

**DIFFERENTIAL IMPACT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMMES ON IMPROVING ACCESS, RETENTION AND
PERFORMANCE OF PUPILS FROM ECONOMICALLY
DIFFERENT COMMUNITIES IN MOROGORO, TANZANIA**

ANDREW CALEB RANDA

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY OF
THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA**

2018

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that we have read and hereby recommends for acceptance by the Open University of Tanzania a thesis titled: *“Differential Impact of Primary Education Development Programmes on Improving Access, Retention and Performance of Pupils from Economically Different Communities in Morogoro, Tanzania”* in fulfillment of the requirements for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the Open University of Tanzania.

.....

Professor Issa Mcholo Omari

Principal Supervisor

.....

Date

.....

Professor Cornelia Koku Muganda

Second Supervisor

.....

Date

COPYRIGHT

No part of this thesis may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopy, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the author or the Open University of Tanzania in that behalf.

DECLARATION

I, **Andrew Caleb Randa**, hereby declare that this thesis is my own original work and that it has not been submitted and will not be submitted for a similar degree or any other award in any other University or higher learning institution.

.....

Signature

.....

Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to the everlasting God, the LORD, the Almighty, and the Creator of the earth. The LORD is my strength and my salvation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I extend my sincere thanks to all people who made this study a success. My gratitude is due to those who, in one way or another, supported me through design, research undertaking and editing of this thesis. I am profoundly grateful to my two supervisors, Professor I. M. Omari and Professor C. K. Muganda for their dedication and encouragement. In addition, I extend my sincere thanks to them for their insightful comments and directions throughout the writing process.

My sincere thanks are extended to head teachers, education officers and administrative officials who willingly and wholeheartedly participated as well as greatly contributed to the study.

I extend my sincere thanks to my employer, the Institute of Social Work for giving me permission and financial support for my studies. I am particularly indebted to former Leaders of the Institute, Dr. A. Mvungi, the Rector; Dr. Z. Mabeyo, Deputy Rector for Planning, Finance and Administration and Dr. N. Ng'ondi, Deputy Rector for Academic, Research and Consultancy, whose assistance and encouragement were valuable throughout of my studies.

Lastly, I am grateful to my mother Esther Harun Nyagori, my wife Jaelly Sospeter Onyango, and my children, Caleb, Filigona, and Esther, 'Thank you for your love, patience and support.'

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to determine the differential impact of Primary Education Development Programmes (PEDPs) on improving access, retention and performance of pupils from economically different communities in Morogoro, Tanzania. The researcher used survey research design. Purposive sampling procedure was used to select 12 primary schools from rural and urban settings. The objectives of study were to examine the differential enrolment rates, retention rates, dropout rates, and the academic performance of pupils. Data analysis was done with assistance of **Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)** for windows 22 Version. The t-test at 0.05 significance level was used to establish the relationship between pupils' academic performances across time and place. Findings were presented by using frequency tables, graphs, and percentages. The study revealed that these programmes led to differential impacts on pupils' enrolment such that between years 2002 and 2006, it increased by 18.4 percent for boys and 16.8 percent for girls, dropout rate throughout the programmes was low as 1.17 percent for Morogoro Rural and Urban Districts, retention rates of girls were higher in Morogoro Urban District (95.7) than Morogoro Rural District (80.4), and the same trend was observed among boys, where retention in Morogoro Urban District was 93.9 and Morogoro Rural District was 78.5. There was no significant difference in boys' academic performance between the PEDP 1 and II as $p \text{ Value} = 0.240 > 0.05$, while in girls' performance, there was significant difference as $P \text{ Value} = 0.002 < 0.05$. The study concluded that Primary Education Development Programmes, through capitation grants, had direct and significant impact on pupils' enrolment, retention and performance in schools. However, equity and quality issues need to be addressed between rural and urban schools, boys as well as girls.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CERTIFICATION	ii
COPYRIGHT	iii
DECLARATION.....	iv
DEDICATION.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	vi
ABSTRACT.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
LIST OF ANNEXES.....	xvii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xviii
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.0 THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT	1
1.1 Introduction to the Chapter	1
1.2 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2.1 International Conventions and Declarations on Education.....	2
1.2.2 Problems of Education in the Twenty First Century World-Wide	4
1.2.3 Economic Situation Before and During Implementation of Primary Education Development Programmes I and II	6
1.2.4 Enrolment Trends in Primary Schools Before Implementation Primary Education Development Programme in 2001	7
1.2.5 Government of Tanzania Initiatives on Improving Primary Education Delivery.....	8

1.2.6	Objectives of Primary Education Development Programme I: 2002 – 2006.....	9
1.2.7	Objectives of Primary Education Development Programme II: 2007 – 2011.....	11
1.2.8	Budgets for Primary Education Development Programmes I and II	13
1.3	Statement of the Problem	19
1.4	Objectives of the Study	21
1.4.1	The Main Objective of the Study	21
1.4.2	Specific Objectives.....	21
1.4.3	Research Tasks	22
1.4.4	Research Questions	23
1.4.5	Research Hypotheses.....	24
1.5	Significance of the Study	24
1.6	Scope of the Study.....	25
1.7	Limitation of the Study	26
1.8	Delimitation of the Study	26
1.9	Definition of Key Terms and Concepts.....	27
1.10	Conceptual Framework	27
1.11	Structure of the Thesis.....	33
	CHAPTER TWO	34
2.0	LITERATURE REVIEW.....	34
2.1	Introduction to the Chapter	34
2.2	Educational Reforms in Tanzania Since Independence	34
2.3	Primary Education Development Programmes and Enrolment of Pupils.....	36

2.4	Primary Education Development Programmes and Enrolment Trends	43
2.5	Primary Education Development Programmes and Dropout Trends.....	44
2.6	Primary Education Development Programmes and Pupils' Academic Performance	48
2.7	Differential Impacts of Reforms in Education	59
2.8	Chapter Summary and the Research Gap.....	64
	CHAPTER THREE	68
3.0	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	68
3.1	Introduction to the Chapter	68
3.2	Study Paradigm	68
3.3	Research Approach	69
3.4	Research Design.....	74
3.5	Geographical Area of Study.....	75
3.6	Population of Study.....	79
3.7	Sample and Sampling Procedures	79
3.8	Data Collection Methods.....	82
3.9	Research Tools	84
3.10	Procedures for Data Collection	86
3.11	Data Analysis Plan	86
3.12	Reliability and Validity of Instruments.....	88
3.12.1	Reliability of Instruments.....	88
3.12.2	Validity of Instruments.....	88
3.13	Ethical Issues Addressed.....	88
	CHAPTER FOUR.....	91

4.0	DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION	91
4.1	Introduction to the Chapter	91
4.2	School Categories and Participants' Profile.....	91
4.2.1	School Categories.....	91
4.2.2	Participants' Demographic Characteristics	92
4.3	Funding of Primary Education Development Programmes	94
4.3.1	Funding of Primary Education Development Programmes I and II.....	94
4.3.2	Modalities of Transferring Programme Funds	95
4.3.3	Funding of Schools in Primary Education Development Programme - I	99
4.3.4	Funding of Schools in Primary Education Development Programme II	101
4.4	The Main Findings by Objectives of the Study.....	103
4.4.1	Enrolment Rates of Girls, Boys and Children with Disabilities	103
4.4.2	Retention Rates of Girls, Boys and Children with Disabilities.....	118
4.4.3	Dropout Rates of Girls, Boys and Children with Disabilities.....	127
4.4.4	Academic Performance of Girls, Boys and Children with Disabilities.....	135
4.4.5	Strategies to Improve Enrolment, Retention and Academic Performance of of Pupils.....	152
4.4.6	The Dilemma of Children with Disabilities in Education.....	158
4.5	Synthesis of the Findings	159
	CHAPTER FIVE.....	160
5.0	DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	160
5.1	Introduction to the Chapter	160
5.2	Discussion of Findings	161
5.2.1	Enrolment Rates and Trends	161

5.2.2	Retention Rates by Gender.....	164
5.2.3	Dropout Rates by Gender.....	168
5.2.4	Academic Performance by Gender	170
5.2.5	Strategies to Improve Enrolment, Retention and Academic Performance	174
5.2.6	Differential Impacts of PEDP on Enrolments, Retention and Performance	175
5.3	What Next after Ending the Primary Education Development Programmes? ...	178
5.4	Synthesis of the Findings	179
CHAPTER SIX		181
6.0	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	181
6.1	Introduction to the Chapter	181
6.2	General Summary.....	181
6.3	Summary of Findings	182
6.3.1	Enrolment Rates	183
6.3.2	Retention Rates	184
6.3.3	Dropout Rates.....	185
6.3.4	Academic Performance	186
6.3.5	Strategies to Improve Enrolment, Retention and Academic Performance.....	187
6.4	Conclusions	187
6.5	Recommendations	189
6.5.1	Recommendations for Policy	189
6.5.2	Recommendations for Actions	189
6.5.3	Recommendation for Further Research.....	190
REFERENCES.....		191
ANNEXES.....		212

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 : Primary Education Enrolment by Year and Sex: 1990-2001	8
Table 1.2 : Primary Education Development Programme I Budget	14
Table 1.3 : Primary Education Development Programme I Budget Details	14
Table 1.4 : Primary Education Development Programme II Budget	15
Table 1.5 : Primary Education Development Programme II Budget Details.....	17
Table 3.1 : Socio-Economic Status of Morogoro Rural and Urban Population.	78
Table 3.2 : Primary Schools in Morogoro Urban and Rural Districts	80
Table 3.3 : Sampling of Schools for the Study	82
Table 4.1 : Number of Head Teachers by Gender	92
Table 4.2 : Head Teachers' Education Level.....	93
Table 4.3 : Number of Years of Head Teachers' Work Experience	93
Table 4.4 : Capitation Grant Supposed to be Given to Schools.....	98
Table 4.5 : Primary Education Development Programme I:Funds Offered to Schools.....	100
Table 4.6 : Primary Education Development Programme II: Funds Offered to Schools.....	102
Table 4.7 : Enrolment Rates and Gender in Rural and Urban Schools.....	105
Table 4.8 : Criteria for Admission into Primary School under PEDP I.....	109
Table 4.9 : Enrolment of Children with Disabilities by Sex in All Sampled Schools.....	114
Table 4.10 : Retention Rates by Sex During PEDP I and II	122

Table 4.11 : Retention Pattern of Children with Disabilities During PEDP I and II.....	124
Table 4.12 : Dropout Rates by Sex and Year.....	127
Table 4.13 : Dropout of Children with Disabilities by Sex and Year.....	134
Table 4.14 : T-Test on Pupils' Academic Performance in PEDP I and PEDP II	141
Table 4.15 : T-test on Boys' Academic Performance in PEDP I and PEDP II	147
Table 4.16 : T-test on Girls' Academic Performance in PEDP I and PEDP II.....	147
Table 4.17 : T-test on Academic Performance of Girls Before and After PEDPs.....	148
Table 4.18 : T-test on Boys' Academic Performance Before PEDP I and II and After PEDP II	149
Table 4.19 : Strategies to Improve Primary School Education Delivery (N=12).....	153

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 : Objectives of PEDP I and PEDP II	10
Figure 1.2 : Conceptual Framework for the Study	29
Figure 1.3 : Components of Stufflebeam’s (2003) CIPP Model.	30
Figure 3.1 : Map for Location of the Study Areas	77
Figure 3.2 : Methods and Expected Outcomes	85
Figure 4.1 : Percentage Change in the Enrolment of Pupils by Sex	106
Figure 4.2 : Total Enrolment Trend of Pupils During PEDP – I and II.....	107
Figure 4.3 : Enrolment Trends and Gender	110
Figure 4.4 : Enrolment Trend of Pupils in Rural and Urban During PEDP I and II.....	112
Figure 4.5 : Retention Trends by Ecology and Sex During PEDP I and II in Numbers	120
Figure 4.6 : Retention Trends by Sex During PEDP I and II in Thousands (‘000).....	121
Figure 4.7 : Retention Rates of Pupils by Percentage During PEDP I and II.....	122
Figure 4.8 : Percentage Change of Retention of Children with Disabilities During PEDP I and II	124
Figure 4.9 : Dropout Trends for Boys and Girls: 2000 – 2013 in Percentages.....	128
Figure 4.10: Dropout Trends for Rural and Urban Girls: 2000 – 2013 in Percentages	129
Figure 4.11: Dropout Trends for Rural and Urban Boys: 2000 – 2013 in Percentages	129

Figure 4.12 : PSLE Performance Level Trends for Male Pupils in Rural and Urban Areas, 2000 – 2013	136
Figure 4.13 : PSLE Performance Level Trends for Female Pupils in Rural and Urban Areas, 2000 – 2013	137
Figure 4.14 : Females’ Performance in PSLE During PEDP I and II.....	142
Figure 4.15 : Males’ Performance in PSLE During PEDP I and II	143
Figure 4.16 : Academic Performance Trends for Female Pupils: 2000 – 2013.....	144
Figure 4.17 : Academic Performance Trends for Male Pupils: 2000 – 2013	144
Figure 4.18 : PSLE Performance Trends for Rural Pupils: 2000 -2013	145
Figure 4.19 : PSLE Performance Trends for Urban Pupils: 2000 -2013	145

LIST OF ANNEXES

Annex 1 : Official List of MDG Indicators.....	212
Annex 2 : Primary School Enrolment Survey Form.....	216
Annex 3 : Primary School Retention Survey Form	218
Annex 4 : Primary School Dropout Survey Form.....	219
Annex 5 : Primary School Performance Survey Form	220
Annex 6 : Primary School Fund Tracking Form.....	222
Annex 7 : Strategies to Improve Primary School Education Delivery	224
Annex 8 : Research Clearance from Directorate of Research and Postgraduate Studies	226
Annex 9 : Letter from Morogoro Regional Administrative Secretary.....	227
Annex 10: Letter from District Administrative Secretary (DAS) - Morogoro (Rural)	228
Annex 11: Letter from District Administrative Secretary (DAS) - Morogoro – Municipal	229
Annex 12: Letter from District Executive Director (DED): Morogoro (Urban)	230
Annex 13: Letter from District Executive Director (DED): Morogoro (Rural)	231
Annex 14: Photograph Showing Pupils’ Performances and Capitation Grants.....	232
Annex 15: Photograph Showing Foundation of the Classrooms	233

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BEDC	Basic Education Development Committee
BEST	Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania
CIPP	Context, Input, Process, Product
COBET	Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
DAS	District Administrative Secretary
DED	District Executive Director
DEO	District Education Officer
DR	Dropout Rate
EFA	Education for All
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FCS	Foundation for Civil Society
FEDP	Folk Education Development Programme
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV	Human Immune Deficiency Virus
ICBAE	Integrated Community Based Adult Education
IDCA	International Development Centre for Africa
LGAs	Local Government Authorities
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MKUKUTA	Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini Tanzania

MoEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MoVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NFE	Non-Formal Education
OMR	Optical Marking Reader
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organization
PEDP	Primary Education Development Programme
PPA	Participatory Poverty Assessment
PR	Promotion Rate
PSABH	Primary School Action for Better Health
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examinations
PTR	Pupils - Teacher Ratio
RAS	Regional Administrative Secretary
RR	Repetition Rate
SCR	Student - Classroom Ratio
SEDP	Secondary Education Development Programme
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TASAF	Tanzania Social Action Fund
TBA	Tanzania Building Agency
TEA	Tanzania Education Authority
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Studies
UPE	Universal Primary Education
UN	United Nations

UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNGEI	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
UNICEF	United Nations Children Fund
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
WEC	Ward Education Coordinator
WEO	Ward Education Officer

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction to the Chapter

The primary education in Tanzania for long time faced problems of enrolment, retention and poor performance in Primary School Leaving Examinations, which enhanced the Primary Education Development Programmes (PEDP) to be introduced. This study assessed differential impact of PEDP on improving enrolment, retention and performance of pupils from economically different communities in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District. The study also suggested strategies to improve primary education delivery in Tanzania. This chapter analyzes the problem and its context, where it is divided into ten sections. The first section presents background information to the study. The second section focuses on the statement of the problem. The objectives of the study are covered in the third section. The fourth section deals with the significance of the study. The subsequent sections cover: scope of the study, limitation of the study, delimitation of the study, definition of key terms and concepts, and conceptual framework.

1.2 Background to the Study

Education is considered as the foundation of all human development and very important means for growth of a nation. It is acknowledged all over the world that education forms the basis for economic, social and political development of any nation (World Bank, 1998). Everyone is obliged to invest in education since by so doing, it promotes

economic development hence, it increases production in terms of socio-economic development and reduce social disparity (World Bank, 1998). Education is treated as one of key indicators of a country's development level (UNESCO, 2005). Education is also recognized as a basic human right adopted by the UN in 1948.

The right to education was adopted in Tanganyika (now Mainland Tanzania) in 1961 when the nation became a UN member after obtaining its independence (Omari and Mosha, 1987). Since 1948 when the United Nations recognized education as a basic human right, there has been a number of conventions and declarations on education at international and national levels with the aim of improving access to quality education.

1.2.1 International Conventions and Declarations on Education

The United Nations in the year 1990 declared eight **Millennium Development Goals** (MDG) and the goals were supposed to be achieved in the year 2015 (**Annex 1**). The following were **Millennium Development Goals** (MDGs): to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, to achieve universal primary education; to promote gender equality and empower women, to reduce child mortality, to improve maternal health, to combat Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS), malaria and other diseases, to ensure environmental sustainability, and to develop a global partnership for development (UN, 2003). The second MDG was related to education, "Achieve universal primary education." In target three, it was stated that "ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, were able to complete a full course of primary schooling" (United Nations, 2003, pg. x).

In 1990, about 150 delegates from many countries around the world joined together in Jomtien, Thailand and carried out the World Conference known as **Education for All** (EFA). The main purposes were to make primary education become right to every child worldwide and reduce illiteracy rates (UNESCO, 2000), with purposes of meeting basic learning needs, shaping the vision, universalizing access and promoting equity in education, focusing on learning attainment, broadening the means and scope of basic education, improving learning the environment, strengthening partnerships among players in education, developing a supporting policy context for education, mobilizing resources and strengthening international solidarity in education (UNESCO, 2000). Thereafter, Tanzania, like other countries, decided to implement decisions made in the Jomtien World Conference on **Education for All** (UNESCO, 2000a). To achieve EFA goals, the government developed Education and Training Policy of 1995 (ETP, 1995). Its major objectives were to increase and improve enrolments expansion, improve access to education, quality improvements, expansion of education and optimum utilization of facilities (URT, 1995).

Another **World Education Forum** was held in 2000 in Dakar, Senegal, which emphasized on the need for meeting ‘**Education for All Goals**’ by the year 2015 (UNESCO, 2005). The **Dakar Framework for Action** had the following goals: expanding and developing a complete early childhood care and education, ensure that by 2015 all children had access, complete, free and compulsory primary education, ensure learning needs were met, achieve a 50 percent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, eradicate gender inequalities in all primary as well as secondary schools by 2005

and lastly, improve aspects of quality education provision, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills (UNESCO, 2005). The government of Tanzania also adopted the 2000 **‘Dakar Framework for Action’** (UNESCO, 2000b). In 1997, the government of Tanzania initiated Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) as context for investments in education with the following objectives: to use education in achieving the nation’s development, to facilitate poverty alleviation through education, to establish relationship and coordination system in provision of education as well as training; and to promote partnership among government, civil society organizations and private sectors (URT, 2001).

1.2.2 Problems of Education in the Twenty First Century World-Wide

In this twenty first century, the education sector has continued to face a lot of problems despite efforts done worldwide in solving them. In year 2014 for example, it was found that a right to education was not offered to millions of children in the world and approximately 72 million children who had to start learning were not enrolled to primary schools (Humanium, 2014). Worldwide, it was reported that 250 million children fail to reach Grade 4 or reach it without learning to read or write, whether they had been to school or not. Furthermore, the number of illiterate adults remained stubbornly high at 774 million (UNESCO, 2014).

Great discrepancies in access and completion rates of pupils exist within and between countries, between rural and urban areas, boys and girls as well as people with disabilities. It was stated that fifty five percent (55%) of children not enrolled in primary

schools were girls and 4 out of 5 who were not enrolled in schools lived in rural areas mainly in Sub-Saharan Africa and in southern as well as western Asia (UNESCO, 2009). It was claimed that child labour, poor health and physical disabilities were some of the major barriers to Universal Primary Education. Furthermore, it was noted that children with physical disabilities were marginalized and not allowed to go to school (UNESCO, 2009).

On other side, the 2010 **Millennium Development Goals** (MDG) Report noted that children with disabilities continued to be left behind despite overall increases in school participation over the past decade (UN, 2013). In Africa alone, fewer than 10 percent of disabled children were in school. It was also found that disability had greater effect on access to schooling than those obtained from socio-economic status, gender or urban/rural settings (Filmer, 2005). The Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2007) estimated that majority of children with disabilities in Africa did not go to school. Of the 72 million primary aged children, worldwide, that were out of school, one third had disabilities (UNESCO, 2007). In Sub-Saharan Africa, 48 percent of children did not complete primary school. Many of them were children in fragile and conflict-affected countries, children in rural areas, children with disabilities and girls who were the hardest to reach (UNESCO, 2014).

These identified problems made the government of Tanzania to introduce Primary Education Development Programmes (PEDP) in year 2002 – 2011, with the aims of enabling children from economically different communities and children with

disabilities to enroll in primary schools. In following subsections elaborate prevailing economic situation of the country before and during implementations of PEDP, enrolment trends in primary schools before and during their implementations of PEDP, initiatives of government to improving primary education delivery, objectives of PEDP and budgets of PEDP.

1.2.3 Economic Situation Before and During Implementation of Primary Education Development Programmes I and II

In the years 1983 to 1989, before the introduction of PEDP, the country of Tanzania faced different economic crises which affected education delivery. The economic crises during the Structural Adjustment Programme (1983-85) and Economic Recovery Programme (1986-1989) which were experienced in the country (Maliyamkono and Bagachwa, 1990) increased the cost of schooling for many families, thus led to a delay in sending children to school.

The Primary Education Development Programmes were implemented in different periods of times when the country was in economic hardship and mostly affected areas were rural communities (National Bureau of Statistics, 2002). In 2002, the country's per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) stood at around US\$ 300, placing Tanzania as 188th of 208 countries (World Bank, 2006). It was also estimated that about 36 percent of the population lived below the poverty line. Poverty was highly prevalent among rural areas, where 87 percent of the poor lived although they account for 67 percent of the population (World Bank, 2006). According to the Household Budget Surveys of 2000/01

(National Bureau of Statistics, 2002), almost half (48 %) of Tanzania's population of 36 million people was unable to meet basic food and nonfood needs. The rural population who made almost 87 percent was poor, and they lived largely on subsistence agriculture, heavily dependent on staple foods such as banana, maize, potato or cassava (National Bureau of Statistics, 2002). For poor families, their incomes were not enough even for day-to-day survival. Such families were usually unable to afford direct costs of schooling and as a result, their children did not enroll in schools (National Bureau of Statistics, 2002). Even if poor families tried to enroll children in schools, the financial burden was much greater because parents were forced to spend large percentage of household incomes in meeting costs for education (Mason and Rozelle, 1998).

1.2.4 Enrolment Trends in Primary Schools Before Implementation Primary Education Development Programme in 2001

Due to economic crises experienced in the country between 1983 to 1989, the number of pupils who enrolled in primary school at the age of seven years declined from 27 per cent of all school entrants in 1981 to 14 per cent in 1990 (UNICEF, 1990). Although in early 1990s, there was expansion in education such that the enrolment number increased from 3.3 million pupils in 1990 to 4.8 million pupils in 2001 for primary education (MoEVT, 2011). However, such enrolments in primary school did not keep pace with growth of population aged between 5 and 14 in Tanzania, hence caused many children to fail to enroll in primary education. For example in 1991, about 50 percent of the population aged 5-14 was enrolled in primary schools, while the remaining 50 percent of the same age did not enroll in schools. But by 2000, enrolment rate had fallen to about

46 percent (Akabayash and Psacharopoulous, 1999). Table 1.1 is used as a baseline data to show national picture of primary education before introduction of the mentioned programmes.

Table 1.1 : Primary Education Enrolment by Year and Sex: 1990-2001

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
M	1705235	1778336	1833908	1899305	1923062	1961879	1992739	2044098	2033281	2099655	2212475	2474344
F	1673765	1734011	1769580	1837429	1873768	1915764	1950149	2013867	2009287	2090161	2169937	2407244
F/M Propotion	0.98155	0.97508	0.96492	0.96742	0.97437	0.97649	0.97863	0.98521	0.9882	0.99547	0.98077	0.97288
Total	3379000	3512347	3603488	3736734	3796830	3877643	3942888	4057965	4042568	4189816	4382410	4881588

Source: MoEC (2005).

1.2.5 Government of Tanzania Initiatives on Improving Primary Education

Delivery

The government of Tanzania in order to improve Primary education delivery introduced Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) in year 2002. PEDP was mainly intended for increasing enrolment of pupils, as well as attaining equity and quality education (MOEC, 2001). The primary education sector in the country had many challenges and problems which were not solved. Thus, from year 2002, serious initiatives were implemented to solve challenges related to provision of quality education and enrolment of pupils in primary schools in Tanzania. The aim was to make sure that every child was not denied access to education either due to being poor, disabled or because of his or her gender. Other factors which should not refrain them from attending school were like not having school uniforms, school fees or school contributions (for security charges, examinations preparations) or not having school

facilities used in teaching and learning or having scarcity of teachers (MOEC, 2001). Also it aimed at tackling problems of non-attendance, dropout rates and poor performance in examinations (Sekwao, 2004).

Therefore, in the year 2002, the government of Tanzania initiated Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP). The PEDP had to be put into operation in two five-year periods. The first started from 2002 to 2006 and the second continued from 2007 to 2011 (URT, 2012). Generally, the government aimed at increasing enrolment of pupils in primary schools, which was low, improve students' retention and improve academic performance (URT 2001, 2006, 2012).

1.2.6 Objectives of Primary Education Development Programme I: 2002 – 2006

Primary Education Development Programme I had the following four strategic objectives (Figure 1.1): enrolment expansion with equity, quality improvement, capacity building in governance and management, and better utilizing human, material as well as financial resource (URT, 2001; BEDC, 2001; Sumra, 2003).

The stated four PEDP objectives were constructed with strategic priorities. The PEDP set the priority of increasing in general gross and net enrolment of girls as well as boys in all primary schools in Tanzania. In order to achieve this, the following strategies were used: increasing enrolment to all groups of children, using teachers and classrooms more effectively, recruiting new teachers and constructing new classrooms, and finally, expanding complementary education programmes for out-of school children and youth

(BEDC, 2001). For successful implementation of the programme, four supporting sub-components were developed around these strategies. Those strategies were enrolment and access, teacher recruitment and deployment, construction, out-of-school children, and youth (URT, 2001).

No.	Objectives	PEDP I	PEDP II
1.	Enrolment expansion with equity	√	√
2.	Quality improvement	√	√
3.	Capacity building (in governance and management)	√	√
4.	Better utilizing human, material and financial resource	√	√
5.	Addressing Cross-cutting issues	×	√
6.	Support educational research	×	√
7.	Carry out educational monitoring and evaluation	×	√

Key: √ - implemented objective. × - not included.

Figure 1.1 : Objectives of PEDP I and PEDP II

Source: URT (2001) and (2006).

The first priority was on enrolment and access that aimed at increasing enrolment of all groups of children (BEDC, 2001). The priority had three objectives, which were to be implemented. They included to enroll all children who were between 7 and 12 years old into standard one by 2005, to ensure that the formal school system catered for the bulk of school age children, and lastly, to ensure that all girls and boys from disadvantaged groups including AIDS orphans are enrolled to formal education (URT, 2001; Mbelle, 2008).

The second priority in PEDP was on quality improvement. The priority aimed at revitalizing and improving the quality of primary education, while focusing on the

following three main components: to improve teachers' instruction styles and methods in the classroom, to ensure availability of quality learning and teaching materials, and to ensure that educational standards are maintained through offering important support (BEDC, 2001). The major purpose was to get better academic performance of all pupils regardless of their genders in the primary education examinations results. Academic performance refers to pupils' learning outcome levels to be successfully completed (BEDC, 2001). In achieving this, the government had to strengthen in-service and pre-service teacher training together with teaching and learning materials provision (URT, 2001; Mbelle, 2008).

The third primary education policy strategy was to support institutional capability and competency of the central as well as local government authorities and school levels (URT, 2001). It was done through system-wide management improvements whereby a range of capacity building efforts were applied (BEDC, 2001). It involved pre-service teacher training, and offer financial as well as management training to head teachers, school committees, ward education coordinators, inspectors, local government authorities, regional staff and national staff (URT, 2001; Sumra, 2003; Mbelle, 2008).

1.2.7 Objectives of Primary Education Development Programme II: 2007 – 2011

The PEDP II had seven programme areas or objectives (Figure 1.1). The objectives that had to be implemented were enrolment expansion, quality improvement and strengthening capacity in governance as well as management (URT, 2006). Other

remaining four were cross-cutting issues, conducting educational research and carrying out educational monitoring as well as evaluation (URT, 2006).

In regard to enrolment expansion, the major focus was to ensure that all pupils get access and equal chances to enroll in primary schools. The commitment was on ensuring that pre-primary education becomes the basic right and accessible to every child who was entitled to that. The government was also obliged to ensure that all school-age children are enforced to enroll at primary schools and attend frequently at studies. Moreover, the government had to give special attention to equity by ensuring that Other Vulnerable Children (OVC) like the girl child, disabled children, street children, victims of child labour, children living in poor families, children of pastoralist and hunter-gatherer societies are enrolled, attend regularly at schools and complete primary education (URT, 2006). Other groups, which had to be given compulsory primary education, were orphans and children living in difficult conditions as well as hard to reach areas (URT, 2006).

In regard to quality improvement, the programme aimed at improving quality of teaching and learning processes by providing quality services, which would bring positive results on learning outcomes to pupils (URT, 2006). Factors that decided on quality of teaching and learning processes were training and upgrading of teachers, adequate numbers and quality of human resources required to manage research, teach, monitor as well as evaluate education process (URT, 2006).

The third priority in PEDP II was on strengthening capacity in governance, management and monitoring for the purpose of strengthening capacity and competences of all education actors at all levels (URT, 2006). The process facilitated attainment of desired efficiency in provision of basic education to learners. At the same time, it aimed at ensuring that training on good governance, management and accountability were offered to all education actors at all levels. Other major issues dealt with in training involved internal efficiency and quality (URT, 2006).

In regard to PEDP II, Cross Cutting Issues involved HIV and AIDS, Environmental Education and Gender Equality (URT, 2006). For HIV and AIDS awareness, PEDP II was focused to children and youths in schools and teachers' colleges. While in regard to environmental education, it was integrated in study programmes offered in pre-primary schools, primary schools, secondary schools, Teachers' Training Colleges and Vocational Training Colleges. Lastly, in addressing gender issues, the major goals were on access, quality and equity (URT, 2006).

1.2.8 Budgets for Primary Education Development Programmes I and II

Successful implementation of these programmes depended mostly on funds. In order to implement them, the government of Tanzania had to allocate funds to enable objectives of each programme to be met. In PEDP 1, acquired funds were divided into three categories: Development funds, Personal emoluments and funds for Other Charges that were further subdivided into capitation grants and general other charges. PEDP set the capitation grant at United States of America dollars (US \$) 10 at the beginning of the

programme to meet pupils' needs regardless of their economic backgrounds. The money was sent directly to schools and had to be spent as follows: 40 percent for textbooks, 20 percent for rehabilitation of school buildings, 20 percent for purchase of school materials, 10 percent for examination and 10 percent for school administration (URT, 2001). The summary of budget for PEDP I is presented in Table 1.2 while analysis of the budget for PEDP I is provided in Table 1.3.

