six | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

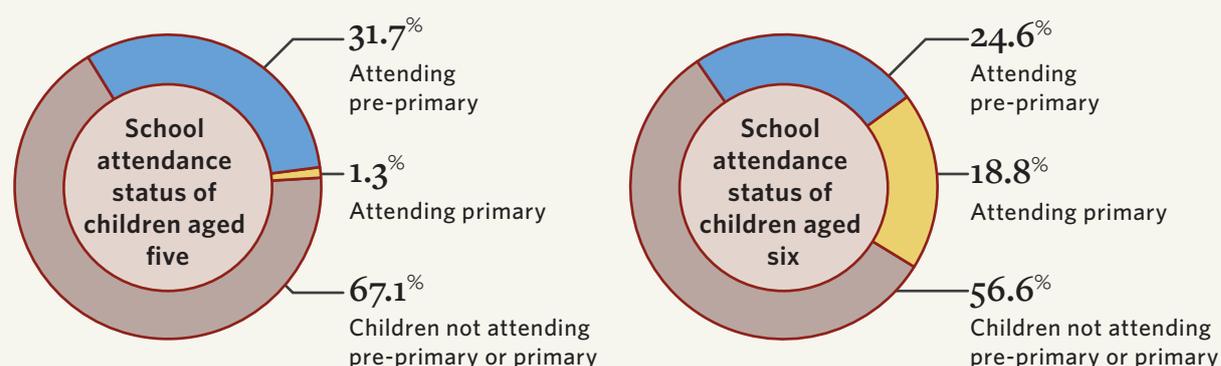


FIGURE 4: School attendance status of children aged five and six | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	Male	Female	Total
Pre-primary school-age 5	481,000	458,000	939,000
Pre-primary school-age 6	410,000	387,000	797,000
Total	891,000	845,000	1,736,000

TABLE 4: Number of pre-primary school age children not in education in Tanzania | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

disparity continues to be wide (rate of not attending at 28.8 per cent in urban areas against 64.8 per cent in rural areas).

Table 4 summarises the number in thousands of pre-primary school age children who are excluded from education, and Figure 4 charts the percentages of children in pre-primary, in primary, and not in education.

2.2.2 Regional disparity in pre-primary exclusion

There is a clear regional difference in the percentage of children not attending school, varying from the lowest in the capital, Dar es Salaam, at 32.4 per cent for children aged five, and 24.5 per cent for children aged six, to the highest in Tabora region at 86.4 per cent for children aged five and 79.8 per cent for children aged six. In this worst performing region of Tabora, even at the age of six, four in every five children are neither attending pre-primary nor attending primary education. The percentage of non-attendance is more than

three times that of the capital Dar es Salaam. The population of children excluded from education is also very high in this region. In total, more than 133,000 children aged five or six are not in school in Tabora. In the more populated Dar es Salaam, the number is much lower at 54,000.

In the tables below, the top and the bottom five regions by the rate of children excluded from school are displayed (Table 5 for children aged five and six for children aged six). The tables exclude areas outside Tanzania. The full ranking of regions is listed in the Appendices.

Rank	Region	Total population	Attending pre-primary or primary	Children not attending pre-primary or primary school	
				Rate	Number
1	Tabora	81,640	13.6	86.4	70,560
2	Rukwa	37,030	14.3	85.7	31,750
3	Katavi	19,910	14.4	85.6	17,050
4	Simiyu	59,600	16.4	83.6	49,850
5	Shinyanga	52,650	16.8	83.2	43,780
	Tanzania	1,399,750	32.9	67.1	938,540
26	Kaskazini Unguja	5,810	47.8	52.2	3,030
27	Iringa	26,720	48.5	51.5	13,750
28	Mjini Magharibi	16,280	52.7	47.3	7,700
29	Kilimanjaro	39,910	60.7	39.3	15,690
30	Dar es Salaam	96,510	67.6	32.4	31,250

TABLE 5: Selected regional ranking of school attendance of children aged five | Source: 2012

Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Total population	Attending pre-primary or primary	Children not attending pre-primary or primary school	
				Rate	Number
1	Tabora	78,890	20.2	79.8	62,970
2	Katavi	19,750	20.4	79.6	15,720
3	Geita	62,680	22.7	77.3	48,440
4	Simiyu	58,830	23.5	76.5	45,010
5	Shinyanga	50,800	23.9	76.1	38,680
	Tanzania	1,407,400	43.4	56.6	797,190
26	Iringa	27,610	61.1	38.9	10,730
27	Kaskazini Unguja	3,120	62.5	37.5	1,170
28	Mjini Magharibi	15,790	63.1	36.9	5,820
29	Kilimanjaro	40,810	74.5	25.5	10,420
30	Dar es Salaam	94,220	75.5	24.5	23,070

TABLE 6: Selected regional ranking of school attendance of children aged six | Source: 2012 Census.

Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

2.3 Dimensions 2 and 3

Dimension 2 includes children of primary school age who are not attending primary or secondary education, and Dimension 3 is limited to children of lower secondary school age who are not attending primary or secondary education. As explained earlier in the introduction, children attending pre-primary or non-formal education such as vocational training are outside formal education, and are thus included in the Dimensions 2 or 3 as children out of school.

The percentage of Out-of-School Children at primary school age is 100 minus the percentage of children at this age attending primary or secondary education. The percentage of Out-of-School Children at lower secondary school age is 100 minus the percentage of children at this age attending primary or secondary education.

The CMF guide uses the Adjusted Net Attendance Rate (ANAR) to describe the percentage of children attending the level of education for their age or above. For primary school age children, the ANAR is the percentage of this age children attending primary or secondary education. For lower secondary school age children, the ANAR is the percentage of this age children attending lower or upper secondary education. The ANAR is important in that it allows differentiation of children who are in the levels of education right for their age, from those who are in the levels of education lower for their age, and is particularly useful in the analysis of school attendance of children at secondary school age.

The calculation of percentage of Out-of-School Children can be detailed further as follows:

2.3.1 Primary ANAR

The official age for primary school education in Tanzania is seven – 13. Based on the Census 2012 data, the school attendance of primary school age children can be shown by Table 7.

N in the table represents total population of the group, and the table therefore should be read as, for example: there are in total 695,030 boys aged seven, and 58.3 per cent of them attend primary or secondary education. GPI, or Gender Parity Index, on the other hand, is an indicator that measures gender disparity, and is calculated as female ANAR divided by male ANAR. GPI within the range of 0.97 and 1.03 indicates gender parity, but above 1.03 or below 0.97 both indicate gender disparity. For convenience, the table colours GPI above 1.03, pink, to indicate higher female rate; below 0.97, blue, to indicate higher male rate; and no colour, to indicate gender parity.

The percentage of Out-of-School Children at primary school-age
= 100 - primary ANAR

The percentage of Out-of-School Children at lower secondary school-age
= 100 - lower secondary ANAR
- percentage of lower secondary school-age children
in primary education

Age	Male		Female		Total		ANAR GPI
	ANAR	N	ANAR	N	ANAR	N	
7	58.3	695,030	62.7	685,470	60.5	1,380,500	1.08
8	69.4	626,440	73.7	640,370	71.6	1,266,810	1.06
9	78.1	565,200	81.3	576,230	79.7	1,141,430	1.04
10	79.6	663,030	82.3	656,670	80.9	1,319,700	1.03
11	84.1	461,280	85.8	478,880	85	940,160	1.02
12	81.7	718,620	83.7	704,890	82,7	1,423,510	1.02
13	79.7	503,110	81.8	501,450	80,7	1,004,560	1.03
Total	75.3	4,232,710	78.3	4,243,960	76,8	8,476,670	1.04

TABLE 7: Primary Adjusted Net Attendance Rate | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

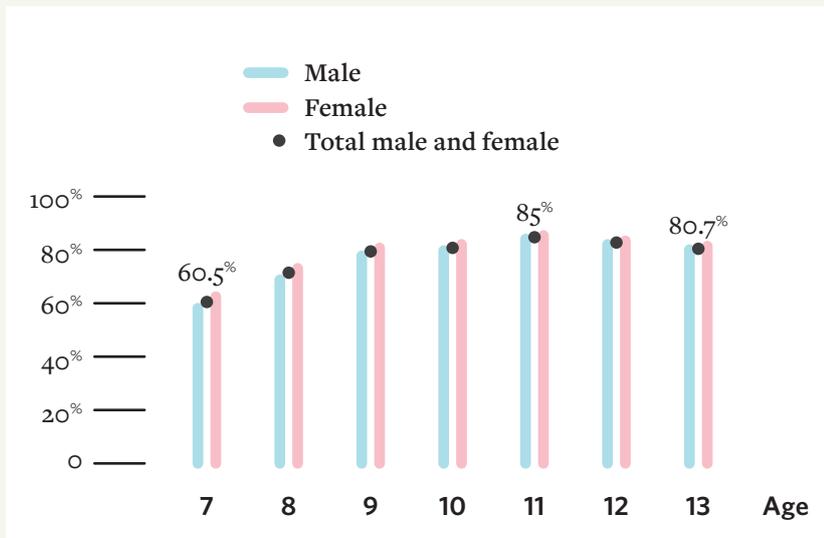


FIGURE 5: Primary ANAR by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Table 7 can be visualised more clearly in Figure 5.

Overall, of the 1,380,500 children aged seven in Tanzania, 60.5 per cent attend primary or secondary schools. The attendance rate increases as children get older, reaches its peak at the age of 11, when 85 per cent of the population go to school, and drops after that, down to 80.7 per cent at the age of 13. In total, of the 8.5 million primary school age children, 76.8 per cent attend primary or secondary education.

As a whole, girls are at an advantage in school attendance; some 78.3 per cent of girls attend formal education, compared to 75.3 per cent of boys who do so. This gender imbalance however is caused by more girls entering school at a younger age. Gender disparity is most severe at the age of seven, when the attendance rate is 62.7 per cent in girls against 58 per cent in boys. The situation improves in older children, and from the age of 10 to the age of 13, boys and girls have the same opportunity of attending schools.

The pattern of relatively earlier entrance to school for girls in fact starts before the primary school age. As it can be seen in the analysis of pre-primary education, at the age of six, a higher percentage of girls than boys enters school (44.9 per cent girls in school against 41.8 per cent boys). The analysis by individual age indicates a likely phenomenon that girls in Tanzania start school earlier than boys, and as a consequence, boys are more likely to be over age in school.

2.3.2 Out-of-School Children at primary school age

Opposite to the ANAR table shown earlier, Table 8 displays the number of Out-of-School Children (n), rather than group population (N). The table should be read

as: at the age of seven, 41.1 per cent of boys are out of school and the number of Out-of-School Children at this age is 289,760.

It is estimated that, in Tanzania, 23.2 per cent of primary school age children are out of school, and the number of Out-of-School Children at this age is 1,968,910. In other words, at least one in every five primary school age children in Tanzania is excluded from education. The figure is close to one in every four children. The total number of Out-of-School Children stands at 2 million.

A higher percentage of boys are out of school than girls (24.7 per cent of boys against 21.7 per cent of girls); older boys and girls have close to equal chance of being out of school, but at younger ages, boys are much more likely to be out of school. The younger the age, the more likely boys are out of school.

2.3.3 School attendance of lower secondary school age children

The official age for lower secondary school education in Tanzania is 14 – 17. This is O-Level (Form I – IV). Children at this age may be in lower or upper secondary education (Table 9), and may also be in primary education (Table 10).

Overall in Tanzania, of 3,727,490 children at the lower secondary school age, 25.2 per cent are in lower or upper secondary education. A far higher percentage of girls than boys attend this level of education right for their age. It is particularly interesting to note the individual age pattern of ANAR GPI; the GPI number is the highest at the starting age of 14, and declines quickly with the increase of age. At the age of 17, the GPI takes a turn from pink to blue,

Age	Male		Female		Total	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
7	41.7	289,760	37.3	255,560	39.5	545,320
8	30.6	191,430	26.3	168,200	28.4	359,630
9	21.9	124,020	18.7	107,590	20.3	231,610
10	20.4	135,370	17.7	116,150	19.1	251,520
11	15.9	73,420	14.2	67,880	15	141,300
12	18.3	131,210	16.3	114,740	17.3	245,950
13	20.3	102,220	18.2	91,360	19.3	193,580
Total	24.7	1,047,430	21.7	921,480	23.2	1,968,910

TABLE 8: OOSC at primary school age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Age	Male		Female		Total		ANAR GPI
	ANAR	N	ANAR	N	ANAR	N	
14	9.9	502,150	13.8	512,720	11.9	1,014,870	1.39
15	21.4	483,130	26.1	466,560	23.7	949,690	1.22
16	30.5	445,290	33.6	469,890	32.1	915,180	1.10
17	36	481,090	34.8	429,660	35.4	847,750	0.96
Total	23.8	1,848,660	26.6	1,878,830	25.2	3,727,490	1.12

TABLE 9: Lower secondary Adjusted Net Attendance Rate | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Age	Male		Female		Total		Primary attendance GPI
	Attending primary	N	Attending primary	N	Attending primary	N	
14	62.5	502,150	60.1	512,720	61.3	1,014,870	0.96
15	39.8	483,130	35	466,560	37.4	949,690	0.88
16	24.6	445,290	18.8	469,890	21.6	915,180	0.76
17	12.6	418,090	8.7	429,660	10.6	847,750	0.69
Total	36.2	1,848,660	31.8	1,878,830	34	3,727,490	0.88

TABLE 10: Percentage of lower secondary attending primary school | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

indicating the gender disparity now favours boys. At this age, a higher percentage of boys, rather than girls, attend the education level for their age.

This change of disparity cannot be taken simply as boys catching up at older age. Two factors affect ANAR at this age range; one is the transition rate from primary education into secondary education and the other is the dropout from secondary education. Both can increase or decrease the rate of children attending secondary

education. In Tanzania, the change of gender disparity across different ages is caused at lower age by boys lagging behind in education and at higher age by girls dropping out of school.

Of the 3.7 million lower secondary school age children, 34 per cent, i.e. one in every three children, lag behind and remain in primary education. The GPI measurement is exclusively in blue, indicating that boys are more likely to lag behind at all lower secondary ages.

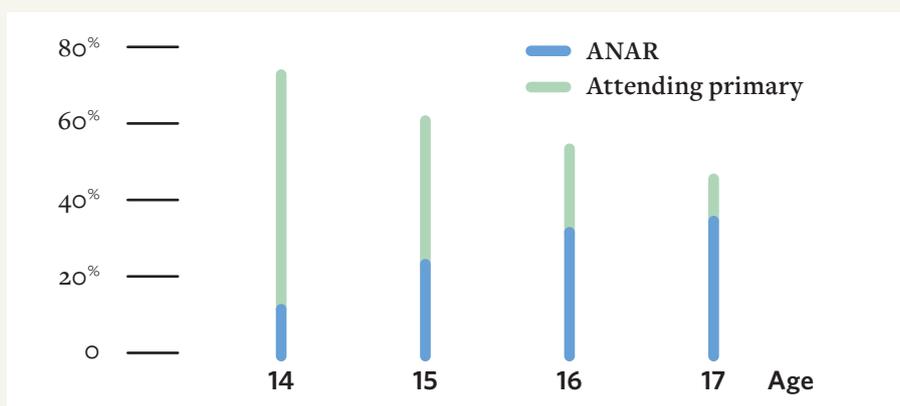


FIGURE 6: School attendance of lower secondary school-age children by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Age	Male		Female		Total	
	%	N	%	N	%	N
14	27.6	138,350	26.2	134,130	26.8	272,480
15	38.8	187,520	38.9	181,610	38.9	369,130
16	44.9	199,870	47.6	223,620	46.3	423,490
17	51.3	214,620	56.5	242,960	54	457,580
Total	40	740,360	41.6	782,320	40.9	1,522,680

TABLE 11: OOSC at lower secondary school-age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	Male	Female	Total
Primary school age 7-13	1,047,000	921,000	1,969,000
Lower secondary school age 14-17	740,000	782,000	1,523,000
Total	1,788,000	1,704,000	3,492,000

TABLE 12: Number of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

The school attendance of lower secondary school age children, including the ANAR and the percentage attending primary, can be jointly displayed in Figure 6 above.

2.3.4 Out-of-School Children at lower secondary school-age

It becomes very clear in Figure 6 that an increasing percentage of children leave school at the lower secondary school age. As Table 11 above shows, as children get older, the percentage that are out of school rises rapidly. By the age of 17, more than half of the children (54%), are out of school, and most of them are boys.

It is estimated that, in Tanzania, 40.9 per cent of lower secondary school age children are out of school, and the number of Out-of-School Children at this age is 1,522,680. Hence, at least two in every five lower secondary school age children are excluded from school. The total number of Out-of-School Children stands at 1.5 million.

At age 15, boys and girls have equal chance of being excluded from formal education. Below this age, boys are more likely to be out of school, but above it, and increasingly so as children get older, girls are more likely to be out of school. Although not displayed in the above tables and figures, analysis for this chapter found the same trend in girls at upper secondary school age.

2.3.5 Number and percentage of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania

It is estimated that about 2 million primary school age children and 1.5 million lower secondary school age children are out of school in Tanzania. The numbers add together to a total of 3.5 million Out-of-School Children aged between seven and 17.

At least one in every five primary school age children are out of school (23 per cent). The figure is close to one in every four children. At the lower secondary school age, more than two in every five children are out of school (41

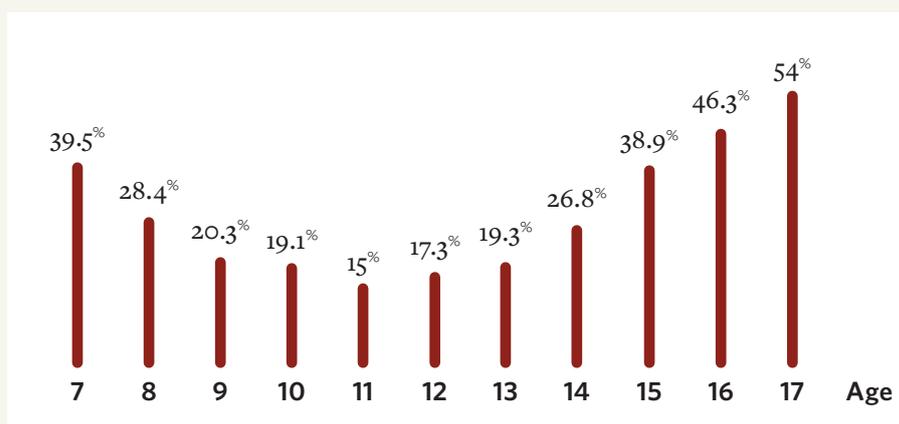


FIGURE 7: Percentage of Out-of-School Children by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	Population 7-13	Primary ANAR	OOSC	
			Rate	Number
Tanzania	8,476,690	76.8	23.2	1,968,930
Urban	2,020,410	91	9	182,110
Rural	6,454,260	72.3	27.7	1,786,570

TABLE 13: Urban/rural OOSC rate and number at primary school-age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	Population 14-17	Percentage attending primary	Lower secondary ANAR	OOSC	
				Rate	Number
Tanzania	3,727,530	43	25.2	40.9	1,522,720
Urban	1,110,470	26.2	42.8	31	344,790
Rural	2,616,220	37.2	17.7	45	1,177,670

TABLE 14: Urban/rural OOSC rate and number at lower secondary school-age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

per cent). Table 12 and Figure 7 display respectively the number and percentage of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania.

2.3.6 Urban and rural and regional disparity in Out-of-School Children

2.3.6.1 Urban and rural disparity in Out-of-School Children

Rural children are much more likely to be out of school than urban children. The situation is particularly serious at primary school age, when rural children are three times as likely as their urban peers to be out of school (27.7 per cent in rural areas against 9.0 per cent in urban areas). Rural children of lower secondary school age are also more likely to lag behind in primary education. Even though at this age, the gap in the OOSC rate between urban and rural narrows, the real reason is not the increase in rural attendance in lower secondary education, but its significant presence in primary education.

Because a large population resides in rural areas, the number of Out-of-School Children is also much larger in rural areas than in urban areas. In total, there are 1.8 million primary school age Out-of-School Children living in rural areas, whereas in urban areas there are only 180,000. In the lower secondary school age, the trend continues; in rural areas there are 1.2 million Out-of-School Children but in urban areas there are 345,000.

2.3.6.2 Regional disparity in Out-of-School Children

Regional disparity in Out-of-School Children is severe in Tanzania. The Appendices provide the complete ranking of regions by both OOSC rate and OOSC number, from Tabora where almost half of its primary school age children are excluded from formal education, to Kilimanjaro where the region achieves close to full school attendance at this age. Tables 15 and 16 only display the top and the bottom five regions by their rate of Out-of-School Children and the top regions where most Out-of-School Children reside.

Rank	Region	Population 7-13	Primary ANAR	OOSC	
				Rate	Number
1	Tabora	449,080	55.7	44.3	198,840
2	Katavi	109,700	57.5	42.5	46,570
3	Geita	355,350	62.2	37.8	134,300
4	Rukwa	208,310	64.5	35.5	73,860
5	Simiyu	334,070	66.5	33.5	111,830
	Tanzania	8,476,670	76.8	23.2	1,968,910
26	Iringa	182,740	90.7	9.3	17,000
27	Dar es Salaam	569,600	91.4	8.6	48,840
28	Mjini Magharibi	101,020	91.9	8.1	8,170
29	Kaskazini Unguja	21,050	92	8	1,690
30	Kilimanjaro	305,960	93.6	6.4	19,550

TABLE 15: Selected regional ranking on OOSC at primary-age by order of OOSC rate | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Population 14-17	Lower secondary ANAR	OOSC	
				Rate	Number
1	Tabora	190,290	11.9	57.7	109,860
2	Katavi	46,860	10.2	55.1	25,830
3	Simiyu	139,250	11.0	52.1	72,480
4	Shinyanga	130,280	15.5	51.2	66,660
5	Singida	109,020	17.8	49.5	54,010
	Tanzania	3,727,490	25.2	40.9	1,522,680
26	Kilimanjaro	150,640	50.4	24.2	36,530
27	Kaskazini Unguja	16,030	32.9	23.5	3,760
28	Kusini Pemba	18,940	35	21	3,970
29	Kusini Unguja	9,670	44.9	18.9	1,830
30	Mjini Magharibi	48,640	50.7	17.9	8,710

TABLE 16: Selected regional OOSC situation at lower secondary-age by order of OOSC rate | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Regional disparity is most severe among the primary school age; there is a significant gap between the five best performing regions, where fewer than one in ten children are out of school, and the five worst performing regions, where more than one in three children are out of school. Compared with the best performing region, the Out-of-School Children rate in the worst performing region is six times higher. At the lower secondary school age, the level of severity reduces. Now the gap between the best and the worst performing regions narrows down to about 1:3. In other words, the OOSC rate in the worst performing region, is three times that in the best performing regions.

It must be pointed out, however, that this narrowing down of the regional gap at the lower secondary

school age only presents a false impression of reduction in regional disparity. The real situation is, in those worst performing regions, because of the late entrance to school (and likely higher repetition rate), the peak of school attendance is delayed to older ages, creating a scenario where the regional gap in Out-of-School Children narrows down among older children. Evidence of this theory can be seen in Table 16, where the worst performing regions have much lower secondary ANAR but, relative to their ANAR, a significantly higher rate of attendance in primary education.

More research is needed to understand the pattern of school attendance between different regions in Tanzania. Even though the gap in the OOSC rate

Rank	Region	Population 7-13	Primary ANAR	OOSC		
				Rate	Number	% of total
1	Tabora	449,080	55.7	44.3	198,840	10.1
2	Dodoma	447,890	67.9	32.1	143,580	17.4
3	Geita	355,350	62.2	37.8	134,300	24.2
4	Kagera	495,290	76	24	118,720	30.2
5	Simiyu	334,070	66.5	33.5	111,830	35.9
6	Mwanza	528,000	80.5	19.5	103,060	41.2
7	Kigoma	391,540	74.6	25.4	99,540	46.2
8	Morogoro	408,470	75.7	24.3	99,310	51.3

TABLE 17: Selected regional OOSC situation at primary-age by order of OOSC number | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Population 14-17	Percentage attending primary	Lower secondary ANAR	OOSC		
					Rate	Number	% of total
1	Dar es Salaam	334,030	20.2	41.6	38.1	127,400	8.4
2	Tabora	190,290	30.4	11.9	57.7	109,860	15.6
3	Mbeya	233,030	32.4	30.7	36.9	85,960	21.2
4	Mwanza	237,830	41	24	35	83,190	26.7
5	Kagera	207,300	40.3	20.7	39	80,780	32
6	Dodoma	177,240	36.3	18.2	45.6	80,740	37.3
7	Morogoro	179,750	30.5	25	44.6	80,080	42.6
8	Kigoma	171,240	38.6	15.5	45.9	78,600	47.7
9	Simiyu	139,250	37	11	52.1	72,480	52.5

TABLE 18: Selected regional OOSC situation at lower secondary-age by order of OOSC | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

appears to narrow in lower secondary school age, the real difference most likely lies in the fact that a child living in the worst performing regions spends a much longer period of his or her childhood being out of school, and thus achieving much lower educational attainment than his or her counterpart living in better performing regions. Questions to this end are yet to benefit from much more insight into regional analysis of Out-of-School Children.