Table 1.2 : Primary Education Development Programme I Budget

mill. Tsh	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Total
Recurrent budget	199,831.6	234,774.8	271,989.2	296,292.2	312,642.5	1,315,530.3
Development budget	99,633.0	88,274.0	92,424.0	48,330.0	43,608.0	372,269
Total PEDP budget	299,464.6	323,048.8	364,413.2	344,622.2	356,250.5	1,687,799.3

Source: URT (2006).

Table 1.3 : Primary Education Development Programme I Budget Details

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	TOTAL
A. RECURRENT BUDGET						
Cost (mill. Tsh)	197,530.	227,870.	259,330.	276,733.	286,581.	1,248,045.3
Primary Education Recurrent Budget	0	0	4	4	5	
Non Formal Education Recurrent Budget	2,301.6	6,904.8	12,658.8	19,558.8	26,061.0	67,485
TOTAL RECURRENT BUDGET	199,831.6	234,774.8	271,989.2	296,292.2	312,642.5	1,315,530.3
B. DEVELOPMENT BUDGET						
<i>1. CONSTRUCTION</i>						
Classrooms	57,551	55,594	58,942	28,197	24,205	224,489
Sanitation and Water	7,000	7,000	7,000	---	---	21,000

Teacher Housing	12,086	11,675	12,378	5,921	5,083	47,143
Staff Rooms Construction	76,637	74,269	78,320	34,118	29,288	292,632
2. CAPACITY BUILDING						
School Committee	5,337	5,436	5,535	5,643	5,751	27,702
District	4,731	4,731	4,731	4,731	4,731	23,655
Region	830	830	830	830	830	4,150
Central	1,660	1,660	1,660	1,660	1,660	8,300
Technical Assistance	448	448	448	448	448	2,240
Staff and Stakeholders Capacity Building	13,006	13,105	13,204	13,312	13,420	66,047
3. INFORMATION, EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION	2,000	900	900	900	900	5,600
4. TEACHER REDEPLOYMENT	7,990	--	--	--	--	7,990
GOVT TOTAL DEVELOPMENT BUDGET	99,633.0	88,274.0	92,424.0	48,330.0	43,608.0	372,269
TOTAL PEDP BUDGET	299,464.6	323,048.8	364,413.2	344,622.2	356,250.5	1,687,799.3

Source: URT, 2006

In PEDP II, the programme was mainly funded through the National Budget whereby funds were to support pupils' learning in terms of enrolment, retention, completion and achievement. The funds were allocated to recurrent and development as directed by the government (URT, 2006). See Table 1.4 for the summary of budget.

Table 1.4 : Primary Education Development Programme II Budget

Cost (mill. Tsh)	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	Total
Recurrent Budget	591,763	621,169	660,216	687,551	735,585	3,296,284
Development Budget	96,079	345,787	348,458	350,803	284,366	1,425,493
Total PEDP Budget	687,842	966,956	1,008,674	1,038,354	1,019,951	4,721,777

Source: URT, 2011

As it is observed in the budgets presented for PEDP I and PEDP II, distribution of resources within and between the two categories of recurrent and development budgets almost doubled from that of PEDP I to PEDP II. The total budget increased from 1,687,799.3 million Tanzanian shillings in PEDP I to 4,721,777 million Tanzanian shillings in PEDP II (Table 1.2 and 1.4). Table 1.5 lays out details of budget for PEDP II in terms of recurrent, development and total in each of the five years. By looking at these budgets, it implies that government allocated a large amount of money for primary education in PEDP I and II.

Since these were large investments made in primary education in terms of government funding, therefore evaluations of their impacts were inevitable. Although these programmes existed since 2002 to 2011, there are no comprehensive researches which have been done to assess their impacts on improving primary education delivery in the country. Research endeavours had to be done also for the purpose of either nullifying or proving out an increasing worry that existed for a long time in the country that many pupils completed their primary school education without attaining sufficient learning levels. Moreover, research had to be done on PEDP I and II for the purpose of revealing out if the programme's academic achievements were met (URT, 2006). Therefore by conducting this study, it helps to unveil impact of PEDP on improving enrolment, retention and performance of pupils in PSLE from economically different communities in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District. The results of the study are expected to contribute significant knowledge and give experiences on educational programme planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Table 1.5 : Primary Education Development Programme II Budget Details

	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	TOTAL
A. RECURRENT BUDGET						
Primary Enrolment	8,217,328	8,213,523	7,970,167	7,849,615	8,088,516	40,339,149
1. Salaries.....	362,518	367,615	407,729	432,440	469,819	2,040,121
2. Other Charges.....	42,716	44,831	45,678	47,236	51,108	231,569
3. Capitation Grants for Primary.....	82,173	82,135	79,702	78,496	80,885	403,391
4. Capitation Grants for Pre- Primary.....	7,916	10,334	13,991	18,943	20,440	71,624
5 Capitation Grants for students with special learning needs.....	380	387	395	403	411	1,976
6. Capacity building (Training).....	14,924	15,093	14,814	15,334	16,085	76,250
7. Capacity building (Logistic support).....	8,263	8,357	8,205	8,176	8,525	41,526
8. Teacher Training.....	39,532	51,292	49,207	44,980	46,382	231,393
9. Information Education Communication.....	900	910	893	925	970	4,598
10. Education management Information System.....	1,307	1,321	1,297	1,342	1,408	6,675
11. Special Needs Education.....	3,241	3,278	3,217	3,330	3,493	16,559
12. Non Formal Education.....	5,692	5,756	5,650	5,849	6,135	29,082
13. Technical Assistance.....	224	227	222	230	241	1,144
14. Incentive to teachers Involved in Double Shift...	565	520	464	421	399	2,369
15. Examinations and Assessment.....	7,995	8,086	7,936	8,215	8,618	40,850
16. Curriculum Development.....	1,290	1,305	1,281	1,326	1,391	6,593
17. Cross-Cutting Issues.....	404	409	401	415	436	2,065
18. School Inspection.....	6,073	6,141	6,028	6,240	6,545	31,027
19. Monitoring and Evaluation, Reviews and Audits	3,492	3,532	3,467	3,588	3,764	17,843
20. Maintenance Costs (3% of Development budget)	2,158	9,639	9,639	9,660	8,531	39,627

TOTAL RECURRENT BUDGET	591,763	621,169	660,216	687,551	735,585	3,296,284
B. DEVELOPMENT BUDGET						
Pre- Primary Class rooms Construction.....	-	31,526	31,526	31,526	3,784	98,362
Primary Class rooms' Construction	11,000	59,142	59,142	59,142	59,142	247,568
Pre- Primary Toilets.....	-	8,025	8,025	8,025	963	25,038
Primary Toilets.....	39,550	12,505	12,505	12,505	12,505	89,570
Pre- Primary Desks.....	-	4,814.9	4,814.9	4,814.9	577.9	15,022.6
Primary Desks.....	3,390	7,873	7,873	8,572	9,971	37,679
Pre- Primary, Primary Teachers Houses construction costs	18,000	197,424	197,424	197,424	197,424	807,696
Construction of Water Tanks (<i>for 30% of Primary schools</i>).....	24,139	24,478	27,149	28,794	-	104,560
GOV TOTAL DEVELOPMENT BUDGET	96,079	345,787	348,458	350,803	284,366	1,425,493
TOTAL PEDP BUDGET	687,842	966,956	1,008,674	1,038,354	1,019,952	4,721,777

Source: URT, (2011)

1.3 Statement of the Problem

As indicated in the background to the study, the problems that education was facing worldwide were also faced by Tanzania. Among the problems identified were poor enrolments of pupils in rural primary schools as were in Sub-Saharan Africa and southern and western Asia (UNESCO, 2009), children with disabilities not being enrolled in primary schools (UNESCO, 2007), dropout from studies (UNESCO, 2014) and even pupils to complete their studies with poor performances (UNESCO, 2005).

To solve these problems, Tanzania adopted conventions and declarations made on education like **United Nations Declaration of Human Rights** of year 1948, Jomtien World Conference on **Education for All**, the **World Education Forum**, and the **Millennium Development Goals**. Tanzania had also initiated Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) in year 2000. Tanzania also took country-wide initiatives by introducing Primary Education Development Programmes (PEDP) in year 2002 – 2011, with the aims of enabling children from economically different communities and children with disabilities, to enroll in primary schools, to stay and study throughout and at the end, sit and pass Primary School Leaving Examinations (PSLE). Through PEDP initiative, Tanzania was supposed to achieve key indices as per **Millennium Development** and **Dakar Framework for Actions Goals** in terms of participation rates, gender parity, dropout rates, completion rates, and pass rates to all pupils especially those from economically different communities. Economically different communities in the context of this study means social groups of any size, whose members are living in either rural or urban areas and having either low or high

incomes. The PEDP also aimed at improving the teaching and learning situation at primary schools by increasing the number of text and reference books for pupils through capitation grants.

Although primary education delivery seemed to acquire some improvements, but still there were questions which emerged and needed answers. Thus, at the end of implementation of PEDP I and II in year 2011, there were several unanswered questions, which sparked in stakeholders' minds. Did the programmes achieve intended objectives as planned? Did money allocated for education assist in improving quality of education in the country in terms of enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils? How did the programmes help children with disabilities in their learning?

Apart from different scholars to evaluate the said programmes (PEDP I and II) in Tanzania in different years, for instance, HakiElimu (2007, 2009), Mushi *et. al.*, (2008, 2012) and Mbelle (2008), none of these researches focused on the impact of PEDP I and II on enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils in Morogoro Region. For example, the study by Mushi (2008), was conducted in Kilimanjaro, Rukwa and Lindi; while study by Mushi (2012) was conducted in Shinyanga, Manyara, Kigoma, Tanga, Pwani and Mtwara. Therefore, there was need to conduct another study which could answer above questions of stakeholders while focusing on the impact of programmes in Morogoro Region.

Also there had been very little systematic assessment of the extent of PEDP effectiveness on improving education for specific groups of children including boys, girls, and children with disabilities from rural or urban areas in Tanzania. This study intended to unravel this research gap. In addition, the study intended to identify strategies to apply in order to tackle barriers which hindered boys, girls, and children with disabilities from rural and urban areas to study well.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 The Main Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study was to assess differential impact of primary education development programmes on improving enrolment, retention and performance of pupils from economically different communities in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District in Morogoro Region.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

This study had the following specific objectives:-

- i. To examine possible differential enrolment rates for school girls, boys and children with disabilities before, during and after PEDP I and II for primary schools located in economically different communities in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District;
- ii. To examine possible differential retention rates for girls, boys and children with disabilities before, during and after PEDP I and II for schools located in rural and urban communities in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District;

- iii. To assess possible differential dropout rates for girls, boys and children with disabilities before, during and after PEDP I and II for primary schools in rural and urban communities in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District;
- iv. To examine academic performance of girls, boys and children with disabilities in PSLE from diverse economic communities in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District before, during, and after PEDP I and II; and
- v. To find out strategies used in addressing problems of enrolment, retention and academic performance of girls, boys and children with disabilities in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District.

1.4.3 Research Tasks

This study was guided by the following research tasks:-

- i. To demonstrate how enrolment of girls, boys and children with disabilities before, during, and after PEDP I and II differed significantly in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District;
- ii. To show the manner in which retention trends for girls, boys and children with disabilities in primary education differed before, during, and after PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District;
- iii. To demonstrate if the number of girls, boys and children with disabilities differed in dropout rates before, during, and after PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District;

- iv. To demonstrate if the number of girls, boys and children with disabilities differed in academic performance before, during, and after PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District; and
- v. To identify strategies to use in addressing problems of enrolment, retention and academic performance of girls, boys and children with disabilities in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District.

1.4.4 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:-

- i. Was there any differential increase in enrolment trend of girls, boys and children with disabilities in primary schools during PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District?
- ii. What was differential retention trends of girls, boys and children with disabilities in primary education during PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District?
- iii. How many girls, boys and children with disabilities dropped out from studies during PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District?
- iv. How many girls, boys and children with disabilities passed PSLE during PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District?
- v. What strategies were used to address problems of enrolment, retention and academic performance of girls, boys and children with disabilities in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District?

1.4.5 Research Hypotheses

The research had the following hypotheses:-

- i. Enrolment for girls, boys, and children with disabilities in primary schools differentially increased in PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District;
- ii. Retention rate of pupils by sex and children with disabilities differentially increased during PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District;
- iii. Dropout rates of girls, boys, and children with disabilities differentially decreased during PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District;
- iv. Academic performance of girls, boys, and children with disabilities in PSLE differentially improved during PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District; and
- v. Viable strategies improve enrolment, retention and academic performance of girls, boys and children with disabilities in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District.

1.5 Significance of the Study

It was hoped that results of this study would provide valuable information to the government, head teachers of primary schools, development partners and the communities on the impacts of PEDP on improving enrolment, retention and academic

performance education of boys, girls and children with disabilities in the Tanzanian education system.

The findings of the study could provide planners, educators, administrators and other educational stakeholders with strategies to improve provision of quality education to boys, girls and children with disabilities living in economically different communities in the country.

The results of the study contribute significant knowledge on educational planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This knowledge may be used by practitioners, policy makers, education planners, managers and stakeholders to improve future programmes and provision of quality education in Tanzania.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study was carried out in Morogoro Urban and Rural Districts in Morogoro Region, Tanzania. It addressed the impacts of primary education development programmes on improving enrolment, retention and performance of pupils from economically different communities in Morogoro. Researcher applied purposive sampling procedure to select 12 primary schools (2 best-performing schools, 2 medium-performing schools, and 2 worst-performing schools in PSLE results). These primary schools were selected to represent 98 schools in Morogoro Urban District and 149 schools Morogoro Rural District. 6 schools were selected from Morogoro Urban District, which were typically in urban areas and other 6 schools from Morogoro Rural District. Furthermore, the head

teachers of all 12 schools, 2 district education officers as well as 2 bursars of both districts were involved in follow-up interviews that led to a total of 16 interviewees.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

This study purposively selected twelve primary schools basing on their performances in PSLE without considering direct economic status indices of local communities. Therefore, this could limit the generalization of results and findings. Moreover, data collection procedures which required head teachers to fill survey forms limited the study's findings because it happened that some of the schools' records were not well kept, damaged or misplaced by former head teacher who retired, demoted or transferred to another school. This situation made researcher to use head teachers' reports sent from these primary schools to DEO offices so as to get data required.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

The study was confined only to twelve selected primary schools located in two districts in Morogoro region. These selected primary schools were few and they could not be totally representative of others. Another delimitation of the study was that, geographical scatterings of these selected primary schools compelled the researcher to extend a bit more time for survey so as to reach everyone in the sample. Lastly, the study focused only to head teachers while excluding pupils who were targeted in these programmes. In this case, pupils were not interviewed to give their opinions on impacts of programmes on their studies.

1.9 Definition of Key Terms and Concepts

The following key terms were defined within the context of study:-

Access refers to the extent to which children of specified schools are able to enter into a particular level or cycle of education (UNESCO, 1989).

Retention refers to situation, which occurs when primary school children who have been enrolled to be provided opportunities to stay in study programme and complete a full cycle of schooling without dropping out after being admitted (Hagedorn 2006).

Dropout refers to students who stay away from school more than given number of days or all those who either do not enter to school or leave school before completion of education cycle (Rumberger, 2001).

Academic performance refers to pupils' learning outcome levels acquired after their successful completion of primary education (Chowdhury and Pati, 1997).

1.10 Conceptual Framework

The study was guided by Stufflebeam's (2003) Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP) Model, which best fitted in this research. It was a well-constructed framework as components of the model match with the purposes of this study. The CIPP is an acronym which represents the four main components of the model of evaluation, where C – stands for Context, I – stands for Input, P – stands for Process, and P – stands for Product. The CIPP evaluation model developed by Stufflebeam (2003) was prepared to be utilized by evaluators in collecting the data on programme effectiveness, which could at the end help managers in judging programme worthiness. Finally, the decision makers were

expected to use evaluation report, which had to supply them with information of either to go on with, adjust or terminate an education or training programme in whole or part of it (Worthern and Sanders, 1998). One of additional strengths of the CIPP evaluation model was that it might be used for making evaluation in either formative or summative decisions (Worthern and Sanders, 1998).

The CIPP model provided the basis for understanding the PEDP's priority investment by showing and describing the mutual relationship among its core constituent elements on improving primary education provision. It further helps to assess requirements, difficulties, assets, and prospects to assist decision-makers in defining purposes and precedence as well as facilitate the large group of consumers' to judge out objectives, priorities, and results (Fitzpatrick *et. al.*, 2011). Determining what needs to be addressed by a programme helps in defining objectives for the programme (Worthern and Sanders, 1998). Therefore, before 2001, context evaluation was done and identified problems facing primary education, which included poverty, low budget provision, poor education and inequality in education provision that led to policy formulation. In input evaluation, the government took alternative approaches of implementing PEDP I and II to meet targeted needs as well as achieve goals. The practice involved giving priority in improving investments by expanding enrolment while focusing on increasing number of enrolment rates of pupils, construction of classroom, making teacher engagement and deployment of teacher, quality improvement, encompassing human resources, and provision of teaching and learning resources, and improvements of wide management system, throughout a range of capacity building, in-service and pre-service teacher

training. These in combination are summarized to give PEDP conceptual framework presented in Figure 1.2.

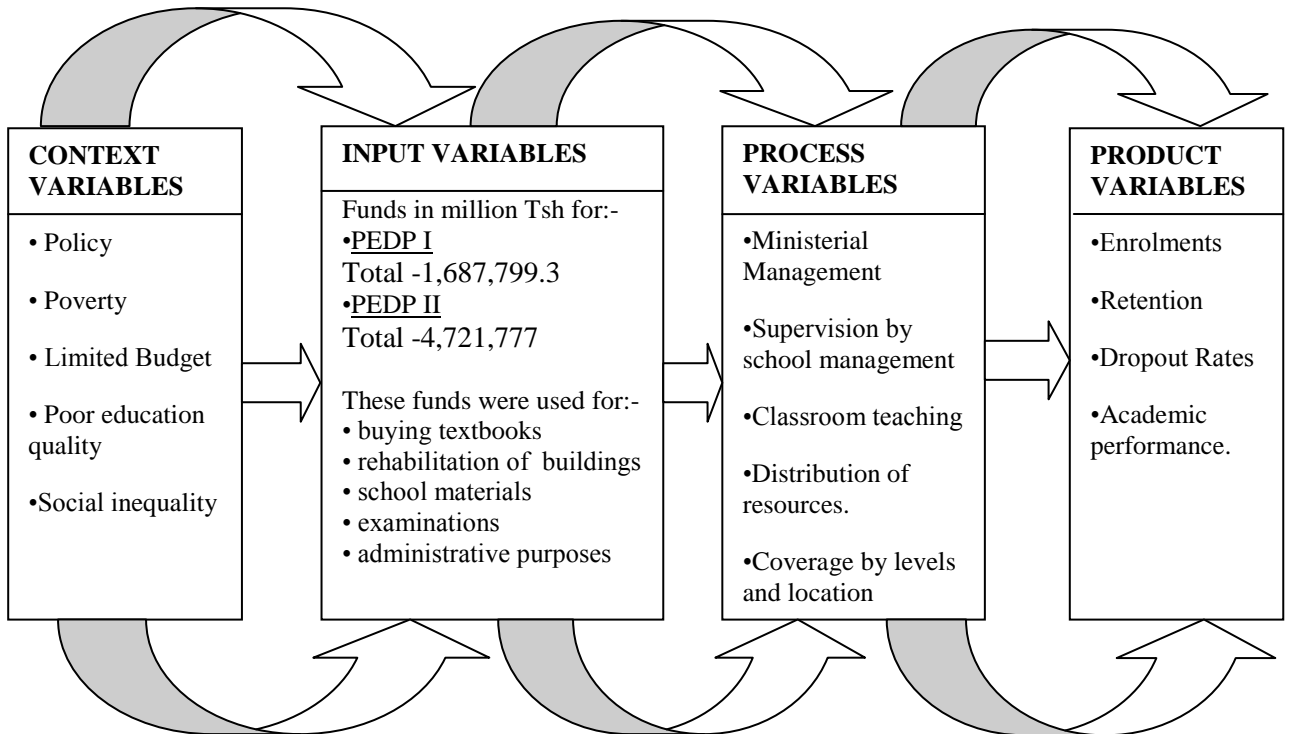


Figure 1.2 : Conceptual Framework for the Study

Source: Adapted from Stufflebeam (2003).

In this research, consideration was taken onto improved Stufflebeam's CIPP model (2003), which is useful to be applied in evaluating an education programme(s). The CIPP evaluation model (Figure 1.3) is a framework for conducting evaluations of developed programmes, implemented projects and their products, institutions, personnel, and evaluation systems (Stufflebeam, 2003). The Stufflebeam's (2003) CIPP Model was designed to assist administrators in making informed decisions and it was a familiar used evaluation method in educational settings (Fitzpatrick *et. al.*, 2011).



Figure 1.3 : Components of Stufflebeam’s (2003) CIPP Model.

Source: Stufflebeam (2003).

The *context evaluation* stage of the CIPP Model assists in decision-making related to planning and makes the assessor to identify needs for programme, available assets and resources of society so as to present programmes that would be valuable (Fitzpatrick *et. al.*, 2012; Mertens and Wilson, 2012). Context evaluation also recognizes the political situation that could persuade programme achievement (Mertens and Wilson, 2012). To achieve this, the evaluator has to collect and evaluate previous information and has to interview programme leaders and its stakeholders. In addition, in order to make evaluation effective, key stakeholders are recognized as well as assessment of programme goals is undertaken together with data collection from related programme reports (Fitzpatrick *et. al.*, 2011). Therefore, in this study, the context evaluation stage focused on the policy developed by the government to deal with inequality and poor

education provision as well as poverty of population, which may have a bearing on the implementation of PEDP.

In the *input evaluation* stage, information is collected, which focuses on plan, goals and mission of the programme. Its purpose is to assess the programme's strategy and work plan on their merit as well as demerit and against research, the responsiveness of the programme to requirements of client, and other strategies used in similar programmes (Mertens and Wilson, 2012). The main aim of this stage is to select a good strategy to be used in implementation so as to solve the identified problems of the programme (Fitzpatrick *et. al.*, 2011). In input evaluation stage of the programme, the government planned and set out goals as well as mission, which were to be met as well as achieved through funds allocations. As shown in Figure 1.2, it was indicated that in PEDP I, the government allocated 1,687,799.3 Tanzanian shillings and in PEDP II, a total Tanzanians shillings mounting to 4,721,777 were spent.

The *Process evaluation* stage investigates the quality in the programme implementation. In this stage, programme activities have to be monitored as well as put in documentation and its progress has to be assessed by the evaluator (Fitzpatrick *et. al.*, 2011; Mertens and Wilson, 2012). Primary aims of this stage are to provide feedback, which highlights how far the planned events were carried out, give guidelines to staff on the way to modify and lead improvement to the programme's plan, and finally, to evaluate the degree participants can accomplish with regard to their roles (Stufflebeam, 2003). In PEDP I and II, the government decided to involve the Ministry of Education and

management of primary schools to distribute resources to pupils and schools as per their geographical locations including their schools' coverage (URT, 2001; URT 2004).

Product evaluation explores the negative and positive results of the programme, which fall upon its target audience (Mertens and Wilson, 2012), evaluating both the intended outcomes and unintended outcomes (Stufflebeam, 2003). In this evaluation stage, both short-term outcomes and long-term outcomes are also judged. It should be noted that during this stage, analysis is done according to judgments of stakeholders and the relevant experts by focusing to outcomes that affect the whole group, subgroups, and an individual person. In applying a mixture of methodological techniques, they guarantee all results that are identified and help in confirming evaluation results (Mertens and Wilson, 2012; Stufflebeam, 2003). In view of this study, product evaluation involved enrolment, retention, dropout and academic performance of pupils during programme implementation.

Finally, *core values* play the central role in evaluation because they enable the evaluator to arrive at objective evaluative claims. The term *value* refers to the range of ideas held by society, group or an individual. Core values might derive from somewhere outside the purview of inspection or challenge, such as from client's values or politician or developer's values, or they might be jointly derived (Stufflebeam, 2003). In context of this study, core values are all questions which were sparking in stakeholders' minds, for instance, questions on achievement of programmes' objectives, use of allocated funds to assist in improving quality of education in the country, and roles of the programmes in

helping children with disabilities to learning. Finally, Stufflebeam (2003) suggests that all evaluations should begin with clear articulation of core values, which are related with any developed programme or found solution.

1.11 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organized in six chapters. Chapter one provides the problem and its context, while chapter two presents literature review. Chapter three is about research methodology. Chapter four provides research results, while chapter five presents discussion of results. Finally, chapter six provides summary, conclusion, and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction to the Chapter

This chapter provides Literature Review related to the study. The chapter is composed of the following sections: educational reforms in Tanzania since independence, primary education development programmes and enrolment of pupils, primary education development programmes and enrolment trends, primary education development programmes and dropout trends, primary education development programmes and pupils' academic performance, differential impacts of reforms in education, and lastly chapter summary and the research gap.

2.2 Educational Reforms in Tanzania Since Independence

Soon after becoming independent in 1961, Mainland Tanzania (then Tanganyika) made deliberate changes in the education system so that it could respond to her aspiration of becoming self-reliant and progressive. In 1967, **Education for Self-Reliance** (ESR) was introduced (Nyerere, 1967). The policy emphasized on a close link between theory and practice in education, to develop among learners' knowledge, skills and attitudes, which would help them to liberate themselves from poverty, fight against ignorance as well as diseases, and later on, to bring about political and economic freedom (Omari *et. al.*, 1983; Osaki, 2002). In 1974, **Universal Primary Education** (UPE) was formally embraced through adoption of the Musoma Resolution (Omari *et. al.*, 1983; Omari and Moshia, 1987; Malekela, 2003). The resolution made the government of Tanzania to

abolish school fees so as to raise enrolment to reach UPE goals (Omari and Mosha, 1987). Such government move to offer free primary education was a decision adopted by many developing countries to remove tuition fee to their children (World Bank and UNICEF, 2009). From mid-1980s to 1990s, the government introduced a macro-policy, which emphasized on privatization and economic liberalization, increased role of the private sector, provision of essential resources to priority areas, increased investment in infrastructure including the social sector and introduction of cost-sharing measures to social services (Mbelle, 2001). Such changes necessitated review and restructuring of the education system such that they led to formulation of **Education and Training Policy** (ETP) of 1995 (URT, 1995).

In order to put the policy into operation, the Ministry of Education introduced **Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP)** in 1997 for the purpose of addressing problems and issues in the education system (URT, 2008). It derived its objectives from the ETP of 1995 and was a national plan put forward with intention of achieving educational goals as articulated in **Tanzania's Development Vision 2025, Education for All (EFA)** and **Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)** (MoEC, 2001).

From ESDP, more operational plans had been developed for each education level. They included Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) from 2002 to 2006 (URT, 2001), Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) from 2004 to

2009 and Folk Education Development Programme (FEDP) from 2007 to 2011 (URT, 2008). The second programme (PEDP II) continued from 2007 to 2011 (URT, 2004).

2.3 Primary Education Development Programmes and Enrolment of Pupils

In 2000s, the world experienced rapid increases in enrolment for both boys and girls in primary schools because school fees were abolished in many countries and there were roles taken by MDG and EFA agendas to stress strongly on access of pupils in primary schools. Such emphasis led to primary school enrolments to rise significantly across the world (World Bank and UNICEF, 2009). For example, in 2005, there were 689 million children enrolled in primary school worldwide, but among them, 27 percent were in East Asia and the Pacific (UNGEI, 2008). Many countries around the world made deliberate efforts to ensure that children had to be enrolled in primary schools in order to meet EFA agenda. In this chapter, literature review addresses on not only about undertaken PEDP aspects in Tanzania but also to examines other initiatives taken with other counties to ensure that children were enrolled for studies.

In developing countries like Tanzania, there are many problems, which thwart children from accessing basic education. The problems are caused by the following two factors: school factors and household factors. School factors mostly include poor school infrastructure together with materials like scarcity of desks, which cause children to sit on the floors, shortage of latrines that cause children with disabilities and adolescent girls feel uncomfortable when they are at schools, poor qualified teachers who make studies difficult, shortage of teaching and learning materials that lead to poor learning

and overcrowded classrooms that cause uncomfortable situations to learners (Ananga, 2010; Colclough *et. al.*, 2000; Sabates *et. al.*, 2010). On other hand, household factors include socio-cultural beliefs and direct as well as opportunity costs of schooling (Tietjen, Prather and IDCA, 1991). On school factors, scholars view that if it happens that in certain locations schools are scarce in that area and/or even available schools were built afar from places of residence, usually they force children to walk long distances to school even make children with disabilities to dislike going to school (Ananga, 2010; Sabates *et. al.*, 2010). Hence, such situations cause some parents decide not to send their children to school. But for schools, which have poorly qualified teachers or lack textbooks, parents possibly would decide not to enroll their children in such schools (Ananga, 2010). But if it happens that children are enrolled, then there is a risk of children to dropout from school since schooling would become less interesting due to lack of teaching -learning materials or such schools have incompetent teachers (Colclough *et. al.*, 2000; Sabates *et. al.*, 2010).

It should be noted that school factors causing barriers to children to access primary education can always be under government control. In order to achieve all these, the government needs to finance and organize primary education. For the government to terminate all barriers, it is supposed to build good schools, provide teaching and learning resources and deploy well trained teachers. In due regard, the major aim of government to finance education in developing countries is to deal with factors, which prevent the poor and marginalized children from going to school.

With reference to the presented situation, it can be stressed that financing of education is inevitable in developing countries. Tanzania as one among developing countries was enforced to finance education through implementation of PEDP programmes (I and II). In so doing, enrolment in primary schools was realized. In the said programmes, it was found that more children were enrolled in schools than ever before (Davidson, 2004). Before 1990 and 1999, net enrolment ratios (NER) in primary education were 54.2 and 57 percent, respectively (URT, 2005), but with financing of education through PEDP in year 2002, net enrolment rates rose to 96.1 percent and 95.9 percent in the year 2004 and 2009, respectively (Mushi *et. al.*, 2008; MoEC, 2006; URT, 2005).

Mushi *et. al.*, (2008) investigated the impact of Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) on enrolment, particularly on increased Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) in three regions, namely, Kilimanjaro, Rukwa and Lindi. Findings from the study indicated that both GER and NER recorded sharp increase after inception of PEDP. The GER increased from 84 percent in 2001 to 112.7 percent in 2006, indicating that many children who had not been enrolled in school at the right age (i.e., at age 7) were enrolled after PEDP. The NER increased by 26 points –from 65.5 percent in 2001 to 96.1 in 2006 - imply that many school-age children were in school. The two councils in each region - rural and urban councils - were selected for study whereby in each selected region's worst performing district at the beginning of PEDP and after PEDP was identified for study (Mushi *et. al.*, 2008). Hence, Rombo for Kilimanjaro, Sumbawanga Rural for Rukwa, and Lindi Rural for Lindi Region were selected as case studies (URT, 2006b). Unfortunately, the enrolment of children with

disabilities and out of school children (children aged 11-13 years and disadvantaged children of 7-13 years old from pastoralist Communities, street children and orphans) were not included the study.

Mushi *et. al.*, (2012) conducted another study, which aimed at making evaluation of the impact of the Second Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP II) 2007 – 2011. The study covered six advantaged and disadvantaged regions, which were Shinyanga, Manyara, Kigoma, Tanga, Pwani and Mtwara. In the mentioned regions, the study identified twelve councils for study, namely, Shinyanga urban, Babati, Kigoma Urban Tanga Urban Kibaha, Mtwara Urban, Kahama, Lushoto, Kiteto, Mkuranga, Kibondo and Newala. Selection included six schools from each district picked randomly from stratified sub-populations of schools on the basis of performance in enrolment and pass rates (Mushi *et. al.*, 2012). Data regarding students' school enrolment indicated that Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) declined from 112.7 percent during PEDP I baseline (2006) to 102.7 in 2011 as well as decreased in NER. The decline in GER was clearly shown in 2006 to 2011 enrolment in primary schools, where it grew by about 5 percent, from 7,959,884 to 8,363,386, which was an average of only 1 percent growth per year (Mushi *et. al.*, 2012). The same trend was indicated in the URT (2014) report whereby the GER and NER fell from 110.5 and 95.9 in 2009 to 98.4 and 92.0 in 2012 and to 96.2 and 89.7 in 2013, respectively, indicating that proportionally, there were fewer children in schools than before. The problem was much worse in Kigoma Region whereby, for example, 27 out of every 100 school going age children (7 to 13) were not enrolled in schools (Mushi *et. al.*, 2012).

Moreover in Uganda, Deininger (2003) studied the impact of the government to eliminate school fees on schooling costs to enhance enrolment of poor pupils. At the end of the study, the following conclusions emerged: the programme that made the government of Uganda to eliminate school fees – during **Universal Primary Education** (UPE) - led to an increase of primary education attainment by the poor and other disadvantaged population groups, such as female and children with disabilities (Deininger, 2003). The UPE reduced the existing gaps of attaining education between the rich and poor families in Uganda (Deininger, 2003). However, in the study, it was found that the increase in number of pupils in the schools resulted to two consequences. First, it caused an increase in costs of running secondary and tertiary education because the two education levels had to receive many students who completed their studies under umbrella of government to eliminate school fees in primary education. Second, it led to classes to have many pupils and hence, it increased the problem of pupil to teacher ratio. Furthermore, it was found that the increase in enrolments of pupils was not done in proportional to growth in the number of qualified teachers in schools. Such phenomena led to problems of provision of quality education at expense of quantity. In conclusion, the study revealed that the programme was effective in increasing the number of pupils in education although, on other side, there was a need to develop policies to ensure quality in education provision (Deininger, 2003).

In Kenya, the study showed that there was a programme of providing free education to all pupils at primary education level. A study carried out by Mbaabu (1983) revealed that before the programme implementation, many schools faced lack of physical

facilities, teaching and learning materials, equipment and tools for science subjects. They were among major problems that primary school head teachers faced in Kenya (Mbaabu, 1983). The study revealed that introduction of free education at primary education level led to many problems such as over-enrolment, lack of physical facilities and inadequate teachers. The study found out that in most schools, pupils were overcrowded in their classes to the extent that one class could have over 50 children (Mbaabu, 1983). With all these findings, researcher failed to give out solutions of what to be done in order to tackle the problem identifies of lack of instructional learning materials which public learning institutions were facing in Kenya.

At the same time, Lloyd *et. al.*, (1998) conducted a study closely similar to the study by Mbaabu. This study focused on estimating effects of free education to provision of quality education and attainment of girls and boys. Findings from the study revealed that girls were less likely to enroll in schools than boys. Moreover, it was found out that girls who delayed enrolment were less likely to obtain high education qualifications or obtained them at late times (Lloyd *et. al.*, 1998). The study further found that parents' education background had a greater effect on children's attainment of education than lack of quality (Lloyd *et. al.*, 1998). Therefore, from this study, it is learnt that in any programme, which intends to raise the enrolment of pupils sometimes, there might be some negative effects to learners apart from having positive impacts.

Apart from the impact found in education as a result of financing done by governments in their primary schools, family income, according to Escarce (2003), had also a strong

influence on providing education opportunities to children and even on their chances of realising education achievements. Escarce (2003) found that due to residential stratification and segregation, students from low-income families attended schools with lower funding levels. Such situation forced them to reduce achievement motivation and led them into much higher risk of failure in educational (Escarce, 2003) When they were compared with their more prosperous colleagues, such children from low income families seemed to receive lower passes, obtained low scores on standardization and even they were on verge of likely to drop out from schools (Escarce, 2003).

In Egypt, Dancer and Rammohan (2004) studied determinants of schooling, which included gender analysis and their location, either urban or rural. Results from the study showed that the child's gender and location, either living in rural or urban, were important factors that affected their schooling (Dancer and Rammohan, 2004). The study further showed that to be female in rural areas had a negative impact on school attainment, whilst to be male, in both rural and urban areas, had a positive effect on enrolment and attainment (Dancer and Rammohan, 2004). They also found that school enrolment and performance among female-headed households were very poor in both rural and urban areas (Dancer and Rammohan, 2004). However, results from the study by Dancer and Rammohan were in contrast with findings from studies conducted in Tanzania by Al-Samarrai and Peasgood (1998). Al-Samarrai and Peasgood (1998) found that in female-headed households, girls tended to have higher enrolment rates. However, they (Al-Samarrai and Peasgood, 1998) found the same results for other

variables like urban residence (where households are headed by either female or male) to have positive impact on school enrolments.

2.4 Primary Education Development Programmes and Enrolment Trends

In Tanzania, the impact of PEDP I on enrolment of Adult Education or Non-Formal Education was viewed in three groups: Cohort I, which included children aged from 11 to 13 years and disadvantaged children 7 to 13 years old from pastoralist communities, street children and out of reach children. Cohort II involved youth aged 14 to 18 years old and Cohort III combined all people aged 19+ years old known as adults (Mushi *et. al.*, 2008). In PEDP II, Mushi *et. al.*, (2012) reported that a specialized NFE Programme, Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET), aimed at mainstreaming Cohort I into formal education while it allowed Cohort II to take the PSLE for skills enhancing reasons at work places. Cohort III was mainly targeted for literacy and communication skills for community development and was to be delivered through Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE) (Mushi *et. al.*, 2012).

Before PEDP implementation, the government through the UNESCO Salamanca Framework of Action for Special Needs of 1994 decided to make sure that all special needs children are enrolled and attended primary school in nearby communities so as to promote inclusive education UNESCO (1994). But during PEDP I, there was minimal enrolment of children with disabilities. Mushi *et. al.*, (2008) reported that among children who were attending school in 2006, 0.24 percent of them were children with disabilities, which was far below the Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza

Umaskini Tanzania (MKUKUTA) target of 20 percent of children with disabilities to attend school by 2010. The study observed that children with disabilities in rural areas had to continue to be out of school for an unforeseeable future (Mushi *et. al.*, 2008). In regard to PEDP II, the study by Mushi *et. al.*, (2012) indicated that there were considerable numbers of primary schools, around 46.2 percent, which had disabled pupils in their communities. At the same time, the study identified the proportion of schools having facilities to be disabled friendly was rather low at 2 percent (Mushi *et. al.*, 2012).

2.5 Primary Education Development Programmes and Dropout Trends

There were considerable inter-country variations in survival rates at the primary education level, globally. It was learnt that many school age children were enrolled in primary schools, but their attendances were irregular or sometimes they dropped out from schools completely (UNESCO, 2012). For example, in 2009, among the world's 650 million children of primary school age enrolled for studies, it was estimated that 120 million of them did not reach the fourth grade and only 59 percent of pupils in low-income countries reached the last school grade (UNESCO, 2012). In Tanzania, in 2012, it was identified that 55,302 children dropped out from school before completing their primary school education, 12,021 of them in standard one (URT, 2014).

According to different scholars, there are many factors, which cause children to dropout from studies. In many developing countries especially those found in Africa, studies indicated that children of primary school age were required to work on family farms and

hence, such aspect caused them to dropout from schools (Todaro, 1997; Adu, 2007). While that was happening, such children at the same time were required to be at schools for studies. But if it happened that children could not work in farms because they were schooling, many families either experienced loss of important subsistence harvest or were entailed to hire paid labour (Todaro, 1997).

The study by Brown (1980) indicated that some children were withdrawn from schools by parents in rural areas to assist them in household chores. The study identified household chores to be caring for younger children, to accompany parents to hospital or public gatherings, to collect firewood, to fetch water and to care for sick relatives. It was revealed that the girl child usually did most of such works but even boys are used to perform the said tasks (Brown, 1980). Such trends affect children's education to an extent of dropping out from school due to constant absenteeism (Wanjiru, 2007). The different roles, which boy and girl children are given at home affect usually girls' performance in schools. The mentioned factors lead girls to have less time to do supplementary reading at homes than boys (Wamahiu, Opondo and Nyagah, 1992).

Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1997) found that children from poor families were kept out of school because their families needed additional incomes that they had to generate. Some families were so poor such that they could not afford to hire labour. Hence, such families decided to use their children as labourers. Effects of girls to drop out from schools were so huge to them compared to boys (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1997). Wanyoike (2003) stated that some students who dropout of school especially girl pupils

end up in early marriages and prostitution. However, survey carried out among Samburu communities in Kenya indicated that girls were forced to early marriage at a tender age of 13 years. They had no option. For example, threats of curses that befell those who refused to get married made it difficult for girls to resist early marriages. Some continued with schooling after marriage but when they got pregnant, they had to quit from school (Wanyoike, 2003).

Adu (2007) observed that child labour was widespread in tea and coffee growing areas found in Meru, Embu and Meru North, Kenya. However, the situation affects both boys and girls, depending on family status. Lack of economic alternatives in the labour market was a factor that influenced girls and boys to dropout from school early (Adu, 2007). Some studies indicated that many girls perceived marriage as an escape from family poverty (Wamahiu, Opondo and Nyagah, 1992). Girls sometimes opted to go and worked as housekeepers so as to raise money for their brothers' education (Wanjiru, 2007).

A study done by Wanjiru (2007) in Mombasa, Kenya on factors contributing to school drop out in public schools revealed that 52.4 percent of respondents valued boys' education better than that of girls. Families, which cannot easily afford to send both sons and daughters to school usually, choose to send boys at expenses of girls (Wanjiru, 2007) The situation makes girls to leave their parents on getting married and therefore, their education is seen as a financial asset to the in-laws rather than blood relatives (UNESCO, 2002). With reference to such situation, the study sought to establish how

reforms assisted poor families to ensure that their children stayed at schools without dropping out from schools, regardless of their gender.

In Tanzania, a study done by Mushi *et. al.*, (2008) reported that the dropout rate was a common phenomenon where it was reported to decrease from 4 percent in 2001-02 to 3.4 percent in 2006, but the highest incidence of dropout occurred in Standards IV to V. However, the dropout rate had leveled off at 3.4 percent in the 2005/2006 years (URT, 2006b). At the same time, ESDP (2009) reported that dropout rates fluctuated a bit in the range of 3.2 percent in 2003 to 3.7 percent in 2008. Furthermore, the dropout rate from standards IV to V showed significant declines, where it dropped from 13 percent (2001) to 5 percent (2004) but the study did not indicate variation of data in rural-urban communities (Mushi *et. al.*, 2008). The top three reasons cited for dropping out according to the Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST), were truancy, pregnancy, and death, with truancy accounting for 77 percent of the total dropout rate in 2005-2006 (URT, 2006a, Chart 2.4).

In addition, Lloyd *et. al.*, (1998) found that school fees and trained teachers were variables that were significant to girls' dropouts and school progress. Increasing material resources reduced the probability of girls dropping out. Moreover, on other side unfavorable school environments were variables which discouraged school attendance to girls. Therefore, from presented findings from the studies, the research had to be done to see how PEDP implementation also reduced dropout of children from studies.

2.6 Primary Education Development Programmes and Pupils' Academic

Performance

The aim of PEDP was to ensure that academic performances were improved through making sure that existing teachers effectively taught, classrooms used more effectively, new teachers recruited and new classrooms constructed (Carr-Hill and Ndalichako, 2005). In addition, they had to ensure that they had to use capitation grants for buying books and other teaching and learning resources so as to attain pupils' good performance (Carr-Hill and Ndalichako, 2005).

In this section, presentation is done through various studies to see how investments of education may relate and offer their impacts, whether or not they can improve pupils' academic performance. This was done through making comparison of what was done in other countries with reference to what was done under PEDP in primary education in Tanzania.

Lyons (2002) stated that, "Learning is a complex activity that puts students' motivation and physical condition to the test" (pg. 10). For a long time, it had been assumed that curriculum and teaching have an impact on learning. However, in recent years, it has become highly apparent that the physical condition of schools can influence students' achievement. What can be concluded here is that academic performance can be affected by several factors, which may include socio-economic status and school background.

According to the Cambridge University Reporter (2003), academic performance is normally defined in terms of a learner's performance in examination results. In due

regard, academic performance in this study was characterized by pupils' performance in Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE). Pupils' performance can be affected by their geographical locations of their area of study whereby being in either rural or urban affects their examination results (Felder, Mohr, Dietz and Ward, 1994; Tremblay, Nancy and Berthelot, 2001; Kolcic, 2006).

Felder, Mohr, Dietz and Ward (1994) carried out a study on differences of academic performances between students from 55 rural schools and 65 urban schools. In their study, differences in academic performance were observed and results from the study found that urban students appeared to do better on almost every measure investigated than rural students. They concluded that urban students enjoy greater success than rural students that made them to perform better. They also found that urban students surpassed rural students in every measure of scholastic aptitude examined. The conclusion by Felder, Mohr, Dietz and Ward (1994) was confirmed by Tremblay, Nancy and Berthelot (2001) in their study on factors affecting grade three students' performances in Ontario, Canada. These authors found that students' performance was higher in urban schools than in rural schools.

The same idea was identified by Kolcic (2006) in his study that investigated academic performance of medical students from urban and rural backgrounds. Findings from the study (Kolcic, 2006) led to conclude that students who lived in urban areas had better academic achievements than children who were living and studying in rural schools with rural backgrounds. In his study, he also found that more than half of students with rural backgrounds failed examinations at least in their first year of study (Kolcic, 2006).

Graetz (1995) found that students' success in education usually depends very largely on their parents' socio-economic status. Considine and Zappala (2002) further said that in families where parents are socially, economically and educationally advantaged, they tended to facilitate a high performance in learning for their children. The researcher concurs with Considine and Zappala (2002) since students who belong to high socio-economic backgrounds are able to access sound educational materials, which help to develop their intellect abilities (Graetz (1995). Sentamu (2003), Kwesiga (2002) and Portes and Macleod (1996 cited in Considine and Zappala, 2002) all agreed that students' good academic performance was influenced by the type of school which students attended.

Cheers (1990) argued that students who were living in non-metropolitan areas were more expected to have poor education outcomes in retention rates and academic performance than to students coming from metropolitan areas. It was further stated that unfairness found on education quality revealed by students from rural areas was because of being involved in paying costs for education, having restricted subject choice and limited one, low income levels of their families to support them and availability of poor education facilities in their schools (Cheers, 1990)

Results from the study by Lee and McIntire (2001) were contrary to results from the study conducted by Kolcic (2006) as well as Considine and Zappala (2002). In the said studies (Kolcic, 2006; Considine and Zappala, 2002), it was found that there was distinction between students' performance studying in rural schools and those studying

in urban schools. In their study (Lee and McIntire, 2001), which focused on differences of students' achievement in either rural or urban and studying conditions in various states, they learnt that performance of many students in rural areas was poor and usually they used to attend in schools, which had few resources and even offered limited courses to them. The findings revealed that achievement of their academic performance compared to urban students' academic performance was good. They further discovered that in other states, there were some students from rural areas who scored higher marks than their counterparts from non-rural areas (Lee and McIntire, 2001).

Tansel (2002) investigated determinants of schooling in Turkey, using individual, household and community characteristics as explanatory variables. It was disclosed that household income was a significant variable for schooling and it had more impact on girls' education than on boys' education. It was observed that increasing education of parents would lead to an increase in probability of children reaching higher education levels (Tansel, 2002). Such impact was greater for girls than boys. In addition, employment of parents' status was also an important determinant of schooling. It was further observed that if parents are self-employed, it reduces the probability of their children reaching middle and higher education levels (Tansel, 2002).

This fact can be explained by opportunity cost of parents sending children to school instead of letting them help in the business in order to improve household income. Another factor that is important to children's education in Turkey is location of the household. Urban households have more opportunities for education than rural

households (Tansel, 2002). Children in rural areas have to walk long distances to reach schools and this is especially true for middle and higher education levels because there are fewer such schools (Tansel, 2002).

Wößmann (2001) did a study on relationship between investments in education expenditure and results Trends in International Mathematics and Science Studies (TIMMS). He found that differences in education expenditure did not explain differences in education performance. Moreover, resources and school performance were independent of each other (Wößmann, 2001). In his regression, considering average middle school tests, he found that financial resources, human resources and organizational resources explained 16 percent of variations in pupils' performance.

In United States of America (USA), Sander (1999) did a survey study on relationship between endogenous expenditures and pupils' achievement in Illinois, USA. Firstly, the researcher (Sander, 1999) found out that an increase in expenditure per pupil had a low impact on the pupil's performance. Secondly, the researcher noted that an increase in teacher's salary had a low impact on pupils' achievement. Also Metzger (2003) while studying data from school districts of Oklahoma in USA used school and non-school inputs like socio-economic status, district structure and expenditure per pupil. He (Metzger, 2003) also found that an increase in human and monetary resources did not have an impact on school's performance. From the study, it appeared that the relationship between resources and pupils' performance remained unexplained in the United States of America.

Hanushek (1995) conducted a study on education inputs like class size, teachers' experience, teachers' education and schools' facilities. Hanushek (1995) summarized ninety-six studies on the relationship between educational inputs and pupils' outcomes in developing countries. Results from the study (Hanushek, 1995) disclosed that class size did not have a great impact on schools' performance. Moreover, the study (Hanushek, 1995) revealed that the effect of teacher's experience was not very important for educational outcomes, although teachers' education had a positive contribution to improving pupils' performance. Other important factors identified in the study (Hanushek, 1995) were school facilities that were infrastructure and learning materials, which had a positive and significant impact on schooling outputs.

Colclough and Al-Samarrai (2000) managed to analyze public expenditure in education, using references from Sub-Saharan and South Asian countries. The study showed that an increase in school enrolment was directly related to public expenditure on education. However, Colclough and Al-Samarrai (2000) stated that it was important to achieve quality in an education system rather than quantity. Moreover, it was stressed that concentration on efficiency of resource usage was crucial to achieve better performance (Colclough and Al-Samarrai, 2000).

Wößmann and Gundlach (2001) also studied the relationship between resources invested in education and their effects on pupils' performance over time (15 to 25 years) in selected East Asian countries. Findings from the study led to conclude that an increase in education expenditure did not have a significant impact on schooling performance

(Wößmann and Gundlach, 2001) Therefore, Wößmann and Gundlach (2001) concluded that schools were not economically efficient in transforming resources into educational outcomes.

In China, research was done to find on the relationship between resources and performance, where Lai (2004) used random assignment to study the impact of resource differentially. The study showed that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between an increase in resources and education outcomes (Lai, 2004). From presented evidence and others reported in this study, one can conclude that school resources matter in the Chinese education system in the sense that resources are important to improve the quality of schools, particularly schools' performance. However in this study, there were need of provoking concerns regarding teachers' excessive workloads and unsystematic informal training sessions for raising school's performance.

Another study by Van der Berg and Burger (2003) addressed questions of resources allocation and efficiency problem in the South African education system. They studied the relationship which existed between education delivery to pupils and socio-economic differentials in the Western Cape, a province of South Africa. They used school fees, pupil-teacher ratios, as well as teacher quantity and teacher salary as proxies for socio-economic background, pupil-teacher ratios as well as teacher quality respectively. These input variables played an important role in explaining differentials performance in education as evidenced in schools in Western Cape. According to their results, they stressed that resources mattered but an efficient use of resources was necessary to achieve expected outcomes (Van der Berg and Burger, 2003).

In Ghana, Lavy (1996) studied school supply constraints and children's education outcomes in rural Ghana. Results from the study showed that limited access to secondary school had a negative impact on achievement of education goals (Lavy, 1996). It was identified that pupils in rural areas who finished primary schools did not enroll in secondary schools because the schools were far away from their homes. Therefore, if children wanted to continue with schooling, they had to travel long distances or pay for transportation. This represented a great constraint on the household since they failed to manage transport costs. The study showed that children's performance who travelled long distance to go to school was low (Lavy, 1996). Lavy (1996) concluded that distance from school was an important variable for schooling outcomes. This emphasizes the significance of improving not only the quality of primary schools but also the access and the quality of higher-order schools. Another important finding from the study was that quality of education played an important role in educational outcomes (Lavy, 1996). In due regard, provision of facilities from infrastructure to teaching materials was important to so as to increase educational attainment in rural Ghana (Lavy, 1996).

Parents' socio-economic status, which results from their education levels, income status and occupation, are related to students' academic performance. The studies by Jeynes, (2002); McMillan and Western, (2000); Hansen and Mastekaasa (2003) and Owens (1999) confirm that good academic performance of students is greatly relying on parents' socio-economic status. What is explained here is that students from high socio-economic backgrounds usually perform much better than those from low socio-

economic backgrounds. This notion was maintained by Dills (2006) as well as Hansen and Mastekaasa (2006) who agreed that the same notion that cultural capital theory could lead students from families who have backgrounds to the academic culture to have the greatest success in academic achievements.

It should be understood that a household's socio-economic status was established by putting together one's parents' education, their income level and occupational status (Jeynes, 2002; McMillan and Western, 2000). In many researches done on students' academic performance, it was identified that parents' socio-economic status was one of the contributing factors in predicting students' academic performance.

Hansen and Mastekaasa (2003) reported that students from families who had background to academic culture/learning behaviour were expected to earn the greatest success in academic performance. It was thought that low socio-economic status negatively affected students' academic achievement by hindering their access to important resources required in learning and created frustrations when they were at home (Eamon, 2005; Jeynes, 2002). Graetz (1995) conducted a study on socio-economic status and related it with educational research as well as policy where from results it was concluded that socio-economic background continued to be one of the main causes of educational inequality and that students' success in education depended very largely on parents' socio-economic status.

Considine and Zappala (2002) agreed with Graetz (1995) that parents' socio-economic status had an influence on students' academic performance in Australia because parents

were advantaged socially, educationally and economically. Such parents' status made students acquire a higher level of academic achievement. They also learnt that such parents even provided psychological support to their children through facilitation of conducive environments for learning that encouraged development of learning skills mostly required for good performance at school (Considine and Zappala; 2002). Many may have home libraries too.

Escarce (2003) had the same opinion with Combs (1985) and Sentamu's (2003) ideas who argued that a school with students expected to attend were determined by socio-economic class of their parents and also presented the possibility on children's performance in their examinations. Considine and Zappala (2002) further argued that children from low income families were expected to have inferior performance levels in literacy, comprehension and innumeracy. Also such children faced poor retention trends, displayed behavior problem while at school, and were expected to face a lot of complications in their studies and hence, they had to show great negative attitudes to schooling (Considine and Zappala, 2002).

Sentamu (2003) argued that in rural and urban families where parents were either illiterate or had inadequate education, they did not seem to consider home study for their children a priority and that they did not foster a study culture in their children. The reason was that such parents did not attend school or education they had was inadequate to create the said awareness to children. Such discrepancies found in home literacy were likely to affect pupils' achievement (Sentamu, 2003).

Jeynes (2002), Eamon (2005), Graetz (1995), Considine and Zappala (2002), and Hansen and Mastekaasa (2003) cited that students' academic performance relied much on their socio-economic status backgrounds and that there was need to theorize on the way such academic performance was affected by their parents' socio-economic status. It should be further noted that students from low socio-economic backgrounds usually score lower examination results than their counterparts from high socio-economic backgrounds (Eamon, 2005).

Considine and Zappala (2002) Kwesiga (2002) as well as Sentamu (2003) maintain the idea that previous background of pupils' school, which was idealized in their former school locations (either urban or rural); former school ownership (public or private); and academic as well as financial status of the former school were linked with students' academic performance. It was argued that they were the types of schools, which students had to attend so as to promote their future academic performance as reported by Considine and Zappala (2002), Kwesiga (2002), and Sentamu (2003).

From the presented literature review, it can be concluded that pupils' academic performance depends much on different interrelated factors, which, in one way or another, contribute to their performances. Different scholars have come with different findings, which show that the pupil's decision to attain good academic performance does not depend on unique factors.

Besides, other findings showed that to join lower secondary education is compulsory in approximately 80 percent of countries in the world and the transition to secondary

education needs to be ensured in those countries. The transition rates are 95 percent and above in most countries in the following three regions: Central and Eastern Europe, Central Asia, and North America and Western Europe (UNESCO, 2011b). The notable exception is Israel with a transition rate of 70 percent (UNESCO, 2011b).

The transition from primary to secondary schools mainly depends on the pass rate of pupils in their primary school examinations. For Tanzania in the year 2005, the pass rate for the PSLE was 61.8 percent, up substantially from 48.7 percent in 2004 (URT, 2006a). It was learnt that the transition from primary schools to secondary schools in year 2007 dropped from 56.7 percent to almost 50 percent in year 2009 (URT, 2010). That was possibly caused by poor performance in the examination results, where performance in the primary school leaving examination (PSLE) in year 2006 declined from 70.5 percent to 49.4 percent in year 2009 (URT, 2010). The pass rates differed slightly between councils but largely among rural and urban schools. A study by Mushi *et. al.*, (2008) showed that pass rates required for males to join secondary schools had been consistently higher than pass rates required for girls. Therefore, as presented in this section, it was learnt from these studies that if any country needs to improve the academic performances of boys and girls to education in primary schools, the investments in education are inevitable.

2.7 Differential Impacts of Reforms in Education

Several studies found that implementation of reforms had differential impacts on pupils' learning in primary schools. The study by Deininger (2003) in Uganda found that

implementation of Universal Primary Education (UPE) led to reduction of cost of attending education in schools, which later on caused many pupils from poor rural families to be enrolled for studies. The study further indicated that UPE helped in reducing gender gap, which existed between enrolment for boys and girls by establishing gender equality that allowed more girls to be enrolled in primary education (Deininger, 2003). The same kind of findings were revealed in the study done by Colclough and Al-Samarrai (2000) in Sub-Saharan and South Asian countries, which indicated that increase in public expenditure on education had differential impact on school enrolments. For instance, it was indicated that absolute enrolment of pupils in South Asia increased from 48 million in 1980 to approximately 60 million (Colclough and Al-Samarrai, 2000).

The study by Lloyd *et. al.*, (1998) in Kenya showed that material inputs like total fees and provision of in-service training to teachers had noteworthy impact on pupils' performance in primary education. It was found that in each addition of 100 Kenyan shillings per student, the budget reduced the probability of girls to dropout from study by 6 percent such that it led to their chance of progressing in studies. Such pattern was also found in China, where a study by Lai (2004) showed that there was positive relationship between increase in resources and increase in education outcomes, especially learners' academic performance.

Findings on academic performance showed that many pupils from urban areas usually tended to perform better than their counterparts from rural areas as revealed by studies

of Kolcic (2006) in Croatia, Cheers (1990), and Considine and Zappala (2002) in Australia. On the contrary, findings from the study by Lee and McIntire (2001) gave different patterns whereby they indicated that pupils from rural areas tended to score better than those obtained by pupils living in urban areas. They revealed further that there were more learners from rural areas who scored higher marks than scores obtained by learners from urban areas (Lee and McIntire, 2001).

Also, there are other studies, which show impacts of reforms on their implemented communities. For instance, in some countries, apart from interventions used in promoting primary education, there was provision of life skills education to young for the purpose of preventing Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS).

In Uganda, Shuey *et. al.*, (1999) indicated that a programme, which aimed at providing standard national school health to pupils and improving educational curriculum had different effects. The programme involved young learners who were aged 13 to 14 in Soroti District. The mode of study was by involving health educators in cooperation with teachers of respective schools and applied social cognitive theory. The study disclosed that pupils who were subjected to experimental conditions were more than three times less likely to be active in sexual activities at post-test in spite of their locations/place of residences (Shuey *et. al.*, 1999). In the same study, it was even further identified that there was a significant desirable improvement in reports of sexual initiation and on having many sexual partners. More positive attitudes towards

premarital abstinence were informed amongst experimental group of participants during post-intervention phases compared to controlled group of learners. Reasons for their success in abstinence were based only on rational decision-making (Shuey *et. al.*, 1999). The study concluded that there was need for quality of delivery of the curriculum and involving in teaching strategies with sufficient quality as well as intensity in order for HIV/AIDS prevention programme to be successful in impacting on behavior (Shuey *et. al.*, 1999). That was said to be achieved well by training those involved in the programme implementation.

In Kenya, there was the study, which was undertaken in primary schools, known as the Primary School Action for Better Health [(PSABH) by Maticka-Tyndale *et. al.*, 2004]. The studied intervention was on primary school learners with age ranging between 11 and 16 years old together with teachers and people living in the same community (parents and head teachers). The major aims of the study were to evaluate knowledge, behavior, attitudes and intentions. The study exposed that a significant communication was to be reached through communication with others. The modes of abstinence applied for were based on the A, B, C, and D approach: -

A - Abstinence,

B - **B**e faithful,

C – Condom use, and

D - **D**elay.

The study found no significant changes in either abstinence level or condom use (Maticka-Tyndale *et. al.*, 2004). On the other hand, Maticka-Tyndale *et. al.*, (2004)

reported that there were significantly fewer pupils. Among those who completed the survey at the six-month evaluation stage had already started sexual activities compared to pupils who completed surveys prior to PSABH programming. The study reported a significant desirable improvement in reports of sexual initiation matters and even to number of sexual partners someone to have (Maticka-Tyndale *et. al.*, 2004).

Klepp *et. al.*, (1997) studied an intervention programme on HIV/AIDS, which was carried out amongst learners in Tanzania with an average age of 14 years. Their study, which based on the social cognitive theory showed to have different results from those reported from the study by Shuey *et. al.*, 1999 and Maticka-Tyndale *et. al.*, 2004. The study evaluated knowledge of learners, their attitudes and communication regarding AIDS together with susceptibility and use of condoms. Findings from the study recorded changes in the desired directions in all of the evaluated areas. The study noted down an important effect on subjects who were exposed to AIDS information and those who even displayed positive changes in their attitudes towards persons affected with AIDS. Moreover, communication on prevention against HIV/AIDS infection between members was found to have increased (Klepp *et. al.*, 1997).

In due regard, it can be said that studies by Klepp *et. al.*, (1997) and Shuey *et. al.*, (1999) met almost all of their set objectives with regard to changes in sexual behaviour and mainly to the number of learners initiating sexual activity as compared with studies done by Gallant and Maticka-Tyndale (2004) which involved older target groups. Gallant and Maticka-Tyndale (2004) disclosed less positive results due to the fact that participants

were older and that a large number of them had already been active in sexual activities. Therefore, such findings indicate that learners are always ready to respond to any interventions when provided to them.

2.8 Chapter Summary and the Research Gap

The discussion in this chapter has showed the roles of previous educational reforms in terms of their inputs and output for the presented experiences. The chapter started by discussing the implementation of educational reforms in the country since independence in year 1961. It was revealed that Tanzanian government initiated various educational reforms which aimed at improving education provision in primary schools. These reforms included Education for Self-Reliance in year 1967, Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1974 through the adoption of the Musoma Resolution, Education and Training Policy (ETP) in 1995 and finally Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) in 1997.

The literature reviewed also focused on the Primary Education Development Programmes on their roles to improve enrolment, retention, dropouts and performance of pupils in the country. A detailed explanation was made to look at inputs used in the education process so as to generate outcomes. The inputs in context of this study were capitation grants which directly affected school infrastructure in terms of acquiring teaching and learning materials, new employed teachers, and enrolled pupils.

The chapter reviewed other studies in terms of enrolment, retention, dropouts and performance as per their places of location (rural and urban) which were important

determinants of pupils' schooling. For example, in most of the studies that were examined in this research, findings revealed that boys were more likely than girls to enroll and attain primary education. Moreover, study indicated that children in urban areas performed better than children in rural areas. In addition to this, in most of the studies, a low household income and female headed households have a negative impact on schooling.

On the supply of teaching and learning resources, it was found that the school conditions if conducive, with reasonable class size, good teaching and learning materials, availability of effective and efficient teachers and the sufficient infrastructure conditions constituted an important incentive to pupils and motivated school attainment. Evidence from developing countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America showed that there were important variables that determined quality of education. These variables were such as material resources used in the teaching and learning processes, time spent for learning as well as school and classroom dynamics. Finally, the studies showed that availability of few schools in certain locations added up to a negative factor for school attendance. For example, in many African countries, children have to travel long distances to attend classes.