The two tables above present locations where half of Tanzania's Out-of-School Children live. At the primary school age, about 200,000, or 10 per cent of the children live in Tabora. This region is followed by Dodoma with close to 145,000 Out-of-School Children and Geita with just under 135,000 children out of

school. Collectively half of Tanzania's primary-age Out-of-School Children live in the eight regions of Tabora, Dodoma, Geita, Kagera, Simiyu, Mwanza, Kigoma, and Morogoro.

At the lower secondary school age, Tanzania's capital, Dar es Salaam, tops the table for Out-of-School Children at a number close to 130,000. This is perhaps understandable for the fact that capitals tend to be where more jobs are located. Tabora sits as the second with some 110,000 Out-of-School Children and Mbeya the third, with over 85,000 Out-of-School Children. Collectively, more than half of Tanzania's lower secondary school age children live in the nine regions of Dar es Salaam, Tabora, Mbeya, Mwanza, Kagera, Dodoma, Morogoro, Kigoma, and Simiyu.

2.4 Profiles of the Never-Attended and Drop-out Children

2.4.1 School attendance of children in Tanzania

There are two categories of children who are out of school: children who have never attended school and children who have dropped out of school. Table 19 presents their percentages together with percentages of children who currently attend school in different levels of education.

Table 19 reveals a number of interesting patterns or facts in Tanzania's education system.

- It is not uncommon in many developing countries that children attend levels of education higher for their age, but this is not the case in Tanzania. The table shows that virtually no children of primary school age attend lower secondary education, and there are also virtually no children of lower secondary school age who attend upper secondary education. In fact, the only cases recorded by Census 2012 are a couple of hundred primary school age children attending lower secondary education. It seems that an education policy is in place that stops children attending education at a level higher for their age.
- Late entrance to school is acceptable and is common in Tanzania. A significant proportion of children delay their entrance to school till when they are eight

or nine, or even 11, and its effect extends into the attendance record of lower secondary school age.

- The transition rate from primary education to secondary education is low, taking into consideration the higher attendance rate of around 80 per cent in primary education and much lower attendance rate of around 30 per cent in secondary education. No calculation of transition rate is possible from this table, but the phenomenon is clear.
- There is a strong possibility that many children leave school after the completion of primary grades, even at the still very tender age of 14 or 15, without further study in secondary education. The table shows a clear increase of dropout rate after the primary school age of 13.
- There is a very high percentage of children who have never attended school. The percentage is so high and so persistent across individual ages that, if improvement is not made, for the next decade, at least 10 per cent of the entire young adult population would never have even attended school.
- There is no attendance in vocational training. Although vocational training is not suitable for younger age children, at the age of 16 and 17, the total lack of vocational training most likely indicates weakness in education.

Figure 8 plots a visual impression of the table.

	Age	Never attended	Dropped out	Attending				
				Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Other
Pre-primary	5	66.3	0.7	31.7	1.3	0	0	0
	6	55.9	0.7	24.6	18.8	0	0	0
Primary	7	38.4	1.1	0	60.5	0	0	0
	8	27.1	1.3	0	71.6	0	0	0
	9	18.7	1.6	0	79.7	0	0	0
	10	16.8	2.3	0	80.9	0	0	0
	11	11.8	3.2	0	85	0	0	0
	12	12.1	5.2	0	82.7	0	0	0
	13	10.5	8.8	0	80.7	0	0	0
Lower secondary	14	10.4	16.5	0	61.3	11.9	0	0
	15	11.2	27.7	0	37.4	23.7	0	0
	16	10.2	36.1	0	21.6	32.1	0	0
	17	9.6	44.4	0	10.6	35.4	0	0

TABLE 19: School attendance status of children by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

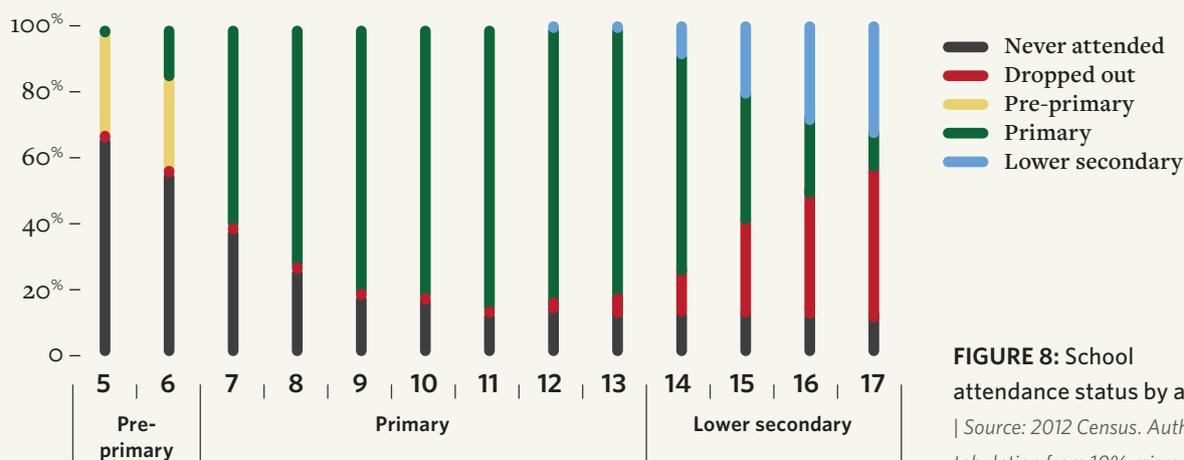


FIGURE 8: School attendance status by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Age group	Attending school	Dropped out	Never attended school	
			%	n
5	32.9	0.7	66.3	928,490
6	43.4	0.7	55.9	787,280
7-13	76.8	3.2	20	1,697,310
14-17	59.1	30.5	10.4	386,130

TABLE 20: Percentage and number of never-attended children by age group | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

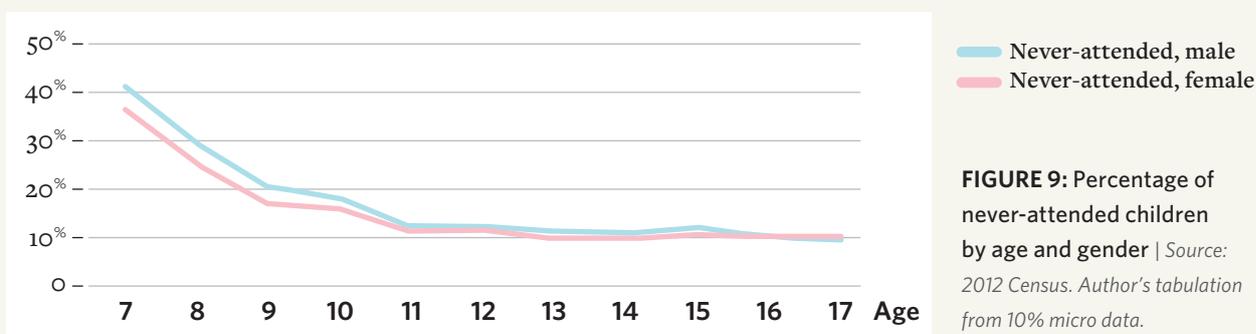


FIGURE 9: Percentage of never-attended children by age and gender | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

2.4.2 Children who never attended school

Never-attended children in Tanzania are, to some extent a mystery. The percentage is so unexpectedly high that, during discussions on findings for this chapter, there were suggestions that some of the never-attended children might have in fact attended school but shied away from recording so during Census data collection. Further study into this group of children is certainly necessary, if the country is to avoid having some 10 per cent of young adults in the coming decade not to have even been touched by the education system.

In total, 20 per cent, or 1.7 million children of primary school age children in Tanzania have never attended school. At the

lower secondary school age, the figures are 10 per cent and close to 400,000 in number. There is a large gap between percentages of boys and girls who have never attended school (Figure 9), with boys more severely disadvantaged.

A selected regional ranking on children at the age of 11 who have never attended school is displayed in the next two tables. The age of 11 is selected for the fact that Tanzania's school attendance rate peaks at this age and the analysis of never-attended children of this age will better reflect the situation of the never-attended. The complete lists of regional rankings by rate and number are included in the Appendices. The tables to follow show only the top and the bottom five regions by the rate and where half the never-attended children live.

It should not be a surprise that Tabora tops the ranking table to have 30 per cent of its 11-year-olds having never attended school. By number it is also the highest; close to 14,000 11-year-olds in the region have never attended school. On the whole, Tanzania has close to 12 per cent 11-year-olds who have never attended school, and half of this over 110,000 population live in the seven regions of Tabora, Dodoma, Geita, Kagera, Morogoro, Simiyu, and Shinyanga.

As was shown earlier, boys are far more likely to have never attended school, particularly at younger ages. Regional data, however, depicts a more irregular pattern; in some regions boys are indeed more disadvantaged, but in some other regions, such as Rukwa, girls are more likely to have never attended school. Further research into regions may give insight as to whether economic, social or cultural context in different regions play a role in never-attended rates.

2.4.3 Children who dropped out of school

2.4.3.1 Dropout rate

Table 23 and Figure 10 display dropout rate of boys and girls by age. In younger children the dropout rate is relatively low, but after the age of 12, it rises exponentially. It is also clear that before the age of 14, boys are more likely than girls to drop out, but after that girls' dropout rate picks up rapidly and they become much more likely than boys to leave school. Combined with findings on pre-primary, primary, and lower secondary school age children presented in earlier chapters, it can be concluded that in Tanzania, girls and boys have different patterns of entrance to, and leaving from, school. Compared with boys, girls enter school earlier and also leave school earlier.

2.4.3.2 Education attainment¹⁰ of dropout children

Table 24 and Figure 11 present the percentage of children who dropped out of school, by the highest grade they completed before dropping out.

About three in every four (74.2 per cent) lower secondary school age children who dropped out of school, left immediately after they completed the last grade of primary education. Combined with those who attempted secondary education, almost four in every five dropout children of this age, left education with their primary schooling completed (78.9 per cent). This leaves the other 20 per cent dropping out of school before the completion of primary education.

Rank	Region	Male	Female	Rate
1	Tabora	29.9	29.9	29.9
2	Katavi	25.3	26.4	25.9
3	Geita	21.4	19.9	20.7
4	Rukwa	19.9	20.8	20.4
5	Dodoma	22	18.1	20.1
	Tanzania	12.4	11.2	11.8
26	Kaskazini Unguja	3.6	1.4	2.4
27	Dar es Salaam	2.3	1.6	2
28	Kilimanjaro	1.8	1.6	1.7
29	Mjini Magharibi	1.9	1.4	1.6
30	Kusini Unguja	0.9	1.9	1.3

TABLE 21: Selected regional ranking on percentage of never-attended children aged 11 | Source: 2012 Census.

Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Rate	Total number	Total %
1	Tabora	29.9	13,810	12.5
2	Dodoma	20.1	10,050	21.5
3	Geita	20.7	7,740	28.5
4	Kagera	13.1	7,120	40.8
5	Morogoro	13.7	6,540	34.9
6	Simiya	17.4	6,110	46.3
7	Shinyanga	15.5	5,060	50.9
	Tanzania	11.8	110,840	

TABLE 22: Selected regional ranking on number of never-attended children aged 11 | Source: 2012 Census.

Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Age	Male	Female	Total
7	1.1	1	1.1
8	1.3	1.2	1.3
9	1.7	1.5	1.6
10	2.5	2.1	2.3
11	3.5	3	3.2
12	5.7	4.7	5.2
13	9.1	8.4	8.8
14	16.5	16.4	16.5
15	27	28.4	27.7
16	34.6	37.5	36.1
17	41.9	46.8	44.4

TABLE 23: Dropout rate by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

10. Meaning the highest level or grade an individual has reached

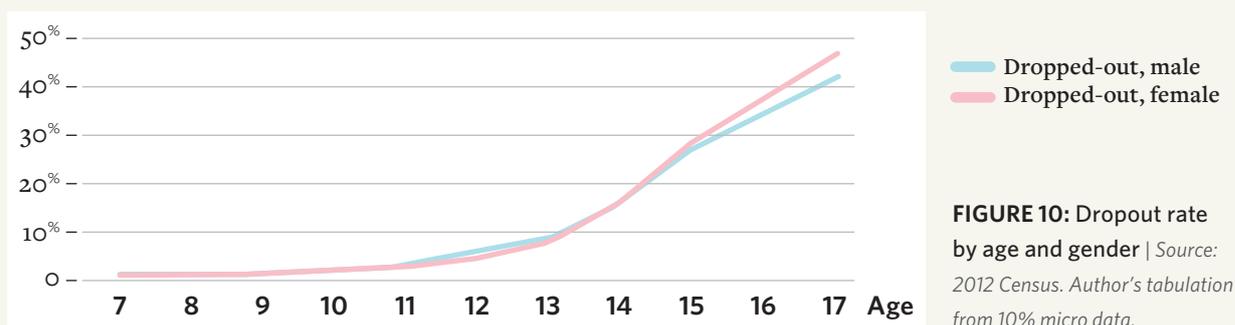


FIGURE 10: Dropout rate by age and gender | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

		Primary grades							Secondary grades					
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6
Primary 7-13	Male	19	19.6	18.3	16.9	8.3	5.1	12.7	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Female	17.3	17.6	15.7	15.7	8.7	6.8	18.2	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Tanzania	18.2	18.7	17.1	16.3	8.5	5.9	15.3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lower secondary 14-17	Male	1.5	3.6	5.5	6.4	5.2	3.7	69.5	1.5	1.2	0.5	1	0	0
	Female	1.1	2.1	3	3.7	3.4	2.8	78.4	1.5	1.6	0.6	1.5	0	0
	Tanzania	1.3	2.9	4.2	5	4.3	3.3	74.2	1.5	1.4	0.6	1.2	0	0

TABLE 24: Education attainment of children who dropped out of school | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

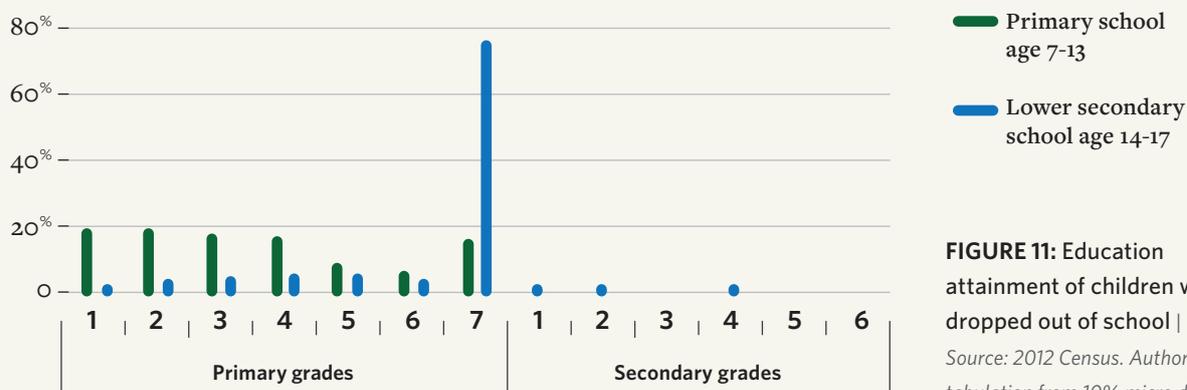


FIGURE 11: Education attainment of children who dropped out of school | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Of the primary school age children who have dropped out of school, a significant proportion (78.8 per cent) did so at the lower Grades of 1-4, i.e. Standard I-IV. The dropout rate after that is much lower, perhaps due to the fact that a national examination is sat at the end of Grade 4 (Standard IV), and pupils passing through the exam are less likely to drop out of school. Some 15.3 per cent of primary-age dropout children left school after the completion of primary education.

As a summary, in Tanzania, the majority of children who attended school left after the completion of primary

education. Relatively few children dropped out of school without the completion of primary education, and most of those children dropped out in the first four lower grades of primary education.

2.4.3.3 Reasons for drop out of school

The Population Census 2012 does not collect information on reasons why children drop out of school. However, this information is available with Tanzania Mainland 2011-12 Household Budget Survey (HBS). As such the information presented in this section is based on this HBS data.

Twelve reasons were available to dropout children only¹¹ and one selection was allowed. Table 25 presents the percentage of children for each of the reasons, ranked from the highest to the lowest.

Of the children between the age of seven and 13, more than one third (35.0 per cent) dropped out because schools are useless or uninteresting to them. Another 28.1 per cent claimed to have completed school. A further 13.8 per cent stated other reasons not listed for why they left school.

It is worth noting that direct poverty related reasons, i.e. 'Cannot afford school' and 'The child is working', take up only seven per cent of all answers. The highest percentages are in fact related to school supply and performance. In total, 'The school is useless and/or uninteresting', 'Failed examination', and 'Too far away' add together to a total of 46 per cent. This is to say that nearly half of children who dropped out of school at this age say that the reasons for dropping out have to do with the lack of inspiring, performing, and convenient schooling.

The biggest reason for children at the lower secondary school age for not attending school is 'Completed school', at 46.3 per cent. The second is 'The school is useless and/or uninteresting' and 'Failed examination' combined at 30.5 per cent. The percentage of children who find school useless or uninteresting, or fail at school, is lower in secondary school age than in primary school age; nevertheless, still nearly a third of the dropout children at this age left school because of this.

Poverty has a higher impact at this age. With 'Cannot afford school' and 'The child is working' combined,

Order	Reason	Percentage	Accumulated percentage
1	The school is useless/uninteresting	35	35
2	Completed school	28.1	63.1
3	Other	13.8	76.9
4	Failed examination	7.7	84.6
5	Cannot afford school	6.5	91
6	Illness	4.1	95.2
7	Too far away	3.3	98.5
8	Too young	1.1	99.5
9	The child is working	0.5	100
10	Too old	0	100
11	Pregnancy	0	100
12	Caring for sick persons	0	100

TABLE 25: Reasons for not attending school, aged 7-13, Mainland

| Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

Order	Reason	Percentage	Accumulated percentage
1	Completed school	46.3	46.3
2	The school is useless/uninteresting	16	62.3
3	Failed examination	14.5	76.8
4	Cannot afford school	9.1	85.9
5	Other	8	93.9
6	The child is working	2.8	96.6
7	Illness	1.6	98.2
8	Pregnancy	1	98.8
9	Too far away	0.6	99.8
10	Too old	0.1	99.9
11	Caring for sick persons	0.1	100
12	Too young	0	100

TABLE 26: Reasons for not attending school, aged 14-17, Mainland | Source:

2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

11.9 per cent dropout children cited poverty as the direct reason for dropping out. Additionally, some one per cent of children dropped out because they became pregnant. Assuming an equal number of boys and girls responded to the question, about two per cent of girls

cited pregnancy as their reason for leaving school.

The reason of 'Completed school' deserves particular mention: not only among dropout children at lower secondary school age, but also in those at primary school age, a very

11. 2011-12 HBS however does not collect reasons for not attending school by children who have never attended school. A child who answered 'No' to 'Have you ever attended school?' skips all subsequent questions on education, including that of reasons for not attending school.

	Primary grades	Lower secondary grades
Under-age	0.4	0
Official-age	63.7	53.1
Official-age +1		
Over-age	36	46.9
Total	100	100

TABLE 27: Over age by level (children aged 7-20)

| Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	Primary grades							Lower secondary grades			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4
Under-age	0	1	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.1	0	0	0	0
Official-age	75.8	64	62.9	56.7	63.6	59.8	53.1	55.9	53.4	50.8	51.6
Official-age +1											
Over-age	24.2	35	36.4	42.8	36.1	40	46.7	44.1	46.6	49.2	48.4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

TABLE 28: Over age by grade (children aged 7-20) |

Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	Primary grades							Lower secondary grades			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4
Male	26.9	39	40.7	47.7	40.8	44.4	51.5	49.5	52.9	55.7	53.1
Female	21.5	31	32.1	38.1	31.7	35.8	42.4	38.8	40.1	42.1	43.5
Urban	14.2	22.7	24.6	31	24.7	27.4	38.6	34.3	38.8	41.3	44.6
Rural	27.7	39.2	40.7	47.4	40.6	45.2	50.3	51.6	53.5	56.9	52.9

TABLE 29: Over age by grade, by male and female; urban and rural | Source:
2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

high percentage cited 'Completed school' as their reason for dropping out of education. As it is presented in the previous sections, when children of lower secondary school age left school, the majority of them had completed only primary education. For the dropout children at primary school age, to the best estimation, only some would have completed the last grade of primary education.

It is therefore likely that there is a perception among children, their parents, and society as a whole that education necessary for a child is

only primary education, or in some cases only some grades of primary education and that when primary education is completed, one has completed his or her required, or sufficient, education. The fact that so many choose 'Completed school' as the reason for dropping out while not having fulfilled secondary education, indicates that secondary education is not viewed in Tanzania as essential. It is possible that, in some sections of society, even completion of primary education is not essential; some grades only would be sufficient.

There is a need, therefore, for Tanzania to change this perception and improve the outlook of children, and encourage them to continue their education into the secondary level. It is possible that without this very important change and improvement, lowering the age for primary education, which is part of the new education policy, may only result in an even higher number and percentage of Out-of-School Children.

There are two possible remedies that could reduce the dropout rate in Tanzania; one is to improve transition from primary to lower secondary and enable more youngsters to enter secondary education, and the other is to improve performance at the primary level of education, in particular, the early stages of primary education.

2.4.4 Over age

Over-age takes into calculation children between the ages of seven and 17 and also children who are above the age of 17, onto the age of 20, to include older children still in primary or lower secondary education. Only children who are at least two years older than the official age for grade are considered over age.

Needless to say, over age in Tanzania is severe. At the primary level, out of every three children attending school, one is over age for the grade he or she is attending; the over-age rate is 36.0 per cent. Over age becomes even worse at the lower secondary age, where close to half of the children are over age for the grade they are attending (46.9 per cent).

Detailed analysis by grade, displayed in Table 28, shows that over age is surprisingly least severe at the first grade of primary education, Standard I. It rapidly increases as education progresses into higher grades, which indicates a strong possibility that increased over age is caused by repetition rather than

late entrance to school, as the late entrance is usually into Grade 1 rather than into higher grades. The significant increase in over age in Grade 2 and Grade 4 are possibly due to failed performance in Grade 2 in the former case, and failed examination at the end of Grade 4 in the latter case. Over age increases again at Grade 7 of primary education, showing a possibility of repeated attempts for completion of primary education. The reduction of over age in Grade 5 is also understandable; many older children who fail to pass the Grade 4 examination finally choose to drop out of school.

The relationship between over age and repetition requires much more research before a concrete conclusion can be drawn; unfortunately, the currently available data in Tanzania does not allow this to be carried out. Repetition analysis requires education records of two consecutive years and none of the census or surveys carried out so far provides the required data.

It is clear that over age is much more severe in boys than in girls. Starting at the primary Grade 1, over age in boys is already about five per cent higher than in girls, but soon it becomes more than double, to be around 10 per cent higher. This poor education performance in boys has already been shown in an earlier analysis, in which boys lag severely behind girls in their progression in education.

The distinction between urban and rural areas is different. The gap between urban and rural areas is mostly caused by the different percentages in entrance into primary Grade 1. The initial gap at 14 per cent points at primary Grade 1, increases moderately to the maximum of 18 per

cent points at Grade 6. This indicates that the urban and rural gap can be narrowed dramatically by improving the very first year's inclusion of children into primary education.

2.4.5 Impact of poverty on Out-of-School Children

The impact of poverty on Out-of-School Children is assessed by studying children from households of different wealth levels. Based on equivalent per capita adult consumption¹², households are classified into five levels: lowest, low, medium, high, and highest, representing respectively, poorest, poor, middle, rich, and richest households. This consumption quintile was possible only by the 2011/12 HBS estimation, not by the 2012 Population Census.

Although in each consumption level the number of households is the same, the population of school age children is very different. This is due to the very different household size at different consumption levels; the poorest households have the largest size of 6.27, while the richest households the smallest size of 2.89. The difference in household size resulted in distorted proportion of children in different consumption levels; at the lowest level, i.e. in the poorest households, there live some 6 million children, whereas at the highest level, i.e. in the richest households, there live only 640,000 children.

The attendance rate of five-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education is similar in poorer households at about

Consumption quintile	Unweighted number of households	Average household size	Population of children aged 5-17	Percentage
Lowest	2,037	6.27	5,950,592	42.9
Low	2,037	5.25	3,713,214	26.8
Medium	2,038	4.59	2,321,749	16.8
High	2,037	3.86	1,234,395	8.9
Highest	2,037	2.89	638,391	4.6
Total	10,186	4.57	13,858,341	100

TABLE 30: Population of children (5-17) by consumption quintiles |

Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

Household consumption quintile	Age 5	Age 6
Lowest	25.4	48.5
Low	21.5	38.9
Medium	25.4	48.5
High	52	67
Highest	60	79

TABLE 31: Pre-primary children attending school, by consumption quintile, Mainland | Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

12. The HBS 2011-12 data supplied did not have Household Wealth quintile that identifies households of rich or poor. However, there is a variable expressing the 'Adult equivalent consumption expenditure per capita a month'. This variable was used to create a proxy index to wealth quintile for each household, using appropriate statistical measure.

25 per cent, but it doubles in rich households to 52 per cent and is even higher in the richest households at 60 per cent. The attendance of six-year-olds is less striking but the pattern remains. Because of their very young age, pre-schooling tends to be only affordable by the very rich of society and Tanzania is no exception.

The OOSC rate at the primary school age really sets the poorest apart from the rest of the households. From the poorest households, 28 per cent of children are out of school, double the rate of those from the mid-level households at 14 per cent and almost triple the rate of the

richest households at 11 per cent. There is also a large number of Out-of-School Children in this poorest category due to large family sizes, almost one million in total at this age. In other words, 60 per cent of all Out-of-School Children of primary school age live in the 20 per cent of poorest households.

The OOSC rate at the lower secondary age rises as the level of poverty increases, gradually from 34 per cent in the richest to 49 per cent in the poorest. At the primary school age, the number of OOSC is however much higher in the poorest category, close to 800,000.

2.4.6 Impact of disability on Out-of-School Children

Data on disability was collected during the 2012 Census. In total the Census lists six types of disabilities: albinism, seeing, hearing, walking, remembering, and self-care. Any child with at least one disability is considered as a child with disability. The study of the impact of disability on Out-of-School Children, compares school attendance of children with disability, to children with no disability at all.

Table 34 shows that disability involves just over 2 per cent of children aged between five and 17, with a

Consumption quintile	Population 7-13	Primary ANAR	OOSC	
			Rate	Number
Lowest	3,450,743	71.8	28.2	974,377
Low	2,140,504	81.3	18.7	399,871
Medium	1,313,944	85.8	14.2	186,281
High	672,480	87.3	12.7	85,576
Highest	325,309	88.3	11.7	37,962
Total	7,902,980	78.7	21.3	1,684,068

TABLE 32: OOSC rate and number at primary-age, by consumption quintile, Mainland | Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

Consumption quintile	Population 14-17	Percentage attending primary	Lower secondary ANAR	OOSC	
				Rate	Number
Lowest	1,566,406	30.7	20.3	49	767,014
Low	987,029	27.7	30.2	42.1	415,390
Medium	620,333	23.2	39.4	37.4	231,869
High	339,641	16	50.1	33.8	114,950
Highest	200,633	10.9	55.4	33.7	67,553
Total	3,714,042	26.3	30.8	43	1,596,776

TABLE 33: OOSC rate and number at lower secondary-age, by consumption quintile, Mainland | Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

		Aged 5	Aged 6	Primary school age	Lower secondary school age
Population		29,420	28,710	182,680	86,920
Percentage	At least one disability	2.1	2	2.2	2.3
Attending	At least one disability	23.4	33.9	65.6	52.7
	No disability	33.2	43.6	77	59.2
Dropped out	At least one disability	0.7	0.9	4	25.9
	No disability	0.7	0.7	3.2	30.7
Never attended	At least one disability	75.9	65.2	30.4	21.4
	No disability	66.1	55.7	19.8	10.1

TABLE 34: Attendance status of children with disability, by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

total number of about 330,000. Compared with their counterparts without disability, children with disability are 1) less likely to be attending school; 2) more likely to have never attended school; and 3) at a younger age, more likely to drop out of school, but at an older age, less likely to drop out of school.

2.4.7 Impact of family structure on Out-of-School Children

In Tanzania Mainland¹³, about 57.5 per cent of children aged between seven and 17 live with both father and mother, 6.2 per cent live with mother only (father dead or missing), 1.3 per cent live with father only (mother dead or missing), and 1.7 per cent are orphaned (both parents dead or missing). The rest belongs to the 33.3 per cent ‘Other’ category, where either mother or father is alive, but lives outside the household. The total number of orphaned children is around 200,000, and there are around 720,000 children from single-mother households.

Table 35 shows that orphans are the most vulnerable among children of ‘different family structures’. At the age of

11 and 12, almost a third of them still have not attended any school. This is in clear contrast to children whose parents are both alive and living with them (9.0 per cent). Orphans are also more likely to drop out of school once they are in.

Children of single parent families are also vulnerable, regardless of whether they are from single-mother households or single-father households. Single-mother households recorded 15.9 per cent never-attended children, whereas single-father households recorded 18.8 per cent dropout children. Both result in a much lower attendance rate compared to children living with both parents.

2.4.8 Relationship between dropout and early marriage

Table 36 compares children who have never married with children who have been engaged in some form of marriage. Since marriage status is only recorded on children aged 12 and above, the analysis in this section focuses on children between the age of 12 and 17, although in order to show dropout in relation to marriage trend, children of older age will also be taken into consideration in Figure 13.

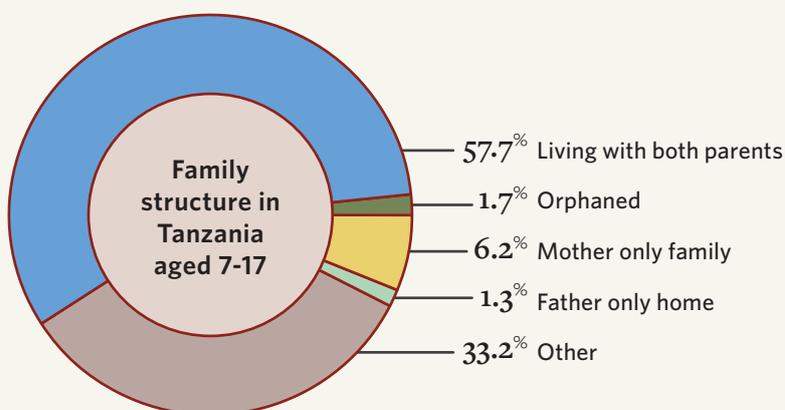


FIGURE 12: Family structure in Tanzania of children aged 7-17, Mainland | Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author’s tabulation from micro data.

	In school	Dropped out	Never attended	Total
Both parents alive and home	87.5	3.5	9	100
Orphaned	63.9	4.8	31.3	100
Mother alive and home but father dead or missing	79.7	4.4	15.9	100
Father alive and home but mother dead or missing	81.2	18.8	No children recorded at this category	100
Other	87.5	4.8	7.7	100

TABLE 35: Schooling of children from different family structure, aged 11-12, Mainland | Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author’s tabulation from micro data.

13. No data available on Zanzibar

		12	13	14	15	16	17
Number of girls engaged in some form of marriage		28,220	20,030	21,580	39,820	48,500	60,740
Percentage of girls engaged in some form of marriage		4	4	4.2	8.5	10.3	14.1
Attending	Engaged in some form of marriage	81.6	79.1	68.3	52.5	37.2	23.6
	Not married	83.8	81.9	74.1	61.9	54.2	46.7
Dropped out	Engaged in some form of marriage	6.2	9.8	19	32.2	45.4	57.9
	Not married	4.6	8.3	16.3	28	36.6	45
Never attended	Engaged in some form of marriage	12.2	11.1	12.7	15.3	17.4	18.5
	Not married	11.6	9.8	9.6	10.1	9.2	8.3

TABLE 36: School attendance status of girls engaged in some form of marriage, by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

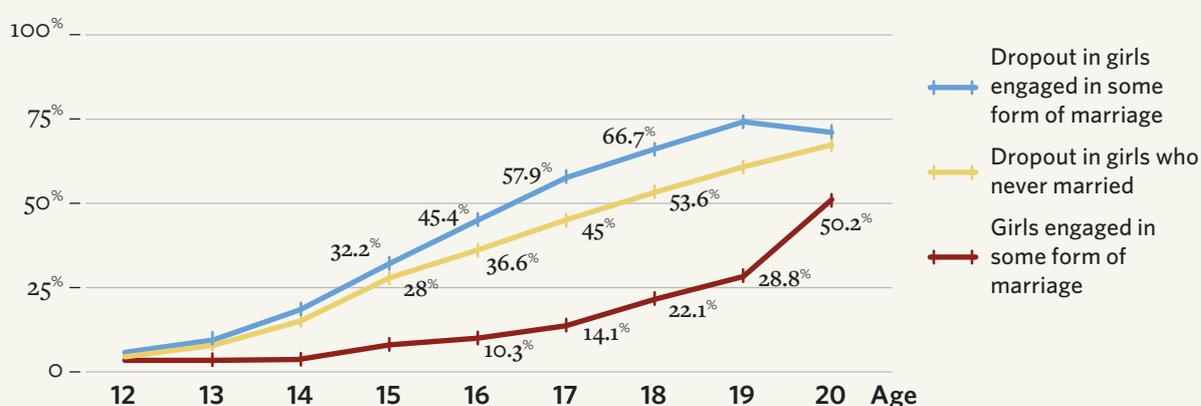


FIGURE 13: Dropout rate in girls engaged in some form of marriage, by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

In Tanzania, before the age of 15, about 4 per cent of children are engaged in some form of marriage. From the age of 15 this figure starts to rise, and at the age of 18, about 22.1 per cent are engaged in some form of marriage. From then on, married percentage rises rapidly, and by the age of 20, half of Tanzanian girls are married or engaged in some form of marriage.

Dropout rate, however, starts to rise much earlier than age 20. By the age of 15, nearly one third of girls has already left school, and at 18 this figure increases to more than 50 per cent. Moreover, a high percentage of dropout happens not only in girls who are engaged in some form of marriage, but also in those who have never married. Figure 13 shows clearly that for many girls, there is a considerable lapse of time, some three or four year in most cases, between dropping out and marriage.

Nevertheless, in girls who are married or engaged in some form of marriage, dropout rate is higher than in those who have never married. At the age of 16, for example, in girls involved in some form of marriage, 45.4 per cent are dropouts, but in girls who have never married, only 36.6 per cent have dropped out from school. Better education indeed correlates positively to later marriages.

2.4.9 Child labour in Out-of-School Children

A child is considered economically active and working as a labourer if he or she has been involved in paid or unpaid work for at least one hour in the past 12 months¹⁴, or has looked for work in the last four weeks.

From a very early age, many Tanzania children have been economically active. This is the case in both

14. Tanzania 2011/12 HBS questionnaire Q9 or Q13.

children in school and children out of school. However, Out-of-School Children are more likely to be working, particularly when they are older. At the lower secondary school age, 84.2 per cent of Out-of-School Children are economically active, whereas in children who are attending school, the percentage is 52.7 per cent.

shown in the next table. Most of Out-of-School Children who live in rural areas, work in household farms. Urban children also work in household farms, but understandably the percentage is lower. There is a considerable proportion of urban children who work for pay, and there are also some who work without pay in household businesses.

The prime activities of economically active children who are out of school depend very much on where they live, as

	5-6 years		7-13 years		14-17 years	
	In school	Out of school	In school	Out of school	In school	Out of school
Economically active	19.2	19.3	42	55.4	52.7	84.2
Not active	80.8	80.7	58	44.6	47.3	15.8

TABLE 37: Percentage of OOSC involved in child labour, by age group

| Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

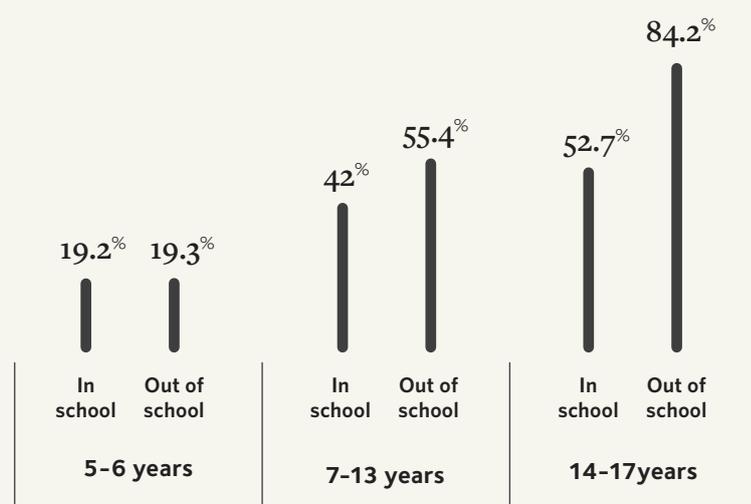


FIGURE 14: Percentage of OOSC involved in child labour, by age group

| Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

		Working on the household farm	An employer or own account worker - not on a farm	Helping without pay in household business	Working for pay	Apprentice	Total
5-6 years	Urban	71.6	0	19	9.3	0	100
	Rural	89.6	1.6	8.5	0.4	0	100
7-13 years	Urban	45.5	0	21.9	32.5	0	100
	Rural	88	0.8	10.2	1.1	0	100
14-17 years	Urban	43.1	5.4	15.3	33.4	2.7	100
	Rural	93.9	1.3	1.1	2.9	0.8	100

TABLE 38: Prime activity of economically active OOSC, by age group, Mainland | Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

2.5 Dimension 4 and 5

Dimensions 4 and 5 look into children who are in school but are at risk of dropping out of school. Although not presented in this section, some of the contents in Section 2.4 are part of Dimensions 4 and 5; they were included there to form a coherent picture of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania.

The tables below present indicators on children in school and assess risks of them dropping out of school. The tables are based on EMIS data between the years of 2009 and 2014.

The two tables show that a child in Grade 1 of primary education has a 61.9 per cent chance of surviving to the last grade of his or her primary education. His or her chance of

dropping out of school during this time is 38.1 per cent.

Surprisingly, half of the dropouts, or 19.5 per cent, are expected to occur at Grade 6 when pupils have already passed their Grade 4 National Examination and are looking forward to their successful graduation from primary education. Whatever reason why this happens, some research is necessary into more details of dropout in this grade. The other two grades that suffer heavily from dropout are Grade 3 and Grade 4.

It is also clear that the rate of boys remaining in school is much lower than that of girls.

Primary repetition rate shows a distinctive pattern; the lower four grades all have very high repetition rates, but the higher three grades all have very low repetition rates. Most likely, the end of Grade 4 examination plays a role in forming such a distinctive, clear pattern. The researchers also learned that some teachers deliberately make children repeat so as to improve the school's examination result ranking. Grade 7 has no repetition, meaning that children who finish Standard VII leave school without a second attempt at the primary school leaving examination.

The transition rate from primary school to lower secondary school is 56.3 per cent, with the boys' rate higher than that of the girls'.

Dropout in lower secondary education occurs at a very high percentage in Grade 2 and then is much lower at Grade 3. Girls and boys now have a very similar chance of remaining in school or dropping out.

Repetition almost exclusively occurs in Grade 2, which is most likely related to the end of the Grade 2 Examination. Once more, a clear

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Total	61.9	63.2	66.2	72	77.7	80.5
Male	57	58.5	61.8	68.1	74.5	77.8
Female	66.9	68	70.7	75.9	80.8	83.1

TABLE 39: Survival rate to last grade of primary education | Source: EMIS.

Author's tabulation from EMIS data using UIS template.

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Total	38.1	36.8	33.8	28	22.3	19.5
Male	43	41.5	38.2	31.9	25.5	22.2
Female	33.1	32	29.3	24.1	19.2	16.9

TABLE 40: Dropout rate before last grade of primary education | Source: EMIS.

Author's tabulation from EMIS data using UIS template.

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7
Total	8.6	7	4.7	6.4	0.5	0.7	0
Male	9	7.4	4.9	6.5	0.6	0.7	0
Female	8.2	6.5	4.5	6.2	0.5	0.7	0

TABLE 41: Primary repetition rate by grade | Source: EMIS. Author's tabulation from

EMIS data using UIS template.

	2013 secondary Grade 1 enrolment	2013 secondary Grade 1 repeater	2012 primary Grade 7	Transition rate
Total	514,592	2,623	909,437	56.3
Male	257,465	1,070	435,193	58.9
Female	257,127	1,553	474,242	53.9

TABLE 42: Transition rate¹⁵ from primary to lower secondary education |

Source: EMIS. Author's tabulation from EMIS data using UIS template.

15. No data supplied to calculate for 2014.

correspondence can be found between repetition and examination¹⁶.

2.6 Projection of number of Out-of-School Children for 2015

Based on the population projection using the 2012 Census data, in 2015, there are 2.2 million Out-of-School Children at the primary school age of 7-13, and 1.7 million Out-of-School Children at the lower secondary school age of 14-17. In total, 3.9 million children of school age 7-17 are out of school. Detailed tables are included in the Appendix. At the pre-primary school ages, around 1 million five-year-olds and 900,000 six-year-olds attend neither pre-primary nor primary schools.

The above projection is based on the fact that no intervention of great impact has been made to improve enrolment since 2012. Although TASAF started after 2012, its impact on school attendance is yet to be assessed. As such, the percentages of Out-of-School Children are kept unchanged at all levels, and the numbers are adjusted because of the increase in population. In other words, the projection is based on the assumption that all conditions remain unchanged as in 2012, except the growth in population.

For 2016, children aged six, who are not attending primary education, will be classified as Out-of-School Children. However, since the lower secondary education will be free, there will be an impact on those who would otherwise not have entered secondary education. Additionally, as children age six who are not in school, are classed as out of school, theoretically, children age 17 who are not in school, should not be classed as out of school. The percentage and number of Out-of-School Children are less predictable.

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3
Total	58.1	59.3	88
Male	58.2	60	87.7
Female	57.9	58.4	88.4

TABLE 43: Survival rate to last grade of lower secondary education | Source: EMIS. Author's tabulation from EMIS data using UIS template.

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3
Total	41.9	40.7	12
Male	41.8	40	12.3
Female	42.1	41.6	11.6

TABLE 44: Dropout rate before last grade of lower secondary education | Source: EMIS. Author's tabulation from EMIS data using UIS template.

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4
Total	0.5	16.3	1.2	0.8
Male	0.4	15	1	0.6
Female	0.6	17.7	1.4	1

TABLE 45: Lower secondary repetition rate by grade | Source: EMIS. Author's tabulation from EMIS data using UIS template.

	Primary (I-VII) enrolment	O-Level (1-4) enrolment	Survival rate to Std VII	Survival rate to Form 4	PSLE pass rate	CSEE pass rate
2005	7,541,208	489,942			61.8	89.3
2006	7,959,884	630,245			70.5	89.1
2007	8,316,925	967,087			54.2	90.3
2008	8,410,094	1,164,250			52.7	83.6
2009	8,441,553	1,401,559			49.4	72.5
2010	8,419,305	1,566,685	69.3	70.3	53.5	50.4
2011	8,363,386	1,711,109	66.4	78.4	58.3	53.6
2012	8,247,172	1,802,810	72.3	77.3	30.7	43.1
2013	8,231,913	1,728,534	68.9	70.2	50.6	57.1
2014	8,222,667	1,870,280			57	69.8
Five year average			69.2	74.1	50	54.8

TABLE 46: Education performance of primary and lower secondary schools by BEST¹⁷ | Source: Pre-primary, primary and secondary education statistics 2014, National data, January 2015

16. There were comments that the Grade 2 Examination has only been done once and it should not be generalised. No documents were available to examine the Grade 2 Examination issue.

17. The 2014 survival rate was not available in the BEST 2015 for both primary and lower secondary. Hence the average is calculated using the four years' data available.

3.

Analysis of Critical Issues in the Implementation of Education Policies and strategies

The Tanzania Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) aims at achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE), and since the start of its implementation the programme has seen improvement in school provision, teacher supply, primary enrolment, primary to secondary transition rate, etc. Despite the achievements, however, the quality of education remains to be a challenge to the country.

Shown in Table 46, to the left, is the past ten years' education performance data after the implementation of free primary education, recorded in the Tanzania EMIS system. In recent years, the primary school enrolment (Standard I-VII) has been stable at just over 8 million, but the lower secondary enrolment (Form I-IV) has seen a great expansion, from about half a million in 2005 to nearly two million today. In terms of education output, both the survival rate to Standard VII and to Form IV and the pass rate of the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) and the Secondary Form IV Examination (CSEE) had ups and downs. Calculated over the past five years, the average survival rate to the last grade is 69.2 per cent in the primary education and 74.1 per cent in the lower secondary education¹⁸, and the average pass rate is 50 per cent in PSLE and 54.8 per cent in CSEE. The table does not show the percentage of children who have dropped

out during the last grades (Standard VII and Form IV) and also does not show children who did not sit for the examinations.

To bring out the full implication of the above data, Figure 15 projects 100 children through the 11 years' basic education of Standard I-VII and Form I-IV.

Of the 100 children enrolled in Standard I, 70 children survive to attend Standard VII. Assuming all these 70 children sit the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), 35 pass to qualify for lower secondary education. The success rate of primary education is 35 per cent, without counting children who have dropped out during Standard VII and children who choose not to sit the PSLE.

Of the 35 children who enter Form I, 26 children survive to attend Form IV. Assuming all these 26 children sit the Form IV Examination (CSEE), 15 pass to qualify for higher secondary education. The success rate of lower secondary education is 41 per cent, without counting children who drop out during Form IV and children who choose not to sit the CSEE.

The implication of the above projection is significant.

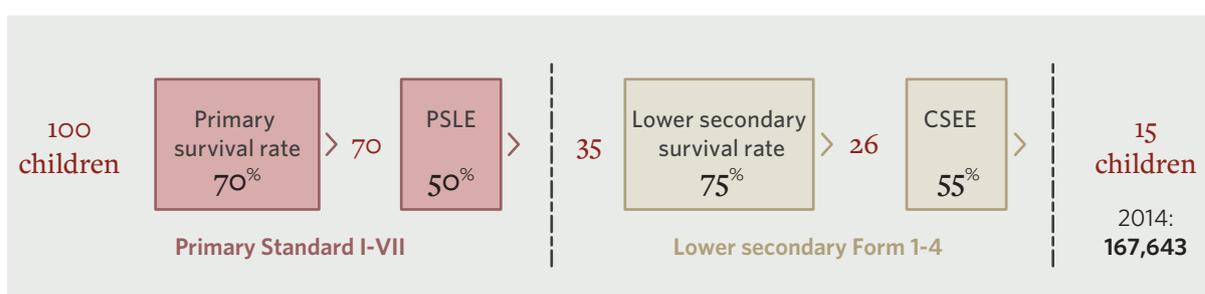


FIGURE 15: Success rate of 11 years' primary and lower secondary education

18. Compared with data from the Census 2012, the EMIS system records a much higher enrolment rate and also a much higher dropout rate. Further research is necessary as to why there is such a large difference.

Because of the low survival and pass rate, on average, less than 15 per cent of children successfully complete the 11 years of primary and lower secondary education and qualify for further education. Since this is a national average, figures in the poorer performing regions could be halved and some districts could even be worse.

3.1 Weak performance of the primary education sub-sector

As analysed above, in simple terms and by the latest data from Tanzania BEST, of 100 children who enter primary level Standard I, about one third will drop out of school, another one third fail the primary school leaving examination, and only the last, just over one third, complete primary education successfully and qualify for further education. The number of qualified children will be 35 and the primary success rate is 35 per cent.

The weak performance of primary education, particularly at earlier grades, is also observed in other research. In 2013, USAID carried out a National Baseline Assessment in Tanzania for the 3Rs (Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic) using EGRA, EGMA, and SSME, with the purpose of monitoring the achievement levels of students in the early grades with regard to foundational skills in reading, writing, and arithmetic¹⁹. The study found that 'only 8 per cent of the Standard II students are reading (Kiswahili) with comprehension', and when it comes to mathematics, 'Although students perform reasonably well on the more procedural tasks (basic addition and subtraction facts), they struggle to apply this procedural knowledge to solve tasks that are more conceptual in nature'. The study points out that 'In particular, students do not have sufficient access to appropriate learning materials, they are not practising the foundational skills sufficiently, they are learning through memorization and not through developing deeper conceptual understanding, and not enough of the teachers are specifically trained in evidence based pedagogies appropriate to early grade reading, writing, and arithmetic.'