However, other evidence demonstrated that the physical presence or absence of schools is not always the main constraint to the growth of enrolment and attainment. In some cases, they found a weak relationship between the presence of schools and enrolments. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the relationship between increase of resources and variations in pupil performance is still unexplained. Hence, it is important to study

in details the impact of implementation of any programme to educational institutions and find its effects on education outcomes. In conclusion, it is clear that demand of funds which can be offered by using different names such as incentives, capitation grants, development funds etc are vital in educational performance of pupils in developing countries. Therefore, due to this notion, the study of impacts of implementing educational programmes for the case of Tanzania, were analyzed in the following chapters.

Tanzania in year 2002 introduced Primary Education Development Programmes (PEDP) which aimed at enabling poor children to get access to primary education. Despite that, the PEDP programmes existed since 2002 to 2011, but evaluations of these programmes with focus is a necessary step in the whole process, and while the outcome of the programme evaluation can definitely lead to important reviews of the programmes. This significant step of evaluating these programmes though have been done by different scholars in Tanzania (HakiElimu, 2007 and 2009; Mushi *et. al.*, 2008 and 2012; Mbelle, 2008) and in separate years, no research has been conducted separately to focus on students' enrolment, retention and academic performance of boys and girls in relation to contributions made by PEDP I and II in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District, in Morogoro Region.

Furthermore, no existing research could be located in the literature related to enrolment, retention and academic performance of boys, girls and children with disabilities living in economically different communities, more specifically to Morogoro Urban District and

Morogoro Rural District. Through conducting this study, it could also come up with strategies of providing quality education to boys and girls in the country. Thus, in order to fill these identified gaps, additional research was needed to examine the roles played by Primary Education Development Programmes (PEDPs) in rural and urban primary schools.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction to the Chapter

This chapter presents Research Methodology. The Chapter has the following sections: study paradigm, research approach, research design, geographical area of study, population of study, sample and sampling procedures, data collection methods, instrumentation for data capture, procedures for data collection, data analysis plan, reliability and validity of instruments, and ethical issues addressed.

3.2 Study Paradigm

In conducting this study, the researcher applied the positivist paradigm usually used in investigation of social reality. Positivistic thinkers apply scientific methods and organize the process of knowledge generation with support of quantification to improve accuracy in the details of parameters and the relationship existing among them. In this perspective, quantification involved coding data on enrolment, retention, dropout and achievements obtained in academic performances. Quantification of these variables helped researcher to apply statistical calculations and analyses in tables and graphs.

Therefore in this notion, positivism is involved with disclosing truth and presenting it out by applying empirical methods (Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit, 2004). The positivist research paradigm underpins quantitative methodology through data collection techniques which focuses on gathering data in the form of numbers to enable evidence to

be presented in quantitative form. The truth in positivist inquiry is presented through the verification and replication of observable findings, variable manipulations of the research objects and the application of statistical analysis (Borg and Gall, 1989). Positivists therefore, emphasize the use of valid and reliable methods in order to describe and explain the events.

3.3 Research Approach

The main approach in this study was quantitative. Although for the sake of attaining detailed information, the researcher used qualitative methods to complement the quantitative approach. This made the research problems well understood through applying these approaches rather than using a single approach (Curran and Blackburn, 2001).

Complementary research approaches are often preferred and usually provide opportunities for applying a wide range of approaches of data collection for the different objectives of the study. The approaches go well with research questions without being confined to data collection methods related to one of quantitative research approach (Creswell and Clark, 2011). The assumptions underlying complementary approaches are based on idea of qualitative to provide additional information to data obtained through quantitative, which provide a combination of views of the nature of the social world and nature of knowledge (Sandelowski, 2000). Therefore, researchers who utilize these approaches get advantages from a world view generated from social reality that includes arguments based on quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Creswell and

Clark, 2011). In some occasions, there are research questions which cannot be answered adequately by applying quantitative approaches only then qualitative to be used because each of them presents different research questions and solutions (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). For such questions to be answered well, an appropriate complementary approach design, if opted to, could provide more satisfactory answers (Creswell and Clark, 2011).

Complementary approaches give the researcher autonomy of applying additional methods to the main one that he or she feels are appropriate to a given research problem. Therefore, this approach motivates the researcher to be more comfortable and active in using procedures for inquiring, applying techniques of data collection and finally, making analysis (Creswell and Clark, 2011). An examination of the objectives of this study suggested that most of the research questions can be answered quantitatively while when it gets to interpretation and explanations of the results, you would need more qualitative approach.

This complementary approach is used because results of quantitative data provide a broad picture of the research problem while at the same time the qualitative data bring the analysis, which has been refined and explained in statistical results in depth from participants' views (Creswell and Clark, 2011). This is applied because there are some research questions that cannot be answered well using quantitative methods alone. In this view, it can be agreed that each method gives only a focused and narrow solutions to developed research questions (Creswell and Clark, 2011).

Quantitative Research Approach

Quantitative research approach is based on principles of natural sciences and therefore, relies on assumptions of an objectivist view of the social world. Objective methods of measurements are used in measurement of constructs in quantitative research. Applying assumptions to human beings means proponents of quantitative methods maintain a view in which research subjects are seen as responding to external stimuli in their environment with their behaviour as consequences of the stimuli. In due regard, it assumes human behaviour is determinate and predictable (Creswell and Clark, 2011), which is often not the case.

Often, the objective of quantitative research is to verify a theory rather than develop one by employing principles of deductive reasoning. Thus, the method is essential in increasing actions of generalizations that contribute to the development of a theory (Creswell and Clark, 2011). In Creswell's (1994) view, quantitative research generally involves collection and analysis of data using statistical procedures with an aim to determine truth or otherwise of hypotheses or theory. Research hypotheses and/or questions may often be grounded in a theoretical framework based on past studies on the topic. Tangible data such as mass, weight, counts, and other physical measurements are typically in the realm of quantitative methods (Creswell, 1994). Quantitative research often provides two research approaches, which are experimentation and survey research (Fink, 2012). Survey research entails either conducting interviews or administering research questionnaires to selected samples of respondents by means of applying sample selection procedures from a defined population where the interesting phenomenon of

research exists. In experimentation, the researcher observes the phenomenon of his or her interest, which occurs under purposefully controlled conditions (Fink, 2012). The researcher usually chooses such areas of observations from his or her interested phenomenon under intentionally controlled and manipulated conditions in experimentation (Fowler, 2009).

Generally, quantitative methods employ standardized methods, which allow for a high level of objectivity, reliability, validity and ease of replication of studies that employ the method. The method provides descriptive information about the phenomenon that is being studied (Curran and Blackburn, 2001). While usefulness of explanations of processes cannot be overstated, numerical data relating to processes are useful in filling gaps in understanding especially when powerful forms of explanations are unavailable (Creswell, 2011).

Quantitative methods have a number of disadvantages. They are based on principles of natural sciences, which have as their subject matter, physical entities that differ fundamentally from the subject matter of social science research (Creswell, 2011). Therefore, some problems arise in applying the method to human beings, which is the subject matter of social science research conditions (Creswell, 2011).

Quantitative methods have negative aspects in offering causal explanations of variables. They can offer statistical associations between variables. They may yield a relation such as variable X is associated with variable Y or occurrence of X predicts the likelihood of

Y occurring, but cannot explain why such associations occur. Also, assumptions of the method about the nature of variables measured do not hold true in the real world (Creswell, 2011). Sayer (1992) refers to assumption regarding what is being measured. For instance, in a firm manager attitude, worker job satisfaction, and business failure as 'qualitatively invariant.' These phenomena are influenced by other variables in a variety of ways with passage of time and therefore, treating them as invariant is questionable. The effect of extraneous variables on the relationship between any two variables cannot be satisfactorily explained using quantitative approaches (Creswell and Clark, 2011).

The weakness of quantitative methods in causal explanations limits it as a tool for developing theory. Kerlinger (1979) defined theory as "a set of interrelated constructs (variables), definitions and propositions that presents a systematic view of a phenomenon by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining a natural phenomena" (pg.9). Therefore, the method cannot be relied upon to provide an understanding of relations among variables, which is necessary in theory building. It is useful in testing a theory or verifying it (Creswell, 1994).

Measures of variables are necessary in quantitative research. That may present some degree of difficulty because some variables may be difficult to operationalize and measure. Thus, questions about validity and reliability arise because errors may occur in research instruments developed to measure concepts that are difficult to operationalize (Punch, 2006). Concepts such as sexism, oppression, laziness, and cooperation require great efforts to meaningfully operationalize them.

In this study, the quantitative approach was applied for investigating trends and getting details of the relationship existing between context, input, process and product variables as shown in the Conceptual Framework used in the study. The focus was on how the amount of funds invested in PEDP I and II differentially affected enrolment, retention, dropout and academic performance in relation to management of schools and distribution of resources in economically different communities expected to bring differential outputs. Quantitative research approach relies on data collected using quantitative methods such as survey questionnaires or put an attention on hypothesis test for confirmation (Wiersma and Jurs, 2009). It makes research to be highly reliable and objective and can use statistics to generalize a finding. In data analysis, it is less detailed than qualitative data and may cause a researcher to miss a desired response from the participant. Furthermore, there is an advantage of less subjectivity of the researcher in methodology he or she has applied. Therefore, in this study, the researcher opted to use record surveys to collect data that were revised and tabulated in numbers to allow data to be discerned by applying statistical analysis (Hittleman and Simon, 1997).

3.4 Research Design

This study applied a survey research design where it helped in collecting information from respondents on impact of primary education development programmes on improving enrolment, retention and performance of pupils from economically different communities in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District, in Morogoro Region. The research design describes the processes of conducting the study where it provides ways of getting the answers, when to get, from whom, and details under which

conditions the data was collected (McMillan and Schumacher, 2001). In summary, descriptive survey research designs helps researchers to collect data, summarize, present and interpret for the purpose of analysis, interpretation and reporting (Borg and Gall, 1989). Borg &Gall (1989) noted that descriptive survey research intends to generate statistical data about aspects of education that meet goals and plans of policy makers, stakeholders and educators.

3.5 Geographical Area of Study

The study was carried out in two districts in Morogoro Region, namely, Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District (Figure 3.1). Morogoro Region was selected due to two factors: its relative poor performance in Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) and dissimilarity reflected by real urban and rural ecology offered by these two districts. Region's performance in Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) was relatively poor compared to other regions, for instance in 2005 the region was ranked the last, in 2010 it was ranked 10th out of 21 regions (URT, 2011b). Because of difficulties in obtaining study areas of this type, which had urban-rural settings and proximity; these two districts seemed to be the best in handling these problems. It was realized that these two districts had really rural and urban settings and even different geographical conditions from one another. Hence, the findings could give results in real picture according to relationship of variables of study.

Morogoro town is the regional headquarters of Morogoro Region. Morogoro Municipal Council was one of the six (6) Councils of Morogoro Regions, and had twenty nine (29)

elected councilors (i.e., in twenty nine Wards) (URT, 2012b). It was among the fastest growing urban centres in Tanzania with an annual urban population growth of about 2.4 percent (URT, 2012b). The population size was about 315,866 people, with 151,700 males and 164,166 females (URT, 2012b). More than a half of the population of Morogoro town who made about sixty-five percent lived in squatters, a situation that causes basic services to be hard to reach them (Planning Commission, 1998).

Morogoro Rural District is situated in the North Eastern part of Morogoro Region. This district had an area of about 11,925 square kilometres which make 16.34 percent of the whole area of Morogoro Region (Morogoro Regional Economic Profile, 2006). In terms of administration, Morogoro Rural District had six divisions that were subdivided into wards. There were 29 wards in Morogoro Rural District with 132 villages (Morogoro District Council, 2013). Furthermore, these were subdivided into hamlets (*vitongoji* in Kiswahili) for administrative purposes. By the year 2013, statistics show that there were 657 hamlets in the district (Morogoro District Council, 2013). The population size of the district was about 286, 248 people of which 140,824 were male and 145,424 female (URT, 2012b).

In the provision of Primary education services to pupils, Morogoro Urban District had 38 private owned primary schools and 60 government owned primary schools, distributed in the 29 wards (DEO, 2014). Morogoro Rural District had 1 private primary school and 148 government owned primary schools. Data obtained from council disclosed that the available primary schools were uniformly distributed across the

district, a situation, which indicated that there was at least one primary school in nearly every village (URT, 2012b).

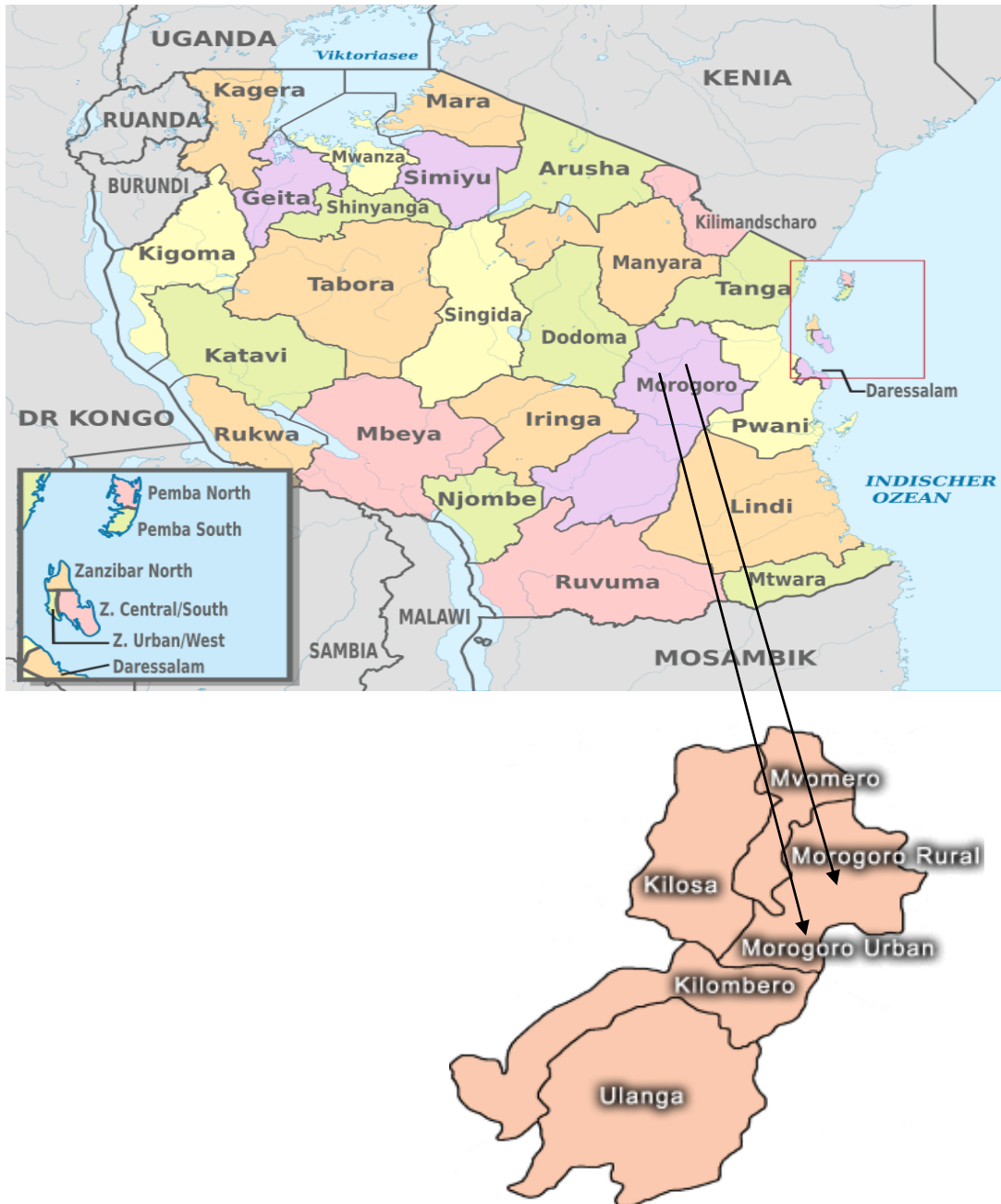


Figure 3.1 : Map for Location of the Study Areas

Source: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions_of_Tanzania#/media/File:Tanzania_administrative_divisions_-_de_-_colored_\(%2Bdetails\).svg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Regions_of_Tanzania#/media/File:Tanzania_administrative_divisions_-_de_-_colored_(%2Bdetails).svg)

Economically, people who live in Morogoro Urban District earn more than twice as much compared to those in rural, but their living costs are also twice as high spending per day is US\$ 4.2 in the urban area and US\$ 1.7 in the rural area (NBS, 2002). Table 3.1 shows the variation in socio-economic status of Morogoro Rural and Urban areas.

Table 3.1 : Socio-Economic Status of Morogoro Rural and Urban Population.

Characteristics of the Population of Morogoro Region	Morogoro Rural	Morogoro Urban
Widowhood (%)	5.0	3.4
Child orphans (%)	1.44	1.41
Literacy rate (%)	54	80
Employment in business operations (%)	6.20	35.00
Employment in office work (%)	4.00	15.80
Employment in agriculture (%)	82.00	31.70
Employment in livestock keeping (%)	1.30	1.10
Employment in elementary occupations (%)	6.00	10.60
Employment in plant operations/assemblies (%)	-	4.20
Average household size (persons per household)	5	4
Cement/baked bricks as building materials used for walls (%)	15.76	62.91
Cement as main building materials used for floor (%)	10.71	68.16
Corrugated iron sheets/tiles as main building materials used for roofing (%)	33.42	91.30
Electricity as main source of energy for lighting (%)	1.50	34.74
Firewood/charcoal as main source of energy for cooking (%)	98.89	88.65
Piped, protected well/spring as main source of drinking water	42.03	88.21
Traditional pit latrine as main type of toilet facility (%)	97.07	82.10
Percent with no toilet facility	2.40	0.60
Hand hoe as asset owned by most people (%)	86.63	56.40

Source: National Bureau of Statistics (2002).

3.6 Population of Study

The population for this study was all 247 targeted primary schools, which were government and private owned Primary Schools in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District. These schools which were located in 58 wards as indicated in Table 3.2, enabled 12 primary schools to be chosen employing purposive sampling. Although both districts had 29 wards each, Morogoro Rural District had 149 primary schools compared with 98 primary schools which were located in Morogoro Urban District (Table 3.2). A total of 12 head teachers of primary schools, 2 district education officers along with 2 bursars of both districts were selected for study.

3.7 Sample and Sampling Procedures

A total number of 12 schools were involved in the study. Six schools were purposively selected from Morogoro Urban District, which were typically in urban areas and the other six schools were from Morogoro Rural District. According to Sentamu (2003), schools are social institutions whereby groups of individuals are brought together to share educational experiences and such interactions may breed positive or negative influences on learners.

The sample for this study was purposely selected by considering geographical differences, location and variations of their performances in Primary School Leaving Examinations (PSLE). This study involved Morogoro Urban District schools and Morogoro Rural District schools having characteristics of real urban and rural areas.

Table 3.2 : Primary Schools in Morogoro Urban and Rural Districts

Morogoro Urban District					Morogoro Rural District			
No.	Name of Ward	Gov't school	Private schools	Total	Name of Ward	Gov't school	Private school	Total
1.	Kilakala	3	3	6	Mkambarani	4	-	4
2.	Bigwa	4	1	5	Mikese	6	1	7
3.	Boma	4	4	8	Gwata	5	-	5
4.	Sabasaba	1	1	2	Tununguo	5	-	5
5.	Kiwanja cha ndege	2	2	4	Mkulazi	3	-	3
6.	Mafiga	4	4	8	Ngerengere	4	-	4
7.	Uwanja wa Taifa	1	1	2	Matuli	4	-	4
8.	Kihonda Maghorofani	1	5	6	Kidugalo	9	-	9
9.	Kihonda	2	5	7	Kiroka	9	-	9
10.	Kingo	2	2	4	Mkuyuni	8	-	8
11.	Mlimani	2	2	4	Kinole	5	-	5
12.	Mwembesongo	5	-	5	Tegetero	5	-	5
13.	Kingolwira	2	3	5	Kisemu	3	-	3
14.	Mazimbu	2	-	2	Konde	3	-	3
15.	Kichangani	2	1	3	Kibungo	5	-	5
16.	Sultan Area	1	-	1	Kibogwa	5	-	5
17.	Mji Mpya	2	-	2	Tawa	7	-	7
18.	Mzinga	-	-	-	Lundi	4	-	4
19.	Chamwino	4	-	4	Mtombozi	7	-	7
20.	Mji Mkuu	1	-	1	Mvuha	6	-	6
21.	Magadu	2	-	2	Kolero	5	-	5
22.	Mafisa	1	-	1	Kasanga	5	-	5
23.	Kauzeni	1	-	1	Bungu	3	-	3
24.	Mindu	3	-	3	Selembala	4	-	4
25.	Tungi	2	2	4	Kisaki	6	-	6
26.	Lukobe	1	2	3	Mngazi	4	-	4
29.	Mbuyuni	1	-	1	Bwakira Juu	3	-	3
28.	Mkundi	4	-	4	Singisa	6	-	6
29.	Luhungo	2	-	2	Bwakira Chini	5	-	5
	Total	60	38	98		148	1	149

Source: Morogoro Urban and Rural - District Education Offices (DEOs), 2014.

Categorization of schools on basis of their performance was done in consultation with District Education Officers (DEOs) of both districts. Before selection, the researcher requested a list of all urban schools as well as the list of schools from Morogoro Rural District. After obtaining the list, District Education Officers (DEO) from the two councils assisted in the sampling exercise as indicated in Table 3.3. The criteria used in selecting these schools were best performing schools and worst performing schools.

In each category, six schools were selected based on their performance in last Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) after the implementation of PEDP, where the best-performing schools, medium-performing schools, and the worst-performing schools in examination results were selected (Table 3.3). The measures enabled a total number of 12 schools to be selected to represent 247 schools in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District. In the first phase of data collection, the researcher purposively selected head teachers from each school to fill in the record survey tools. In the second phase, the head teachers of all 12 schools, 2 district education officers as well as 2 bursars of both districts were involved in follow-up interviews that led to a total of 16 interviewees. The number was above 15 considered to be the smallest acceptable sample for all types of qualitative research (Bertaux, 1981 cited in Guest *et. al*, 2006). Interviewees had clear information of the contribution made by PEDP to improve children's enrolment, retention, and performance from economically diverse communities in Tanzania.

Table 3.3 : Sampling of Schools for the Study

Geographical Location	Best-performing schools in PSLE	Medium-performing schools in PSLE	Worst-performing schools in PSLE	Total
Urban area	2	2	2	6
Rural area	2	2	2	6
Total	4	4	4	12

3.8 Data Collection Methods

The data collection in this study was done in three phases. The first phase involved **Documentary review method**. Therefore under this context the documentary reviews refer to the process of analyzing documents that contain information about the phenomenon that the researcher intends to study (Bailey, 1994). On the other side, Payne and Payne (2004) defined documentary method as “the techniques used to categorize, investigate, interpret and identify the limitations of physical sources, most commonly written documents whether in the private or public domain” (pg. 60). Data were collected from different documentary sources, which were books, journals, articles, acts, previous research reports, periodicals, internet sources of information, annual reports and newsletters. This phase involved data collection using semi-structured interviews, formal and informal meetings with key officers of the Ministry of Education and Culture as well as Prime Minister’s Office, Regional Administration and Local Government and government departments and agencies (**Annexes 9 to 13**).

The second phase involved the conduct of a **survey** in fieldwork. Survey research designs were used to describe a situation, phenomenon or area of interest in systematic,

accurate and factual way (Omari, 2011). There was the use of Primary School Survey Forms (**Annexes 2 to 5**) for the collection of primary data. The application of Primary School Fund Survey Form (**Annex 6**) was distributed to heads of schools to give verification of the flow of funds from Ministry of Education for running PEDP activities in their schools. Finally, **a four point Likert-type** scales with scores such as Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree (**Annex 7**) was used to collect viable strategies to improve primary education delivery. These strategies if applied, will improve enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils in primary schools. A Likert-type Scales contained a list or set of items which helped respondents to choose answers with varying levels or accept-reject (Omari, 2011).

Thereafter, a two stage model was used in analysis of data, which was done at district level, and analysis at school level in four parameters of interest, which were enrolment, retention, dropout and academic performance. Strategic sampling was then used to select 6 urban and 6 rural primary schools. In each location, two schools which performed well, two with average and two with poor PSLE results were selected. The identification of these schools was done in collaboration with District Education Officers. The study gathered data that were analyzed quantitatively to establish relationship between the variables.

The third phase involved collecting data using **semi-structured interviews** with key officers. The semi-structured interview was administered to 12 head teachers of primary schools, and two (2) District Education Officers. This was done purposely for feeling

gaps identified in phase two after quantitative data from 12 purposefully selected primary schools had been collected and analyzed. The semi-structured interview provided elaboration on the quantitative data and findings obtained in the second phase.

The data obtained determined relations which existed between independent variable i.e. primary education development programme and dependent variables that were enrolment, retention and performance of pupils from economically diverse communities in Tanzania. Figure 3.2 summarizes the research design for the study. Detailed descriptions of how data were accessed and methods of data collection in the research design are presented in the section which follows.

3.9 Research Tools

The captured data were on access, focusing particularly on enrolment by sex, retention by sex as well as grades and academic performance on PSLE before, during and after PEDP I and PEDP II. The primary data were obtained through Primary School Survey Forms (**Annexes 2 to 6**) and a four point Likert-type scales (**Annex 7**) distributed to head teachers of twelve selected primary schools in the Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District. In addition, interviews were conducted to head teachers and officials from councils purposely for follow-up and filling in gaps identified in survey forms and a four point Likert-type scales. Primary School Survey Forms were tested in pilot study in Kibaha Rural District and Kibaha Urban District, to assess clarity of the questions. They were translated into Kiswahili language to facilitate easy understanding

to respondents. The measures helped in refining the instruments before being finally utilized to solicit for information from the study subjects.

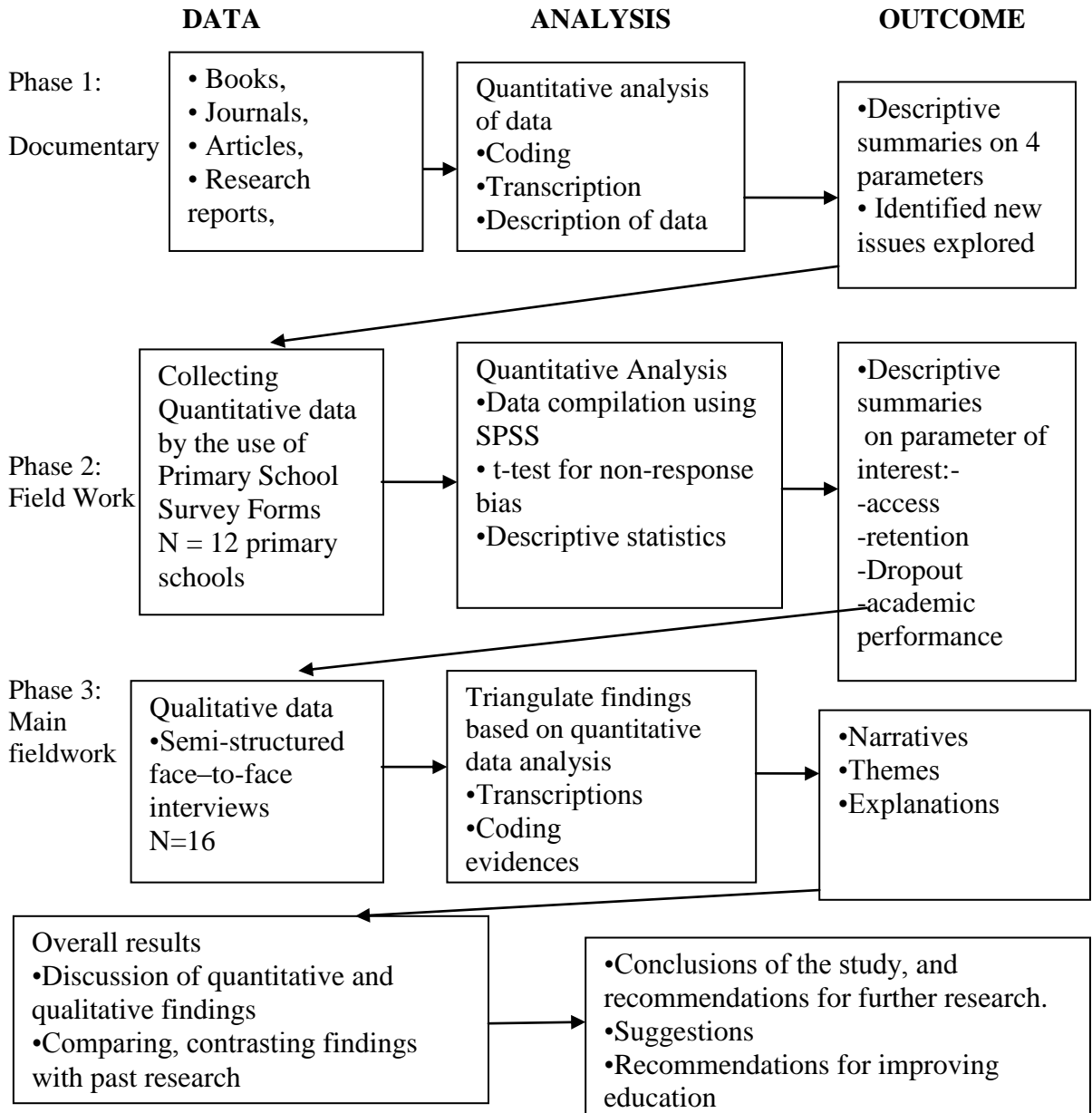


Figure 3.2 : Methods and Expected Outcomes

Source: Adapted from Kheni, (2008).

3.10 Procedures for Data Collection

First, data collection was done by the researcher himself, in which survey method was adopted. Secondly, it was to make direct consultation of records related to school enrolments in primary schools, in Ministry of Education, Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District. Thirdly, it was to analyze PEDP data from previous research reports, books, journals, articles, etc. Finally, an analysis of all data collected was made.

3.11 Data Analysis Plan

In this study, the researcher applied statistical techniques so as to analyze quantitative data collected from survey. Since the study involved samples that were independent so they cannot be paired with each other (unrelated). Hence, a t-test for independent samples had to be used for hypotheses tests in identifying difference between the two means and proportions.

The independent variable was defined as all inputs, which primary development programme brought to schools that included capitation grants for buying text books, teachers guides, pens, examination setting, chalks and the like. The dependent variables encompassed enrolment, retention of pupils, dropout and academic performance. A t-test for independent samples was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the means of the groups (Ary *et. al.*, 2006; Campbell and Stanley, 1963). The independent samples t-test was the most appropriate statistical test to employ for this study. The independent samples t-test assisted the researcher to determine whether or not there was a difference in the mean scores and proportional change.

Responses were entered in the computer through Microsoft Excel Software. In this research, data analysis was done with assistance of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows 22 Version. The SPSS was used to determine if there were differential impacts of PEDP I and II to rural and urban schools, in terms of enrolment, retention and academic performance. The significance or alpha level for all analyses was set at .05. Later on, statistical data were presented in Graphs and Tables.

For the purpose of testing the set hypotheses, the formula for independent means scores (unrelated) t-test was used in this study as adapted from Malim and Birch (1998).

The formula was as follows:-

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_A - \bar{X}_B}{\sqrt{\frac{\left\{ \sum X_A^2 - \frac{(\sum X_A)^2}{n_A} \right\} + \left\{ \sum X_B^2 - \frac{(\sum X_B)^2}{n_B} \right\}}{N - 2}} \times \frac{N}{n_A - n_B}}$$

df $N - 2$

Where \bar{X}_A is the mean score for PEDP I,

\bar{X}_B is the mean score for PEDP II,

n_A is number of pupils in PEDP I,

n_B is number of pupils in PEDP II,

$\sum X$ represents sum of scores in either group,

N represents the total number of pupils.