The study on OOSC profile presented in an earlier chapter described in detail, symptoms of weak education in early primary grades. Of all the primary school age children who dropped out of school, 70 per cent did so in grades

between Standard I and IV. Repetition rate is much higher at these grades too: calculated with data from the BEST, in 2013 they were 8.6, 7.0, 4.7, 6.4 per cent respectively in Standard I to IV. Because of the significant number of repetitions, the proportion of over-aged children increases rapidly into higher grades. Beyond Standard V in every primary and lower secondary grade, more than 40 per cent of children are over age for the grades they are attending²⁰. Many are frustrated with repeated repetitions and drop out as a result. Further down the road of education, the effect of the poor quality of education in earlier primary grades continues. The Form IV leavers' pass rate for mathematics has been consistently low, at less than 20 percent in the past five years, a figure that requires serious rethinking of mathematics teaching at primary level, and the primary to secondary transit rate remains stagnant.

The problem with poor learning at lower grades of primary school is also found to be widespread by the Qualitative Field Study carried out in parallel with the OOSC profiling, and has resulted in children leaving education without acquiring basic skills. Some dropped out after attending just a few days, and some have gone through four or five years but still cannot read or write very simple words. Their chance of benefiting from subsequent higher primary grades or secondary education is small, and their commitment to education diminishes. Poor performance in early primary education has also seriously undermined the value of education; for parents who have already had to struggle with school costs, little can be seen to be useful for sending their children to schools that give them almost nothing in return.

3.2 Unsustainable expansion of secondary education

The Government of Tanzania seeks to expand access to quality secondary education. However, as was shown earlier, of the 35 children who successfully pass the primary education, a quarter will drop out of lower secondary education, a third fail in the lower secondary leaving examination, and some 40 per cent succeed to be qualified for further education. The number of qualified children will be 15 and the lower secondary success rate is 41 per cent. Compared to primary education, the success rate in lower secondary is better, nevertheless still very limited.

19. National Baseline Assessment for the 3Rs (Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic) Using EGRA, EGMA, and SSME in Tanzania, Study Report, USAID/Tanzania, March 2014.

20. These children are at least one year older than the age officially set for the grade they are attending. Due to the difference between the time the Census data was collected and the time the academic year started, the over-age rate presented here underestimates the over-age situation. In other words, the real situation will be more severe.

Looking back, there has been a great expansion in lower secondary education, but this will not be able to continue unless primary education is improved. The problem now lies firmly in the primary education sub-sector. Take 2014 as an example: the enrolment in Form I is 588,873, but the number of children who successfully passed PLSE in 2014 is only 451,392, meaning that 2015 Form I intake would likely be smaller than in 2014. Lower secondary education can no longer expand further, for there will be no candidates coming from the primary education to fill these extra seats.

With the implementation of the new education policy, children who fail the PSLE may eventually be allowed to automatically progress into lower secondary education. Such promotion can however be prone to difficulties. Not only will the existing lower secondary schools be overwhelmed by the increase in the number of students the schools must accommodate, they will also have to deal with students who do not have the prerequisite knowledge and problem solving abilities necessary for further study. The two-fold problem could be very harmful.

3.3 Limited human resource pool for quality teachers

The Teacher Development and Management Strategy which was evaluated in 2015/2016 sought to provide both pre-service and in-service training opportunities for teachers as key strategies to improve the quality of education. However, this study found that the limited pool of quality Form IV leavers has resulted in a poor supply of quality teachers for primary education. Based on interviews carried out by the author with officials in the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, in recent years it has been difficult to attract candidates into the teaching profession. The shortage of applicants has overtaken funding to become the number one issue in teacher training. From the already small pool of qualified Form IV graduates, still smaller numbers enter the teaching profession, and more than often their CSEE grades tend to be at the lower end of all leavers. For various reasons, many teachers proceed into primary education with little motivation and devotion. A vicious cycle is thus formed in the production of quality education: the fewer the number of quality educators entering primary schools, the smaller the pool of quality educators that are produced in the upper stream of education, which in turn results in still smaller numbers

of quality educators for primary schools. The limited pool of quality teachers is part of a wider shortage of skilled human resources, especially among specific professional skill areas, as recent studies indicate.

3.4 Shortage of skilled workers

The poor performance of primary and lower secondary education is evidently changing the landscape of education in Tanzania and limiting the production of a skilled labour force in the country. As illustrated in the study on national skills development²¹, there is a huge gap between the supply and demand of a skilled labour force: 'The "actual enrolment of professionals" against "expected targets" in the base-year are far apart - 5.6 times for engineers, 4.0 times for agriculture, 22.5 times for health or medical sciences, 4 times for science and ICT, and only 0.6 times for social sciences, business administration, law and administration.' According to the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, the shortage of human resources for health and social welfare is now considered and dealt with as a national crisis requiring continuous and collaborative attention²².

It should be clear why there is such an acute shortage of skilled labour. The very low internal efficiency of basic education, in particular primary education, has limited the pool of human resources from which universities, vocational training, government offices, banks, IT companies, etc., all compete. At the very bottom of this human resource pyramid, primary education has limited the pool size to be only 35 per cent, and lower secondary education further reduces it to 15 per cent.

These problems cannot be overcome without concerted efforts to universalise and improve the quality of primary education. Primary education is the basic and foremost right of every single child, and is fundamental and strategic to a country's development. Primary education brings awareness among the masses, opens avenues for opportunities and self-improvement, and reduces chronic and inter-generational poverty. As a first step in the creation of welfare and a just society, universal and well performing primary education is an absolute prerequisite for any sustainable development. Only when the vicious cycle of poor primary education is broken and the shortage of a skilled labour force dealt with at its root, can Tanzania be on the path to its targeted goal of reaching MIC status in 2025.

21. The study of national skills development to facilitate Tanzania to become a strong and competitive economy by 2025, Final report, President's Office, Planning Commission, June 2014.

22. Human resource for health and social welfare, strategic plan, 2014 - 2019, Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, September 2014.

4.

Barriers and bottlenecks

4.1 Introduction

A barrier is an obstacle that prevents children from participation in education. Distance to school, for example, is a typical barrier that deters children, particularly younger ones, from going to school. Barriers may exist in the demand side, i.e. children and their surroundings, or in the supply side, i.e. the education system. Not all children face barriers to education, and when they do, different children may face very different barriers.

A bottleneck on the other hand refers to a phase in the education system through which every child must pass but which does not allow all children to pass. When the system does not allow all children to pass, even when they qualify, a bottleneck is formed. Bottlenecks can be visible, or invisible. When the supply of places in secondary education is insufficient for the population of primary school graduates, then the lack of places becomes a clear bottleneck. However, when large numbers of children fail exams and drop out of school, the bottleneck is not so clear. Lack of motivation in the children, insufficient training on the teachers' side, etc., can all be blamed, when in reality, the problem may well be that the exam system has not been designed properly and has failed to facilitate learning and to encourage and help children move from one stage of education to the other. Bottlenecks are therefore systematic problems, and refer to political, governance, and financial factors that block the implementation of policies and strategies to ensure sustained school access for all children, or in some cases, policies and strategies themselves.

Barriers and bottlenecks, and demand and supply, are inextricably linked. Problems in one area are likely to be echoed in another, as many demand side barriers, for example, persist because of the lack of a systematic supply side response by government. In the analysis of barriers and bottlenecks, the key is to identify areas where

solutions must be found in order to improve equity and inclusiveness of the education system and reduce the number of Out-of-School Children, rather than to circle between cause and effect.

4.1.1 Analytical framework

The analysis on barriers and bottlenecks is a combination of four parts of work:

- Profile of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania which was carried out prior to this analysis on barriers and bottlenecks
- Desk review on research and publications in recent years, including Tanzania BEST and 2011 Tanzania Education Sector Analysis
- Analysis of relationships between out of school rate and education related data available from Tanzania government, including that of BEST
- Findings from the recent qualitative research carried out by DUCE in the seven regions, including five in the Mainland and two in Zanzibar (referred to as 'The Qualitative Field Study' for simplicity in the rest of this report)²³.

Additionally, interviews were conducted during the research with officials at the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and at the President's Office - Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG).

Issues related to barriers and bottlenecks are derived from the demand side concerning children and their parents, and the supply side of education, which involves education provision by both government and other stakeholders such as communities with different cultural norms and practices and the agencies governing the socio-economic development processes at all levels. The chapter seeks to highlight key factors that explain the exclusion of such large numbers of children from enjoying their right to basic education.

4.1.2 OOSC profile and barriers and bottlenecks

Based on Census 2012 and Tanzania BEST, the profile of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania can be characterised briefly as follows:

- Out-of-School Children's number and rate: 23 per cent and 2 million at 7-13 primary school age, and 41 per cent

23. References will be cited in this report in footnotes and only on publications publicly available. Findings from the Qualitative Field Study are included in the report with specific mentioning to the research. All other writings and analysis are of the author's own work.

- and 1.5 million at 14-17 lower secondary school age
- Significant disparities between Regions and Urban and Rural areas: some Regions achieve full enrolment in primary education while in others almost half of their children are out of school.
- Percentage of children who have never attended school is high: about 10 per cent of Tanzanian population have never had formal basic education.
- Late start is common: particularly in boys
- Early exit without completing secondary education is also frequent: particularly among girls
- About 60 per cent of primary school age Out-of-School Children live in 20 per cent of the poorest households by standard of per capita household consumption.
- Attendance of pre-primary is low.
- Shortage in education performance can be summarised: relatively high dropout rate in early primary grades; low transit rate from primary to lower secondary and from lower secondary to upper secondary; high repetition rate particularly at early primary grades; severe over-age across primary and lower secondary spectrums; low aspiration and interest among children in learning; poor pass rate at leaving examinations, both at primary and lower secondary level.

Essentially, there are two groups of Out-of-School Children: children who have never attended school and children who entered school but have now dropped out of school.

The group of children who have never attended school may face barriers that prevent them from entering school, such as:

- Perception of low value of education
- Poor parental care and support
- Poverty, school costs, child labour and child work
- Distance to school
- Gender discrimination
- Peer pressure
- Household migration
- Disability.

The group of children who entered but subsequently dropped out of school may face barriers listed above like children who have never entered school, but in addition they may also face barriers from within the education system that prevent them from advancing their education, such as:

- Shortage of teachers
- Poor teaching quality
- Poor motivation of teachers

- Insufficient or poor school infrastructure, shortage of classrooms, desks and facilities
- Limited supply of learning materials
- Unsafe school environment
- Poor educational provision for children with disabilities.

Less visible to both groups of children are bottlenecks that can prevent them from their overall success:

- Poor government level planning on education
- Poor implementation and enforcement of education policies
- Poor government level collaboration and coordination
- Inadequate investment in education and its inefficient utilisation;
- Insufficient training, supply, and deployment of teachers and lack of support for teachers
- Poor school management
- Poor learning assessment and monitoring
- Inadequate financial support for poorest households to combat poverty.

The remainder of this chapter presents the findings of this research and presents in more detail critical barriers and bottlenecks in Tanzania that contribute to the high percentage of children being excluded from education in Tanzania. No priority ranking is intended for any of the barriers and bottlenecks listed, as Out-of-School Children are not the result of one, but a combination of all the barriers and bottlenecks. It requires combined effort of government, parents and society to reduce each and every one of them. On the other hand, however, some barriers and bottlenecks do have higher impact than others on Out-of-School Children, and in that sense, the order of presentation can be taken as priority for actions.

4.2 Major bottlenecks in enabling environment

4.2.1 Education policy enforcement

The education system suffers from inadequate enforcement of existing laws and regulations designed to increase enrolment and improve quality. Statutes protecting the rights of children are not rigorously enforced, for instance, in cases of corporal punishment. Compulsory attendance of children over age seven is not sufficiently enforced. As recorded in the Qualitative Field Study, non-attendance, or absenteeism, is common in schools visited. The qualitative study found cases where head teachers do not even know how many children are supposed to attend and how many are attending.

4.2.2 Budget allocation and timely delivery of grants

Education remains the largest spending sector in Tanzania, but its share of the government budget reduced considerably in the FY 2013/14 Budget and was significantly lower than the average projected in the ESDP for the period 2008-2017. This indicates that the 2013/14 budget was not aligned with ESDP strategy²⁴.

Schools are entitled to three types of grants from the District Councils. They are the Education Block Grant, the Capital Development Grant, and the Capitation Grant. Of these grants, the Capitation Grant is directly proportional to the number of students enrolled in a school and is meant to finance the purchase of textbooks and other teaching and learning materials. Additionally, a small percentage of it is also used to fund repairs, administration materials, and examination expenses.

According to PEDP -III (2012-16)²⁵, capitation grants of TSh 10,000/= per pupil for 1,830,621 pupils by 2016 as well as TSh 20,000/= per pupil with special needs are planned. Furthermore, Capitation Grants of TSh 10,000/= per pupil for 8,825,326 pupils by 2016, and TSh 20,000/= per pupil with special needs for 34,419 pupils by 2016, are planned. In September 2014 the government expressed views that it would be issuing TSh 25,000/= for each enrolled pupil in secondary schools while for primary schools it would be US\$10 (about TSh 17,000/=) for each pupil from October 2014²⁶.

The average amount of the Capitation Grant received by schools surveyed during ESA 2011 was TSh 4,189/= per student in 2010²⁷. Researched by the Qualitative Field Study, head teachers in the Mara Region claimed that capitation grants of TSh 10,000/= for each primary and TSh 25,000/= for each secondary school pupil, had not been revised for years despite the rising costs of running schools. Additionally, the Qualitative Field Study reported, these budgeted grants had never been received in full. Mara Region for example, received only 30 per cent of projected grants for primary school and less than 40 per cent for secondary schools in 2014, and the deductions are also not always transparent. Variation of cash amount, declared as received by schools, and those sent by District

Council, also exists in many cases²⁸. It is also reported in different documents²⁹ that schools receive much less than projected grants.

Clearly, there are inconsistencies in the numbers above. From schools' point of view, there are two issues. Firstly, it is not entirely clear as to exactly how much capitation grant is budgeted for each pupil. Secondly, the distribution of grants is not transparent at all. As a consequence, schools do not know when they will receive the grant and how much they will receive in total. Some money comes now and then, and the schools cannot make proper plans for its use.

There is another problem with funding. Under the principles of decentralisation by devolution, schools are given increased authority to manage school funds. However, head teachers are often not properly trained to manage large funds. Grants are prone to be misused, as schools are no longer accountable to education boards. Although no specific data was collected during the Qualitative Field Study, some head teachers expressed dissatisfaction at having to manage irregular funds while carrying out day to day school management.

Distribution of capitation grants - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'Findings from the schools visited, revealed that capitation grants are not remitted to the schools as required. Additionally, the amount of funds is modest and in most cases the funds are remitted late. In Dar es Salaam, a school reported to have received just TSh 180,000/= at the beginning of 2015, and no other funds since then. A secondary school in Geita reported that an estimate of TSh 1,700/= per student was received for this financial year, while development funds had been last received in 2013 for construction of two classrooms and one office. In all regions visited, none received the full capitation grants projected. All schools reported that they did not receive building funds in 2015 except for funds for building laboratories. When it comes to funds for running schools, teachers interviewed reported to have received fewer funds than projected, and delays in disbursement were common, constraining school management capabilities.'

24. Tanzania Rapid Budget Assessment: Education, November 2013. Prepared for DfID by Amir Jones and Susy Ndaruhutse, CfBT Education Trust.

25. PEDP-III (2012-2016), ESDC July 2012, Page 82-83. The statements on the budget are from the document.

26. Tanzania: Yes, Capitation Grants Need Control, <http://allafrica.com/stories/201409240354.html>

27. Education Sector Analysis 2011

28. Education Sector Analysis 2011

29. Capitation Grant for Education: When will it make a difference? Policy brief TZ.08/2010E produced by Uwazi at Twaweza, housed by Hivos

4.2.3 Planning of education resources

4.2.3.1 Education plan with population volume and growth

Statistics from Tanzania Government³⁰ provide evidence of growth in the education system during the past three years, on the recruitment of primary school teachers. The number of teachers increased from 180,987 in 2012 by 8,500 in 2013, and 1,900 in 2014. This gives an overall three-year growth rate of 5.7 per cent, slightly higher than the 7-13 years' population growth rate of 5.3 per cent (population projected using 2013 projected growth rate of 2.62 per cent for two consecutive years).

The above calculation shows that the growth in teacher recruitment is in line with the growth of population in the last three years. It however, also indicates that the recruitment growth has merely been catching up with the growth of the population and has not made significant improvement on the teacher to pupil ratio, and more importantly, the teacher to child population ratio. The teacher shortage remains chronic.

4.2.3.2 Education plan with population distribution

Furthermore, the Qualitative Field Study found that in some schools there is good supply of teachers but in others, a severe shortage. There is clearly an uneven distribution of teachers. Like many other issues, inequality exists in teacher distribution as well, across different Regions, Districts, Urban and Rural, etc.

There is also evidence from the Qualitative Field Study that secondary schools have a better supply of teachers. In one secondary school, for example, there are 13 teachers for 23 students. On the day the researchers visited, there were 11 teachers present for seven attending students. In the very same region, in one primary school, there are five teachers for 525 children. On the day of visit, five teachers were present for 200 attending children. To provide one more example of secondary school teacher supply, in another secondary school in the same region, there are 28 teachers for 649 students, and on the day of visit, 18 teachers were present for 300 attending students³¹.

Uneven distribution, or lack of proper planning, does not only occur in teacher recruitment and placement. School infrastructure and facilities such as school building, classroom provision, toilet facilities, and running water, all face the same kind of issue.

Teacher Supply and Deployment

- report from the Qualitative Field Study

'Findings indicate that the supply and deployment of teachers in Tanzania is done centrally by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training in collaboration with the Prime Minister's Office Regional Administration and Local Government (PMORALG). For this matter, the regional and the district authorities in particular have no powers to employ teachers in schools, and that the District Councils (DCs) have powers to post teachers, only after receiving the allocations from Central Government.'

4.2.4 Motivation of teachers

The Qualitative Field Study found that many teachers are ill-prepared and poorly motivated, due to the lack of professional development opportunities, low wages, lack of professional training, severe shortage of teachers' housing, lack of local communal support, etc. The working and living conditions of the teachers are poor, especially in remote areas of the country, and in some places there is great tension between parents and schools.

Lack of motivation and training

- report from the Qualitative Field Study

'Very few opportunities exist for teacher training in the areas visited. REO in Dar es Salaam reported that the rate of training teachers is low; annually, only two teachers in each school are allowed for further training. For instance, a school with 92 teachers will need 46 years to complete the circle. This means many teachers will retire before going for further studies.'

4.2.5 Quality of teaching and teacher training

One of the striking comments from a Regional Education Officer during the presentation of research carried out for this report, was his description of 'people' rather than 'teachers' in school. In his opinion, some teachers do not have ethics required of a teacher, and are so ill-prepared for teaching that they cannot be called a teacher. This view is supported by a number of Village Leaders interviewed during the Qualitative Field Study.

Teacher preparation in Tanzania is faced with a number of challenges. One of the major challenges is changes in the training duration, and the subsequent

30. Pre-primary, primary and secondary education statistics 2014, National data, January 2015, Prime Minister's Office.

31. Information extracted by the author from raw data supplied by the Qualitative Field Study.

dilemma as to whether the focus of the curriculum should be on the subject matter (content) or pedagogy (methodology) or both.

'In Tanzania, initial training has traditionally consisted of two years' study in a Teacher Training College, with relatively little time given to teaching practice in schools, but the capacity of colleges to effectively supervise teaching practice has often been limited due to funding constraints. This situation was exacerbated by the rapidly increasing demand for new teachers after the expansion of pupil enrolment as a result of PEDP and SEDP. More recently, there has been an attempt to increase throughput and minimize costs by making the second year of teacher training school based (actual teaching in schools). However, this presents a major challenge in terms of the effectiveness of the supervision of the school-based component in the second year and suggests the need for more flexible approaches to pre-service training.'³²

Poor quality of teachers

- report from the Qualitative Field Study

'The poor quality of teachers was widely reported by REOs across the studied regions. The REO in Lindi Region reported that the poor standard of teachers contributed to OOSC, since children would leave school when they felt that they were not learning. The education officer also reported that poorly prepared teachers led to poor attendance especially when children learnt that such teachers had nothing to offer. Many OOSC children interviewed, mentioned inability to read and write forced them to drop out of school. Many of these children had difficulty reading out the short Swahili passage provided in the interview guide. Some of the children could not write simple words like baba 'father' or mama 'mother' on their own. It appeared to researchers that failure to perform such academic tasks in school could be one of driving factors pushing children out of school.'

4.3 Supply side barriers

The major bottlenecks in the education system, which is supposed to provide an enabling policy environment, explain the supply side barriers. Supply side barriers in education influence school enrolment, attendance and performance. Supply of education stands at the forefront of inclusive education for a very simple reason: the Government has the duty and responsibility to provide its children with not just education, but good quality education.

In order to identify supply side barriers, correlation between regional performance in the Out-of-School Children rate, and regional primary education data on supply of teacher and school facilities, is studied, where possible. This education data includes ratio of child population to teacher, shortage in classrooms, shortage of desks, and Pupil to Pit Latrine Ratio (PLR), and are calculated using data from BEST for 2012/13 and population figures are from the Census 2012. The correlation study is carried out on primary school data, as further research indicates that the supply to secondary schools is much better.

Based on the correlation result, barriers on the supply of teacher and facilities can be listed in the order of severity as, shortage of teachers, shortage of class rooms, shortage of pit latrines, and shortage of desks. Since correlation is not possible on issue such as school safety, no quantitative analysis will be provided.

4.3.1 Shortage of teachers

Teachers play a critical role in enabling students to achieve good learning outcomes within effective education systems. While their ability to positively shape a child's learning experience depends on a myriad of factors, the first step towards equity in learning outcomes, is to ensure that there are enough and well distributed teachers for the

		OOSC rate	Ratio of child population (7-13) per primary teacher	Primary class shortage (%)	Pupil to pit latrine ratio	Primary desk shortage (%)
OOSC rate	Pearson Correlation	1	.735	.640	.560	.486
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.003	.014
	N	26	26	26	26	25

TABLE 47: Correlation study

32. <http://www.sussex.ac.uk/cie/projects/completed/tpa/tanzania>

Primary OOSC rate		Age 7-13 population to teacher ratio	
Tabora	44.3	Tabora	57
Katavi	42.5	Kigoma	55
Geita	37.8	Dodoma	53
Rukwa	35.5	Simiyu	51
Simiyu	33.5	Rukwa	50
Shinyanga	32.3	Kagera	50
Dodoma	32.1	Singida	49
Manyara	28.1	Manyara	48
Singida	27.9	Geita	47
Lindi	26.6	Lindi	47
Kigoma	25.4	Shinyanga	45
Morogoro	24.3	Tanzania average	43
Kagera	24	Morogoro	42
Tanzania average	23.5	Ruvuma	42
Coast	21.8	Mtwara	42
Arusha	20.1	Katavi	42
Mwanza	19.5	Mara	41
Tanga	19	Tanga	41
Mtwara	18.6	Mwanza	41
Ruvuma	16.9	Mbeya	40
Mara	16.5	Njombe	39
Mbeya	15.4	Dar es Salaam	37
Njombe	10.2	Arusha	36
Iringa	9.3	Iringa	34
Dar es Salaam	8.6	Coast	34
Kilimanjaro	6.4	Kilimanjaro	34

TABLE 48: Primary level: OOSC rate and 7-13 child population to teacher ratio

| Author's calculation. Source of data: Tanzania BEST 2013 and population number by Census 2012.

school age population. Tanzania's national average of pupil to teacher ratio at primary level is 46:1 in 2012, based on published information from the World Bank³³.

Pupil to teacher ratio, however, does not take into consideration Out-of-School Children. Because of the high percentage of Out-of-School Children, a more revealing way is to look into the ratio between the child population and the number of teachers available to educate them. Table 48 lists the regional primary school age OOSC rate, together with their respective ratio of primary school age population to teacher. The table is created using teacher numbers from Tanzania BEST 2013³⁴, and population figures from the Census 2012. The pink regions are those with the OOSC rate above the national average of 23.5 per

cent, and the blue ones are below the national average. The population is of children between seven and 13-years-old, the age range of primary school in 2012. Figure 16 that follows, plots the correlation between the ratio and the OOSC rate.

It is clear from the comparison between different Regions that there is a strong link between the rate of Out-of-School Children and the availability of teachers. Of the thirteen Regions with above national average OOSC rate, only two have below average ratio of population to teacher, whereas Regions with below average OOSC rate all have below average population to teacher ratio. Tabora, as the worst region in primary OOSC rate ranking (44.3 per cent), has the worst population to teacher ratio at 57 children to 1

33. Pupil-teacher ratio in primary education (headcount basis), The World Bank. Data obtained in January 2015.

<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.PRM.ENRL.TC.ZS>

34. Only 2013 BEST data were available for this report, but 2012 teacher number should not be significantly different. Information from 2013 BEST report is used for this and all subsequent calculations.

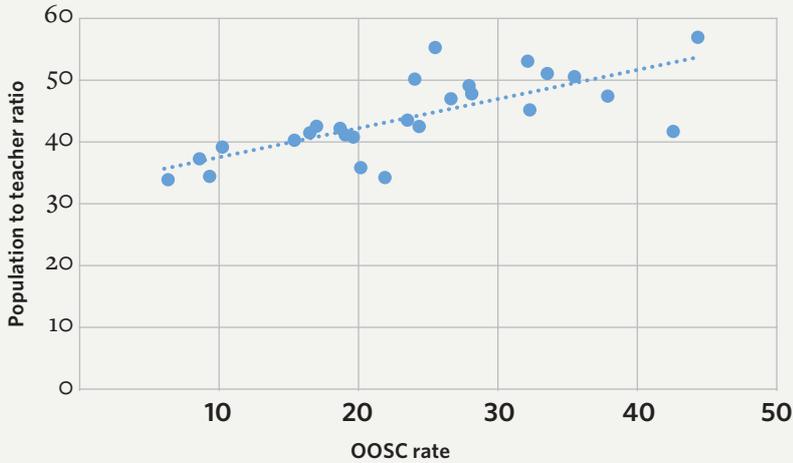


FIGURE 16: Correlation between population to teacher ratio and OOSC rate

teacher, whereas Kilimanjaro, as the best region in primary OOSC ranking (6.4 per cent), has the best ratio at 1 teacher for every 34 primary school age children.

UNESCO reported that ‘... the challenges and hardships faced by countries with the greatest need to expand teaching forces, found in Central, West and East Africa, cannot be underestimated.’ This report clearly demonstrates that the quantity and quality of education in these countries has already been compromised: this is not the place to start hurdling towards ambitious goals but rather to lay the foundations for progressive improvements.³⁵ In particular in 2014, UNESCO made targeted assessment on teachers’ needs in Tanzania in its UNESCO-CFIT Project Report, and exposed gaps in the quality of education at primary, secondary and teacher education

levels of the educational pyramid³⁶. In this not so lengthy report, it made 11 recommendations to improve the situation.

The child population to teacher ratio displayed in Table 48 shows only the average regional statistics. In some schools or districts, the ratio may be much higher. In one school in Mara Region, for example, pupil to teacher ratio was 178 to 1 teacher on the day of the field visit. High pupil to teacher ratio also comes with severe consequences. The Qualitative Field Study reported very heavy non-attendances in schools. One head teacher reported that about 200 pupils were missing school on average, daily, and that teachers had difficulty keeping children in school.

4.3.2 Shortage in classrooms and desks

The shortage of classrooms is

calculated as the percentage of the number of classrooms still needed over the total number of classrooms required for the region. Unlike the shortage in teachers, this calculation does not take Out-of-School Children into calculation. Using the same method for the analysis of teacher shortage, shortage of classrooms and desks are found to be also positively correlated to the percentage of Out-of-School Children, although the correlation is weaker.

Currently enrolment of all school age children is not possible in Tanzania because of the shortage of space for classrooms³⁷, and the problem with classrooms and desks is well recognised by the Government. In his speech during Chama Cha Mapinduzi’s 39th anniversary celebration, The Hon. President Magufuli issued an order to the District and Regional authorities to cut down unnecessary expenditure and use the saved money to purchase school desks and other teaching materials³⁸.

Severe shortage of classrooms and desks – report from the Qualitative Field Study

‘Observations at schools in Geita, Dar es Salaam, Zanzibar, and Tabora revealed that schools were overcrowded amidst acute shortage of classrooms and facilities. The researchers observed many children sitting on floors in crowded classrooms since there were not enough desks for every child. The situation was exceptional in Lindi

35. TEACHERS AND EDUCATIONAL QUALITY: Monitoring Global Needs for 2015, UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2006

36. UNESCO-CFIT Project Tanzania Needs assessment report, June 2014

<https://www.google.co.uk/>

[url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&ved=0ahUKUWjSwcOSvtDLAhWYbZoKHXp5DqYQFggdMAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Funesco.org/%2Fimages/%2F0023%2F002336%2F233665E.pdf&usq=AFQjCNHlkZR_pj9sAL_t9bM-Q5iGopeMcg&cad=rja](http://unesco.org/%2Fimages/%2F0023%2F002336%2F233665E.pdf&usq=AFQjCNHlkZR_pj9sAL_t9bM-Q5iGopeMcg&cad=rja)

37. Speech made by Mr Abdalla Mzee Abdalla, Deputy Principal Secretary Zanzibar, and report by Tanzania Daily News on 8 April 2015, <http://allafrica.com/stories/201504080337.html>,

38. The Guardian on Sunday, 7 February 20016.

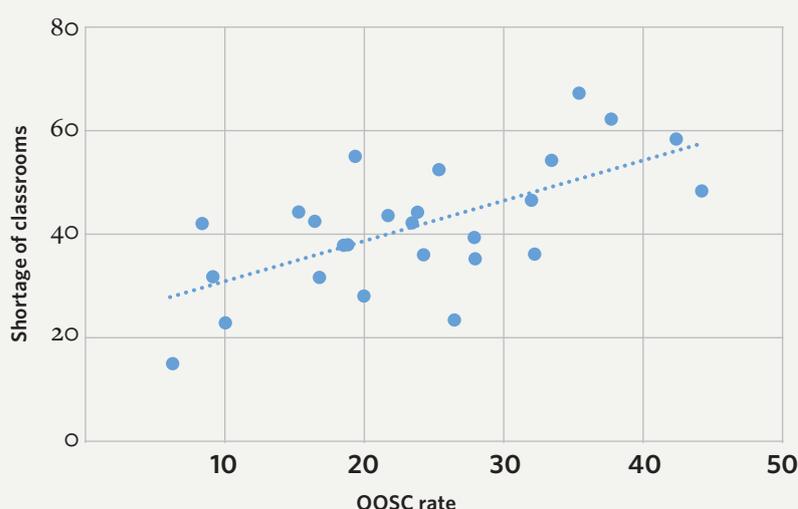


FIGURE 17: Correlation between shortage of classrooms and OOSC rate

where, despite the shortage of classrooms, some classrooms were empty. In more severe cases, Districts split schools into two or three different schools, as was witnessed in Dar es Salaam, Mara, Tabora, and Geita regions.'

4.3.3 Poor school infrastructure and facilities

The Qualitative Field Study found that schools, in areas where there are a significant number of Out-of-School Children, have poor school infrastructure and sanitation facilities, and many of them have no running water. As is shown in the correlation table, there is indeed a positive link between the regional performance in OOSC rate and the supply of sanitation facilities in schools. Although there are exceptions, the majority of regions that have higher than national average OOSC rate are found to have poorer Pupil to Pit Latrine Ratio. Regional disparity is severe: in Geita, some 107 pupils share one sanitation facility,

whereas in Kilimanjaro, only 26 pupils share one sanitation facility.

As reported in the 2013 BEST, problems with school infrastructure are known to Tanzanian Government as a clear challenge to the education system. MKUKUTA II: The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty³⁹ recognises that quality education requires improvement in physical infrastructure, teaching and learning materials, human resources and school governance. There are also numerous studies that conclude that there is poor supply of school infrastructure in many areas of Tanzania. 'The pupil to latrine ratio is an even larger culprit when it comes to factors that hinder Tanzanian children's education—for girls, especially. On average, there is one toilet for a collective 54 boys and 51 girls. This ratio — far below the normal pupil to latrine ratio of 25:1 — affects not only attendance but also performance in Tanzanian schools.'⁴⁰ UNICEF, jointly with

other international organizations, also has a special report published on 'Improving WASH in Schools: Improving the Quality of Education'⁴¹.

Poor sanitation facilities and running water – report from the Qualitative Field Study

'Poor infrastructure and facilities were found to be a universal phenomenon in all the regions visited. Typical cases included dilapidated classrooms and teachers' offices, poor toilets for students and teachers, few desks, and nearly all the schools were not fenced. Many OOSC interviewed in separate intervals of time, reported that congested classrooms, shortage of sanitation facilities, and running water pushed them away from school.'

4.3.4 Corporal punishment

Corporal punishment is lawful in schools on Mainland Tanzania⁴² under the Education Regulations 1979 pursuant to Article 60 of the National Education Act 1978, which authorises the minister to make regulations 'to provide for and control the administration of corporal punishment in school'. Corporal punishment according to these Regulations means 'punishment by striking a pupil on his hand or on his normally clothed buttocks with a light, flexible stick, but excludes striking a child with any other instrument or on any other part of the body'. In April 2013, the Government reportedly confirmed that corporal punishment would continue to be used in public schools, although the Government also informed the Committee that

39. National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP II), Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs, United Republic of Tanzania, 2010. <http://www.povertymonitoring.go.tz/Mkukuta/Mkukuta%20English.pdf>

40. Education in Tanzania: 10 Important Facts. <http://borgenproject.org/education-tanzania-10-important-facts/>.

41. Improving WASH in Schools: Improving the Quality of Education. www.wateraid.org/-/media/Publications/school-wash.pdf

42. Corporal punishment of children in the United Republic of Tanzania, the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, last updated 2015. <http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org/assets/pdfs/states-reports/URTanzania.pdf>

it is committed to abolishing corporal punishment in schools, and ways of achieving this were being investigated.

Although it is meant to be only a reasonable means of discipline, corporal punishment by teachers is found by the Qualitative Field Study to be one of the reasons why children drop out of school. Many teachers reported corporal punishment, and in extreme cases, children were beaten so hard that they either played truant or never returned to school for fear of the physical abuse in school. 'Teachers are using a stick more than they teach,' the researchers reported on one particular incident.

Corporal punishment in school is also not carried out by teachers only. Older peers can sometimes be equally violent. A survey carried out in 2013 on 409 children from Grade 2 to 7 reported⁴³ that nearly all the children had experienced corporal punishment at some point during their lifetime, both in family and school contexts. During the Qualitative Field Study, incidents of violence from older peers have not only been reported by children but have also been observed by researchers.

Corporal punishment and its alternatives - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'Many teachers reported that they used corporal punishment to enforce discipline on children. Head teachers noted, however, that corporal punishment was supposed to be controlled to avoid an adverse impact on school attendance. They also reported that teachers were asked to use alternative punishments but that they argued adamantly that corporal punishments were more economical. One teacher in North Pemba reported that alternative corporal punishment such as watering flower beds, sweeping, or bringing brooms did not work since the punishments entailed the teacher supervising the children who might take a long time to complete the task.'

4.3.5 Schools far away

Data from the 2007 Household Budget Survey⁴⁴ shows that the mean travel distance to primary school in rural areas is about 4.3 km. At the secondary level, the mean distance to reach school in rural areas is 8.5 km. Distance to school in Tabora Region, singled out in the Sector Analysis 2011, was

found to reach a startling 18.2 km. The Qualitative Field Study has found children who walk more than two hours each way to school, and such distance is not uncommon. The poor condition of, and often unsafe, rural roads, also contributes to this barrier. Many parents hesitate to send their young children to school for fear of their security and inability to walk long distances, causing serious setback on pre-primary education and early enrolment in primary education. Distance to schools is particularly problematic to children from poor families, making it difficult, if not impossible, to return home for lunch for example. Many have to endure school days without any food, and some simply drop out of school altogether. The problem with distance is also found to be not only for primary school children, but also for children who want to go to secondary school. There is strong evidence from the field that many give up because the schools are too far and too costly to get to.

School too far away - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'In all regions visited parents were concerned with their young children walking long distances to school. During focus group discussions, parents reiterated that late enrolment of many school age children was caused by long walking distance to school. REOs, DEOs, and village leaders reported that late enrolment was common among children of pastoral households living in distant marginal areas of villages. During a focus group discussion in Bunda, Mara Region, one parent said: "I cannot allow my child at the age of say eight or nine-years to walk 10 kilometres across forests to school alone. I have to wait until the child is of age before I can allow him to walk alone to school; at such an age the child will have gained enough stamina to endure the distance.'"

4.3.6 Safety in and out of school

Schools in Tanzania are not always safe places for children, especially when there are inadequate numbers of gender appropriate WASH facilities and little public supervision of children between home and school. The Qualitative Field Study reported that hardly any school they visited had fences around the school, leaving children exposed to security violations from outside the school ground.

43. Corporal punishment and children's externalizing problems: A cross-sectional study of Tanzanian primary school aged children, Child Abuse & Neglect. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283388097>

44. Tanzania Education Sector Analysis, 2011. In the 2012/13 Tanzania Household Budget Survey, distance to school is collected on distance from district headquarters to school, not on distance from childrens' home to school.

Safety out of school can be a problem also. As a result of expansion in primary schools, there has been increased demand for secondary schools. More have been built, but many are not within easy reach of all the children who need them. Some children resort to renting cheap accommodation near schools, but although they do not have to walk a long distance twice a day to and from school, they run the risk of being harassed, or in some extreme cases, raped⁴⁵.

School safety – report from the Qualitative Field Study

‘School safety is related to physical setting which poses as a threat to children. In most schools visited, lack of fencing was associated with safety issues. This was particularly evident in a school in Zanzibar where the classroom windows had to be sealed half way due to an incident some years ago whereby a child passing nearby the school, threw fire in the class, causing havoc. At a secondary school in Dar es Salaam, it was observed that safety in terms of hygiene was of great concern. There was no proper and clean place for preparation of the food and the students sat anywhere to take their meals. Cases of street children throwing stones at school children attending classes have equally been reported in several schools.’

4.3.7 Shortage of textbook supply

Without text books it is extremely difficult for children to learn what is required by the curriculum and pass exams. Lack of text books also severely demotivates children and causes them to lose interest in learning and eventually, to drop out of school.

Uwazi carried out a survey between August and December 2010 to assess the quality of amenities in a sample of 40 primary schools in Dar es Salaam’s three Districts: Ilala, Kinondoni, and Temeke⁴⁶. The survey shows that in most schools, text books are lacking. The average pupil to text book ratio is 5 to 1 in lower primary school classes and 6 to 1 in upper primary school classes. Across schools, there is major variation in the availability of books. At the extreme, the head teacher at Mbagala Primary School reports that in its upper primary schools, only teachers have text books. As in Mlimani, some schools are now taking matters into their own hands. For

example, according to the head teacher at Kunduchi, the school has requested parents of pupils in Grades 4 and 7 to buy books for their children.

In addition to the shortage of text books, the Qualitative Field Study also found that sometimes text books are available, but they are produced by different companies, of different contents and teachers cannot use them for children of the same class.

More recently, the slow pace of production and printing of textbooks for Grades 1 and 2 learners, based on the new curriculum, has been explained by the slow pace of disbursements of GPE funds from Government’s Exchequer System and the limited capacity of some selected printing houses to print large volumes of textbooks.

4.3.8 Lack of provision for disability

The 2008 Tanzania Disability Survey⁴⁷ was the first of its kind in Tanzania on people with disability. The survey was conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), in collaboration with the Office of the Chief Government Statistician, Zanzibar (OCGS) and the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare. The survey was household based, and covered both Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar and included children of young age. Its major objective of the 2008 Tanzania Disability Survey was to determine the prevalence of disability in the country⁴⁸.

The survey found that of the primary school aged children i.e. seven – 13 years, only 38.4 per cent of children with disabilities were attending school and most attended mixed or normal schools. Attendance at secondary level was very low. The survey also found that, of the total 362,847 children with disabilities and aged between four – 14 years, 15.5 per cent were refused entry to schools because of their disabilities. The highest refusal of 8.4 per cent was in regard to entry into regular primary schools. This was followed by refusal to join the regular preschools at 4.7 per cent. Refusal was relatively higher among males (17.5 per cent) than females (15.5 per cent).

Results for Zanzibar indicate that no child was refused entry at any level. The survey discovered that schools

45. Tanzanian girls risking rape for an education, by Lizz Pearson BBC News, Arusha, Tanzania.

<http://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-12640342>

46. Primary schools in Dar es Salaam: Overcrowded and without sufficient text books.

<http://www.twaweza.org/uploads/files/Uwazi%20Monitoring%20Brief%203%20May%202011%20education%20E%20Final.pdf>

47. 2008 Tanzania Disability Survey report, 10 June, 2010

48. Currently there is a five-year project which is part of Modelling Inclusive Education (M.I.E) that focuses on identification and enrolment of children with disabilities in mainstream schools and is currently piloted in four districts of Kibaha Town Council, Kibaha Rural District, Mkuranga and Kisarawe.

were the least accessible places for disabled children, with only 42 per cent of schools cited as accessible. The reasons given for not attending school were most commonly issues of expense and distance.

A recent qualitative research carried out in Hai, Moshi Urban, Morogoro Urban, and Kilombero Districts by people with disabilities who lived within the communities they studied⁴⁹, reported that the majority of children who needed additional facilities were not being provided with any services and two thirds of schools researched did not have access to teachers trained in special needs education. The children with disabilities revealed that their accessibility to classrooms, toilets and teachers' offices were often reduced. The same scenarios were also confirmed in the Qualitative Field Study. In addition to the lack of provisioning in school, the researchers also found cases where parents of children with disability receive no advice from schools on where else to send the child for education, nor from any other person who had such an understanding of where such a child should be sent.

Lack of supply side support on disability - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'The government supports children with disability by providing teachers, materials, meals, and some assistive devices. However, shortage of special needs teachers, underdeveloped infrastructure and facilities to support children with disabilities, and one-size-fits-all inclusive approach, place this category of diverse children at risk of dropping out of school. There is universal shortage of special units in all schools dealing with children with disability and most schools are missing facilities for children with special needs. It should also be noted that schools with special units are mainly meant for the Intellectually Impaired (II) children, which means that other types of disabilities are being neglected.'

4.3.9 Provision of sports and extracurricular activities

One of the less expected findings from the Qualitative Field Study is the lack of sports provision in schools. It is also reported that even though sports are part of the curriculum, lack of teachers to teach sports is increasingly becoming counterproductive. Additionally, the researchers also found that extracurricular activities such as art and games in school are lacking. The lack of sports and extracurricular activities for children is one of the reasons why schools are

so uninteresting to children. Similar to sports, schools also do not have enough sufficiently trained teachers in helping children expand their extracurricular activities.

Sports and extracurricular development - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'The primary school curricula appear to have embedded some aspects of social cultural values like sports and personality development which one might consider positive. These subjects are designed to build good citizenry and impart requisite skills in sports. However, teachers interviewed reported that the teaching of these subjects is taken for granted as head teachers assume that any teacher can teach them, unlike subjects like history, the sciences, or mathematics which are considered to require some subject specific qualifications.'

4.3.10 School inspection

The Tanzania Government recognises that school inspection is a vital means for monitoring the delivery of education according to stipulated curriculum and set standards, and it also ensures efficiency and quality delivery in education. However, even though the government made an effort to improve school inspection, and indeed, has increased not only the percentage of successfully inspected schools, but also the percentage of schools set for targeted inspections, the percentage of schools inspected as required, remains low. In 2013/14, Tanzania BEST recorded that only 65.4 per cent of targeted primary schools were inspected. At the secondary level, the percentage of inspection is much higher at 97 per cent, close to full inspection.

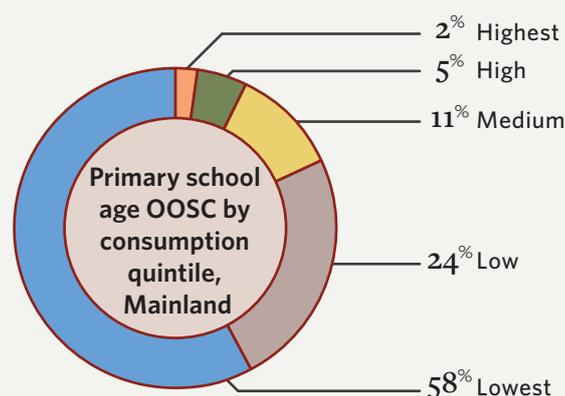
The problem with school inspection is not only how many schools are inspected, but also how effective the inspection is in terms of feedback and support of inspectors to schools for their qualitative improvements. The Ministry of Education has a comprehensive 39-page school inspection check list, on number of teaching staff, availability of toilets and water, etc. but its effectiveness remains in question.

School inspection - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'Interviews with teachers revealed that there were irregular and limited inspections in schools. For example, in two areas of one of the regions visited, the educational officers were reported to have not visited schools since 2011. The reason for not visiting the schools was reported to be a

49. Access to and provision of pre-primary and primary education to children with disabilities in Tanzania, DPO mentoring project, January 2013. <http://www.thekeshotrust.org/cms/wp-content/images/Access-to-education-for-children-with-disabilities-in-Tanzania.pdf>

shortage of vehicles in the Office of the Education Officers. Teachers in other schools reported that they have never met the inspectors because, when the inspectors visit the schools, they only go to the head teachers' offices. This was reported in all schools visited by the research team. For that matter, one may put it that inspection in school is unpredictable and ineffective.'



4.4 Demand side barriers

4.4.1 Poverty

4.4.1.1 Poverty in general

The impact of poverty is severe on Out-of-School Children. The analysis on Tanzania HBS 2011-12 (Figure 18) shows that some 58 per cent of primary school age Out-of-School Children crowded in the poorest 20 per cent of households of the country by standard of household per capita consumption, more than the other 80 per cent of households combined together.

Table 49, compares the regional OOSC rate at primary school age with 2012 regional per capita income in thousand TSh. Regional per capita income gives an indication of a region's financial ability to spend on education.

The ranking on regional per capita income lists the regions from lowest per capita income to the highest per capita income, i.e. the least financially able (the poorest) region to the most financially able (the richest) region. It is clear that, on the very top end of this regional ranking are the pink Regions with higher than national average OOSC rate, and on the very bottom end are the blue Regions with lower than national average OOSC

FIGURE 18: Distribution of primary school-age OOSC by consumption quintile, Mainland | Source: 2011/12 HBS. Author's tabulation from micro data.

Primary OOSC rate		2012 regional per capita income (thousand)	
Tabora	44.3	Kigoma	608
Katavi	42.5	Singida	625
Geita	37.8	Dodoma	665
Rukwa	35.5	Kagera	716
Simiyu	33.5	Pwani	752
Shinyanga	32.3	Tabora	770
Dodoma	32.1	Geita	
Manyara	28.1	Simiyu	
Singida	27.9	Shinyanga	856
Lindi	26.6	Mwanza	910
Kigoma	25.4	Mtwara	930
Morogoro	24.3	Mara	946
Kagera	24	Katavi	
Tanzania	23.2	Rukwa	974
Pwani	21.8	Lindi	976
Arusha	20.1	Morogoro	984
Mwanza	19.5	Tanzania	1,025
Tanga	19	Tanga	1,026
Mtwara	18.6	Manyara	1,048
Ruvuma	16.9	Mbeya	1,210
Mara	16.5	Kilimanjaro	1,237
Mbeya	15.4	Ruvuma	1,237
Njombe	10.2	Arusha	1,258
Iringa	9.3	Njombe	
Dar es Salaam	8.6	Iringa	1,428
Kilimanjaro	6.4	Dar es Salaam	1,734

TABLE 49: Primary level: OOSC rate and regional per capita income (thousand)⁵⁰ | Author's calculation. Source of data: Tanzania BEST 2013.

50. The table does not have figures for some of the Regions as BEST 2013 only provides per capita income of Regions that existed prior to 2012. However, these Regions have been grouped next to their original Regions for convenient comparison. Since some Regions are missing, correlation checking cannot be carried out.

rate. Although not absolute, it is certainly true that poorer regions tend to perform poorly too in OOSC rate.

Poverty is a general term. Absolute or extreme poverty is when people lack the basic necessities for survival. For instance, they may be starving, lack clean water, proper housing, sufficient clothing or medicines and be struggling to stay alive. Relative poverty is where some people's way of life and income is so much worse than the general standard of living in the country or Region in which they live that they struggle to live a normal life and to participate in ordinary economic, social and cultural activities. What this means will vary from country to country, depending on the standard of living enjoyed by the majority.

For a poverty stricken family, cost becomes an issue on every aspect of education. School uniform, transportation cost, school meals, stationary, etc. all contribute to the total cost a family must bear for sending a child to school. Although primary education is nominally free, following the abolition of fees in 2002, schools in Tanzania have charged parents significant levies for their children's education. In the Qualitative Field Study, school expenditure has been singled out as a major factor that affects the education opportunity of both Out-of-School Children and children at risk of dropping out of school.

Last, but far from least, it is the child, who has to endure the extremely poor living conditions, that is often excluded. 'No clothing for a child, no meal and no care from a parent - this makes many of the children opt to join in petty business instead of being in school. Some of them decide to find a job - working on somebody's farm or grazing somebody's cattle and get something to eat with siblings at home', A UNICEF officer who participated in the Qualitative Field Study observed this during his field visit.