3.12 Reliability and Validity of Instruments

3.12.1 Reliability of Instruments

Reliability in research refers to the stability of measurement procedure across time, place, and researcher, while validity deals with the precision and accuracy of the instruments (Thorndike, 1997). In the pilot study, test-retest was not done because the information given was accurate and correct since the data were kept for official references and use. They were kept mostly in files and in some schools; they were posted on notes boards for references (**Annex 14**). Therefore if repeated administering of the same survey to similar study to participants was to be done, could lead the same results to be obtained.

3.12.2 Validity of Instruments

Validity on the other hand refers to degree to which a study precisely and accurately reflects or evaluates the specific valuable data or concept or construct that the researcher is attempting to measure (Thorndike, 1997). In order to carry out the study, content validity was produced. Content validity showed how far the survey items and scores obtained from research questions were representative of all potential questions in the study (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2000). The survey instrument dealt with original data and records in files so no opinions were assessed other than interview follow-up.

3.13 Ethical Issues Addressed

Ethics is defined as the principled sensitivity to rights of others and systems relating to what are right and wrong, standards and codes of conduct (Cohen *et. al.*, 2007).

Furthermore, Mertens (2005) states that, “Ethics in research should be an integral part of conducting research, planning and implementation process.” Ethics and protection of human subjects were assured throughout the research process of this study. It was of utmost importance to protect all participants as well as any other individual who may have been indirectly associated with the study. Measures were taken to maintain participant confidentiality and to ensure their physical, social and, emotional well being as required in Fraenkel and Wallen (2009).

The researcher also considered other principles for conducting research, which are respect for persons and justice. In order to respect participants, they were voluntarily allowed to participate in the study by choosing to fill in the Primary School Survey Forms. All participants were also given adequate information about the research procedure, the purpose of the research and benefits to be obtained from study. Also they were given an opportunity to ask questions about the research.

In conducting social research, a researcher needs to pay attention to main ethical issues of informed consent, lack of intrusiveness, confidentiality and anonymity. Generally, all social research involves ethical issues because it collects data from people and about people (Punch, 2006). This research though partly used statistical data already available in the public domain but on the other side, it sought answers from respondents. Respondents in all schools involved in the research were given assurances of confidentiality. Respect, treating respondents fairly and confidentiality were the basic guiding principles at all stages of the research.

The purpose of conducting research was explained to respondents. Their right to silence and privacy were respected and their contributions were treated in confidence (Omari, 2011). It was important not to jeopardize the social position of respondents within the school or the District office.

Permission for conducting the study was sought from the Directorate of Research and Postgraduate Studies (**Annex 8**). In the process, the following were involved for issuance of research clearance: Faculty of Education at the Open University of Tanzania, Primary Education in the Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government; Regional Administrative Secretary (RAS) for Morogoro (**Annex 9**), District Administrative Secretary (DAS) for Morogoro Urban District as well as Morogoro Rural District (**Annexes 10 and 11**), and District Executive Directors (DED) for Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District (**Annexes 12 and 13**) were also obtained.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction to the Chapter

This chapter presents key research findings. The findings are presented in the following sections: participants' demographic profiles, funding of schools, enrolments rates, retention rates, dropout rates, academic performance of pupils and strategies to improve primary education delivery. Finally, last section presents synthesis of the findings.

4.2 School Categories and Participants' Profile

4.2.1 School Categories

The study involved 12 primary schools purposely selected by considering geographical location, quality and variation in performance in Primary School Leaving Examinations (PSLE). In each category, selection was based on the best-performing schools, medium-performing schools, and the worst-performing schools in the last final national examination results. Using such reported selection criteria, six schools were selected from Morogoro urban, typically an urban area and other six schools from rural location.

The study used records survey forms filled by head teachers of selected primary schools. Then head teachers of all twelve schools, two district education officers, as well as two bursars/treasurers of the two districts were involved in follow-up interviews making a total of 16 interviewees.

4.2.2 Participants' Demographic Characteristics

The study sought respondents' demographic data including gender, education level, and work experience. The study involved 12 head teachers, 2 district education officers and 2 bursars. There were an uneven number of male and female head teachers who participated in the study whereby 75 percent were males and 25 percent were females. Therefore, the study involved majority of the head teachers who were males. All district education officers and bursars were males. Table 4.1 presents the distribution of head teachers by gender.

Table 4,1 : Number of Head Teachers by Gender

Gender	Rural	Urban	Total	Percentage
Female	1	2	3	25
Male	5	4	9	75
Total	6	6	12	100

The table 4.1 shows that 75 percent of head teachers were male and 25 percent of head teachers were female. This distribution was not considered consequential as was not part of the hypotheses.

The study further sought to find out education levels of head teachers, whose schools were involved in the study. It was identified that 58.3 percent of head teachers had Diploma in Education, while others (25 percent) had Bachelor's Degrees, and 16.7 percent had certificate. There were no head teachers who had masters degree or postgraduate Diploma in Education. Table 4.2 presents the head teachers' education levels.

Table 4.2 : Head Teachers' Education Level

Education Level	Head Teachers			
	Rural	Urban	Total number	Percentage
Master Degree	0	0	0	0.0
Bachelor's Degree	1	2	3	25
Postgraduate Diploma	0	0	0	0.0
Diploma	3	4	7	58.3
Certificate	2	0	2	16.7
Total	6	6	12	100

The researcher was also interested in the head teachers' work experience in schools selected for the study. Table 4.3 presents information on head teachers' work experience.

Table 4.3 : Number of Years of Head Teachers' Work Experience

Number of Years in the schools	Rural	Urban	Total	Percentage
1 - 5	1	5	6	50
6 - 10	3	1	4	33.3
10 - 15	2	0	2	16.7
16 +	0	0	0	0.0
Total	6	6	12	100

The study revealed that 50 percent of head teachers had either stayed in those primary schools for 1 to 5 years or had work experience of 1 to 5 years, while 33.3 percent had work experience for about 6 to 10 years and the rest (16.7 percent) had 10 to 15 years of work experience. In addition, the study revealed that majority of head teachers had no work experience above 16 years.

4.3 Funding of Primary Education Development Programmes

4.3.1 Funding of Primary Education Development Programmes I and II

Before introduction of Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) - I from 2002 to 2006, many parents failed to send their children to school due to shortage of funds to enable them pay for school fees and other contributions that were required in schools (Björkdahl and Lundqvist, 2006). Such pattern affected access to schooling for many children brought up from poor families in Tanzania. In due regard, in 2002, the government decided to abolish primary school fees and other contributions so as to remove barriers of accessing primary education. That was done intentionally in order to ensure that children accessed compulsory primary school education even if their parents were unable to pay for school fees (Björkdahl and Lundqvist, 2006).

At the time of PEDP inception in 2002, primary education was to be offered freely in all government primary schools and no tuition fee was to be charged from any pupil. Such trend was not the same to private primary schools, where pupils were required to pay tuition fee and other charges (URT, 2001). Actually, in private primary schools, there were many other recurrent costs that parents had to pay like development fee, examination charges, transport expenses, textbooks, stationery, uniforms and other related expenses. School fees, examination charges, textbooks, stationery, uniforms, supplies, food and transport expenses are known as direct costs of schooling (Tietjen, Prather and IDCA, 1991; Mason and Rozelle, 1998). Even in government primary schools, sometimes it happened that parents, in one way or another, were obliged to

incur some of the recurrent costs, like transport expenses and school uniforms for their children (World Bank and UNICEF, 2009).

Problems faced by the country at the time of implementation of programmes included the fact that many schools had dilapidated classrooms and insufficient classrooms as well as toilets (Sumra, 2003). Many facilities were in unusable condition due to poor maintenance and inadequate provision of such facilities. Schools with such types of deficiencies did not have an attractive environment for enabling good teaching and learning for teachers as well as pupils (Rajani and Sumra, 2003).

4.3.2 Modalities of Transferring Programme Funds

For successful implementation of Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) in the country, the Government of Tanzania and Development Partners signed a **Memorandum of Understanding (MOU)** following completed task of preparing the **Financial Management and Accounting Manual** used to manage disbursement of funds to Local Government Authorities and Schools (URT, 2001). Funds for capitation grants disbursed from treasury were sent to district councils and deposited directly to respective Local Authority Education Bank Accounts and thereafter, funds were sent to primary schools. Primary schools had to open two bank accounts with National Microfinance Bank, namely, Capitation Grant Account and Development Grant Account (URT, 2001). At district council, the Local Government Authorities' (LGAs) team, which included the District Education Office (DEO), had responsibility of overseeing implementation of development programmes at district level (URT, 2001, 2006). LGAs

had to provide technical and organizational assistance to school committees as well as village councils. Implementation was by offering them with participatory development plans, participate fully in monitoring and evaluation of PEDP implementation, facilitate transfer of funds to schools, offer technical support to school committees, and communicate relevant information to all stakeholders (URT, 2001).

There was also the Ward Development Committee, at ward level, which functioned as an intermediary between schools or community and district level. That was mainly responsible for resource mobilization, either physical or human, and act as general oversight of PEDP implementation in the ward (URT, 2001). The key actor was the Ward Education Coordinator (WEC), whose function was to ensure that all school-age children were enrolled at schools, assist in identifying priorities for school development and had to provide information on education to all stakeholders at ward level (URT, 2001).

Once funds were received at school level, head teachers, school committee and parents used the funds as per pre-determined directives given by central headquarters, through the percent formula breakdown of capitation grants (URT, 2001). School Committees consisted of members who were selected from the village or hamlet, some teachers of respective school and public or government workers (URT, 2001). After receiving capitation grant transferred to school, school committees served the money in opened bank accounts. The school committees were overseen by village or hamlet councils (URT, 2001; URT, 2006). The Village Executive Officer (VEO) and Chairperson of the

hamlet or village were not allowed to be members of the School Committee. That was done intentionally for the purpose of increasing accountability at the Village/Hamlet level. Key functions of the Village/ Hamlet Council was to exercise general supervision over school committees and offer education information to public. Also school committees mobilized parents and guardians to send their children to schools. But allocated funds for procurement of reference books and textbooks were not deposited to bank accounts belonging to schools, pending schools to acquire capacity in the procurement process (URT, 2001; URT, 2006). Funds for books were sent to School Committees with effect from year 2005 after being trained in book selection and procurement processes (URT, 2006).

The main functions of the school committee were planning, budgeting and implementation of school development plans by involving pupils, parents, staff and other stakeholders (Carr-Hill and Ndalichako, 2005). Also the committee had to determine the best use of capitation, development and capacity building grants as well as to monitor and report on their use (URT, 2001).

Each head teacher acted as a sub-warrant holder and was responsible for keeping all records of funds assigned to him or her (URT, 2001). According to Orlosky (1984), the head teacher is responsible for budgeting, accounting and auditing functions of financial management. Financial management determines the way the school was managed and whether or not the school met its objectives. Therefore, the head teacher was also the adviser of the School Committee as well as kept records and minutes of the School

Committee meetings (URT, 2001). In order to draw funds from the school bank accounts, the head teacher had to submit minutes of the School Committee meeting signed by the Chairperson or Vice-Chairperson and Secretary, accompanied by the endorsed cheque by the Council to the bank (URT, 2001, 2006).

The Capitation Grant offered to school was supposed to be ten United States of America dollars per enrolled child, which was instituted nationwide as from January 2002. Out of amount, 4 dollars were sent to districts to enable schools acquire textbooks and other teaching as well as learning materials (URT, 2001). The balance of US\$ 6 from the district council was distributed to schools and thereafter, school committees had to put the best plan on using the funds as per financial guidelines outlined in the programme (URT, 2001). Distribution and allocation of capitation grants as per set criteria are shown in Table 4.4, but no direct evidence that all the money got there.

Table 4.4 : Capitation Grant Supposed to be Given to Schools

No.	Capitation Grant costs	USD
1.	Facility repairs	2
2.	Textbooks, teaching guides, supplementary reading materials	4
3.	Chalk, exercise books, pens, pencils	2
4.	Administration materials	1
5.	Examination paper purchase and printing	1
	Total Capitation Grant per Child	10

Source: Basic Education Development Committee (2001)

4.3.3 Funding of Schools in Primary Education Development Programme - I

In year 2002, the government started to offer capitation grants to primary schools when PEDP-I was introduced. That was done in order to help the programme to run properly. The capitation grant was mainly introduced with the purpose of improving achievement of quality education by making resources available at primary school level (URT, 2001). Obtained funds from capitation grant were used to purchase textbooks, teaching and learning materials including administration materials, to fund rehabilitation of classrooms, build new ones and they had to be used for running examination expenses (URT, 2001).

Allocated funds to urban and rural primary schools in PEDP I were distributed to respective schools as indicated in Table 4.5. The total Tanzanian shillings, which amounted to 140 million (Tsh. 140,794,313/=) were granted to 12 schools belonging to Morogoro Rural District and Morogoo Urban District. The study also revealed that Tanzanian shillings amounting to 87,610,496/= were offered to 6 urban primary schools and other 53,183,817/= were offered to 6 rural primary schools, which all led to total PEDP funding of 140,794,313/= Tshs. Such funds were given from the year 2002 to 2006, when PEDP I was in place.

Table 4.5 : Primary Education Development Programme I: Funds Offered to Schools

Name of Schools	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	TOTAL
Urban Schools							
Kigurunyembe	526,900	3,978,420	5,603,118	3,515,179	6,314,526	4,379,096	24,317,239
Mwembesongo	443,044	845,844	1,911,197	1,761,197	3,033,480	3,933,480	11,928,242
Mwere	352,000	1,352,000	1,417,910	3,380,000	1,764,000	1,176,000	9,441,910
Misufini	911,800	890,124	1,336,005	2,372,353	3,122,000	3,122,000	11,754,282
Uhuru	623,614	3,853,002	1,332,832	5,711,472	4,782,951	3,550,000	19,853,871
Kilakala	443,611	2,669,191	3,659,199	1,006,925	4,229,595	1,607,400	13,615,921
Total	3,300,969	13,588,581	15,260,261	17,747,126	23,246,552	17,767,976	90,911,465
Rural Schools							
Gwata	596,004	1,039,200	1,124,000	1,233,199	725,992	1,180,000	5,898,395
Muongano	286,000	1,186,000	1,554,191	1,585,143	1,466,978	694,654	6,772,966
Fulwe	578, 543	4,278,524	3,616,298	1,267,392	898,568	415,071	11,054,396
Kizinga	523,014	1,428,865	3,659,199	2,185,157	2,008,234	693,340	10,497,809
Njianne	462,682	2,021,256	3,512,450	2,574,534	2,962,158	1,247, 179	12,780,259
Mazizi	265,600	1,337,952	2,134, 551	1,466, 853	2,418, 428	1,268,451	8,891,835
Total	2,711,843	11,291,797	15,600,689	10,312,278	10,480,358	5,498,695	55,895,660
TOTAL PEDP FUNDS	6,012,812	24,880,378	30,860,950	28,059,404	33,726,910	23,266,671	146,807,125

Source: District Education Offices (Morogoro Rural and Urban Districts)

The capitation grant was of the Tanzanian government's commitments towards ensuring that there was improvement in education at primary education level. The grant was offered because schools had very limited sources of generating funds and therefore, the grant was the only remaining source essential in helping them run daily activities (URT, 2001).

In order to establish a good learning environment, new classrooms and teachers' houses were constructed, unusable classrooms were reconstructed and every school received funds to undertake small repairs (URT, 2001). Some of the allocated funds were used for buying textbooks and other equipments to facilitate effective teaching and learning in primary schools (URT, 2001). Textbooks were provided to pupils of all primary schools free of charge. Bought textbooks were for the following subjects: Mathematics, Kiswahili, English, Social Studies (Geography, History and Civics) and Science (URT, 2001).

4.3.4 Funding of Schools in Primary Education Development Programme II

Experience from PEDP I showed that the student to classroom ratio (SCR) and pupils to teacher ratio (PTR) needed improvement. Persistence of high PTR and overcrowded classrooms led to difficult teaching and learning environment to teachers, learners and their parents (URT, 2004; URT 2008). Therefore, through implementation of PEDP-II, the government ensured that there were additional construction works of classrooms and new schools so as to keep pace with enrolment expansion to make schools' learning environments remain attractive (URT, 2008).

Table 4 6 : Primary Education Development Programme II: Funds Offered to Schools

Name of Schools	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	TOTAL
Urban Schools							
Kigurunyembe	796,791	2,195,379	5,326,555	6,015,090	629,617	4,242,532	19,205,964
Mwembesongo	441,986	3,268,574	7,696,258	3,247,372	1,879,892	598,588	17,132,670
Mwere	364,995	2,468,865	2,669,191	2,284,251	592,647	522,405	8,902,354
Misufini	960,270	2,729,026	5,523,107	2,871,272	2,264,656	5,861,842	20,210,173
Uhuru	853,079	3,550,000	6,119,737	4,579,408	1,187,522	4,752,487	21,042,233
Kilakala	951,458	1,043,840	1,866,499	920,277	10,589,742	1,458,763	16,830,579
Total	4,368,579	15,255,684	29,201,347	19,917,670	17,144,076	17,436,617	103,323,973
Rural Schools							
Gwata	638,000	1,839,200	856,400	965,200	1,725,693	349,720	6,374,213
Muongano	179,900	1,694,654	1,005,017	585,143	706,438	424,000	4,595,152
Fulwe	579,531	1,332,188	543,134	601,578	462,393	252,546	3,771,370
Kizinga	247,578	1,126,595	2,154,500	882,530	727,583	270,635	5,409,421
Njianne	775,716	3,505,912	2,094,677	638,492	5,088,249	296,715	12,399,761
Mazizi	459,908	1,428,048	280,639	865,142	693,101	300,861	4,027,699
Total	2,880,633	10,926,597	6,934,367	4,538,085	9,403,457	1,894,477	36,577,616
TOTAL PEDP FUNDS	7,249,212	26,182,281	36,135,714	24,455,755	26,547,533	19,331,094	139,901,589

Source: District Education Offices (Morogoro Rural and Urban Districts)

Funds allocated to primary schools in PEDP - II were distributed as indicated in Table 4.6. The Table 4.6 indicates that in PEDP – II, Tshs 132,652,377/= were disbursed to schools so as to meet PEDP costs. In the period from 2007 to 2011, funds amounting to Tshs 98,955,394/= and 33,696,983/= were disbursed to urban and rural primary schools.

It was clearly noted in this research that there was lack of transparency in the grant disbursing system, a pattern, which led to confusion and increasing opportunities for misuse. Many schools were unaware of how much should be received and when. There was also late disbursement of capitation grants by government (URT, 2001; URT, 2004; URT, 2008). In some schools, it seemed that they received about Tshs 2,000 (or about US\$ 2) as portion of the capitation grant and in other schools, they were given few numbers of books against their requirements (URT, 2004; URT, 2008).

4.4 The Main Findings by Objectives of the Study

4.4.1 Enrolment Rates of Girls, Boys and Children with Disabilities

This study aimed at finding and exposing differential impact of Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) on improving enrolment of children from economically different communities in Morogoro Region. The study sought to shed light on how the programme assisted out-of-school children living in different socio-economic situations (either in rural or urban) and family backgrounds wherever they were found to be enrolled in primary schools. This was done on the ground that the highest priority of PEDP was to increase enrolment of girls and boys in primary schools in the country (URT, 2001).

In the study done in Morogoro Region, particularly in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District, it was revealed that primary school enrolment increased during implementation of the programme. The data from research indicated that the studied districts had a remarkable increase in enrolment of pupils whereby in 2002 only, the first year of PEDP implementation, standard one enrolment increased by 17.5 percent (Table 4.7). Thus, the total number of enrollees increased from 1,191 in year 2001 to 1,400 pupils in year 2002 (Table 4.7). It means that there were almost three hundred children who were enrolled more in primary schools than those enrolled in year 2001.

Table 4.7 shows that between 2002 and 2013, a period of eleven years, the number of enrolled pupils increased rapidly to make 13,992 in total whereby 7,125 were girls and 6,867 were boys. In addition, 2,708 pupils were girls and 2,588 were boys enrolled in Morogoro Rural and 4,417 pupils were girls and 4,279 were boys enrolled in Morogoro urban (Table 4.7). The data further showed that in the year 2005, a total number of pupils amounting to 1,057 were enrolled in primary schools. Such 1,057 pupils who were enrolled in that year were fewer than enrolment done in other years (2002 to 2012) during the entire period of PEDP I and II implementation. Enrolment of pupils in other years ranged from 1,104 pupils to 1,400 pupils who were above the number of enrolled pupils in 2005 (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 : Enrolment Rates and Gender in Rural and Urban Schools

Program me	Year	Rural Schools		Urban Schools		Total		Grand Total	Percentage Change	
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls
Pre-PEDP	2000	158	194	321	372	479	566	1045	0	0
	2001	195	259	365	372	560	631	1191	+16.9	+11.5
PEDP I (2002 -6)	2002	285	293	378	444	663	737	1400	+18.4	+16.8
	2003	245	313	346	339	591	652	1243	-10.8	-11.5
	2004	242	203	310	349	552	552	1104	-6.6	-15.3
	2005	235	205	326	291	561	496	1057	+1.6	-10.1
	2006	215	193	380	381	595	574	1169	+6.1	+15.7
PEDP II (2007 -11)	2007	189	238	346	337	535	575	1110	-10.1	+0.1
	2008	186	237	386	346	572	583	1155	+6.9	+1.4
	2009	196	196	375	382	571	578	1149	-0.2	-0.9
	2010	206	196	358	436	564	632	1196	-1.2	+9.3
	2011	197	222	354	400	551	622	1173	-2.3	-1.6
Post-PEDP	2012	170	207	367	362	537	569	1106	-2.5	-8.5
	2013	222	205	353	350	575	555	1130	+6.5	-2.5
Total		2941	3161	4965	5161	7906	8322	16228		

Source: District Education Offices (Morogoro Rural and Urban Districts)

Table 4.7 indicates that the percentage change in enrolment for boys increased by 18.4 percent and 16.8 percent for girls, whereby the number of enrolment for boys increased from 560 to 663 and for girls it increased from 631 to 737. Therefore, in this sense, the programme had a positive impact on primary school enrolment for both sexes. The percentage change in enrolment of pupils in primary schools for PEDP I and II is shown in Figure 4.1.

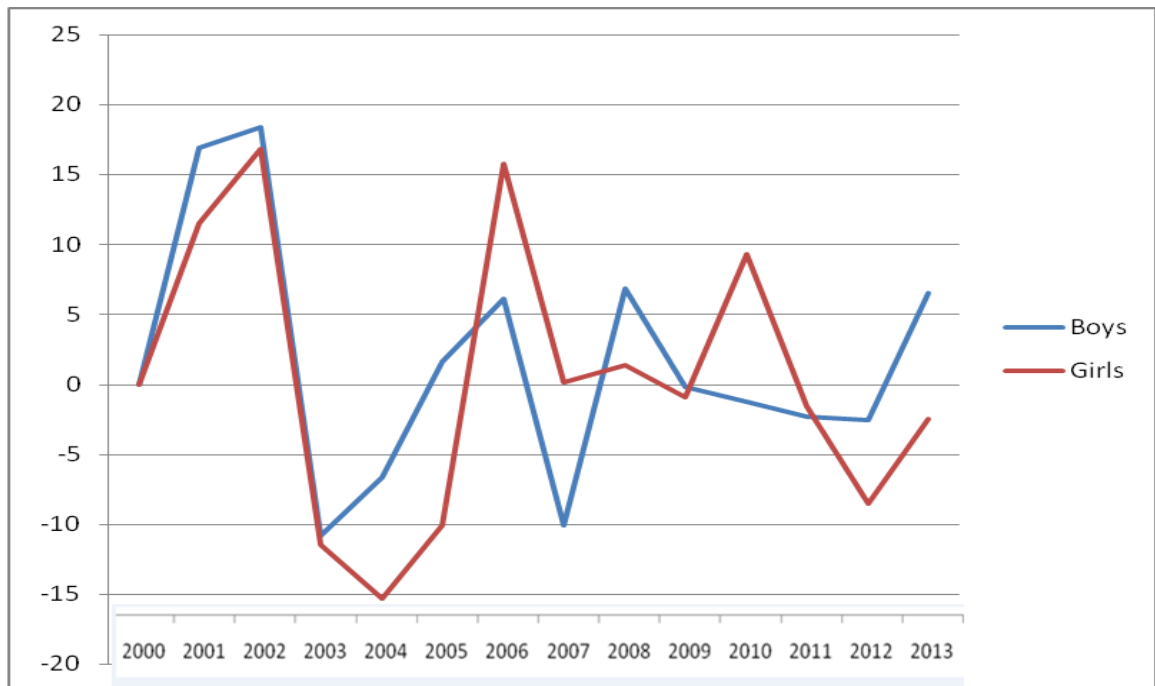


Figure 4.1: Percentage Change in the Enrolment of Pupils by Sex

The percentage changes in Figure 4.1 show that there was a sharp decrease in enrolment trends of girls, which occurred from years 2002 to 2004 when PEDP started, but the rest of trends show that there were tremendous increase of girls enrolments in years 2004 and 2006. In opposite, Figure 4.1 depicts that enrolment trend of boys constantly decreased twice almost throughout PEDP implementation that happened from years 2002 to 2003 and 2006, and then enrolment increased constantly in years 2004, 2005

and in 2009. Although there was remarkable increase in number of pupils in primary schools in the two districts during PEDP - I, enrolments of both boys and girls in 2005 were low. Data showed that there were 591 girls and 496 boys (Figure 4.1).

Findings from this study showed that enrolment in both districts (Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District), during PEDP-I was hovering at around 6 thousands for the entire period of five years (2002 – 2006). Enrolment of children in PEDP II (from 2007 to 2011) was a bit lower than enrolment in PEDP I, where it accounted for five thousands. Figure 4.2 shows a clear picture of enrolment flow, whereby it increased and decreased during the said programme implementation. In the same Figure 4.2, it is shown that enrolment increased sharply when PEDP started in 2002, the enrolment decreased and remained constant in other years as depicted in enrolment trends of pupils during PEDP – I and II.

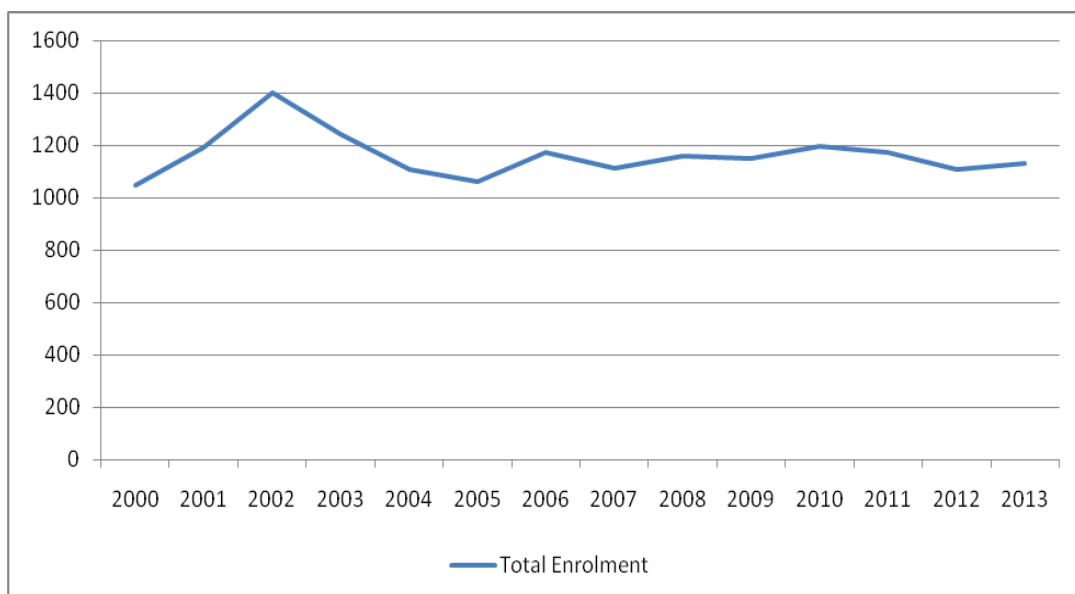


Figure 4.2 : Total Enrolment Trend of Pupils During PEDP – I and II

The enrolment of pupils in year 2002 was higher than enrolment of pupils in the rest of years in both periods of PEDP I and II. The data showed that total 1,400 pupils were enrolled in that year 2002, the year of PEDP inception. The reason for such huge enrolment of pupils in year 2002 was caused by enrolment of children based on their year of birth whereby priority was given to those aged seven years old in 2002. Later on, it was designed in the programme that children older than 7 years had to be enrolled in schools (URT, 2001). The approach further set that children aged 10 and below in 2002 had to get enrolled for primary education (URT, 2001). Table 4.8 shows clearly admission processes used to enroll pupils in PEDP I.

As PEDP gradually phased in, children of different ages (Table 4.8), such as those older than 10 in 2002 were left outside the reform. Consequently, children aged 10 in 2001 were not eligible for PEDP, and their grade cannot be attributed to PEDP II. Conversely, children born in 1992 were eligible to benefit from the reform programme and their grade achievement was likely to have been influenced by the reform. By enrolling children of such consecutive cohorts, who did not differ in any aspects other than having eligibility to get access in the reform, was one way to assess the impact of the reform on grade achievement that led to higher enrolment in year 2002.

Table 4.8 : Criteria for Admission into Primary School under PEDP I

Year of Admission	Criteria for admission
2002	All 7-year-olds and as many as possible 8 year olds
2003	All 7-year-olds of 2003,
	all remaining 8 year olds of 2002,
	and as many as remaining 9 year olds of 2002 (9 and 10 years old by the year 2003)
2004	All 7-year-olds of 2004 and
	all remaining 9-10 year olds of 2002 (11-12 years old by the year 2004)
2005 and 2006	All 7-year-old children are admitted

Source: Basic Education Development Committee (2001)

The study also showed that the trend towards gender parity in enrolment seem to improve during implementation of the said programmes whereby enrolment for boys was almost the same as that for girls (Figure 4.3). The high degree of equity in primary education was maintained since 2000, where data showed that there were 566 girls (54 percent) and 479 boys (46 percent) out of a total number of 1045 pupils in both districts (Figure 4.3). The same trend was still maintained in 2001 where there were 631 females (53 percent) and 560 males (47 percent) out of a total number of 1191 pupils in primary schools (Figure 4.3). In due regard, results from this study showed that gender disparities were highly reduced and gender parity in primary school enrolments was achieved and near parity in primary enrolments had to be met. The percentage in enrolment of female and male pupils throughout the periods of implementation of PEDP programmes ranged from 47 to 53 percent to female and 47 to 53 percent male (Figure

4.3). The enrolment rate was 53 percent against 47 percent (in years 2002, 2003, 2010 and 2011), 52 percent against 48 percent (in 2007), almost 50 percent against 50 percent (in 2004, 2008 and 2009), 49 percent against 51 percent (in 2006) and 47 percent against 53 percent (in year 2005) to females and males, respectively (Figure 4.3). It means that PEDP I and II minimized enrolment gender gap between boys and girls since percentage ranged from 0 to 3 only.