4.4.1.2 Indirect costs of schooling

Globally, cost is a pervasive barrier for sections of societies with low household income. Even in countries where the state or faith-based providers absorb most of the direct cost, some costs remain and act as a barrier for very poor households.

While there are no tuition fees in primary education in

Tanzania, the range and level of contributions that parents have to pay to schools are too much and too many and become unaffordable. These include school uniforms, water charges, watchmen, meals, etc. Some children left school because teachers asked them not to come until they had money to pay for their outstanding contributions. Frances Vavrus published a paper in 2007 on 'The Cost of a "Free" Primary Education in Tanzania'⁵¹, detailing the confusion on school fees and mandatory contributions in the implementation of Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP), the true cost of schooling to parents, and the impact of inflation on children. 'The minimum, maximum, and median costs have risen substantially during the 2000-2006 period with most families today paying 18,000 shillings to cover their children's expenses compared to 11,000 shillings only six years ago', the paper reported. Although nearly ten years have passed, statements in this paper remain valid more or less. The Qualitative Field Study reported resentment in parents having to make substantial payment to schools that are supposed to be free. The lack of willingness to pay for the indirect school cost is partly due to the confusion, to the perception of low value of education, and to poverty.

Family size of poor households aggravates the cost even further. Tanzania's poorest 20 per cent of households by per capita consumption has the largest family size of 6.27, whereas the richest, 2.89. Any cost for education multiplies four, five, or even six times because of the number of children, adding a heavy burden to already struggling families in extreme conditions.

4.4.1.3 Opportunity costs of schooling

Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF) assists parents in need and covers costs of schooling for their children. In Mara Region, for example, TASAF provides families in need TSh 6000/= per month per student in secondary school, TSh 4000/= per month per child in primary school, and TSh 2000/= for a pre-primary pupil. Without a doubt TASAF has and is providing great help to families in need, however, TASAF alone is not sufficient.

Caroline Dennis and Katie Stahley in their 2012 study⁵² used data from the World Bank's 2008 Tanzania Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) to examine several factors that may decrease the probability of a child

51. The Cost of a 'Free' Primary Education in Tanzania, International Journal of Educational Policy, Research, & Practice, 2007 by Caddo Gap Press.

52. Caroline Dennis and Katie Stahley, Universal Primary Education in Tanzania: The Role of School Expenses and Opportunity Costs, Evans School Review, Vol. 2, Num. 1, Spring 2012.

<https://depts.washington.edu/esreview/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/ESR-2012-Universal-Primary-Education-in-Tanzania-The-Role-of-School-Expenses-and-Opportunity-Costs.pdf>

complying with compulsory education. Their particular focus was on the household education expenditures, such as book fees, uniform fees, meal costs, and transportation costs. Multivariate analysis of children ages 5-15 showed that additional school-related expenditures have little to no effect on the probability of attendance. However, whether the child works, either at home or outside of the home, appears to significantly reduce the probability that he or she attends school. This suggests that the opportunity costs of school are an important constraint for some families. The study concludes that 'To continue to break down barriers to Universal Primary Education, policymakers should consider whether and how to introduce incentives to increase the value of staying in school relative to working, such as free meal plans or childcare services for children tending to younger siblings.'

For families whose children take on work, the benefit is immediate. Not only the education expenditures are eliminated, more cash is generated instead. In the case where the children work on non-paid work, help is at hand with equal effect. Opportunity costs of schooling cannot be underestimated in Tanzania. The Qualitative Field Study reported large number of children working in various fields, in line with the result concluded in the OOSC Profile Analysis. The effect of school meals has also been clearly demonstrated in their visit to one of the schools. On the only day of a week when the school meal is not provided, attendance makes a clear and unmistakable drop.

Another issue related to opportunity, is peer pressure. The Qualitative Field Study concluded that peer pressure is one of the reasons that take children away from school. The pressure to join the workforce however, often stems from the need have money to support households and spend on items such as clothes, foods, video shows and pool tables.

Child labour - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'Child work and child labour were reported extensively across all Regions visited on the Mainland and in Zanzibar. Child work and child labour are most extensive in marginalised households, but also happen in non-marginalised households. Cattle and goat herding were observed in pastoral communities such as Mara, Geita, Tabora, and Pemba North Regions. In Mara Region many OOSC are involved in child work at home such as cooking, fetching water, and livestock keeping. The situation is getting worse as OOSC are now involved in activities that are more dangerous and even with criminal implications.'

4.4.2 Perception of low value of education

The analysis of the 2011-12 Tanzania Household Budget Survey shows that at least 35 per cent⁵³ of primary school age children do not attend school because they feel schools are useless or uninteresting. This perception of low value of education is not only held among children but also by their parents. The Qualitative Field Study found that communities collectively also have very low awareness of the importance of education. The view which is widely spread, deeply rooted, and pervasive in all wealth quintiles, is so severe that some parents hide their children from the education system, force their children to fail examinations, and even bribe teachers to let their children drop out of school.

Several factors contribute to this wrong perception. Firstly, some families believe that what children are learning is not helpful for their lives or what will probably be their future work, and life goes on all the same whether one has or has not been educated. Views such as this can be found in many countries, even in China where education is held in higher esteem than in other countries. The short-sightedness in the value of education is, however, made much worse by the poor education in Tanzania: a Form IV graduate could not speak a single English word and the graduate of secondary education in their own Ward was no different from those who had only completed Standard VII. There is no role model of successful education for one to follow - when the country as a whole expects less than 15 per cent to complete 11 years' primary and lower secondary education and qualify for further education, many villages have not seen a single child succeeding to the end.

Cultural practices also dominate much of the scene. Cattle can have more value than education. A child is born to help a parent in raising up cattle and not for his own education. In the same view, a girl is looked at as capital for more cattle which can be paid as dowry. Ceremonies are held for weeks with children absent from school for long period of time.

In consequence, as the Qualitative Field Study has observed, 'parents do not follow up on the education of their children. They do not care whether children are going to school or not, and also they do not care whether learning is taking place or not'. The very fundamental support for the education of a child is simply not present, or completely broken.

53. The 35 per cent was of those children who dropped out of school. If children who have never attended school are also taken into consideration, the percentage would be higher.

4.4.3 Late start of primary schooling

Late start of primary schooling is common in Tanzania, and many children are over age for the grade they are studying. Late start is problematic in many countries but has an even greater impact on children in Tanzania. Because of the lengthy duration of education, particularly lower secondary education, a child who starts primary school at eight years old for example, will be at least 15 by the time the basic primary education is finished,

and a further four years' lower secondary education would bring the child to at least 19 years old. Very often in less developed countries, dropout starts at around the age of 12 and picks up rapidly after the age of 14⁵⁴. The break of education around that age and the difficulty to pursue a further four years of education are likely to be key reasons for which many children leave education, once the seven years of primary education are completed, although more research is needed to verify the theory.

Table 50 compares the regional primary-age OOSC rate with regional school attendance rate of children at the age of eight. Age seven is not chosen for study because even though, at the time of the Census survey the child is seven at the start of that academic year, the child might still have been six years old and therefore could not have been admitted to school. Any child aged eight, however, must have been in school by law and those who are not are late starters. The evidence shown in the table is clear: there is a direct link between OOSC rate and late start of schooling.

Primary OOSC rate		Attendance rate				
		Total	Male	Female	GPI	
Tabora	44.3	Tabora	48	44	52	1.17
Katavi	42.5	Katavi	50	48	52	1.08
Geita	37.8	Geita	51	48	54	1.12
Rukwa	35.5	Simiyu	57	52	62	1.19
Simiyu	33.5	Rukwa	57	55	60	1.10
Shinyanga	32.3	Shinyanga	59	54	63	1.16
Dodoma	32.1	Dodoma	62	59	65	1.10
Manyara	28.1	Manyara	65	63	68	1.09
Singida	27.9	Lindi	66	63	70	1.11
Lindi	26.6	Singida	66	64	69	1.08
Kigoma	25.4	Kigoma	69	69	70	1.01
Morogoro	24.3	Morogoro	71	69	74	1.08
Kagera	24	Tanzania	72	69	74	1.06
Tanzania	23.2	Kagera	72	71	73	1.03
Pwani	21.8	Pwani	73	71	75	1.06
Arusha	20.1	Mwanza	75	73	77	1.06
Mwanza	19.5	Tanga	75	73	77	1.05
Tanga	19	Arusha	76	75	77	1.02
Mtwara	18.6	Mara	80	78	81	1.05
Ruvuma	16.9	Mtwara	80	78	82	1.05
Mara	16.5	Ruvuma	81	77	85	1.10
Mbeya	15.4	Mbeya	84	82	85	1.03
Njombe	10.2	Iringa	89	88	90	1.03
Iringa	9.3	Njombe	89	87	92	1.05
Dar es Salaam	8.6	Dar es Salaam	93	93	93	1
Kilimanjaro	6.4	Kilimanjaro	93	93	94	1

TABLE 50: Primary level: OOSC rate and attendance rate at eight-years old |

Author's calculation. Source of data: Tanzania BEST 2013.

Late start of schooling - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'The problem of over-age children was observed in Tanzania Mainland in almost all regions. Over-age children could be observed in almost all the regions visited, especially among the pastoral communities in Mara, Geita, and Tabora where schools are distant and parents would delay enrolment until children were old enough to walk to school. Education Officers and Village Leaders further said that parents force children to spend much of their young age herding calves before they would be allowed to start school.'

4.4.4 Gender-related barriers

Gender-related barriers in Tanzania depend on the age of a child. At the primary school age, boys are at disadvantage; more boys are out of school and when they do go to school, more enter school later and make slower progress in school. At the secondary school age, however, girls are at a disadvantage; girls

54. This is an observation of the author after analysing profiles of Out-of-School Children in a number of countries in Asia and the Pacific region.

Comparison with OOSC profiles in other regions of the world also indicates that the same theory applies.

leave school earlier and fewer continue schooling into secondary education. Across all ages, more boys than girls have never attended school.

4.4.4.1 Late start of school in boys

Although late start of primary education in Tanzania is acknowledged and frequently sited, gender disparity against boys in late entrance is not well understood.

Hardly any research appeared to have been carried out and little if any is available from publications. The table below makes it very clear that the attendance rate of boys at the age of eight is universally lower than that of girls. The GPI is above 1.00 in all regions except in the capital, Dar es Salaam. Out of the 25 Regions, only seven achieve gender parity⁵⁵, and even within these seven Regions, three are at the border line of 1.03.

Primary OOSC rate		Attendance rate				
		Total	Male	Female	GPI	
Tabora	44.3	Simiyu	57	52	62	1.19
Katavi	42.5	Tabora	48	44	52	1.17
Geita	37.8	Shinyanga	59	54	63	1.16
Rukwa	35.5	Geita	51	48	54	1.12
Simiyu	33.5	Lindi	66	63	70	1.11
Shinyanga	32.3	Dodoma	62	59	65	1.10
Dodoma	32.1	Rukwa	57	55	60	1.10
Manyara	28.1	Ruvuma	81	77	85	1.10
Singida	27.9	Manyara	65	63	68	1.09
Lindi	26.6	Katavi	50	48	52	1.08
Kigoma	25.4	Singida	66	64	69	1.08
Morogoro	24.3	Morogoro	71	69	74	1.08
Kagera	24	Tanzania	72	69	74	1.06
Tanzania	23.2	Pwani	73	71	75	1.06
Pwani	21.8	Mwanza	75	73	77	1.06
Arusha	20.1	Tanga	75	73	77	1.05
Mwanza	19.5	Njombe	89	87	92	1.05
Tanga	19	Mara	80	78	81	1.05
Mtwara	18.6	Mtwara	80	78	82	1.05
Ruvuma	16.9	Kagera	72	71	73	1.03
Mara	16.5	Mbeya	84	82	85	1.03
Mbeya	15.4	Iringa	89	88	90	1.03
Njombe	10.2	Arusha	76	75	77	1.02
Iringa	9.3	Kigoma	69	69	70	1.01
Dar es Salaam	8.6	Kilimanjaro	93	93	94	1
Kilimanjaro	6.4	Dar es Salaam	93	93	93	1

TABLE 51: Primary level: OOSC rate and GPI in attendance rate at 8 years old |

Author's calculation. Source of data: Tanzania BEST 2013.

Gender disparity is strongly linked to out-of-school rate; almost all Regions with above national average OOSC rate, have GPI also above the national average. From the Tanzania OOSC Profile Analysis, the consequence of late entry is also observable⁵⁶. Over age is much more severe in boys, and of the children who have dropped out of school. Boys also have lower education attainment. Although reported in the Qualitative Field Study that children were forced to herd cattle at a young age, resulting in delayed entrance to school, reasons why boys in particular go to school late, are not well understood, and should be researched into when possible. Very often distance to school is blamed as the reason why children cannot start school at the correct age of seven, but this makes it even more puzzling as to why more girls than boys are enrolled in school at seven years old.

4.4.4.2 Early drop out of school among girls

The reverse situation occurs when children are older. The dropout rate accelerates in older girls at a much higher speed, and fewer girls continue education into secondary and higher education⁵⁷. There are many reasons for the early exit of girls from school, and these vary in different cultures, geographic areas, religions, etc.

Education for girls is of serious concern and is being well publicised. There are numerous international organizations seeking to provide better educational opportunities for girls in Sub-Saharan Africa. Nevertheless, the problem of girls dropping out early from school, continues to be prevalent in a large scale in Tanzania.

55. GPI within the range of 0.97 and 1.03 is considered to indicate gender parity.

56. Refer to Tanzania OOSC Profile.

57. WORLD ATLAS of Gender Equality in Education, UNESCO, 2012.

Early pregnancy and early marriage – report from the Qualitative Field Study

'In Zanzibar, an REO in Urban West reported that early marriages are associated with early sex among school girls. Parents would marry their daughter when they suspected that the girl was having a relationship, hence she would drop out of school. In Mara Region, early marriage and teenage pregnancies are associated with rite of passage which includes female and male circumcision. Many cases of school children pregnancies are not reported because children simply disappear from school without reporting to the school authorities. In all the Regions visited, child prostitution or prostitution of girls at a young age in upper primary and lower secondary was reported in the towns of Dar es Salaam, Lindi, Tabora, Bunda, Serengeti and Geita. In Lindi, it was revealed by teachers that prostitution among girls in primary and lower secondary schools was also reported to be very high because after their initiation they are free to engage in sex at a relatively tender age. Early sex, child prostitution and early marriage are related phenomena, connected to economic marginality of respective communities. In Geita, it was revealed during an interview with REOs and DEOs that in Sukuma, people have a culture of marrying girls at a tender age to avoid them getting spoiled (having a child before marriage). This tendency contributes to many girls never attending secondary schools for girls in the district.'

4.4.5 Weak family structure

One of the key findings of the Qualitative Field Study is the impact of weak family structures on children's education. Weak family structures refer to a number of family structures in which children often do not receive the proper care they need. In some areas of Mara Region, for example, many forms of serial marriages exist. 'It is common for men to marry and abandon several women in turn after having several children with them'. The field study reported that 'nomadic and reckless lifestyles of men looking for more lucrative job opportunities encourage serial marriages. It is important to note that, although men do like having children with many wives, they virtually take no responsibility for the former wives and children left behind when they take new wives and have more children with the new ones.'

The field study concludes that 'Characteristics of the family structure have significant bearing on the quality of child care and their upbringing. Children out of broken homes, serial marriages, female-to-female marriages (nyumba ntobo), early marriages and teenage pregnancies, single-parent families, grandparent-led families and children-led families, lack proper parental care and are prone to produce potential OOSC candidates.'

Weak nuclear family – report from the Qualitative Field Study

'In Bunda and Serengeti Districts, the majority of children who are at risk of dropping out of school do not live in two-parent households but with other relatives including grandparents and aunts. In Mara Region, thirty-two children who never attended primary school were interviewed and only six were living with both parents. In Lindi, it was revealed during interviews that reckless lifestyles of both women and men starting to engage in sex at a young age (below 10 years old) and free to go to discos and videos at night, erode interest in schooling. In Zanzibar, it was revealed during interviews with REOs and DEOs that men and women are free to marry and divorce, and women have the tendency to prove their fertility by having children with men. When the mother remarries, she takes the child to the new family but the new husband takes no responsibility for the children from the former man. Fishermen in Geita also tend to have weak nuclear families because of serial marriages. Weak nuclear families were also observed in artisanal mining areas where women would have children with different men. In Zanzibar the majority of people practise polygyny and may marry more than one wife and have as many children as possible. Some large families fail to meet the school demands for their children, which leads to them not attending school. Polygyny is also found to be a very strong institution in Geita.'

4.4.6 Migration of households

Another problem with child participation and retention in school is the seasonal migration pattern of parents and guardians in some regions. Interviews carried out in the Qualitative Field Study in these areas revealed that many children are involved in migratory life styles because their parents keep on moving, looking for a livelihood in economic sectors such as shifting cultivation of tobacco and simsim farming, cattle herding, fishing and mining.

Impact of migration – report from the Qualitative Field Study

'In Kilwa District of Lindi, a DEO revealed during an interview that one secondary school was closed in September 2015, for having only one primary school within the catchment area. At the time it was closed, the school had fewer than 10 students in total. There are also other similar schools in Kilwa District (with the number of registered students at 53, 70 and 73) which had to close because these villages shifted to other cultivation areas which they believed to be more fertile.'

4.4.7 Attitudes to Persons with Disability

The 2008 Tanzania National Disability Survey investigated people's attitudes towards parents and caretakers of disabled children and the problems faced at home and school, noting experiences of discrimination against disabled children. Of the 0-14-year-old respondents who participated in the survey, 22 per cent reported some kind of negative attitude at home where problems ranged from always (1.8 per cent), often (9.8 per cent), sometimes (2.8 per cent), and seldom (7.6 per cent). The situation was more or less the same at school. Some kind of prejudice or discrimination was reported by 7 per cent of the respondents. The same patterns are observed for Mainland and Zanzibar.

Difficulties a child with disability faces - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'The Education Officer - Special Education in Tabora Region, reported that characteristic to many children with disabilities, is late enrolment due to a number of factors including type of disability, availability of suitable school, distance to school, parent or caregiver awareness, family social economic status and affordability of the cost of schooling. She also pointed out that bullying, stigmatisation, and excessive corporal punishment drive children with disabilities out of school.'

4.4.8 Communal responsibility and involvement

Although not listed as an issue by the Qualitative Field Study, lack of communal responsibility and involvement stands out from various corners of the field study report. It was reported that communities do not feel that schools are part of their community. There is no collective will to improve schooling within the community.

Comments on the lack of communal responsibility and involvement may not be agreed upon, by not only Tanzanians, but also by many international organizations, whose tireless work was met with complete enthusiasm by local Tanzanian communities. It must be pointed out, however, that the lack of communal responsibility and involvement occurs precisely where it is most needed, and its importance is shown exactly where it is in short supply.

Weak school committees and boards - report from the Qualitative Field Study

'The school visited, reported to have school committees (primary school) and school boards (secondary schools) comprising staff members and community members including parents. The committees and boards are

involved in school management on such matters as running of schools, school attendance, and discipline, and they consult parents of children and Ward/shehia leaders when addressing issues of poor school attendance and dropping out. However, the committees and boards hardly helped in eradicating the problem of school dropouts. They were weak and ineffectual and unable to advise effective management of school activities, since members often did not attend scheduled meetings.'

4.4.9 Information on Out-of-School Children

During the Qualitative Field Study, it was found that Education Officers and the key informers had sketchy, sparse and limited knowledge on whereabouts of Out-of-School Children in their areas and what exactly the Out-of-School Children were doing and why they were not going to school. During the interview, the officers and key informers provided helpful information, but in an ideal world, each and every one of the children should be recorded through the registration of vital statistics and be registered and tracked in the education system, even if they were not in school. Information on OOSC is neither collected systematically nor available for easy reference. Without a community-based system of knowing who these children are, where they live, and what they do, any effort of enrolling, retaining and monitoring their education would be undermined.

5.

Conclusion and recommendations

5.1 Profile of Out-of-School Children

The Profile Analysis presented in this report is the first of its kind in Tanzania on Out-of-School Children. Information on Out-of-School Children can be discovered from various publications and Government databases, but they are limited, patchy, and inadequate. This report makes a systematic and comprehensive attempt in analysing children who are out of school, and its findings reveal not only percentages and numbers, but also phenomena and magnitudes of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania. This distinctive approach was made possible by direct analysis of micro data of the latest Population and Housing Census 2012, the latest Household Budget Surveys in both Mainland and Zanzibar, and Education Management Information System (EMIS).

The report followed the international guidelines on studies on Out-of-School Children, and went beyond the recommended scope to include analysis of inequalities and disparities by gender, Urban and Rural, Region, and other socio-economic conditions, such as poverty, family structure, disability, early marriage, and child labour. The report analysed in detail children of pre-primary, primary, and lower secondary school age and children who did not belong to this age but were in primary and lower secondary grades. Children who were in school, who had never attended school, and who had attended but dropped out of school, their patterns of entering and leaving school, and their reasons for doing so have been extensively investigated. A summary of key findings is highlighted below:

Pre-primary school age:

- About 1.4 million children are at the pre-primary school age of five, of whom 31.7 per cent attend pre-primary and 1.3 per cent attend primary. The rate of children not attending school is 67.1 per cent, and the total number is 939,000.
- Over 1.4 million children are at the pre-primary

school age of six, of whom 24.6 per cent attend pre-primary and 18.8 per cent attend primary. The rate of children not attending school is 56.6 per cent, and the total number is 797,000.

Primary and lower secondary school age:

- There are about 8.5 million children at the primary school age of 7-13, of whom 23.2 per cent are out of school. The total number of Out-of-School Children at this age is 1,969,000.
- There are about 3.7 million children at the lower secondary school age of 14-17, of whom 40.9 per cent are out of school. The total number of Out-of-School Children at this age is 1,523,000.
- In summary, about 2 million primary school age children and 1.5 million lower secondary school age children are out of school in Tanzania. The numbers add together to a total of 3.5 million Out-of-School Children aged between seven and 17, and represent close to one in every four primary school age children and more than two in every five lower secondary school children.

Survival and transition rate based on EMIS data:

- A child in primary Grade 1 has a survival rate of 61.9 per cent to the last grade of primary education, and a child in secondary Grade 1 has a survival rate of 58.1 per cent to the last grade of lower secondary education.
- Transition rate from primary school to lower secondary school is 56.3 per cent.

Late entry to and early departure from school:

- Late entry to school is acceptable and common in Tanzania. A significant proportion of children delay their entrance to school till when they are eight or nine, or even 11, and its effect extends into the attendance record of lower secondary school age.

- Children start to leave school in large numbers from the age of 13. By the age of 15, a third of those who entered school have departed from school.
- School attendance reaches its peak at the age of 11, when 85 per cent of children are in school.

Over age:

- Over age is significant in Tanzania; in primary school 36.0 per cent of children are over age for their grades while in lower secondary school, 46.9 per cent children are over age for their grades.
- Over-age study also indicates high repetition rate in lower grades of primary education.

Children who never attended school:

- There is a large number of children who have never attended school, and the percentage is alarming: at the primary school age, 20.0 per cent or 1.7 million children have never attended school, and at the lower secondary age, 10.4 per cent or close to 400,000 children have never attended school. The percentage is so high and so persistent across different ages that, if improvement is not made, for the next coming decade, at least 10 per cent of the entire young adult population would never have even been touched by the education system.
- Children who have never attended school are the key reason for which Tanzania has such a high percentage of Out-of-School Children.
- In contrast to the above conclusion which is based on 2012 Census data, BEST recorded close to full registration in primary education but with a very high dropout rate. The subsequent Qualitative Field Study found that many children did not register, or they registered but dropped out only after a short period of attendance. In this respect, the Census and BEST do not contradict each other.

Children who dropped out of school:

- Dropout is less common in children of younger age, but becomes much more frequent in children who are older. From the age of 13, dropout rises exponentially.
- The majority of children who dropped out of school left after they had completed primary education. Those who dropped out before the completion of primary education did so in most cases during the early stages of primary education (Standard I-IV).
- When asked why children dropped out of school, only a small proportion of respondents highlighted poverty as a reason for drop out. School related problems such as 'The school is useless and uninteresting', 'Failed examination', and 'Too far away' predominant

the list of reasons for dropping out. At the primary school age, nearly half of the children who dropped out of school said it was to do with this lack of inspiring, performing, and convenient schooling.

- A significant proportion of children left school after they had finished only the primary level of education. There seems to be a perception in the society that completion of primary education, or in some cases completion of just some primary grades, is sufficient for a child.

Gender disparity:

- Girls and boys have different patterns of entrance to, and leaving from, school. Compared with boys, girls enter school earlier and also leave school earlier. As such at the primary school age, boys are more likely to be out of school, but at the lower secondary school age, girls are more likely to be out of school. Towards the age of 16 and 17, the percentage of girls leaving school picks up rapidly.
- Compared to girls, performance of boys in school is less impressive. They lag behind girls to be more likely, still in primary school while already at the age for lower secondary education, and are also much more likely to repeat than girls. As a consequence, more boys are over age in school.

Urban and rural and regional disparities:

- A significant gap exists between urban and rural areas. Rural children are much more likely to be out of school, and they are also much more likely to be over age when in school.
- There is a huge variation between different regions. Depending on where children live, the likelihood of being out of school could be as little as 6.4 per cent and as high as 44.3 per cent, for example. There also tends to be a concentration of Out-of-School Children: half of Out-of-School Children live in fewer than ten regions.

Impact of poverty and other social-economic factors:

- Impact of poverty is real. Both percentage and number of Out-of-School Children are high in economically less fortunate families. About 1 million, or 60 per cent of Out-of-School Children of primary school age live in the poorest 20 per cent of households, with large family size of 6.3.
- Poverty influences different aspects of a child's life, many indirect and invisible. This is reflected in the answers to the 2011/12 HBS surveys, in which only a small proportion of respondents selected affordability as the reason for dropping out.
- The report additionally analysed impact of disability, family structure, and child labour.

5.2 Quality of education

Quality of education has been an issue in Tanzania for many years. Based on data published by the Tanzania Government⁵⁸, this report found that, at the primary level, about one third of children enrolled in Standard I would drop out of school, another one third would fail the Primary School Leaving Examination, and only the last just over one third would complete primary education successfully and qualify for further education. Of this last one third of children, assuming they also enrolled in the lower secondary education, a quarter would drop out of the lower secondary education, a third would fail in the lower secondary leaving examination, and some 40 per cent would succeed to be qualified for further education.

The report observes that the very low efficiency of basic education has limited the production of qualified human resources for both the skilled labour force and quality educators. At the very bottom of this human resource pyramid, the primary education has limited size of the human resource pool to be only 35 per cent, and the lower secondary education further reduced it to 15 per cent. The poor quality in primary education is particularly problematic. Despite the great effort made in recent years, expansion of lower secondary education has come to a standstill because of the limited and stagnant production of successful candidates from the primary education.

The report concludes that the poor performance of primary education is changing the landscape of education in Tanzania and requires immediate attention from the Tanzanian Government. Only when the vicious cycle of poor primary education is broken and the shortage of a skilled labour force dealt with at its root, can Tanzania be on the path to its targeted goal of reaching MIC status in 2025.

5.3 Barriers and bottlenecks

The analysis on barriers and bottlenecks is a combination of four parts of work: profile of Out-of-School-Children in Tanzania; desk review on publications in recent years, including Tanzania BEST and the 2011 Tanzania Education Sector Analysis; analysis of relationships between out-of-school rate and education related data available from Tanzania Government; and findings from the recent qualitative research in the seven Regions in the country.

The report focuses on identifying specific problems for solutions that will make a significant difference to the Out-of-School Children and children who are at the risk of dropping out of school, and ensure that Tanzania has a better outlook, not only on the number of Out-of-School Children, but also on continued education once the children enter school. The report concludes with a number of key barriers and bottlenecks that must be overcome for a better inclusive education.

As a serious consequence of poor education performance, perception of low value of education is held by parents, communities, as well as children themselves, and is widespread, deeply rooted, and pervasive in all wealth quintiles.

In addition to the poor education performance and the perception of low value of education, the report identified a number of key education supply side barriers that are strongly linked to the high percentage of Out-of-School Children. There is a severe shortage of teachers, particularly primary school teachers with quality. Schools are unfriendly. There are insufficient classrooms and desks. Sanitation facilities are poor, often with no running water. There is widespread corporal punishment. Schools are too far away.

On the demand side, the report recognises that poverty is a key reason why many children do not attend school. The indirect cost of schooling is still high, and the opportunity costs of schooling continue to lure children away from school. It is common for children, particularly boys, to enrol in school late, and for girls to drop out of school early. Tanzania has a high proportion of families with very weak family structure, leaving many children without proper parental care of their education.

Children with disability continue to be disadvantaged.

There is also much to be improved in the governance of education. The planning of education resources seems to be barely in line with the growth of population, and consequently little improvement has really been made. This is evident for example in deployment of teachers and in the allocating and distributing of grants. The morale of teachers is low.

There is also an issue with the enforcement of education policy. Late entrance to school is widely spread, and so is

58. Although the analysis on quality of education is based on data published in the BEST, the conclusion correlates with the findings based on 2012 Census data. The EMIS system recorded higher enrolment rate and higher dropout rate, whereas the Census recorded higher rate of never-attended children and relatively lower rate of dropout. The analysis carried out for the conclusion here took the most recent ten years' BEST/EMIS data (2005-14).

non-attendance in schools. School inspection visits have increased but their efficiency and effectiveness are still very much in doubt.

5.4 Recommendations

The following are recommendations based on research carried out thus far on Out-of-School Children in Tanzania:

1. Awareness-raising within the Government, of Out-of-School Children at all levels. Although Government officials are aware of the existence of Out-of-School Children, many do not understand the magnitude and the extent of the problem. This awareness-raising is particularly important at the root level of education governance, i.e. Regional, District, and Ward Level Education Offices.
2. Awareness-raising within the Government on the current status of Tanzania's primary education and on the importance of primary education. Late entry to school, high repetition rate in early primary grades, severe over-age, high dropout rate at early primary grades, poor leaving exam pass rate, and perception among parents of low value of education are, amongst others, strong indications of poor primary education. The weak performance of primary education requires immediate attention of Central Government and calls for adjustment in the Government's strategic planning for higher level of investment, better resource planning, and more sophisticated management.

This recommendation is made despite the fact that many international organisations have been helping Tanzania with programmes related to primary education, some with great success. Primary education cannot rely on good will that is, more often than not, of finite duration, limited coverage, and of inadequate sustainability. The poor status of Tanzania's primary education is in need of an improved national strategy on education, with serious Government commitment nationwide. It requires a strong enforcement policy and consistent effort at all levels of Government and society.

The recommendation also calls for awareness-raising amongst international organizations and NGOs to provide help where possible to improve primary education across the country.

3. Improving school provisioning including teacher numbers and quality, classrooms and desks, sanitation facilities and running water, school

safety, and learning materials including textbooks. Schools should be encouraged to become more friendly to children, particularly at primary level: less corporal punishment, more sports and extracurricular activities, and more child-friendly methods of teaching. The recommendation calls for a friendly learning environment where children find inspiration, interest, and motivation.

4. Providing school meals to children in poverty, if not possible to all children. School meals are effective in improving school attendance and in combating long distances to school, and dropping out due to opportunity costs of schooling. The recommendation also calls for other innovative ways to encourage less privileged children to enter and continue their education: stronger link of TASAF fund to school attendance, scholarships for bright and hardworking students, bursaries, etc. All revenues should be explored in encouraging children to succeed in education and to become role models for all to follow.
5. Enhancing law enforcement on compulsory primary education, starting with ensuring all children, particularly boys, enter primary school by the age of six (under the new education policy). The Government should conduct nationwide campaigns to raise awareness of the importance of timely entry to primary education. The earlier children go to school, the better it is for the country and for its people. In addition, every effort should be made to encourage schooling of the 10 per cent of children who are likely never to attend school in their life.

Once children enter school, the government should find ways to protect them from dropping out of school, particularly those who are vulnerable and marginalised. In some cases, special measurements maybe needed to deal with dishonest and corrupt WEOs and Village Leaders who collude with parents to keep children out of school.

6. Improving school management by providing purposeful and practical training for school heads and school management teams. Head teachers should be equipped with managerial skills that deal with planning as well as day-to-day school management of schools. In addition, in relation to the new regulation on direct fund transfer to schools, training should be provided to head teachers on financial management.
7. Improving transparency and accountability in school management, and enhancing school monitoring and

evaluation system. If the school inspection system is to be effective, findings and recommendations made by inspectors need to be followed. The existing recruitment method of inspectors and the procedure of school inspection should be studied to explore different ways to save cost and improve efficiency.

8. Improving motivation of teachers: this includes a) better living and working conditions for teachers; b) better and more training for teachers, both in and out of service; and c) stronger professional support and mentoring of teachers, particularly newly recruited teachers and teachers who have been assigned to new locations. The government should also explore possibilities of recruiting and deploying teachers locally to reduce cost and to explore possibilities of a decentralised teacher recruitment process.
9. Awareness-raising at all levels of Tanzanian society on the importance of education and on the importance of parental care in children's education. Measures need to be drafted to ensure that parents and caregivers understand and also take responsibility of proper care for children's educational needs and support. Additionally, the Government should seek ways to encourage communal responsibility and involvement in the running of schools. In these respects, the country should promote sharing of good practices and approaches, and encourage parents and local communities to work with schools for a common goal of an improved standard of education, particularly in areas where there is a large number of Out-of-School Children.
10. Improving school accessibility for children with disability, and providing training to all teachers on how to support children with disability. Increase the number of special education schools in the country and the number of specialist teachers of children with special educational needs.
11. Providing guidance in the implementation of the new education policy. The field work indicates strongly that this has not been sufficient. Deliberate effort is thus needed in preparing not only the schools but also parents on the implementation of the new education policy. This includes the curriculum preparation, school provisioning for extra students at both primary and lower secondary schools, raising parents' awareness of the change in duration and entry age of primary education, and other specific measures.
12. The recommendation calls for research into and close monitoring of possible implications of the new education policy when implemented in Tanzania's practical context. Currently, for example, a large proportion of children in Tanzania enter school late and leave school early after finishing Standard VII but without further lower secondary education. The pattern of late entry has shown to be persistent in Zanzibar two years after the implementation of the new education policy. If the situation continues without change, the new education policy will mean that those children who do not attend secondary education will have their duration of education reduced by one year, from seven years to six years. It is also unfortunate that children who are in this situation are often the ones who are least privileged, who live in rural areas, and who are girls. Reduction of one year in the education duration may have indirect consequences the new policy does not intend, and more research should be conducted in this respect to avoid adverse impact.
13. The recommendation calls for further analysis to identify pockets of Out-of-School Children and weaker primary schools, by conducting quantitative analyses on the full 2012 Census data and the BEST records (the current profiling is based on 10 per cent micro data only). These analyses should be carried out to the level of District or even Ward. It is typical of the situation that Out-of-School Children are often found in pockets of geographical locations and cultural contexts, and further study would help direct Government effort with efficiency. Such research could help to ensure that the Government be in a position to subsequently monitor and evaluate any improvement.
14. The recommendation calls for an improved EMIS system. The existing system needs to improve its reliability through a consistency and validity check. In the long term, the Government should seek to link vital registration with the education information system to track education progress of every child after birth.
15. Tanzanian Government should review education-related questionnaires on all national surveys including the population census. The questions should be such that it is possible to extract information on not only the current attendance but also past attendance of all school children. All existing questionnaires, both contents and wordings, should be redesigned.

Appendices

Population of school age children

	Pre-primary school		Primary school Age 7-13	Lower secondary school Age 14-17
	Age 5	Age 6		
Mainland	1,360,500	1,369,030	8,232,800	3,614,100
Zanzibar	39,010	38,010	242,010	112,390
Tanzania	1,399,750	1,407,400	8,476,690	3,727,530

TABLE 52: Population of children by school-age group | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Age	Pre-primary school		Primary school Age 7-13	Lower secondary school Age 14-17
	Age 5	Age 6		
5	1,399,750			
6		1,407,400		
7			1,380,500	
8			1,266,810	
9			1,141,440	
10			1,319,700	
11			940,160	
12			1,423,520	
13			1,004,560	
14				1,014,880
15				949,710
16				915,190
17				847,750
Total	1,399,750	1,407,400	8,476,690	3,727,530

TABLE 53: Population of children by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Pre-primary school age children - Regional ranking

Rank	Region	Total population	Attending pre-primary or primary	Children not attending pre-primary or primary school	
				Rate	Number
1	Tabora	81,640	13.6	86.4	70,560
2	Rukwa	37,030	14.3	85.7	31,750
3	Katavi	19,910	14.4	85.6	17,050
4	Simiyu	59,600	16.4	83.6	49,850
5	Shinyanga	52,650	16.8	83.2	43,780
6	Geita	60,730	17.2	82.8	50,290
7	Kusini Pemba	6,690	19.1	80.9	5,410
8	Singida	46,370	22.3	77.7	36,050
9	Dodoma	74,790	23.6	76.4	57,160
10	Lindi	24,620	23.8	76.2	18,750
11	Manyara	48,460	27.5	72.5	35,150
12	Morogoro	66,640	28.5	71.5	47,650
13	Kagera	74,430	31.2	68.8	51,240
14	Kigoma	68,620	32.5	67.5	46,290
15	Coast	30,520	32.8	67.2	20,500
	Tanzania	1,399,750	32.9	67.1	938,540
16	Mara	64,100	33.0	67.0	42,970
17	Kaskazini Pemba	7,050	33.5	66.5	4,690
18	Mwanza	91,220	34.6	65.4	59,690
19	Tanga	65,270	35.9	64.1	41,840
20	Mtwara	32,350	35.9	64.1	20,730
21	Njombe	20,670	37.4	62.6	12,930
22	Ruvuma	43,890	43.0	57.0	25,020
23	Mbeya	81,430	43.1	56.9	46,310
24	Arusha	52,420	43.6	56.4	29,590
25	Kusini Unguja	3,180	43.7	56.3	1,790
26	Kaskazini Unguja	5,810	47.8	52.2	3,030
27	Iringa	26,720	48.5	51.5	13,750
28	Mjini Magharibi	16,280	52.7	47.3	7,700
29	Kilimanjaro	39,910	60.7	39.3	15,690
30	Outside Tanzania	240	66.7	33.3	80
31	Dar Es Salaam	96,510	67.6	32.4	31,250

TABLE 54: Regional ranking of school attendance of children aged five

| Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Total population	Attending pre-primary or primary	Children not attending pre-primary or primary school	
				Rate	Number
1	Tabora	78,890	20.2	79.8	62,970
2	Katavi	19,750	20.4	79.6	15,720
3	Geita	62,680	22.7	77.3	48,440
4	Simiyu	58,830	23.5	76.5	45,010
5	Shinyanga	50,800	23.9	76.1	38,680
6	Rukwa	36,980	24.6	75.4	27,880
7	Kusini Pemba	6,680	29.5	70.5	4,710
8	Singida	48,130	34.0	66.0	31,750
9	Lindi	25,100	34.1	65.9	16,530
10	Dodoma	78,330	34.3	65.7	51,450
11	Manyara	46,700	35.6	64.4	30,090
12	Kigoma	68,130	37.4	62.6	42,620
13	Kaskazini Pemba	6,990	40.2	59.8	4,180
14	Morogoro	67,550	41.4	58.6	39,560
15	Coast	32,640	41.9	58.1	18,980
	Tanzania	1,407,400	43.4	56.6	797,190
16	Kagera	83,140	45.5	54.5	45,310
17	Ruvuma	41,260	46.1	53.9	22,230
18	Mwanza	92,580	46.7	53.3	49,380
19	Mtwara	33,410	48.1	51.9	17,330
20	Mara	66,120	48.2	51.8	34,230
21	Tanga	63,960	50.2	49.8	31,840
22	Kaskazini Unguja	5,430	54.3	45.7	2,480
23	Njombe	21,460	55.3	44.7	9,590
24	Arusha	50,990	56.4	43.6	22,250
25	Mbeya	78,960	58.6	41.4	32,700
26	Iringa	27,610	61.1	38.9	10,730
27	Kusini Unguja	3,120	62.5	37.5	1,170
28	Mjini Magharibi	15,790	63.1	36.9	5,820
29	Kilimanjaro	40,810	74.5	25.5	10,420
30	Dar Es Salaam	94,220	75.5	24.5	23,070
31	Outside Tanzania	360	80.6	19.4	70

TABLE 55: Regional ranking of school attendance of children aged six | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Household consumption quintile	Not attending	Attending pre-primary	Attending primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary	Total
Lowest	74.6	21.5	3.9	25.4	100.0
Low	78.5	16.8	4.7	21.5	100.0
Medium	74.6	21.5	3.9	25.4	100.0
High	48.0	46.7	5.3	52.0	100.0
Highest	40.0	45.3	14.7	60.0	100.0

TABLE 56: School attendance status of children aged five, by consumption quintile, Mainland | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Household consumption quintile	Not attending	Attending pre-primary	Attending primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary	Total
Lowest	51.5	26.3	22.2	48.5	100.0
Low	61.1	21.4	17.5	38.9	100.0
Medium	51.5	26.3	22.2	48.5	100.0
High	33.0	35.2	31.8	67.0	100.0
Highest	21.0	40.7	38.3	79.0	100.0

TABLE 57: School attendance status of children aged six, by consumption quintile, Mainland | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Number of Out-of-School Children in Mainland and Zanzibar

		Male	Female	Total
2011/12 HBS Author's tabulation from micro data	Primary school age 7 - 13	933,000	752,000	1,685,000
	Lower secondary school age 14 - 17	705,000	892,000	1,597,000
	Total	1,638,000	1,644,000	3,282,000
2012 Census Author's tabulation from micro data	Primary school age 7 - 13	1,028,000	906,000	1,934,000
	Lower secondary school age 14 - 17	728,000	771,000	1,499,000
	Total	1,756,000	1,676,000	3,433,000

TABLE 58: Number of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania Mainland

		Male	Female	Total
2009 HBS Author's tabulation from micro data	Primary school age 7 - 13	23,000	22,000	45,000
	Lower secondary school age 14 - 17	13,000	12,000	24,000
	Total	36,000	33,000	69,000
2012 Census Author's tabulation from micro data	Primary school age 7 - 13	19,000	16,000	35,000
	Lower secondary school age 14 - 17	12,000	12,000	24,000
	Total	31,000	27,000	58,000

TABLE 59: Number of Out-of-School Children in Tanzania Zanzibar

Regional and urban and rural OOSC rate and number

Rank	Region	Population 7-13	Primary ANAR	OOSC	
				Rate	Number
1	Tabora	449,080	55.7	44.3	198,840
2	Katavi	109,700	57.5	42.5	46,570
3	Geita	355,350	62.2	37.8	134,300
4	Rukwa	208,310	64.5	35.5	73,860
5	Simiyu	334,070	66.5	33.5	111,830
6	Shinyanga	298,270	67.7	32.3	96,210
7	Dodoma	447,890	67.9	32.1	143,580
8	Manyara	279,880	71.9	28.1	78,540
9	Singida	268,770	72.1	27.9	75,090
10	Lindi	162,640	73.4	26.6	43,220
11	Kigoma	391,540	74.6	25.4	99,540
12	Kaskazini Pemba	42,890	75.3	24.7	10,610
13	Morogoro	408,470	75.7	24.3	99,310
14	Kagera	495,290	76.0	24.0	118,720
	Tanzania	8,476,670	76.8	23.2	1,968,910
15	Kusini Pemba	41,590	77.4	22.6	9,410
16	Coast	197,610	78.2	21.8	43,110
17	Arusha	328,110	79.9	20.1	65,920
18	Mwanza	528,000	80.5	19.5	103,060
19	Tanga	413,150	81.0	19.0	78,300
20	Mtwara	222,910	81.4	18.6	41,510
21	Ruvuma	264,800	83.1	16.9	44,760
22	Mara	362,820	83.5	16.5	59,690
23	Outside Tanzania	1,860	83.9	16.1	300
24	Mbeya	506,470	84.6	15.4	77,990
25	Kaskazini Unguja	35,460	86.0	14.0	4,950
26	Njombe	141,370	89.8	10.2	14,440
27	Iringa	182,740	90.7	9.3	17,000
28	Dar Es Salaam	569,600	91.4	8.6	48,840
29	Mjini Magharibi	101,020	91.9	8.1	8,170
30	Kusini Unguja	21,050	92.0	8.0	1,690
31	Kilimanjaro	305,960	93.6	6.4	19,550

TABLE 60: Regional OOSC rate and number at primary school-age by order of OOSC rate | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Population 7-13	Primary ANAR	OOSC		
				Rate	Number	% of total
1	Tabora	449,080	55.7	44.3	198,840	10.1
2	Dodoma	447,890	67.9	32.1	143,580	17.4
3	Geita	355,350	62.2	37.8	134,300	24.2
4	Kagera	495,290	76.0	24.0	118,720	30.2
5	Simiyu	334,070	66.5	33.5	111,830	35.9
6	Mwanza	528,000	80.5	19.5	103,060	41.2
7	Kigoma	391,540	74.6	25.4	99,540	46.2
8	Morogoro	408,470	75.7	24.3	99,310	51.3
9	Shinyanga	298,270	67.7	32.3	96,210	56.1
10	Manyara	279,880	71.9	28.1	78,540	60.1
11	Tanga	413,150	81.0	19.0	78,300	64.1
12	Mbeya	506,470	84.6	15.4	77,990	68.1
13	Singida	268,770	72.1	27.9	75,090	71.9
14	Rukwa	208,310	64.5	35.5	73,860	75.6
15	Arusha	328,110	79.9	20.1	65,920	79.0
16	Mara	362,820	83.5	16.5	59,690	82.0
17	Dar Es Salaam	569,600	91.4	8.6	48,840	84.5
18	Katavi	109,700	57.5	42.5	46,570	86.9
19	Ruvuma	264,800	83.1	16.9	44,760	89.1
20	Lindi	162,640	73.4	26.6	43,220	91.3
21	Coast	197,610	78.2	21.8	43,110	93.5
22	Mtwara	222,910	81.4	18.6	41,510	95.6
23	Kilimanjaro	305,960	93.6	6.4	19,550	96.6
24	Iringa	182,740	90.7	9.3	17,000	97.5
25	Njombe	141,370	89.8	10.2	14,440	98.2
26	Kaskazini Pemba	42,890	75.3	24.7	10,610	98.8
27	Kusini Pemba	41,590	77.4	22.6	9,410	99.2
28	Mjini Magharibi	101,020	91.9	8.1	8,170	99.6
29	Kaskazini Unguja	35,460	86.0	14.0	4,950	99.9
30	Kusini Unguja	21,050	92.0	8.0	1,690	100.0
31	Outside Tanzania	1,860	83.9	16.1	300	100.0
	Tanzania	8,476,670	76.8	23.2	1,968,910	100.0

TABLE 61: Regional OOSC rate and number at primary-age by order of OOSC number | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Population 14-17	Percentage attending primary	Lower secondary ANAR	OOSC	
					Rate	Number
1	Tabora	190,290	30.4	11.9	57.7	109,860
2	Katavi	46,860	34.7	10.2	55.1	25,830
3	Simiyu	139,250	37.0	11.0	52.1	72,480
4	Shinyanga	130,280	33.3	15.5	51.2	66,660
5	Singida	109,020	32.6	17.8	49.5	54,010
6	Rukwa	80,410	37.4	14.5	48.1	38,680
7	Geita	148,300	40.9	12.1	47.0	69,750
8	Mtwara	90,470	32.5	20.5	47.0	42,510
9	Kigoma	171,240	38.6	15.5	45.9	78,600
10	Lindi	63,710	34.3	20.0	45.6	29,080
11	Dodoma	177,240	36.3	18.2	45.6	80,740
12	Manyara	115,650	34.7	20.5	44.7	51,740
13	Morogoro	179,750	30.5	25.0	44.6	80,080
14	Ruvuma	113,670	33.1	22.5	44.5	50,530
	Tanzania	3,727,490	34.0	25.2	40.9	1,522,680
15	Kagera	207,300	40.3	20.7	39.0	80,780
16	Dar Es Salaam	334,030	20.2	41.6	38.1	127,400
17	Coast	84,590	38.0	24.0	37.9	32,100
18	Mara	145,430	40.3	21.8	37.9	55,050
19	Mbeya	233,030	32.4	30.7	36.9	85,960
20	Mwanza	237,830	41.0	24.0	35.0	83,190
21	Arusha	154,150	29.2	37.4	33.4	51,440
22	Outside Tanzania	1,000	25.0	42.0	33.0	330
23	Tanga	165,610	41.2	26.5	32.3	53,510
24	Njombe	62,000	31.2	37.4	31.5	19,500
25	Kaskazini Pemba	19,110	42.8	29.3	27.9	5,340
26	Iringa	83,350	33.4	39.4	27.3	22,730
27	Kilimanjaro	150,640	25.3	50.4	24.2	36,530
28	Kaskazini Unguja	16,030	43.7	32.9	23.5	3,760
29	Kusini Pemba	18,940	44.0	35.0	21.0	3,970
30	Kusini Unguja	9,670	36.2	44.9	18.9	1,830
31	Mjini Magharibi	48,640	31.4	50.7	17.9	8,710

TABLE 62: Regional OOSC rate and number at lower secondary-age by order of OOSC rate | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Population 14-17	Percentage attending primary	Lower secondary ANAR	OOSC		
					Rate	Number	% of total
1	Dar Es Salaam	334,030	20.2	41.6	38.1	127,400	8.4
2	Tabora	190,290	30.4	11.9	57.7	109,860	15.6
3	Mbeya	233,030	32.4	30.7	36.9	85,960	21.2
4	Mwanza	237,830	41.0	24.0	35.0	83,190	26.7
5	Kagera	207,300	40.3	20.7	39.0	80,780	32.0
6	Dodoma	177,240	36.3	18.2	45.6	80,740	37.3
7	Morogoro	179,750	30.5	25.0	44.6	80,080	42.6
8	Kigoma	171,240	38.6	15.5	45.9	78,600	47.7
9	Simiyu	139,250	37.0	11.0	52.1	72,480	52.5
10	Geita	148,300	40.9	12.1	47.0	69,750	57.1
11	Shinyanga	130,280	33.3	15.5	51.2	66,660	61.4
12	Mara	145,430	40.3	21.8	37.9	55,050	65.1
13	Singida	109,020	32.6	17.8	49.5	54,010	68.6
14	Tanga	165,610	41.2	26.5	32.3	53,510	72.1
15	Manyara	115,650	34.7	20.5	44.7	51,740	75.5
16	Arusha	154,150	29.2	37.4	33.4	51,440	78.9
17	Ruvuma	113,670	33.1	22.5	44.5	50,530	82.2
18	Mtwara	90,470	32.5	20.5	47.0	42,510	85.0
19	Rukwa	80,410	37.4	14.5	48.1	38,680	87.5
20	Kilimanjaro	150,640	25.3	50.4	24.2	36,530	89.9
21	Coast	84,590	38.0	24.0	37.9	32,100	92.0
22	Lindi	63,710	34.3	20.0	45.6	29,080	94.0
23	Katavi	46,860	34.7	10.2	55.1	25,830	95.7
24	Iringa	83,350	33.4	39.4	27.3	22,730	97.1
25	Njombe	62,000	31.2	37.4	31.5	19,500	98.4
26	Mjini Magharibi	48,640	31.4	50.7	17.9	8,710	99.0
27	Kaskazini Pemba	19,110	42.8	29.3	27.9	5,340	99.4
28	Kusini Pemba	18,940	44.0	35.0	21.0	3,970	99.6
29	Kaskazini Unguja	16,030	43.7	32.9	23.5	3,760	99.9
30	Kusini Unguja	9,670	36.2	44.9	18.9	1,830	100.0
31	Outside Tanzania	1,000	25.0	42.0	33.0	330	100.0
	Tanzania	3,727,490	34.0	25.2	40.9	1,522,680	100.0

TABLE 63: Regional OOSC rate and number at lower secondary-age by order of OOSC number | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	Population 7-13	Primary ANAR	OOSC	
			Rate	Number
Tanzania	8,476,690	76.8	23.2	1,968,930
Urban	2,020,410	91.0	9.0	182,110
Rural	6,454,760	72.3	27.7	1,786,570
Tanzania mainland	8,232,800	76.5	23.5	1,933,780
Urban	1,912,200	90.9	9.1	173,640
Rural	6,319,950	72.2	27.8	1,760,050
Tanzania Zanzibar	242,010	85.6	14.4	34,830
Urban	107,630	92.2	7.8	8,380
Rural	134,350	80.3	19.7	26,450

TABLE 64: Urban/rural OOSC rate and number at primary school-age* | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data. | * Children live outside Tanzania/Mainland/Zanzibar are not displayed in the table, which is the reason why the total is slightly less than the sum of urban and rural.