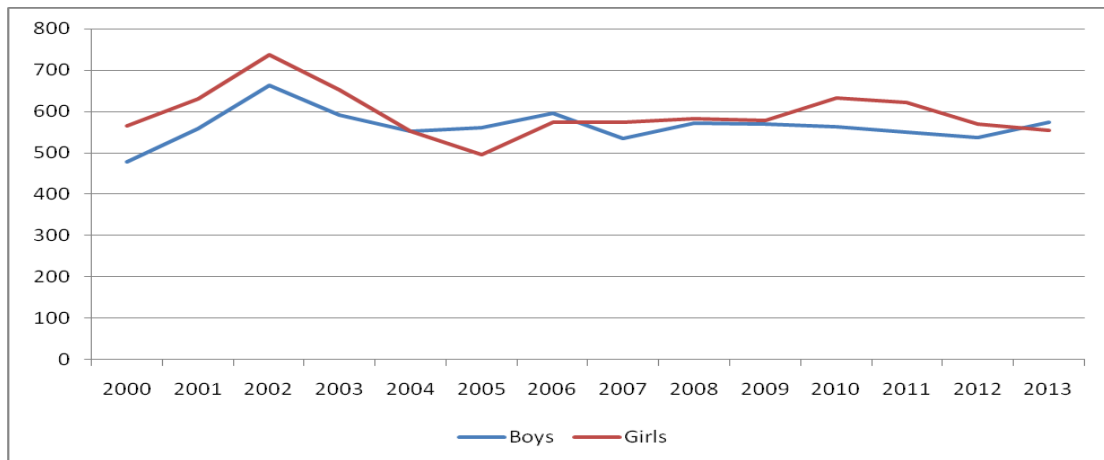


Figure 4.3 : Enrolment Trends and Gender

Before implementation of PEDP programmes, there was a high degree of inequality in education provision between girls and boys in urban and rural settings. For instance, there was unequal enrolment between girls and boys in primary education in Morogoro Urban District and Morogoro Rural District. Thus, PEDP implementation succeeded in reducing the gap, which happened on enrolment for girls as well as boys in rural areas and in urban areas. In rural areas, enrolment for girls increased from 194 pupils in 2001 to 293 pupils in 2002 and for boys increased from 158 pupils in 2001 to 285 pupils in

2002. In urban areas, significant increases were also observed from 372 for girls in 2001 to 444 in 2002 and 321 for boys in 2001 to 378 in 2002 (Figure 4.4).

Figures 4.3 and 4.4 show that in urban area, boys had almost the same enrolment pattern like girls in primary schools as indicated in year 2006 and for rural, it happened in 2009 when enrolment became the same. Such trends indicate that the huge gender gap in enrolment of boys and girls in urban and rural areas at primary level was closed. The onset of PEDP I and later years of implementing PEDP II brought immense enrolment changes, where data show that girls started to be enrolled more than boys in studied primary schools. Between years 2004 and 2006, 692 boys were enrolled in rural primary schools, compared to girls, data show that only 601 girls were enrolled in schools (Figure 4.4). After the government decision to continue with implementing PEDP II, girls' enrolment increased at primary education level in rural areas. Thus, it caused the gap (difference in enrolment) between boys as well as girls to be reduced and even closed throughout the years from 2007 to 2012. In urban area also, the gender gap or difference in enrolment between boys and girls was also reduced between years 2004 and 2007 as well as from 2009 to 2012 (Figure 4.4). From 2004 to 2007, 1362 boys were enrolled in comparison to 1358 girls at primary education level in Morogoro urban (Figure 4.4). Therefore, those statistical data revealed that PEDP increased and improved enrolment of girls and boys from poorer households thereby made education more accessible to all than before.

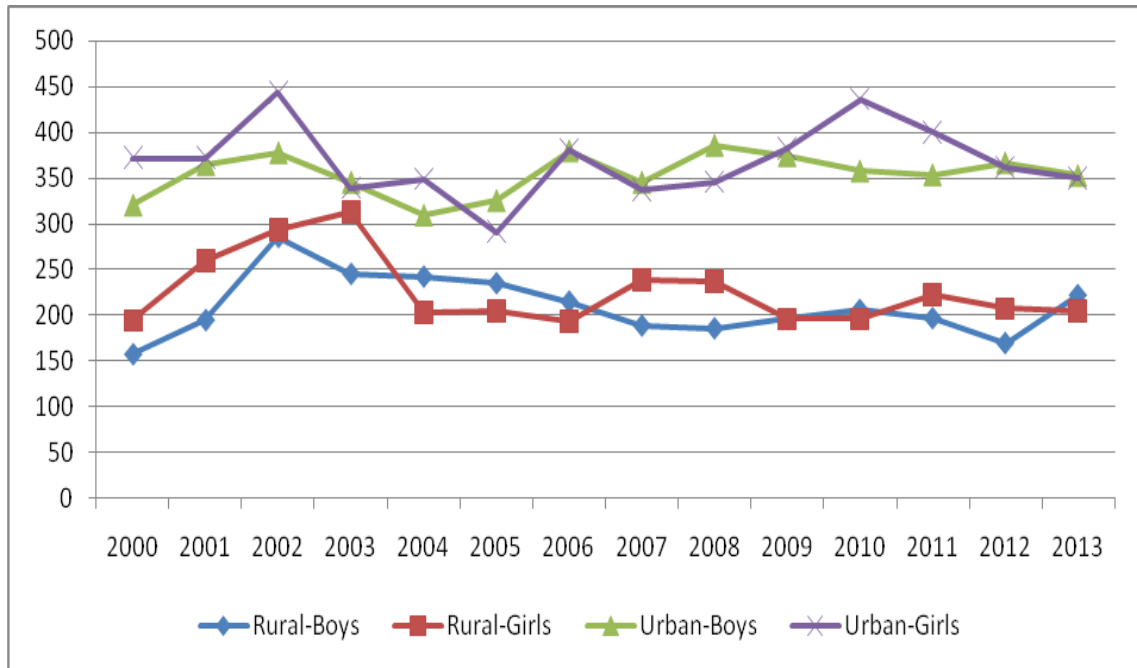


Figure 4.4 : Enrolment Trend of Pupils in Rural and Urban During PEDP I and II

For the case of viewing general trend of enrolment of pupils without categorizing if they belong to either rural or urban setting, it was found that number of both boys and girls in primary education had been either falling or remaining constant soon after the initial years of PEDP implementation. For instance, as shown in Figure 4.4, in year 2002, 52.6 percent of pupils enrolled in Standard I were females compared with 47.4 percent of boys. In the year 2003, 591 boys and 652 girls were enrolled compared to 663 boys and 737 girls who were enrolled in year 2002 (Figure 4.1; Figure 4.4). In addition, in 2004, there was decrease in 15 percent for girls who were enrolled in Standard I, where it moved from an increase of 16.8 percent in year 2002 when PEDP started. By 2006, girls made up 49.2 percent of all pupils enrolled in Standard I, while boys made up 50.8 percent (Figure 4.1; Figure 4.4).

In PEDP II implementation, enrolments of pupils in the studied two districts were relatively lower than enrolment done in PEDP I and hence, an increase in enrolment in first few years of programme should have been much higher. The increase in enrolment in PEDP II in both districts had been quite moderate compared to enrolment of pupils in PEDP I. The overall enrolment in both districts decreased from 5,973 in PEDP I (2002 – 2006) to 5,783 in PEDP II (2007 – 2011) (Table 4.7).

In post-PEDP, in year 2012, the number of enrolled boys decreased to 537 as from 551 enrolled boys in 2011 in primary schools, and number of girls had fallen from 578 in 2009 to 569 in 2012 (Table 4.7). The enrolment trend of all years is shown clearly in Figure 4.4.

The researcher was also interested to assess the enrolment situation of children with disabilities in primary schools. The results for this research task were obtained by examining school enrolment data on children with disabilities for the entire period of implementation of PEDP I and II, which started from 2002 to 2011. The results from study done in Morogoro Rural and Morogoro Urban areas showed that the enrolment rate for children with disabilities in primary schools increased by 13 percent when the programme was yet to be implemented in year 2000/2001 (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9 shows enrolment of children with disabilities in primary schools in pre-PEDP, during PEDP-I as well as II and post-PEDP time. For the entire period of year 2000 to 2013, the data showed that about 187 children with disabilities were enrolled in primary

schools located in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District (Table 4.9). In calculating the percentage of enrolled pupils against number of children with disabilities in each year, results showed that children with disabilities in each primary class accounted for around 1 percent of total enrolled pupils (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9 : Enrolment of Children with Disabilities by Sex in All Sampled Schools

Programme	Year	Sex		Total	Percentage Change
		Girls	Boys		
Pre-PEDP	2000	10	5	15	0
	2001	11	6	17	+13.3
PEDP I (2002 -6)	2002	5	5	10	-41.2
	2003	10	5	15	+50
	2004	6	5	11	-26.7
	2005	5	4	9	-18.2
	2006	3	3	6	-33.3
	PEDP II (2007 -11)	2007	4	3	7
2008		7	6	13	+85
2009		11	9	20	+46
2010		13	8	21	+10.5
2011		5	6	11	-48
Post-PEDP	2012	8	9	17	+54.5
	2013	6	9	15	-12
Total		104	83	187	

The study further found that there was an increase in enrolment of children with disabilities in primary schools over the last five years on closure of PEDP programme. Findings from this study indicated that 123 children with disabilities were enrolled in primary classes, whereby 51 were enrolled during PEDP I and 72 were enrolled during PEDP II in both districts (Table 4.9). With such trend of enrolment in the two districts, access of children with disabilities to primary school was less than one percent (0.9 percent) and almost one percent (1.2 percent) of the total enrolment of primary school children enrolled during PEDP I and PEDP II, respectively. Hence, results from this

study closely correlate with government statistics, which showed that one percent of children with disabilities had access to basic education in Tanzania (URT, 2001).

It should be noted that overall enrolment for girls with disabilities had gone up during implementation of PEDP programmes. In 2003 on the rise of PEDP programme, number of girls with disabilities rose from 50 percent in year 2002 to 66.6 percent of all enrolled children with disabilities, while boys fell to 33.4 percent from 50 percent of previous year 2002 (Table 4.9). In subsequent years, girls consistently continued to outnumber boys (girls 54.5 percent and boys 45.5 percent in 2004, 55.5 percent for girls and 44.5 percent for boys in 2005) (Table 4.9). It was a good improvement done by parents in sending their children with disabilities to schools to acquire basic education.

Furthermore, the data showed that there were a higher proportion of female (55.6 percent) children with disabilities who enrolled in primary schools than male (44.4 percent) from year 2000 to 2013 (Table 4.9). That situation led to fluctuation in percentage change every year, where it raised and fell after one year to another. Such pattern marked an increase in number of female pupils against number of boys due to campaigns to parents that insisted them to send their children to schools during PEDP I and PEDP II implementation. In almost after one or two years of having a huge number of enrolment of pupils with disabilities, there was a noticeable decrease in number of them in class one as indicated in the researched data. For instance, from 2005 to 2007, it was found that in some schools, their enrolment numbers decreased (Table 4.9). The major reasons for such trend were due to school administrators' tendency of enrolling

pupils with disabilities as normal pupils. That happened mostly to pupils with physical disabilities, whose disabilities, in one way or another, did not hinder them from participating in studies. Such pupils managed to proceed with their studies continuously while facing minor challenges. They were mostly pupils having not severe physical disabilities, for instance, those having one leg or hand with disability. But for pupils with other kinds of disabilities, for instance, hearing impairment, intellectual impairment and visual impairment, they had to enroll in their special schools, such as Kilakala Primary School located in Morogoro urban. The study found that schools which enroll pupils of the said kinds of disabilities like Kilakala primary school, pupils had to study grades one, three and five for two years and study other grades for one year (which were grades two, four, six and seven). Hence, such situation compelled children with disabilities to study primary school education for ten years instead of seven years. This trend led to percentage decrease of enrolment of pupils in years 2002, 2004 to 2006.

A marked percentage increase in enrolment of children with disabilities of 50 and 85 in the years 2003 and 2008 respectively was noticed, which was caused by presented situation (Table 4.9). Actually in 2003, there were 15 enrolled children with disabilities who made 50 percent increase and 13 as well as 20 enrolled children with disabilities in years 2008 and 2009 in grade one class, which made an increase of 16.7 percent and 85 percent, respectively (Table 4.9). Not only did enrolment of children with disabilities in absolute form declined but also it occurred in terms of percentage to total enrolment where it declined significantly over its previous level as happened from years 2004 to 2006.

Findings from this research revealed that 1.7 percent of children enrolled in primary schools have identifiable disabilities. The researcher was also able to identify types of disabilities of children enrolled in studied primary schools. Results from this study showed that there were visually impaired children, children with intellectual impairments, deaf children and physically impaired children.

It was noted further that there was shortage of data on children with disabilities in primary schools researched on. Many schools where study was done had no clear record of children having disabilities. This situation led teachers to face difficulties in establishing clear data of enrolment of pupils with disabilities in researched schools. In this research, an attempt was made to get these data through documentary analysis of educational statistics found in districts as well as analysis of the national educational statistics data.

To conclude this section, the findings revealed that Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District experienced remarkable increase in enrolment of pupils in the first year of PEDP implementation, from year 2001 to 2002, whereby standard one enrolment increased by 34 percent. Furthermore, it was found that the programmes had a positive impact on primary school enrolment for males and females, where in year 2002 it was indicated that the percentage change in enrolment for boys increased by 18.4 percent and 16.8 percent for girls. The percentage in enrolment of female and male pupils throughout the periods of implementation of PEDP ranged between 47 to 53 percent to females and the same range of 47 to 53 percent to males. It was also learnt

that PEDP I and PEDP II minimized the existing enrolment gender gap between boys and girls from 0 to 3 percentage range. It led to closing the huge gap in enrolment of boys and girls, which existed in urban and rural areas at primary education level. Moreover, the study showed that the percentage of children with disabilities in each primary school was around 1 percent of total enrolled pupils such that access to primary school was less than one percent (0.9 percent) in PEDP I and 1.2 percent in PEDP II.

4.4.2 Retention Rates of Girls, Boys and Children with Disabilities

The study also sought to find if there were differential retention trends of girls and boys in primary education during PEDP I and PEDP II. It sought to see whether or not PEDP I and PEDP II improved retention of girls and boys in the selected primary schools in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District.

In view of this study, retention refers to situation which occurs when primary school children who have been enrolled to be provided opportunities to remain in study programme and complete a full cycle of schooling without dropping out after being admitted. However, in reality, not all children who are given access to formal education continue with their studies to complete their basic education.

Pupil retention is measured using such indicators, which are cohort retention rate and completion rate. These rates can also be used to calculate the retention of different categories of pupils, such as girls and boys, urban and rural pupils, different grades and different cohorts, children with special education needs, orphaned children and

vulnerable children. The term cohort, in this study, refers to a group of children that start school together in primary grade one and complete after seven years of the primary cycle (Thurlow, Sinclair, and Johnson, 2002). For instance, children who enrolled in primary school and started standard one in year 2000 were expected to complete their studies and hence, register for Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) in 2006. Similarly, pupils who enrolled in standard one in year 2002 were expected to register for PSLE in 2008.

The retention rate is proportion obtained after calculating the number of pupils enrolled in standard one who remain in the primary education cycle and hence, complete standard seven. Retention rates had to be calculated from enrolment data covering a series of time of number of years of the school cycle (cohort). In doing so, that made the average retention rate to be estimated from the retention rates of the schools (Thurlow, Sinclair, and Johnson, 2002).

In this case, based on the presented criteria, the retention rates of girls and boys in primary education during PEDP I and PEDP II were calculated from statistical data obtained from head teachers. The calculations showed that Primary Education Development Programmes had improved retention of pupils in the 12 studied primary schools. Head teachers revealed that many of their schools had increased retention of girls and boys due to implementation of PEDP in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District.

The retention rates of girls at primary education level were significantly higher in Morogoro Urban District (95.7 percent), while they were fairly high in the Morogoro Rural District where it was 80.4 percent in the entire period of PEDP I and PEDP II (Figure 4.5). At the same time, the retention rates of boys at studied schools were notably high in the Morogoro Urban District at 93.9 percent. On the other side, the retention rates of boys in Morogoro Rural District were fairly good in all schools where they accounted at 78.5 percent (Figure 4.5). This is depicted well in Figure 4.5, where it shows that retention of pupils was higher in urban areas than rural areas.

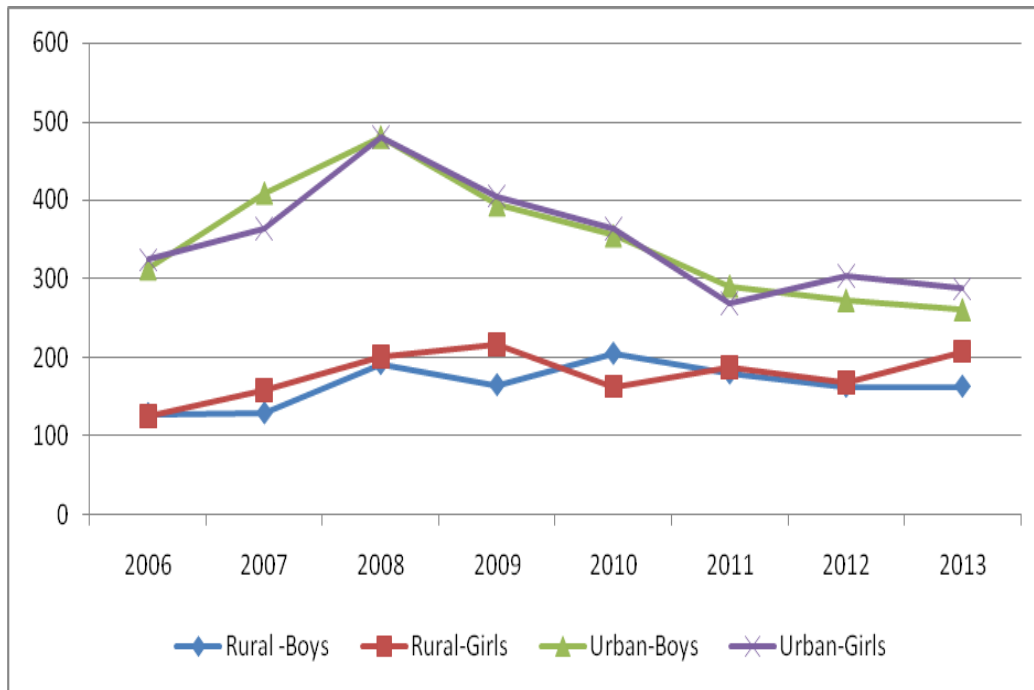


Figure 4.5: Retention Trends by Ecology and Sex During PEDP I and II in Numbers

It was further learnt that children living in urban areas were retained more in schools than children living in rural areas as shown in Figure 4.5. The trend showed that pupils

living in rural areas had low retention, which ranged a little bit above 100 to above 200, while for pupils in urban area, their retention ranged from nearly 250 to 500. In urban areas, 94.8 percent of children who enrolled in schools were retained compared to 79.45 percent of children who were retained in rural areas (Figure 4.6). At the same time, in rural areas, girls were more likely to remain at school than boys, the opposite was true in urban area. While improvement in enrolment and retention among girls in basic schools could be attributed to girl child education campaigns done in rural areas, also some of the contributing factors were presence of government's policy, which appeared to have played a more significant supportive role than others.

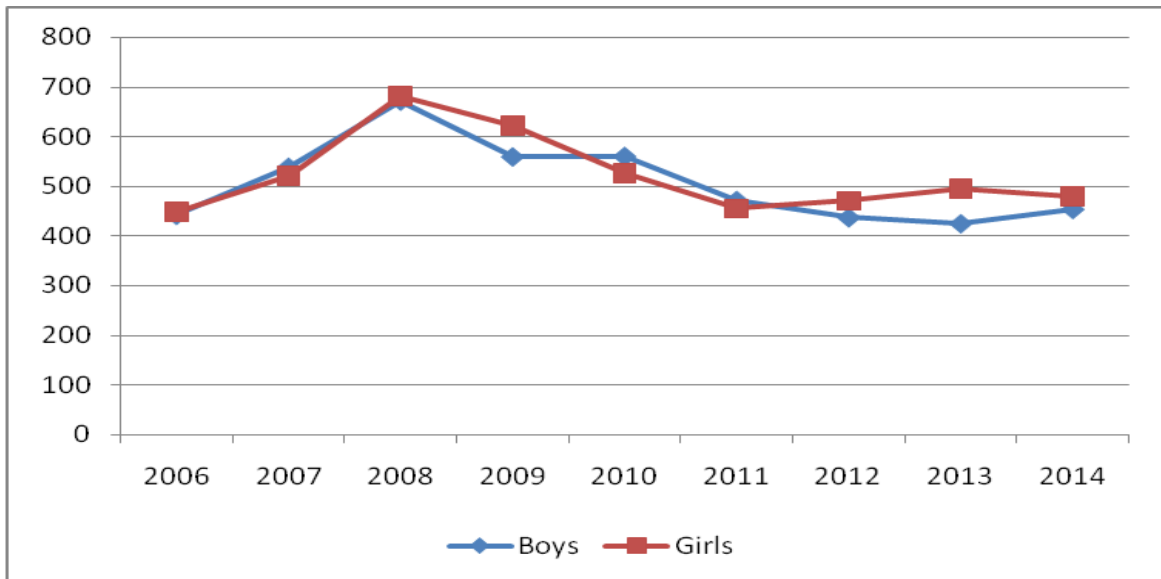


Figure 4.6 : Retention Trends by Sex During PEDP I and II in Thousands ('000)

Figure 4.7 also confirms that retention of pupils in primary schools increased. Whereas the retention rate of pupils in 2006 was 85.2 percent, it increased to 96.6 percent in 2008; such increase represented an improvement of 11.4 percent in the retention rate (Figure 4.7). While significant retention rates to pupils were recorded between 2008 and

2010, the retention rate recorded in 2010 was the highest of all (98.4 percent). The retention rate showed gradual improvement to 87.7 percent in 2011 to 82.8 percent in the year 2013 (Table 4.10).

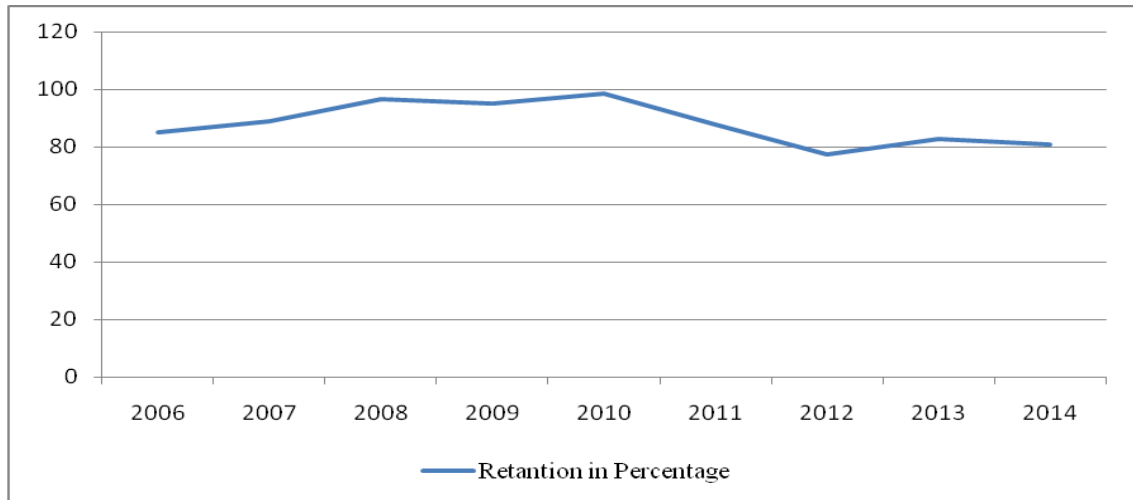


Figure 4.7 : Retention Rates of Pupils by Percentage During PEDP I and II

Table 4.10 : Retention Rates by Sex During PEDP I and II

Programme	Enrolment Date	Enrolment	Completion Date	Total Retention			Retention in %
				Boys	Girls	Grand	
Pre-PEDP	2000	1045	2006	441	449	890	85.2
	2001	1191	2007	538	521	1059	88.9
PEDP I (2002 -6)	2002	1400	2008	672	681	1353	96.6
	2003	1243	2009	559	622	1181	95
	2004	1104	2010	560	526	1086	98.4
	2005	1057	2011	471	456	927	87.7
	2006	1169	2012	436	471	907	77.6
PEDP II	2007	1110	2013	424	495	919	82.8
	2008	1155	2014	453	481	934	80.7

Responses from teachers also showed that most of the schools had increased retention due to introduction of PEDP programmes and campaigns done by government to make

parents aware as well as know importance of sending their children to schools. While responding to follow-up questions, of the interviewed 12 head teachers, 11 (98%) head teachers acknowledged an increase in retention of pupils in their schools compared to the time PEDP was not introduced. However, one head teacher did not give any response towards impact of PEDP programmes on retention trend of pupils.

The study also identified that retention of children with disabilities in primary schools were improving, with the proportion of children starting schooling and reach the final year of a given level rising markedly through 2002 to 2008. Nevertheless, in absolute terms, they remained low, with an average only of three quarters of children who started grade one in 2003 reached fifth grade by 2007 (Table 4.11). The percentage change of retention of children with disabilities as indicated in Table 4.11 shows that there was instability in their attendance in schools year after year and Figure 4.8 shows that trends of their stay at school fluctuated. Table 4.11 shows that there was a marked percentage decrease in retention of pupils with disabilities of 16.6 percent for boys and 54.5 percent for girls in year 2002/2008. The same rate was also identified from years 2010 to 2011, where decrease in pupils with disabilities accounted for 16.6 percent for boys and 40 percent for girls in year 2004/2010, 20 percent for boys and 16.6 percent for girls in year 2005/2011 and 25 percent for boys and 40 percent for girls in year 2006/2012 (Table 4.11).

Table 4.11 : Retention Pattern of Children with Disabilities During PEDP I and II

Programme	Enrolment Date	Completion Date	Total Retention		Percentage Change	
			Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Pre-PEDP	2000	2006	5	10		
	2001	2007	6	11	+20	+10
PEDP I (2002 -6)	2002	2008	5	5	-16.6	-54.5
	2003	2009	6	8	+20	+60
	2004	2010	5	6	-16.6	-40
	2005	2011	4	5	-20	-16.6
	2006	2012	3	3	-25	-40
PEDP II	2007	2013	4	4	+33.3	+33.3
	2008	2014	3	5	-25	+25

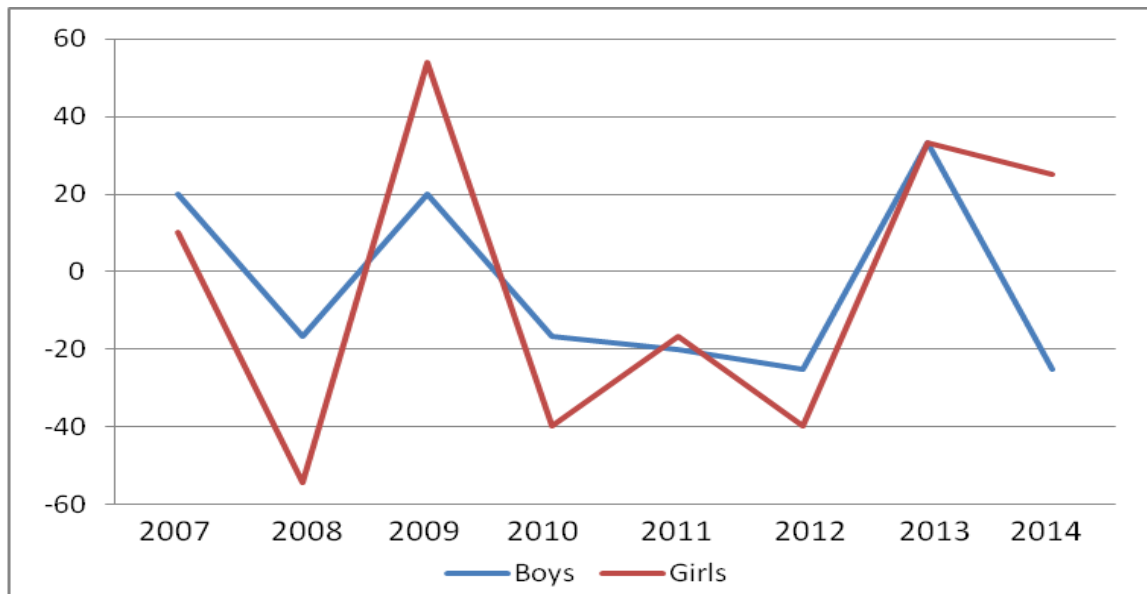
**Figure 4.8 : Percentage Change of Retention of Children with Disabilities During PEDP I and II**

Figure 4.8 also shows clearly that there was rise and fall of their retention at schools. The fall in retention was experienced among girls with disabilities in years 2007 and 2008 thereafter, from 2010 to 2012 and as it happened also to boys with disabilities in years 2008, 2011 to 2012 (Figure 4.8). The reason for such decrease in percentage changes in these years could be due to low enrolment of pupils with disabilities and even some of them dropped out from studies. At one of visited special primary schools, children with disabilities had to study for ten years instead of their seven year primary education cycle. At the visited school, children with disabilities who were mostly had intellectual impairment, hearing impairment and deaf had to study in standard one for two years, standard two for one year, standard three for two years, standard four for one year, then standard five for two years and they had to study standards six and seven for one year each. Such situation caused the school fails to enroll pupils in standard one as it used to happen in previous years.

Figure 4.8 even shows that positive percentage change on enrolment of pupils occurred very high in year 2009 for girls with disabilities while such percentage change happened to boys with disabilities at a very high rate in the same year 2009. Such pattern depicts that there were many enrolled pupils with disabilities in primary schools in year 2009, which might be due to parents' awareness on importance of education to their children.

Through observation of schools' infrastructure, the researcher learned that the environment of studies for children with disabilities was not supportive. They lacked supportive materials like teaching and learning aids, special needs teachers, and

accessible as well as friendly environments, which had no barriers for movements, especially to pupils having visual and physical disabilities. Some of the schools had limited access to classrooms, toilets and teachers' offices, situations, which hindered such pupils to move freely. In other schools, the researcher observed that there were no accessible routes in school compounds, no clean toilets for children with disabilities to use and many classroom doors were not wide enough for wheelchairs to pass.

However, Morogoro Urban District had much higher retention rate at primary school level than Morogoro Rural District. It was one of aims of PEDP to ensure that all children from disadvantaged groups are enrolled (URT, 2001). While the retention rate in Morogoro Urban District had significantly improved over the period of PEDP I, the situation in Morogoro Rural District was not encouraging.

In summarizing findings of this section, it can be said that retention rates of girls at primary education level were significantly higher in Morogoro Urban District (95.7 percent) than Morogoro Rural District where it was 80.4 percent in the entire period of PEDP I and II. Also it was learnt that, retention rates of boys at primary schools were notably higher in Morogoro Urban District at 93.9 percent and retention of boys was fairly good in Morogoro Rural District at 78.5 percent. The study also discovered that children with disabilities had to study and stay at primary schools for ten years instead of seven years as normal pupils.

4.4.3 Dropout Rates of Girls, Boys and Children with Disabilities

The study also focused on analysis of dropout rates of pupils in Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District during PEDP I and PEDP II implementations. The dropout rate refers to percentage of students who dropout from school before reaching standard 7 (Rumberger, 2001). The study revealed that dropouts were high among girls and were increasing at a higher rate than boys. Table 4.12 shows that the total dropouts in rural schools were 124 for girls and 111 for boys, while in urban schools, there were 7 for girls and 4 for boys from years 2000 to 2013. Dropout trends for both boys and girls as indicated in Figure 4.9 were high in the PEDP I although they decreased in the PEDP II.