	Population 14-17	Percentage attending primary	Lower secondary ANAR	OOSC	
				Rate	Number
Tanzania	3,727,530	34.0	25.2	40.9	1,522,720
Urban	1,110,470	26.2	42.8	31.0	344,790
Rural	2,616,220	37.2	17.7	45.0	1,177,670
Tanzania mainland	3,614,100	33.8	24.7	41.5	1,498,740
Urban	1,057,910	25.9	42.3	31.7	335,800
Rural	2,555,950	37.1	17.4	45.5	1,162,850
Tanzania Zanzibar	112,390	37.6	41.4	21.0	23,610
Urban	52,310	31.7	51.3	17.0	8,900
Rural	60,070	42.8	32.8	24.5	14,710

TABLE 65: Urban/rural OOSC rate and number at lower secondary school-age*

| Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data. | * Children live outside Tanzania/Mainland/Zanzibar are not displayed in the table, which is the reason why the total is slightly less than the sum of urban and rural.

		Population 7-13	Primary ANAR	OOSC	
				Rate	Number
Male	Tanzania	4,232,730	75.3	24.7	1,047,450
	Urban	982,080	90.8	9.2	90,070
	Rural	3,249,970	70.5	29.5	957,260
	Tanzania mainland	4,111,610	75.0	25.0	1,028,020
	Urban	929,840	90.8	9.2	85,540
	Rural	3,181,460	70.4	29.6	942,450
	Tanzania Zanzibar	120,330	84.0	16.0	19,300
	Urban	51,970	91.3	8.7	4,510
	Rural	68,360	78.4	21.6	14,790
Female	Tanzania	4,243,960	78.3	21.7	921,480
	Urban	1,038,330	91.1	8.9	92,040
	Rural	3,204,790	74.1	25.9	829,310
	Tanzania mainland	4,121,190	78.0	22.0	905,760
	Urban	982,360	91.0	9.0	88,100
	Rural	3,138,490	73.9	26.1	817,600
	Tanzania Zanzibar	121,680	87.2	12.8	15,530
	Urban	55,660	93.0	7.0	3,870
	Rural	65,990	82.3	17.7	11,660

TABLE 66: OOSC rate and number at primary school-age, by urban/rural and sex | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data. | * Children live outside Tanzania/Mainland/Zanzibar are not displayed in the table, which is the reason why the total is slightly less than the sum of urban and rural.

		Population 14-17	Percentage attending primary	Lower secondary ANAR	OOSC	
					Rate	Number
Male	Tanzania	1,848,690	36.2	23.8	40.0	740,390
	Urban	498,640	29.9	44.1	26.1	129,970
	Rural	1,349,660	38.5	16.3	45.2	610,280
	Tanzania mainland	1,793,760	36.0	23.4	40.6	728,130
	Urban	474,490	29.5	43.9	26.5	125,830
	Rural	1,319,170	38.3	16.0	45.7	602,260
	Tanzania Zanzibar	54,430	42.1	35.8	22.2	12,070
	Urban	24,010	36.6	46.4	17.0	4,080
Rural	30,420	46.4	27.4	26.3	7,990	
Female	Tanzania	1,878,840	31.8	26.6	41.6	782,330
	Urban	611,830	23.2	41.7	35.1	214,820
	Rural	1,266,560	35.9	19.3	44.8	567,390
	Tanzania mainland	1,820,340	31.7	25.9	42.3	770,610
	Urban	583,420	23.0	41.0	36.0	209,970
	Rural	1,236,780	35.8	18.8	45.3	560,590
	Tanzania Zanzibar	57,960	33.5	46.6	19.9	11,540
	Urban	28,300	27.6	55.3	17.0	4,820
Rural	29,650	39.0	38.3	22.7	6,720	

TABLE 67: OOSC rate and number at lower secondary school-age, by urban/rural and sex | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data. | * Children live outside Tanzania/Mainland/Zanzibar are not displayed in the table, which is the reason why the total is slightly less than the sum of urban and rural.

Province	Primary ANAR			Lower secondary					
	Male	Female	GPI	Primary attendance			ANAR		
				Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Dodoma	64.7	71.3	1.10	37.1	35.4	0.95	16.1	20.5	1.27
Arusha	79.1	80.7	1.02	32.1	26.6	0.83	34.3	40.2	1.17
Kilimanjaro	93.5	93.8	1.00	27.7	22.9	0.83	46.5	54.4	1.17
Tanga	79.5	82.6	1.04	42.0	40.4	0.96	23.2	29.8	1.29
Morogoro	74.1	77.2	1.04	32.6	28.3	0.87	22.5	27.5	1.22
Coast	76.2	80.2	1.05	38.7	37.3	0.96	23.0	25.1	1.09
Dar Es Salaam	91.6	91.3	1.00	23.9	17.5	0.73	46.0	38.4	0.83
Lindi	70.9	75.9	1.07	33.8	34.8	1.03	19.5	20.7	1.06
Mtwara	79.7	83.1	1.04	31.7	33.4	1.05	20.0	20.9	1.05
Ruvuma	81.3	84.8	1.04	35.4	30.6	0.86	19.9	25.2	1.27
Iringa	89.3	92.1	1.03	34.4	32.2	0.94	34.9	44.2	1.27
Mbeya	83.4	85.7	1.03	34.1	30.8	0.90	28.5	32.8	1.15
Singida	70.3	73.9	1.05	32.4	33.0	1.02	15.8	20.2	1.28
Tabora	54.3	57.2	1.05	32.3	28.5	0.88	11.9	11.9	1.00
Rukwa	63.1	66.0	1.04	38.8	36.0	0.93	14.9	14.1	0.95
Kigoma	74.1	75.0	1.01	41.9	35.3	0.84	16.9	14.2	0.84
Shinyanga	65.2	70.2	1.08	36.4	30.3	0.83	15.0	16.1	1.07
Kagera	74.8	77.2	1.03	41.4	39.2	0.95	19.1	22.4	1.17
Mwanza	78.8	82.2	1.04	43.9	38.2	0.87	23.1	24.9	1.08
Mara	82.8	84.4	1.02	43.8	36.8	0.84	22.7	20.9	0.92
Manyara	70.0	74.0	1.06	35.1	34.3	0.98	16.5	24.7	1.50
Njombe	88.4	91.1	1.03	32.8	29.6	0.90	32.6	42.2	1.30
Katavi	56.4	58.6	1.04	37.8	31.8	0.84	10.2	10.2	1.01
Simiyu	63.9	69.2	1.08	40.4	33.7	0.83	11.7	10.2	0.87
Geita	60.3	64.1	1.06	42.9	38.9	0.91	12.2	11.9	0.97
Kaskazini Unguja	83.7	88.3	1.06	46.2	41.1	0.89	24.7	41.2	1.67
Kusini Unguja	91.0	92.9	1.02	39.6	32.6	0.82	40.4	49.6	1.23
Mjini Magharibi	91.2	92.6	1.02	36.0	27.6	0.77	46.4	54.3	1.17
Kaskazini Pemba	72.9	77.7	1.07	47.6	37.8	0.79	25.2	33.5	1.33
Kusini Pemba	75.5	79.4	1.05	48.2	39.8	0.82	28.9	41.3	1.43
Outside Tanzania	85.7	82.6	0.96	27.7	22.6	0.82	38.3	45.3	1.18
Tanzania	75.3	78.3	1.04	36.2	31.8	0.88	23.8	26.6	1.12

TABLE 68: Attendance rates by Region and by Gender | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Province	Primary OOSC		Lower secondary OOSC	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Dodoma	35.3	28.7	46.9	44.1
Arusha	20.9	19.3	33.6	33.2
Kilimanjaro	6.5	6.2	25.8	22.7
Tanga	20.5	17.4	34.8	29.8
Morogoro	25.9	22.8	44.9	44.2
Coast	23.8	19.8	38.3	37.6
Dar Es Salaam	8.4	8.7	30.1	44.1
Lindi	29.1	24.1	46.7	44.5
Mtwara	20.3	16.9	48.2	45.7
Ruvuma	18.7	15.2	44.7	44.2
Iringa	10.7	7.9	30.7	23.6
Mbeya	16.6	14.3	37.4	36.4
Singida	29.7	26.1	51.8	46.8
Tabora	45.7	42.8	55.9	59.6
Rukwa	36.9	34.0	46.3	49.9
Kigoma	25.9	25.0	41.2	50.5
Shinyanga	34.8	29.8	48.6	53.7
Kagera	25.2	22.8	39.5	38.4
Mwanza	21.2	17.8	33.0	36.9
Mara	17.2	15.6	33.6	42.3
Manyara	30.0	26.0	48.4	41.0
Njombe	11.6	8.9	34.7	28.2
Katavi	43.6	41.4	52.0	58.0
Simiyu	36.1	30.8	47.9	56.1
Geita	39.7	35.9	44.9	49.2
Kaskazini Unguja	16.3	11.7	29.1	17.7
Kusini Unguja	9.0	7.1	19.9	17.9
Mjini Magharibi	8.8	7.4	17.6	18.1
Kaskazini Pemba	27.1	22.3	27.2	28.7
Kusini Pemba	24.5	20.6	22.9	19.0
Outside Tanzania	14.3	17.4	34.0	32.1
Tanzania	24.7	21.7	40.0	41.6

TABLE 69: OOSC rates by regions and gender | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

School attendance status in Mainland and Zanzibar

Age	Never attended	Dropped out	Attending				
			Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Higher secondary	Other
5	66.6	0.7	31.4	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
6	56.2	0.7	24.2	18.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
7	38.6	1.1	0.0	60.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
8	27.3	1.3	0.0	71.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
9	18.9	1.6	0.0	79.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
10	17.0	2.3	0.0	80.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
11	12.0	3.3	0.0	84.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
12	12.3	5.3	0.0	82.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
13	10.7	8.9	0.0	80.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
14	10.6	16.7	0.0	60.9	11.8	0.0	0.0
15	11.4	28.1	0.0	37.3	23.2	0.0	0.0
16	10.4	36.6	0.0	21.7	31.3	0.0	0.0
17	9.8	44.9	0.0	10.7	34.6	0.0	0.0

TABLE 70: School attendance status by age, Tanzania Mainland | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

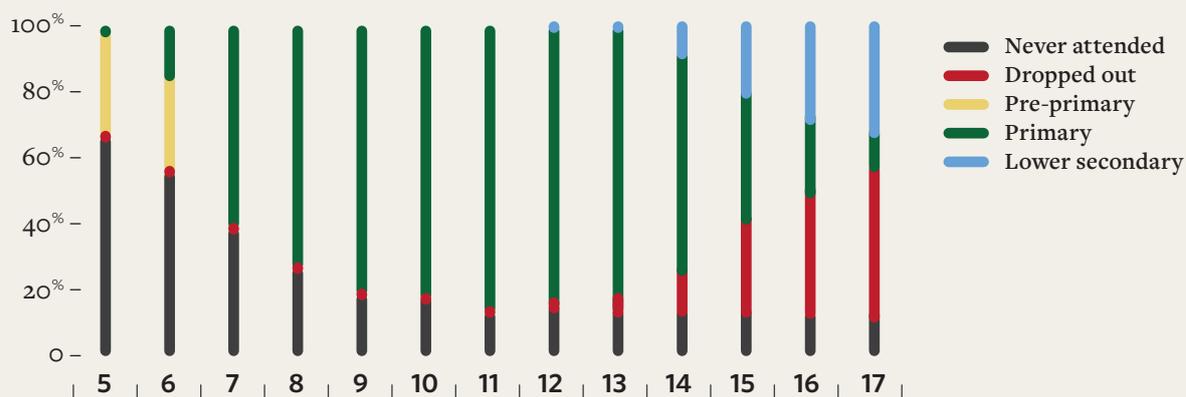


FIGURE 19: Attendance status by age, Mainland | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Age	Never attended	Dropped out	Attending				
			Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Higher secondary	Other
5	57.8	0.2	41.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
6	47.7	0.6	38.1	13.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
7	33.1	0.6	0.0	66.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
8	20.3	0.7	0.0	79.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
9	10.1	0.9	0.0	89.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
10	7.8	1.4	0.0	90.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
11	4.5	1.9	0.0	93.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
12	4.3	3.0	0.0	92.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
13	4.0	4.7	0.0	91.3	0.0	0.0	0.0
14	4.1	8.3	0.0	72.8	14.8	0.0	0.0
15	5.6	12.1	0.0	43.2	39.1	0.0	0.0
16	4.2	20.0	0.0	20.1	55.7	0.0	0.0
17	3.8	27.5	0.0	9.5	59.2	0.0	0.0

TABLE 71: School attendance status by age, Tanzania Zanzibar | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

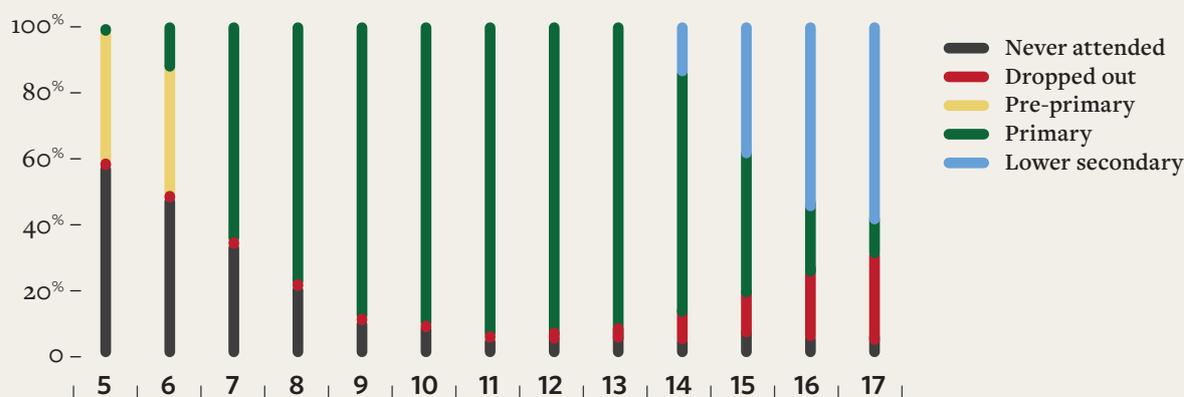


FIGURE 20: Attendance status by age, Zanzibar⁵⁹ | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

59. Even though at the time of 2012 Census data collection, Zanzibar had already implemented its new education policy and required children of six to attend primary Grade 1, the actual percentage of six-year-olds attending primary is still low. There is little difference between Mainland and Zanzibar in their school attendance of children between the ages of seven and 17, except that Zanzibar has an overall better performance.

Regional ranking on never-attended children aged 11

Rank	Region	Male	Female	Rate
1	Tabora	29.9	29.9	29.9
2	Katavi	25.3	26.4	25.9
3	Geita	21.4	19.9	20.7
4	Rukwa	19.9	20.8	20.4
5	Dodoma	22.0	18.1	20.1
6	Simiyu	18.0	16.9	17.4
7	Shinyanga	16.8	14.3	15.5
8	Singida	15.7	14.4	15.1
9	Manyara	15.1	12.9	14.0
10	Morogoro	14.0	13.5	13.7
11	Kaskazini Pemba	12.8	14.0	13.4
12	Kagera	13.8	12.5	13.1
13	Lindi	13.9	11.2	12.6
	Tanzania	12.4	11.2	11.8
14	Kigoma	11.0	11.3	11.1
15	Arusha	10.2	10.1	10.1
16	Coast	10.7	9.4	10.0
17	Tanga	10.1	8.2	9.2
18	Mwanza	10.0	7.7	8.8
19	Mtwara	9.7	7.9	8.7
20	Outside Tanzania	0.0	14.3	8.7
21	Ruvuma	8.9	7.2	8.0
22	Mbeya	8.3	7.6	7.9
23	Kusini Pemba	6.4	6.7	6.6
24	Mara	6.5	6.5	6.5
25	Njombe	4.7	2.8	3.7
26	Iringa	4.9	2.7	3.7
27	Kaskazini Unguja	3.6	1.4	2.4
28	Dar Es Salaam	2.3	1.6	2.0
29	Kilimanjaro	1.8	1.6	1.7
30	Mjini Magharibi	1.9	1.4	1.6
31	Kusini Unguja	0.9	1.9	1.3

TABLE 72: Regional ranking on percentage of never-attended children aged 11 | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

Rank	Region	Rate	Total number	Total %
1	Tabora	29.9	13,810	12.5
2	Dodoma	20.1	10,050	21.5
3	Geita	20.7	7,740	28.5
4	Kagera	13.1	7,120	34.9
5	Morogoro	13.7	6,540	40.8
6	Simiyu	17.4	6,110	46.3
7	Shinyanga	15.5	5,060	50.9
8	Mwanza	8.8	4,960	55.4
9	Kigoma	11.1	4,810	59.7
10	Mbeya	7.9	4,660	63.9
11	Singida	15.1	4,350	67.9
12	Rukwa	20.4	4,310	71.7
13	Manyara	14.0	4,250	75.6
14	Tanga	9.2	4,010	79.2
15	Arusha	10.1	3,430	82.3
16	Katavi	25.9	2,950	85.0
17	Mara	6.5	2,540	87.2
18	Lindi	12.6	2,410	89.4
19	Mtwara	8.7	2,390	91.6
20	Ruvuma	8.0	2,390	93.7
21	Coast	10.0	2,280	95.8
22	Dar Es Salaam	2.0	1,320	97.0
23	Iringa	3.7	860	97.8
24	Njombe	3.7	650	98.3
25	Kilimanjaro	1.7	610	98.9
26	Kaskazini Pemba	13.4	600	99.4
27	Kusini Pemba	6.6	300	99.7
28	Mjini Magharibi	1.6	190	99.9
29	Kaskazini Unguja	2.4	90	100.0
30	Kusini Unguja	1.3	30	100.0
31	Outside Tanzania	8.7	20	100.0
	Tanzania	11.8	110,840	

TABLE 73: Regional ranking on number of never-attended children aged 11 | *Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.*

Child labour

		5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Tanzania	Economically active	16.5	21.7	28.4	33.1	43.5	45.8	49.8
	Not active	83.5	78.3	71.6	66.9	56.5	54.2	50.2
Male	Economically active	17.1	22.0	27.3	32.2	42.7	49.5	50.3
female	Economically active	15.9	21.4	29.5	34.0	44.3	41.9	49.2

TABLE 74: Percentage of economically active children, by age | Source: 2012 Census. Author's tabulation from 10% micro data.

	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
In school	25.9	49.8	60.0	76.6	79.4	81.5	83.6	80.3	75.6	60.5	42.5	45.2	35.8
Out of school	74.1	50.2	40.0	23.4	20.6	18.5	16.4	19.7	24.4	39.5	57.5	54.8	64.2

TABLE 75: Percentage of economically active children who are out of school, by age

2015 projection on Out-of-School Children

	Total population	Attending pre-primary	Attending primary	Attending pre-primary or primary	Not attending school	
					Rate	Number
Tanzania	1,545,022	31.7	1.3	32.9	67.1	1,036,710
Male	782,300	30.8	1.3	32.1	67.9	531,181
Female	762,723	32.6	1.3	33.8	66.2	504,922

TABLE 76: 2015 School attendance status of children aged five | Source: Population number projected from 2012 Census data, provided by the UNICEF Tanzania. Author's tabulation.

	Total Population	Attending pre-primary	Attending primary	Attending pre-primary or primary	Not attending school	
					Rate	Number
Tanzania	1,552,516	24.6	18.8	43.4	56.6	878,724
Male	776,897	24.7	17.2	41.8	58.2	452,154
Female	775,619	24.5	20.4	44.9	55.1	427,366

TABLE 77: 2015 School attendance status of children aged six | Source: Population number projected from 2012 Census data, provided by the UNICEF Tanzania. Author's tabulation.

Age	Male		Female		Total	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
7	41.7	320,427	37.3	281,589	39.5	601,956
8	30.6	210,917	26.3	185,874	28.4	396,835
9	21.9	137,214	18.7	118,188	20.3	255,328
10	20.4	149,726	17.7	129,179	19.1	278,960
11	15.9	81,514	14.2	74,766	15.0	156,244
12	18.3	145,505	16.3	127,048	17.3	272,542
13	20.3	113,246	18.2	102,188	19.3	215,490
Total	24.7	1,159,081	21.7	1,019,437	23.2	2,178,499

TABLE 78: 2015 OOSC at primary school-age | Source: Population number projected from 2012 Census data, provided by the UNICEF Tanzania. Author's tabulation.

	12	13	14	15	16	17
	54.9	59.2	62.2	66.9	67.6	67.5
	45.1	40.8	37.8	33.1	32.4	32.5
	54.0	57.1	61.1	67.1	68.9	69.5
	55.8	61.4	63.3	66.7	66.2	65.6

Age	Male		Female		Total	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
14	27.6	154,206	26.2	149,433	26.8	303,637
15	38.8	208,088	38.9	205,247	38.9	413,330
16	44.9	224,337	47.6	250,157	46.3	474,518
17	51.3	241,420	56.5	275,866	54.0	517,169
Total	40.0	827,369	41.6	879,411	40.9	1,706,683

TABLE 79: 2015 OOSC at lower secondary school-age | Source: Population number projected from 2012

Census data, provided by the UNICEF Tanzania. Author's tabulation.



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