Table 4.12 : Dropout Rates by Sex and Year

Programme	Year	Total Completion		Dropout by Location				Total	Percentage of Drop out	
		Girls	Boys	Rural		Urban			Girls	Boys
				Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls			
Pre-PEDP	2000	610	538	21	20	1	1	43	3.3	3.9
	2001	554	465	14	10	0	2	26	2.1	2.9
PEDP I (2002 -6)	2002	707	641	22	29	0	1	52	4.0	3.3
	2003	636	573	18	16	0	0	34	2.4	3.1
	2004	547	549	2	4	1	1	8	0.9	0.5
	2005	492	553	7	4	1	0	12	0.8	1.4
	2006	559	585	9	13	1	2	25	2.6	1.7
PEDP II (2007 -11)	2007	553	526	9	22	0	0	31	3.8	1.7
	2008	578	568	4	5	0	0	9	0.9	0.7
	2009	577	567	4	1	0	0	5	0.2	0.7
	2010	632	564	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2011	622	550	1	0	0	0	1	0	0.2
Post-PEDP	2012	569	537	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	2013	555	575	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total		8191	7791	111	124	4	7	246	21	20.1

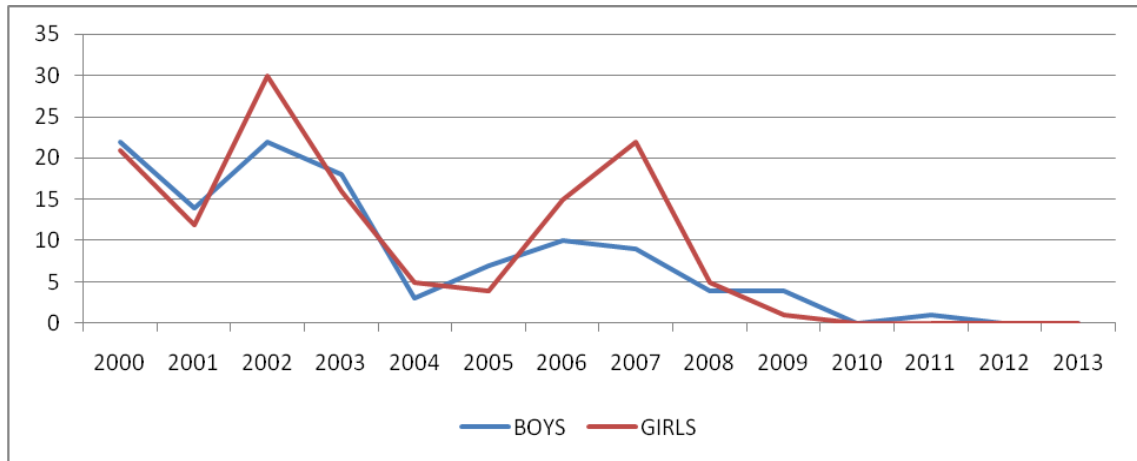


Figure 4.9 : Dropout Trends for Boys and Girls: 2000 – 2013 in Percentages

Despite improvement in provision of education requirements to pupils living in rural and urban areas over the entire period of executing PEDP I and PEDP II, both districts revealed that there were many children who dropped out from studies before reaching standard seven. In looking at the dropout rates, the researcher noted that it was 1.17 percent dropout by average throughout the PEDP I and II (Figure 4.9). While at the same time from year 2000 to 2013, the dropout rate by average was 1.5 percent for boys and girls in all studied schools in the two districts (Figure 4.9). Actually, dropout rates differed significantly according to place of residence of being either in rural or urban as indicated in Figures 4.10 and 4.11.

The data from the Table 4.12 further reveal that dropout rate was higher in rural schools than in urban schools throughout the years. It was identified that dropout rates were very high in Morogoro Rural District during PEDP I and became the lowest in mid years when PEDP II was in place. However, children in urban areas experienced lower dropout rates than children in rural areas in PEDP I and completely there was no dropout

in PEDP II. Therefore, in general, it can be inferred that the dropout rate for pupils living in rural areas was higher than dropout rate for pupils living in urban areas.

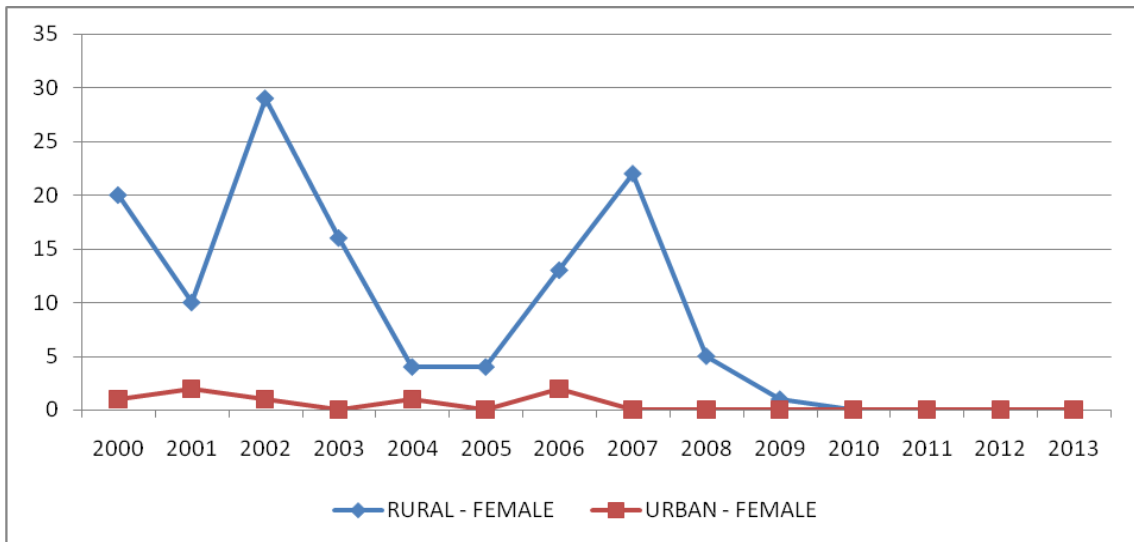


Figure 4.10: Dropout Trends for Rural and Urban Girls: 2000 – 2013 in Percentages

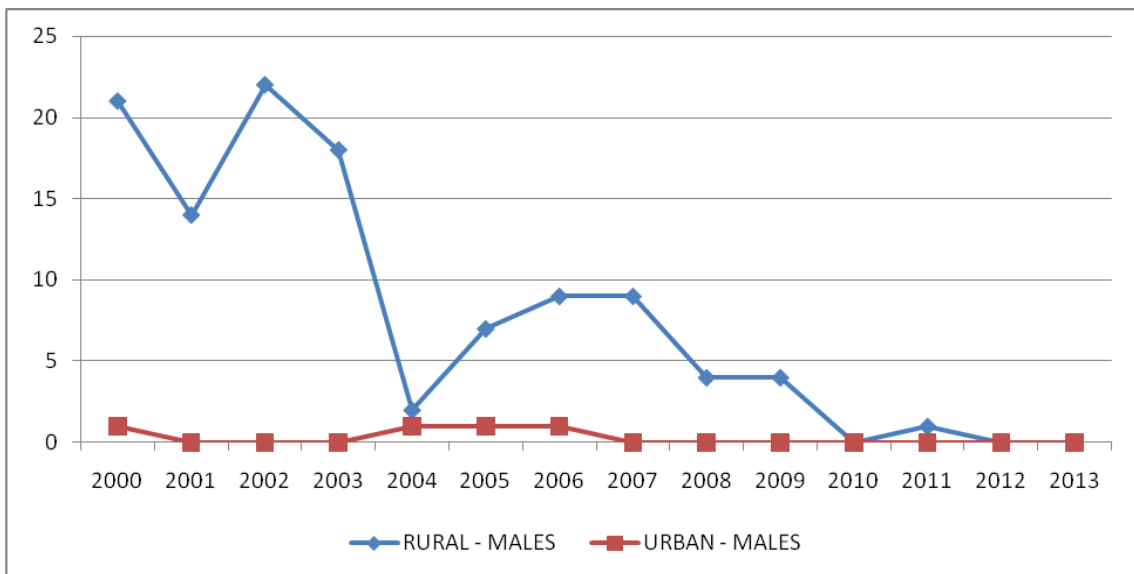


Figure 4.11: Dropout Trends for Rural and Urban Boys: 2000 – 2013 in Percentages

The root cause of such dropout was identified after making follow up interviews with head teachers. Majority of head teachers gave a common reason that many children who dropped out from school were needed for works or even cultivation activities especially in rural areas where there were agricultural activities. The quotations presented in the foregoing relate to this finding from the study:

...because children assist their family in fetching water, collecting fire woods and even taking care of their young ones when parents are not at home and they go for farm or other activities.

Many parents here involve their children in farm activities and sometimes they go to farm very far from their homes for some days.

...to hire a tractor for farming is very expensive. It is a situation, which makes children help their families in tilling the land in farming seasons.

The second reason given was that many children, due to geographical location and environmental exposure to diseases, made them fall sick. Absence of health centers particularly in rural areas caused many children to be prone to diseases such as malaria and typhoid. Such situations forced pupils to drop out from school due to extended absenteeism. Some head teachers had these to say,

Do you see how mosquitoes are many even in this place where we are seated? Look at that one! It can sting us even now, in classes, mmmh. I cannot say. They are many, many, everywhere you see them. Children always suffer from malaria.

...they just drink some fetched water from streams without considering if water is safe and clean or not. They do not boil water. On the other hand, getting firewood is very difficult. You see, people have cut down trees... Thus, some of them involve their children in tree cutting activities, fetching firewood for family use.

...as you see, no health center, no clinic, no dispensary and even a hospital. If a child falls sick, one has to send her/him to town for treatments. Such pattern causes pupils' absent from school and prolonged pattern leads to their dropout from school.

Sometimes in both urban and rural areas, the illness of a family member also triggered children to drop out when there was shortage of labour to that family. Other reasons they offered were attributed to distance to school, where it was reported that some schools were far away from pupils' homes. The following quotations given by head teachers portray these findings:

This mountainous feature of this place have made homesteads to scatter everywhere, look at that homestead (while showing at the top of hill), there are pupils who lives there but study in this school.

Pupils who study here are coming from other wards. There is no restriction that they should enroll in their wards. Some pupils may board commuter buses nicknamed in Kiswahili as *daladala* or come by bicycles or even get here at school on foot.

Furthermore, absenteeism may be due to seasonal labour, lower prospects of children to proceed with further studies beyond primary education, long distance from home to school and limited opportunities for accessing secondary schooling in rural areas (Hunt, 2008). The problem for girls to drop out seemed to be that, they dropped out from school at certain ages for various reasons. For instance, girls who were aged between 15 and 24, were more likely to dropout because of getting married and giving birth to children (Hunt, 2008). Other reasons were said to be truancy, pregnancy, and death (URT, 2006a).

Furthermore, when interviews were also carried out among heads teachers to explore reasons which made children to drop out of schools, they revealed that low learning achievement was the main contributing factor for children drop out from school. Some children repeatedly failed in grade IV, a situation, which compelled them to stay in the

same grade year after year. The act of repeating the grade reduces gains to be obtained from schooling and increases education costs to parents by broadening the school cycle.

The following quotations illustrate these findings from the study:

If a parent just completed standard seven, it is very difficult for such parent to encourage his/her child to remain at school. At the end, the child drops out from school due to some reasons unresolved by such parent with low education level and thus, low understanding on importance school for children.

We were not allowing any pupil to continue to standard five without passing standard four examinations. They had to repeat the same grade.

Corporal punishment, though not very much stressed upon, was also deployed in schools and became a reason for dropping out among pupils. It was also recognized that in other schools, corporal punishment was still applied to pupils by some teachers despite being banned as a result of human and children right initiatives.

In rural primary schools, many schools lacked reliable and sufficient infrastructure to make pupils study properly. The researcher found out that there was insufficient school infrastructure and amenities, like desks, classrooms and toilets, which had important links with the dropout. In the urban area, primary schools had significantly recorded lower dropout rates to pupils because of availability of drinking water within schools, sufficient toilet facilities and reliable electricity supplies.

It was revealed that teacher qualification levels had a significant effect on dropout trends of pupils, where it was found that higher dropout trends were related with lower levels of teacher qualification. The study found that before pupils made decision to drop out

from school, there were often clear indicators that gave clues ahead of children dropping out from school. These included grade repetition, low achievement in their study, over-age enrollers in the studied grade and children's frequent absence from school.

In documentary review, several studies (for example, Brooks-Gunn, Duncan and Aber, 1997; Wamahu, Opondo and Nyagah, 1992; Wanjiru, 2007) revealed that poverty was the main reason forcing children to drop out from school. It was indicated that in low income household usually cannot afford to buy uniforms, and other school related expenses (shoes, socks, school bags and so forth) (Wanjiru, 2007). Therefore, children must work to support their families or otherwise, their families can no longer afford to send them to school.

The researcher was further interested to know the trend of dropout of children with disabilities in studied primary schools. Statistical data on boys and girls for the entire period (pre-PEDP, during PEDP and post-PEDP) as reported by teachers were observed (Table 4.13). Table 4.13 indicates that pupils with disabilities who dropped out from studies belonged to urban schools rather than rural schools. It was identified that 13 children with disabilities dropped out, among them 5 were females and 8 male pupils. The root causes of their dropouts were environmental hardship emanating from school location and structural buildings of classrooms, which caused barriers in accessing them.

In conclusion, results from this study suggest that PEDP was largely successful, particularly in keeping pupils in school for a long time. Hence, they complete studies.

Most successful results were found in all primary schools that were supported by the Programmes.

Table 4.13 : Dropout of Children with Disabilities by Sex and Year

Programme	Year	Dropout				Total
		Rural Schools		Urban Schools		
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Pre-PEDP	2000	0	0	1	1	2
	2001	0	0	2	2	4
PEDP I (2002 -6)	2002	0	0	3	2	5
	2003	0	0	0	0	0
	2004	0	0	1	1	2
	2005	0	0	2	1	3
	2006	0	0	2	1	3
PEDP (2007 -11)	2007	0	0	0	0	0
	2008	0	0	0	0	0
	2009	0	0	0	0	0
	2010	0	0	0	0	0
	2011	0	0	0	0	0
Post-PEDP	2012	0	0	0	0	0
	2013	0	0	0	0	0
Total		0	0	11	8	19

Conclusively, it can be said that drop out of pupils from primary schools was not alarming since 1.17 percent of pupils dropped out by average throughout PEDP I and PEDP II. It was even identified from the study that dropout of pupils living in rural areas was higher than pupils living in urban areas. Therefore from these findings, it can be concluded that PEDP I and PEDP II were successful in reducing dropout in these primary schools.

4.4.4 Academic Performance of Girls, Boys and Children with Disabilities

In this study, focus was made also to see learners' achievement in their final examinations as one of important indicators of acquiring quality education. Hence the term academic performance refers to pupils' learning outcome levels acquired after their successful completion of primary education. In Tanzania, Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) results are used as a proxy indicator of learners' achievement. The Primary School Leaving Examination usually includes Mathematics, English, Kiswahili, Science and Social Studies (*Maarifa ya Jamii*). The grades were indicated as they appeared in the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) results. The overall grades are shown as follows: A, B, C, D and E, while F stands for fail.

Findings from this study are presented in Figures 4.12 and 4.13 to indicate the trend of performance in Primary School Leaving Examinations (PSLE) results for boys and girls in rural and urban areas. The graphs show trends of the PSLE performance in rural and urban areas by grades in the two districts over the entire period of Pre- PEDP, time of PEDP implementation and Post-PEDP from year 2000 to 2013. However, results were disaggregated by gender and different periods for programmes' implementation so as to enable simple interpretation of results. In a cursory look at the examination results, it shows that above 80 percent of children who sat for PSLE since PEDP implementation in 2002 passed their examinations by average of 'C' grade and above, which is good improvement (Figures 4.12 and 4.13).

Results from this study indicated that there was significant difference in academic performance of rural and urban pupils in PSLE results. The trend of performance shows that many rural male pupils mostly underperformed and scored low in a range of 40 and below in grades A, B and C, while urban area, male pupils scored above the range of 40 to 180 in grades A, B and C (Figure 4.12 and 4.13).

On the other side, in Figure 4.13, the urban girls’ academic performance trend shows that many of them obtained grades A and B in the range of 40 – 180 and few scored grade C in the range below 40. Figure 4.13 also indicates that rural female pupils mostly scored grades A, B and C below the range of 40.

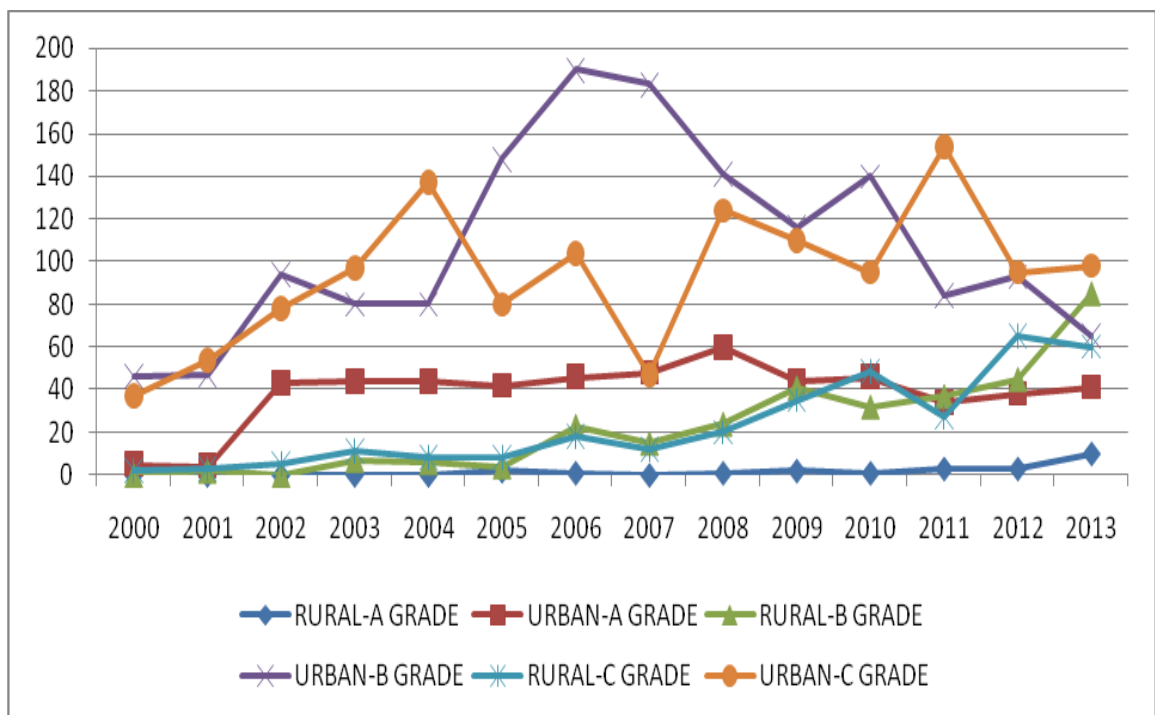


Figure 4.12 : PSLE Performance Level Trends for Male Pupils in Rural and Urban Areas, 2000 – 2013

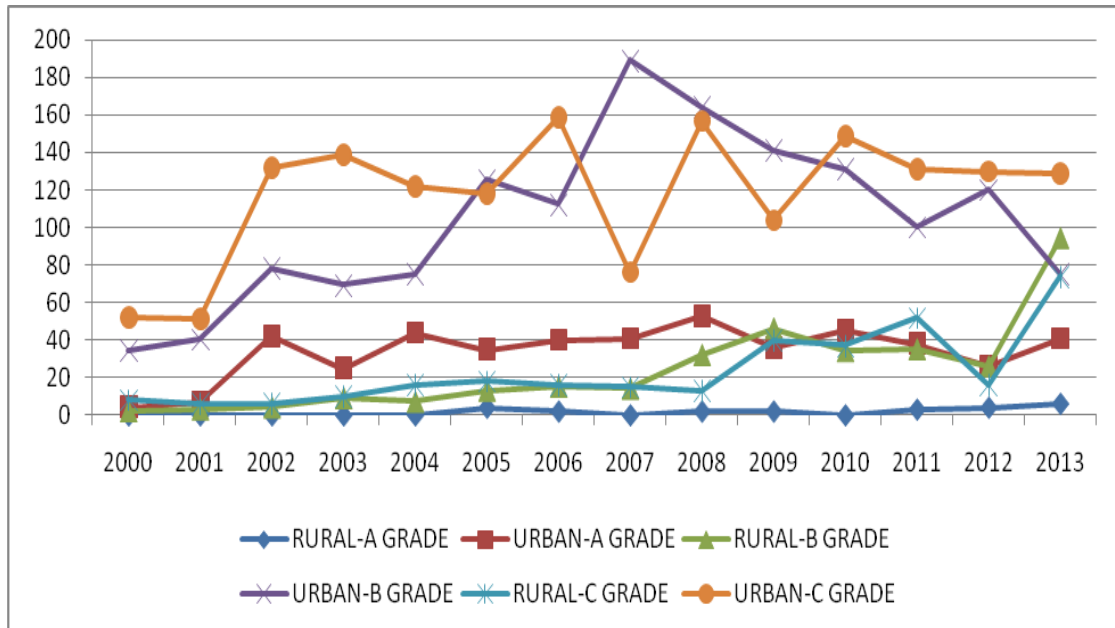


Figure 4.13 : PSLE Performance Level Trends for Female Pupils in Rural and Urban Areas, 2000 – 2013

There were significant gender differences in examination performance where girls outnumbered boys in performance in year 2008 and 2011. In the said two years, girls who passed the PSLE accounted 52.6 percent and 52.7 percent in year 2008 and 2011 compared with 47.4 percent and 47.3 percent for boys respectively (Figure 4.12 and 4.13). But for the rest of years in general, boys outperformed girls in both PEDP periods. In general, it made girls' performance in Primary School Leaving Examination results remain lower than performance of boys at all times. The performance of boys might be caused by their good background in literacy and numeracy as well as being sent to pre-primary schools earlier than their counterpart girls who were involved in chore works (Wanjiru, 2007).

Overall, the results showed that for the whole period of fourteen years, girls tended to perform more poorly than boys in PSLE. From 2002 to 2011, results showed that 48.6 percent of girls passed PSLE with A and B grades compared to 51.4 percent of boys (Figure 4.12 and 4.13). Such pattern reduced the chance for girls to be selected to join secondary education in the country, particularly in Morogoro Region, since their performances were poor.

Analysis of PSLE results in Figures 4.12 and 4.13 indicated that there was a sinusoidal curve of grade performance in both period of PEDP I and II. The grade 'A' passes in the PEDP I ranged between 69 and 89, while in the PEDP II, grade 'A' passes ranged between 71 and 176 (Figure 4.12 and 4.13). There was more grade 'B' passes in PEDP II that ranged between 256 and 401, while in the PEDP I, grade 'B' passes ranged between 165 and 340 (Figure 4.12 and 4.13).

The PSLE performance level trends shown in Figures 4.12 and 4.13 indicate that there were more improvement of grades obtained by pupils in examinations results in both programmes. For example, in PEDP I, majority of the pupils obtained grade C pass, which was not good enough for them to be selected to join secondary schools in Morogoro Region. Furthermore, it was found that between the years 2001 and 2002, there was prominent improvement of the pass rate where there was an increase of 155 percent in grades A and B. In year 2006, performance had increased to 316 percent in grades A and B compared to the year 2001 before PEDP implementation (Figure 4.12 and 4.13). There was relatively better performance of pupils in PSLE results in the

PEDP II in the 2007 to 2013 than results obtained in PEDP I from years 2002 to 2006. One possible explanation for such differences is variation in number of candidates that were enrolled in both PEDP programmes and the way teachers committed to work themselves in PEDP II, these situations could have helped pupils do comparatively better than before PEDP implementations.

Another possible explanation for such differences in performance was the amount of contact time teachers gave to pupils and support given by teachers. So far participatory teaching and learning methods were good and there were neither use of lecture methods nor shortages of materials in many primary schools, like text books and reference books due to PEDP. Resource allocations to schools had increased over time and they were adequate as per school needs and actually the said programmes were adequately funded (URT, 2001; URT, 2004).

There were improved examination results during PEDP I and PEDP II, which might be caused with improved education provision in the country. The improvement in examination results were not caused by *'the Hawthorne effect'* because pupils were unaware of government's investments in education during the programmes. The corresponding performance in PEDP - II was much more advanced, with the proportion of candidates scoring at B grade and above. It was a pattern, which made the phase (PEDP - II) to be at least in a better position than PEDP - I, with only a few exceptions of pupils' performance (Figure 4.12 and 4.13).

Moreover, it was noted that improved provision of education came through improved teaching and learning processes, whereby many well trained and qualified teachers were employed and at the same time, pupils got access to many good textbooks. At the same time the design of final examination changed and virtually all students in the country had to sit for the same examination, an aspect, which allowed consistent comparisons across schools and school systems (private and government-owned). The other reason for improved final examination results was probably due to a change in examination setting and answering, where pupils were required to shed an answer only so that Optical Marking Reader (OMR) could be introduced in 2003. Introduction of Optical Marking Reader (OMR), an electronic system rolled out to speed up the marking process thereby ensured accuracy of results and even marking was made to be easier. Hence, there was fast delivery of final examinations results.

In addition, significance level of difference in academic performance of pupils in the selected primary schools was also examined by testing set hypotheses. The guiding hypotheses were stated to see if the academic performance of girls and boys in PSLE either improved or not during PEDP I and II. Based on differences in means of pupils' academic performance in two PEDP phases, there was need to establish if means were statically significant. In order to establish whether or not difference in girls' and boys' academic performance between PEDP I and PEDP II were statistically significant, an independent t-test of scores of pupils was computed at 5 percent significance level. In the computation, grades obtained by pupils were converted and computed to score values, where grade 'A' was valued to 5 scores, grade 'B' valued to 4 scores, grade 'C'

valued to 3 scores, grade ‘D’ valued to 2 scores, grade ‘E’ valued to 1 score and grade ‘F’ valued to 0.

The research hypothesis was that: academic performance of girls and boys in PSLE improved during PEDP I and PEDP II. In order to make it easier for this hypothesis to be tested, a null hypothesis was developed. A t-test for independent samples was applied to find out if the means of programmes showed significant differences (Ary *et. al.*, 2006). Therefore, the researcher used a *p value* 0.05 of significance level either to reject or accept the null hypotheses throughout the testing.

The null hypothesis tested was:

H0: There is no statistically significant difference in pupils’ academic performance in PEDP –I and PEDP – II for the years 2002-2006 and 2007 – 2011.

The t-test model used to test this hypothesis was: $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ where μ_1 and μ_2 represent pupils’ academic performance in PEDP – I and PEDP – II, respectively. Table 4.13 gives a summary of t-test results.

Table 4.14 : T-Test on Pupils’ Academic Performance in PEDP I and PEDP II

Programme	Number of Pupils	Total Scores	Mean Scores	Std. Deviation	t.	Sig.
PEDP I	4129	11709	2.84	1.492	-3.055	.005
PEDP II	5163	17914	3.47	1.446		

Table 4.14 shows that on average, academic performance score of pupils during PEDP I was 2.84 and in PEDP II, the score was 2.94, with Standard deviations 1.492 and 1.446,

respectively. Thus, findings indicated that there was significant difference in the academic performance between the PEDP – 1 and PEDP – II at 5 percent level (p Value = $0.005 < 0.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected.

The study was also interested to know if the academic performance achieved during implementation of PEDP I and PEDP II varied with gender. Figures 4.14 and 4.15 show trends of academic performance of girls and boys in PSLE during PEDP I and PEDP II for obtained grades A, B, C, D, E and F. Figures 4.14 and 4.15 also show that the worst performance in PSLE results were from boys who scored 17 percent in E and F as compared to girls who scored 15 percent in the two grades.

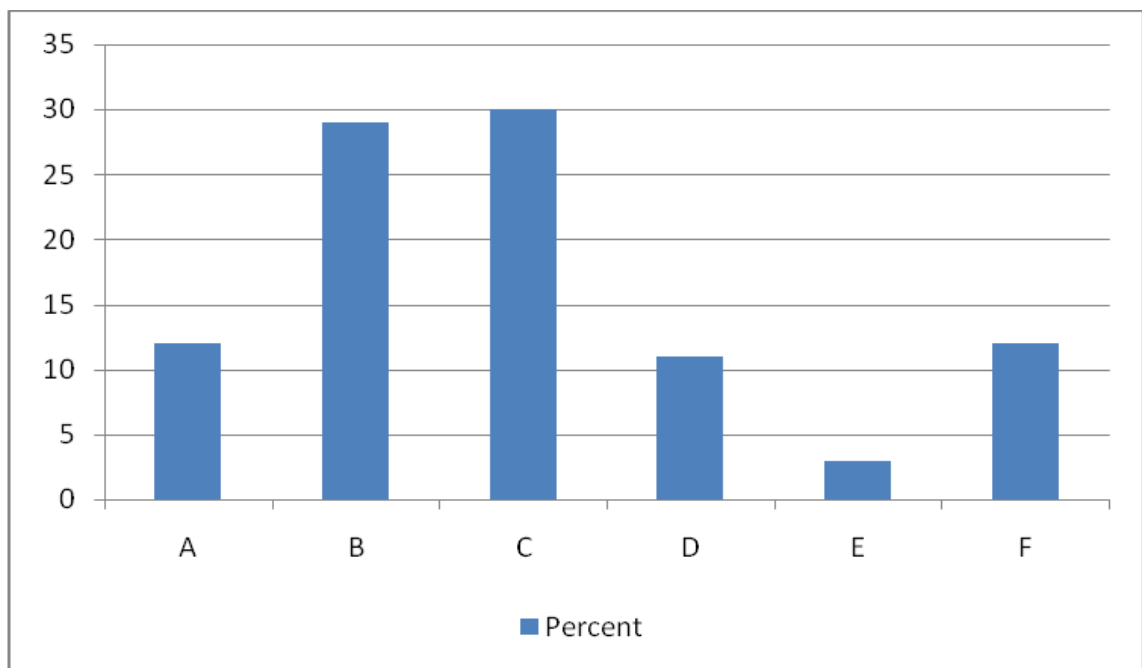


Figure 4.14 : Females' Performance in PSLE During PEDP I and II

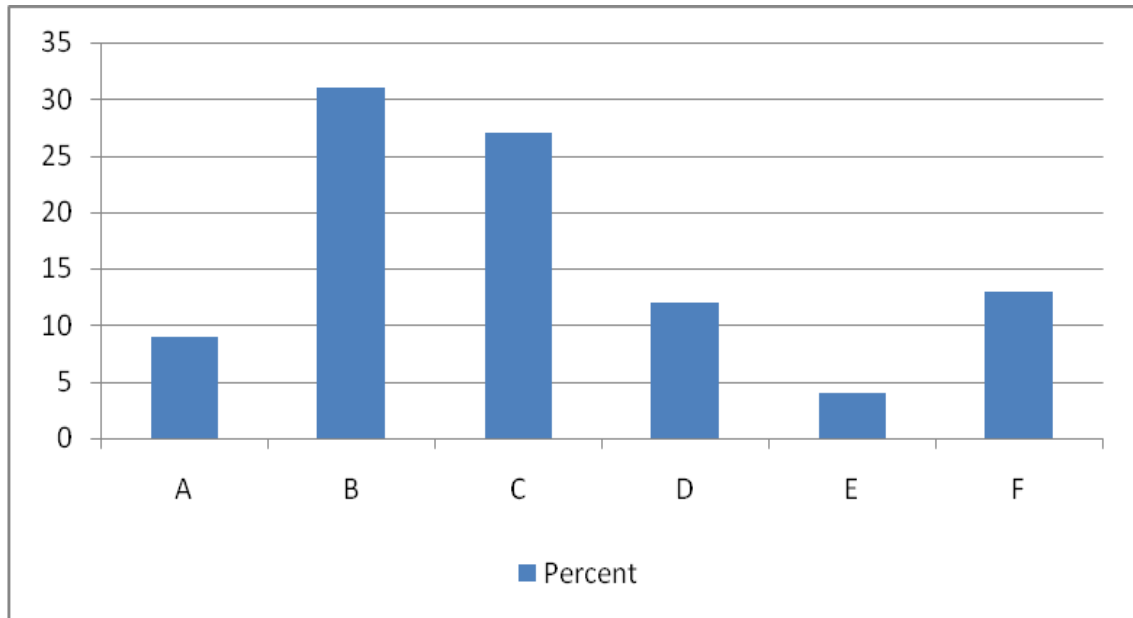


Figure 4.15 : Males' Performance in PSLE During PEDP I and II

From Figures 4.14 and 4.15, the climax of performance for females and males was recorded on grades C and B, respectively, which indicated that males outperformed females in the PSLE overall performance. Furthermore, in Figures 4.16 and 4.17, performance of females and males for grades A and B were 41 percent and 40 percent, respectively. Figures 4.16 and 4.17 also show that by trends, the highest scored grades by many boys and girls were B and C from 2000 to 2013. By average, range of 50 to 200 pupils scored grades B and C in all said years. On the other side, grades A, D, E and F as indicated in Figures 4.14 and 4.15 were scored by few pupils throughout the periods. Figures 4.14 and 4.15 also indicate that range of 25 to 110 pupils for both girls and boys by average in all years scored grades A, B and F. Furthermore, Figures 4.14 and 4.15 indicate that very few pupils below 20 in each year scored grade E.

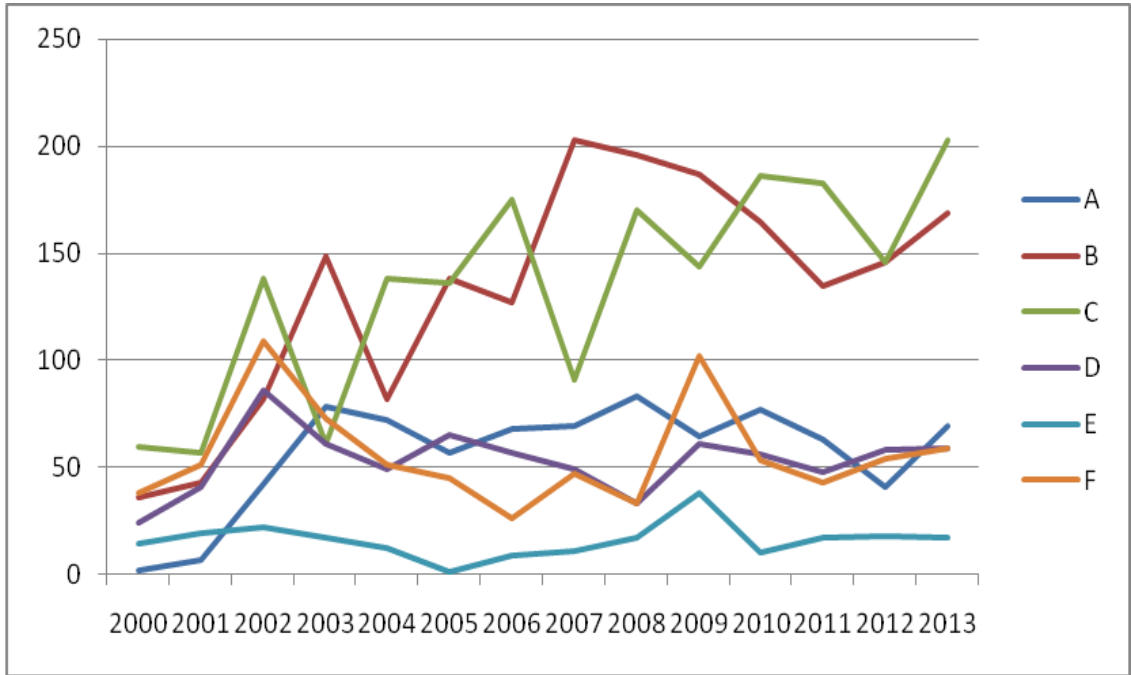


Figure 4.16 : Academic Performance Trends for Female Pupils: 2000 – 2013

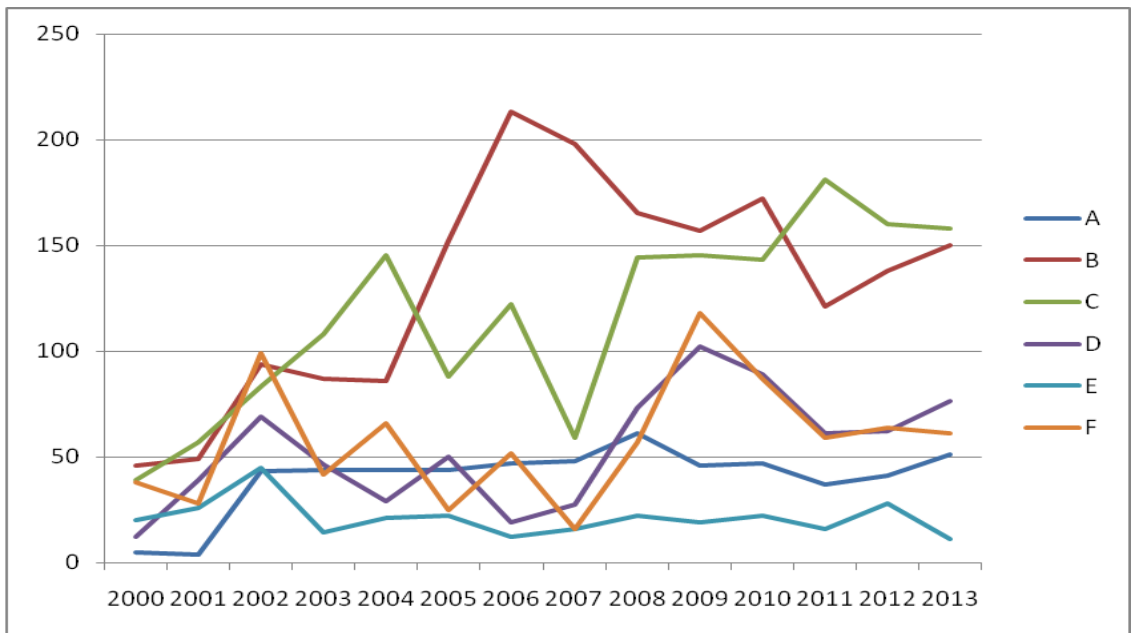


Figure 4.17: Academic Performance Trends for Male Pupils: 2000 – 2013

For the sake of identifying the trend of academic performances in these primary schools and easier interpretations, graphs were used to show trends of their performances as indicated in Figure 4.18 and 4.19.

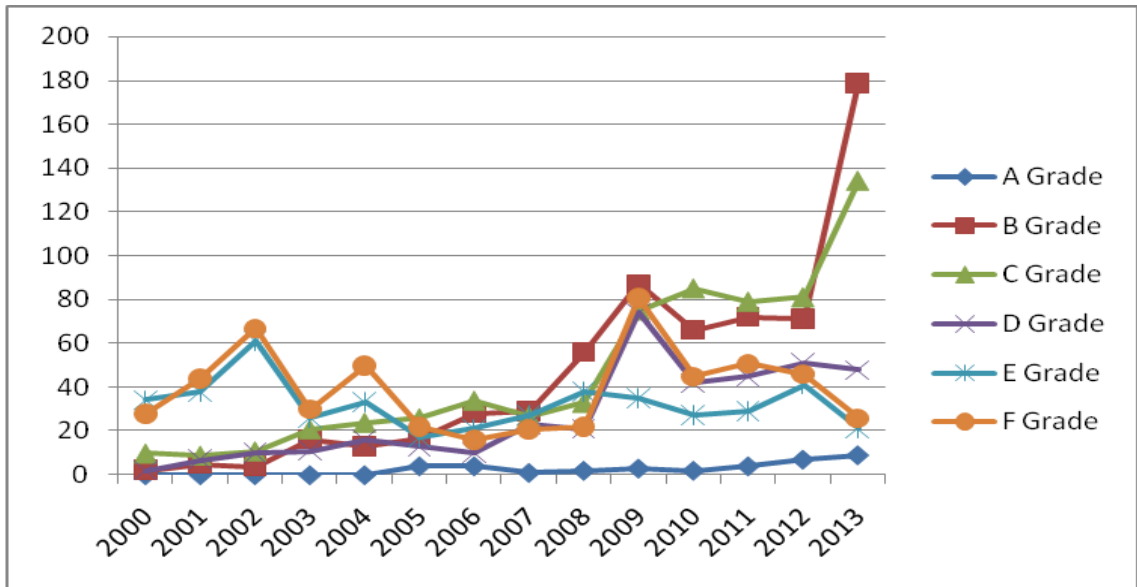


Figure 4.18 : PSLE Performance Trends for Rural Pupils: 2000 -2013

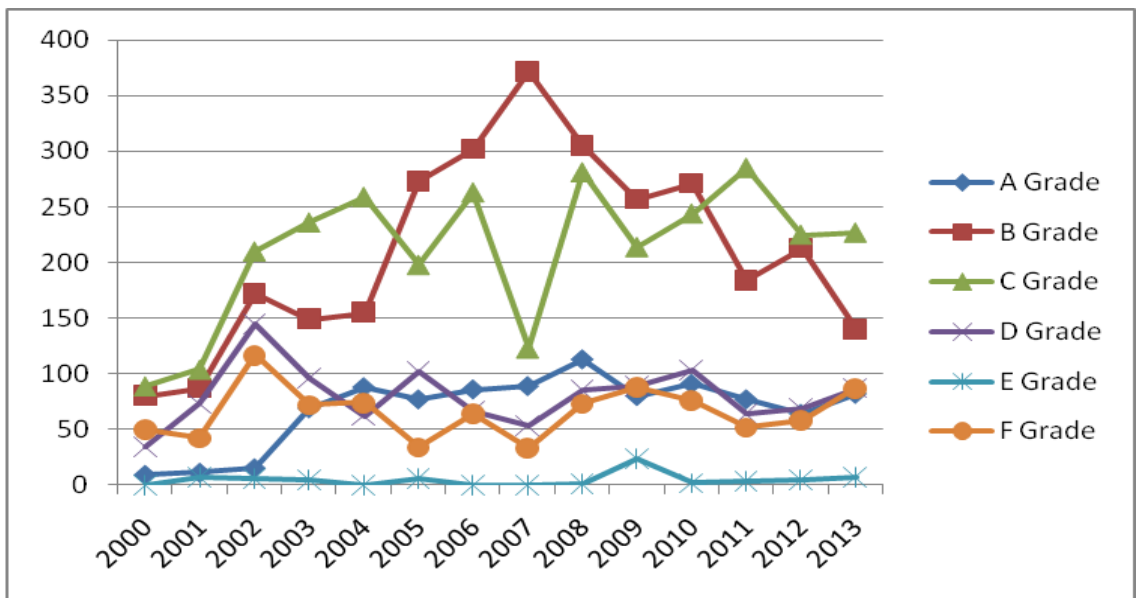


Figure 4.19 : PSLE Performance Trends for Urban Pupils: 2000 -2013

These figures show trends of academic performances of pupils from rural and urban primary schools. Figure 4.18 shows that academic performances of rural pupils improved moderately when the PEDP I started, a situation which led to an increase and decrease in their academic performances between years 2002 to 2008, while in the rest of years (2009 -2013) their performances highly improved. While figure 4.19 shows that urban pupils' academic performances in PSLE results were significantly better and improved throughout the existence of PEDP I and II. The trends reveal the marked differences of the academic performances among the pupils of these two localities, where these figures (4.18 and 4.19) show that overall performance of urban pupils was better than rural pupils because pupils of urban primary schools scored more A, B and C grades in PSLE results than rural schools. In opposite, pupils of rural primary schools had more E and F grades in PSLE results which ranged from 20 to 60 while urban primary schools their grades in PSLE ranged from 0 to 80 throughout the programmes.

In supporting presented findings, the researcher was also interested to find if there was significant difference between scores obtained in academic performances in terms of gender or sex in PEDP I and PEDP II. In order to identify this, a t-test for scores obtained from academic performance of boys and girls was computed at 5 percent significance level in each period of programme. In calculating this, the following hypothesis was set and tested:

The null hypothesis tested was:

H₀: There is no statistically significant difference in academic performance of boys and girls in PEDP – I and PEDP – II for the years 2002-2006 and 2007 – 2011.

The t-test model used to test this hypothesis was:

$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ where μ_1 and μ_2 represent academic performance of boys and girls in PEDP I and PEDP II, respectively. Table 4.15 gives a summary of t-test results.

Table 4.15 : T-test on Boys' Academic Performance in PEDP I and PEDP II

Programme	Number of Pupils	Total Scores	Mean Scores	Std. Deviation	t.	Sig.
PEDP I	2011	5816	2.89	1.533	.610	.240
PEDP II	2627	7526	2.86	1.487		

The results in Table 4.15 show that average score of boys' academic performance during PEDP I was 2.89 and in PEDP II was 2.86 with Standard deviations 1.533 and 1.487, respectively. These findings indicate that there was no significant difference in boys' academic performance between the PEDP 1 and PEDP II at 5 percent level (p Value = 0.240 > 0.05). Therefore, from this finding, the null hypothesis (H₀) is accepted.

Table 4.16 : T-test on Girls' Academic Performance in PEDP I and PEDP II

Programme	Number of Pupils	Total Scores	Mean Scores	Std. Deviation	t.	Sig.
PEDP I	2118	5893	2.80	1.450	-5.124	.002
PEDP II	2536	10388	4.10	1.399		

Table 4.16 shows that mean scores of girls' academic performance in PEDP I was 2.80 and PEDP II was 4.10 with Standard deviations 1.450 and 1.399, respectively. Therefore, the findings revealed that there was significant difference in girls' academic performance between PEDP I and PEDP II at 5 percent level (P Value = 0.002 < 0.05). In this case, the null hypothesis (H₀) is rejected. In comparing girls' academic performance before and after PEDP programmes, the null hypothesis was established as follows:

H₀: There is no statistically significant difference in girls' academic performance before and after PEDP programmes.

The t-test model used in this hypothesis was:

H₀: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ where μ_1 and μ_2 represent girls' academic performance before PEDP programmes and after PEDP programmes, respectively. Table 4.17 gives a summary of the t-test results.

Table 4.17 : T-test on Academic Performance of Girls Before and After PEDPs

Programme	Number of Pupils	Total Scores	Mean Scores	Std. Deviation	t.	Sig.
Pre-PEDP	357	842	2.36	1.393	-5.638	.006
Post-PEDP	1044	3087	2.96	1.379		

Results in Table 4.17 indicate that mean scores for girls' academic performance in Pre-PEDP were 2.36 and Post-PEDP they accounted for 2.96 with Standard deviations 1.393 and 1.379, respectively. These results suggest that there was significant difference between girls' academic performance before and after PEDP programmes. This was

proved by the t value of -5.638 and its calculated sig of 0.006, which is lesser than alpha 0.05. Therefore, from t-test results, it can be concluded that there was significant difference in girls' academic performance before and after PEDP programmes.

At the same time, the researcher was interested to compare boys' academic performance before and after PEDP. In finding results to this, the null hypothesis was established as follows:

H₀: There is no statistically significant difference in boys' academic performance before PEDP – I and II and after PEDP.

The t-test model used in this hypothesis was:

H₀: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ where μ_1 and μ_2 represent boys' academic performance before PEDP programme and after PEDP programme respectively. Table 4.18 gives a summary of the t-test results.

Table 4.18 : T-test on Boys' Academic Performance Before PEDP I and II and After PEDP II

Programme	Number of Pupils	Total Scores	Mean Scores	Std. Deviation	t.	Sig.
Pre - PEDP	363	861	2.37	1.502	-5.819	.000
Post - PEDP	1040	3021	2.90	1.435		

Table 4.18 shows that mean scores of boys' academic performance before PEDP and after PEDP were 2.37 and 2.90, respectively. By looking at the mean scores of academic performance of pupils before PEDP I and II and after PEDP, it seems that there was

significant difference in their academic performance where scores in their examinations were higher in Post-PEDP than before-PEDP (Table 4.18). The independent t-test was used to test findings and revealed that there was significant difference in academic performance before-PEDP programmes and Post-PEDP programme since P-Value was 0.00 at 0.05 level.

These findings indicate that possibilities for being selected to join secondary schools for girls and boys were almost the same. This notion is supported by results indicated in Table 4.18. Actually, the rise in overall pupils' performance on the PSLE during PEDP reforms could be attributed specifically to many schools having more and highly-qualified teachers who used improved teaching methods, an improved curriculum, greater availability of teaching and learning materials acquired through capitation grants, efforts to build school committees' capacity, and lastly, having improved school inspection (URT, 2006b). However, the Education Sector Situation Analysis noted that such factors could have been influenced by the pass rate brought about by changes in the way the final mark was calculated and use of a multiple choice examination, which had four choices (Carr-Hill and Ndalichako, 2005).

It was also important to determine factors associated with low pupils' academic performances in studied schools in rural and urban districts. It was quite possible that some low performing schools were located in rural areas where the demand for child labour (paid and unpaid) was high or some other limiting factors associated with prevailing difficult teaching /learning situations. Hence, different types of strategies were required to overcome the said constraints. It was also possible that the location of

these schools were very far from administrative offices, situations which might lead education administrators unaware; hence fail to give any serious attention to look into their problems.

To conclude presentation on academic performance of girls and boys during PEDP, findings from this study revealed that there were improved examination results caused by improved education provision in the country during PEDP I and PEDP II. Improved provision of education came through participatory teaching and learning processes, having qualified teachers, pupils got good textbooks and introduction of Optical Marking Reader (OMR) for examination setting as well as answering. The study revealed that pupils' academic performance in PSLE improved more in PEDP II than in PEDP I and that females' academic performance improved at the same time, a pattern, which caused many of them to be selected to join secondary schools like their counterparts, the boys.

Although PSLE results do not show any variation in academic performance of either normal or pupils those with disabilities, but responses from head teachers indicated that such pupils performed well. In follow-up questions to head teachers so as to know reasons for their good performance in examinations, answers were that inclusive learning environment helped them to perform, good behavior portrayed by children with disabilities triggered their performance and lastly, less severe impairment made some to be highly independent and hence, they studied hard.

On inclusive learning environment, the researcher was informed that pupils with disabilities who were enrolled to mainstream classes with normal pupils were able to learn well and later perform in their examinations. That aspect mostly depended on severity of their impairment. It was reported that less severe impairments led to greater independence to pupils with disabilities. Good behaviour portrayed by pupils with disabilities, for instance, by attending school daily and not having bad peer groups to involve in unacceptable manners in their schools, caused them perform well. Such pupils with less severe disabilities included those who have low vision but can manage to write and read for their own without depending on others. The group includes also children who are physically disabled but can manage to walk alone without support from their friends or relatives. They usually manage to write and read effectively thereby get good performance in their examinations.

4.4.5 Strategies to Improve Enrolment, Retention and Academic Performance of Pupils

The study also sought to find out strategies to apply so as to improve enrolment, retention and academic performance of boys, girls and children with disabilities in primary schools. By the help of a four Likert-scale (**Annex 7**), the researcher collected strategies to be used on improving enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils. According the data presented in Table 4.19, results indicated that 100 percent of the respondents strongly agreed with the viable strategy which requires the government to take deliberate affirmative action to mobilize and conscientize the communities at large on the importance of educating their children. To achieve this, in the follow-up

interview, respondents emphasized on the greater need of awareness campaigns that could involve families as well as the community at large, so that parents should send their children to schools. These campaigns should also enlighten parents with the potential future benefits of schooling their pupils, in terms of having good income, employment and social status. The head teachers had these ideas;

...you cannot succeed in this task if you do not want to educate parents. I know these parents, because for many years I have stayed with them, without campaign to be done to these families, mmmh, I don't know!" do you think it is simple task?

....in current situation, may be, I say, let them first know the benefits of education to their children. May be if they know, they can be excited to it.

Table 4.19 : Strategies to Improve Primary School Education Delivery (N=12)

S/N	Strategy to improve enrolment of pupils in primary schools	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	Head teacher to develop an enrolment plan of pupils	25%	50%	25%	0%
2.	Government to build more classrooms for pupils	0%	25%	50%	25%
3.	Government to enforce legal actions to parents who do not send their children to schools	0%	25%	25%	50%
4.	Schools to cooperate with communities	0%	50%	50%	0%
5.	School to enroll pupils who dropped out of studies	0%	0%	25%	75%
6.	Government to introduce new development programme	0%	0%	0%	100%
7.	Government to mobilize and conscientize the communities on the importance of education	100%	0%	0%	0%
8.	Creating awareness to parents not to hide children with disabilities	75%	0%	0%	25%
9.	Giving gifts to pupils e.g. pens, exercise books, etc	0%	0%	75%	25%
10.	Government to identify and secure sufficient resources to meet enrolment objectives	0%	0%	0%	100%

11.	Government to employ more teachers	0%	50%	50%	0%
12.	Improve life support programs to pupils	0%	0%	50%	50%
	Strategy to improve retention of pupils in primary schools				
13.	Create schools friendly environment	0%	50%	0%	50%
14.	Make intervention to dropout pupils	0%	0%	0%	100%
15.	Introduce school feeding programme to pupils	75%	25%	0%	0%
16.	Improve school infrastructures (classrooms, toilets, safe water)	75%	0%	25%	0%
17.	To provide financial incentives to low income families	100%	0%	0%	0%
18.	Avoid corporal punishment during teaching learning processes	25%	25%	25%	25%
19.	Use incentive to retain pupils in schools	25%	25%	25%	25%
20.	Build more toilets in primary schools	0%	50%	50%	0%
21.	Increase donors support to education	0%	25%	50%	25%
22.	Introduce compulsory attendance of children to schools	25%	50%	25%	0%
23.	Introduce guidance and counseling to pupils	0%	50%	25%	25%
24.	Having frequent meetings with parents	0%	0%	50%	50%
	Strategy to improve academic performance of pupils in schools				
25.	Introduce corporal punishment to failures	0%	0%	0%	100%
26.	Offer weekly and monthly tests	25%	25%	50%	0%
27.	Set pupils academic goals	0%	0%	0%	100%
28.	Improve teaching and learning environment	0%	25%	50%	25%
29.	Introduce guidance and counseling to pupils	0%	0%	25%	75%
30.	Rewarding high performing pupils	25%	50%	25%	0%
31.	Enhance residential facilities to teaching staff	0%	0%	0%	100%
32.	Teachers to use participatory teaching methods	0%	50%	50%	0%
33.	Introduce gift and rewards systems to good performing pupils	25%	50%	0%	25%
34.	Build dormitories to girls and children with disabilities	75%	0%	25%	0%
35.	Deepen relationships between pupils with counselors	0%	0%	0%	100%

Furthermore, in order to increase enrolment of children with disabilities, the collected data indicated that 75 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the strategy of creating awareness to parents not to hide children especially those having disabilities in their homes. However, 25 percent of respondents strongly disagreed with this strategy. This strategy requires parents to be educated so that they may know importance of sending children with disabilities to schools, instead of hiding them at homes. It was suggested that during creating awareness to parents, role models to be invited, who could share their experiences on education and achievements attained. The head teachers had these comments;

Some parents, by the way, seem to be ready to send them, if they can know the benefit of education to their children in future. Currently, they don't know, surely I tell you. They do not know. Thus why, few parents sometimes ask what they will get from school after their children being registered for study.

...bring people who are having different disabilities who are educated. People who having different professions for them to see and learn from them. Some people want to see first, and then make decision. Without this, it is not easy.

...mmmh, I do not know where the problem exists, exactly I do not know, if this problem is caused by illiterate or parents fill shame to bring out their children with disabilities. You get a child with disability is hidden. You advise this parent very well. He responds and agrees, but nothing is done. In surprise, the child continues to stay at home. You wonder a child does not come to school and continues to stay at home.

In this study, data showed that 75 percent of the respondents strongly agreed with the strategy requiring the government's commitment in improving school infrastructure like building classrooms, toilets and providing safe water. At the same time, 25 percent of respondents disagreed with this idea. In follow-up interview, head teachers insisted that government should work together with communities to build more classrooms to reduce

number of pupils in overcrowded classes and provide sanitation facilities through building toilets for boys and girls as well as supplying or give schools with safe and reliable water supplies. The respondents thought that by having poor school infrastructure could be one of the reasons of pupils to dropout. The head teachers commented that:

...communities can manage. The problem is that, they are not involved in some projects. For example, you get the government sends funds for building either classrooms, toilets, or staff rooms, but no community involvement. Let the communities be involved in construction and ask them how they can assist in terms of manpower when these buildings are constructed.

If school will have enough classrooms will reduce dropout of pupils. You can be surprised that we have few toilets for our pupils and their parents are around. What I know is that, these villagers do not have funds, yes, but they can dig these pits and government's funds be used for buying building materials for toilets construction.

In ensuring that enrolled pupils are retained in primary schools, 75 percent of the respondents strongly agreed with the strategy that requires the government and community to introduce school feeding programme to pupils. At the same time, 25 percent of respondents fairly agreed with this strategy. The researcher was interested to know reason for this provision, in follow-up, it was noted that many pupils are living very far from schools and timetables require students to study till 03: 30 p.m. when sessions end. Therefore respondents insisted that the government should take deliberate action to involve communities and stakeholders to provide foods in all primary schools. The food provided should be fortified or supplemented in order to give additional nutritional benefits so as to enable pupils become healthy and study well. One respondent had this comment;

In fact, many pupils have to take long route to reach this school. Some of them their homesteads are built within farms, and those farms are very far from here. So it is not easier to let them have their lunch. But if their parents can manage to provide them food, would help them study well.

In an attempt to retain pupils in schools and assist them to attain good performance in examinations, data showed that 100 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the proposed strategy which requires the government to provide financial incentives to low income families. Moreover, in follow-up interview, head teachers explained that financial incentives if given would help parents to buy text books, school uniforms and even pay transportation costs for pupils living in urban areas where there are commuter buses. The respondents had these comments;

...without these incentives, pupils will not study. These financial incentives would help parents to buy school uniforms, books and other items required in schools. Incomes of their parents are low. Farming activities do not offer them a lot of money. Maize and rice nowadays their prices are low, and you should know that these farmers have small farms.

Financially, I say, many parents are poor. Without support of the government to offer them some money, many cannot afford. Life is hard. These financial incentives can be used for fare when children go to schools, buying books, exercises books, pens, etc.

Finally, data in this study indicated that 75 percent of respondents strongly agreed with the strategy requiring the government and community to build either hostels or special dormitories in order to enable pupils to study well, hence improve academic performances. In follow-up interview, respondents suggested that these hostels if built would be used to accommodate children with disabilities and girls living in distant areas from schools in rural areas. On the other hand, data indicated that 25 percent of respondents disagreed with this strategy. The head teachers commented that:

The issue of having dormitories is inevitable, especially, having dormitories for girls who are coming from a far. If they cannot build dormitories, at least, they can set a special building to accommodate them so as to study well.

Why should we depend on government to do everything for us? These people, if mobilized can participate well in development activities. If they can build their houses, why can't they build dormitories for their kids? It is just matter of mobilizing them.

4.4.6 The Dilemma of Children with Disabilities in Education

It is obvious that the impact of Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) was significantly achieved on enrolment of pupils in primary education so as to enable the country achieve **Education for All** (EFA) goals. However, availability of facilities to children with disabilities was partially offered in regard to teaching and learning facilities to support them. The PEDP concentrated on building new classrooms, which were not convenient for children with disabilities to use. Many children with disabilities in rural areas lived too far from existing schools, while they needed new schools to be built nearer to their homes. Such a situation made children having mobility impairments to face some difficulties in accessing classrooms.

The researcher also learnt that data of children with disabilities were not kept properly. In visited schools, availability of data was a bit difficult for head teachers to access because of improper record keeping. It was noticed that in either rural or urban areas, there were very few numbers of children with intellectual impairments, despite the fact that mobility and sensory impairments were the most common. There was also an absolute lack of teaching and learning materials including accessible conducive environments for children with disabilities, even in special units and special schools.

4.5 Synthesis of the Findings

The study aimed not only at studying the ability of government in disbursing the amount of funds in form of capitation grants to the PEDP but also at explaining how these funds contributed to the improvement of enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils in their PSLE. The study revealed that provision of capitation grants, had direct and significant impact on pupils' enrolment, retention and academic performance in schools. In addition, it was anticipated that due to differences identified within and between rural and urban schools, these have provided positive practices and strategies that could reduce the gap within them and facilitate learning for all pupils.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction to the Chapter

The findings of the study as presented in chapter four are discussed in this chapter. The chapter has the following sections: enrolment rates and trends, retention rates by gender, dropout rates by gender, academic performance by gender, and lastly strategies to use so as to improve primary education delivery. In this chapter, there are also discussions on the differential impacts of PEDP on enrolments, retention and performance, what next after ending the Primary Education Development Programmes, and lastly Synthesis of the findings.

The first section of the chapter presents discussions on enrolment rates and trends as a result of implication of PEDP activities in primary schools (refer to Section 5.1.1). The second section presents discussions on retention rates by gender as derived from findings of study on the previous chapter. In this section discussion is made basing on how PEDP facilitated the pupils of primary schools to stay in their seven years academic periods (refer to Section 5.1.2).

The third section presents discussions on the dropout rates by gender during PEDP-I and PEDP - II. In this section an attempt is made at seeking a deeper understanding of the causes of dropouts as evidenced by the results of the study (refer to Section 5.1.3).The fourth section focuses on discussion of the academic performance by gender as

examined in PSLE results. The time covers the two period of PEDP-I and PEDP - II, which starts from year 2002 to 2011 (refer to Section 5.1.4).The last section presents discussions on the strategies to improve enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils (refer to Section 5.1.5).

5.2 Discussion of Findings

In exploring the impact of PEDP on enrolment, retention, dropout and achievement of pupils in studied primary schools in Morogoro Rural and Urban Districts, the study examined resources invested in these schools during PEDP. The quantitative dimension of the research was employed and documentary review of existing statistical data on enrolment, retention, dropout and achievement of pupils was employed to promote understanding of the ways in which PEDP affected trends of education at the micro-level. These approaches facilitated the researcher to access the detailed information of the programmes.

5.2.1 Enrolment Rates and Trends

Findings from this study indicated that both PEDP I and PEDP II noticeably, increased enrolments of pupils in primary schools for the time they were in implementations. But such enrolment trend could have improved more if schools had to utilize available facilities efficiently and effectively. School facilities include staff rooms, offices, classrooms, libraries, staff houses and school play grounds used in sports and games for pupils' refreshment. Though some schools did not have enough these facilities, but those available could have been used to provide quality education to their pupils. It is the

responsibility of head teachers, community leaders, Ward Education Officer (WEO) and District Education Officer (DEO) to encourage parents to voluntary in activities like bricks making, digging pit latrines and even voluntarily involving in construction of classrooms so as to enable their primary schools have adequate classrooms and toilets to make teaching-learning process take place smoothly (Bell and Rhodes, 1996).

In both Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban district, it was found that equity was maintained in all times of enrolments. The number of boys and girls who were enrolled in primary schools during the programmes continued to be balanced and reached the parity, since parents became aware on importance of educating and sending their girls to schools. Due to the situation which persisted, there were no female pupils who failed to be enrolled in primary schools because rules and policies set by the government encouraged parents to do so. Moreover, achievement of parity was also facilitated by primary education to be provided freely, since in past years before being abolished, school fees and other contributions were burdens to many parents, hence, they failed to afford. But with introduction of PEDP, parents had to contribute for schooling of their children by buying them school uniforms and incurring other minor costs only.

Results from this study also indicated that children with physical disabilities faced significant obstacles to their schooling. Although during the programmes the government managed to build many schools and even classrooms, but unfortunately these buildings were construction in the way that they became unfriendly to pupils with disabilities. It was identified that such children who enrolled in primary schools were

significantly less likely to attend school and complete Grade 7 hence, sit for PSLE. Therefore many children with disabilities who enrolled in these primary schools sometimes failed to attend class sessions. For positive results to be obtained there was need for classrooms to be built in a friendly manner so as to accommodate well these pupils with disabilities. There was need also for the government to find engineers who could design the structure of these classrooms so as to be friendly to pupils with disabilities right from when they are constructed. Thus the Tanzania Building Agency (TBA) should be the main consultancy agent for the government to ensure that these classrooms are built in acceptable standards.

Moreover, the study indicated that infrastructural barriers were impediments to children with physical disabilities to access primary education. The researcher observed that school facilities like toilets, classrooms, teachers' offices and even school surroundings were unfriendly to children with disabilities to enter into and use them. Experience shows that shortage of toilets in primary schools usually interferes with teaching and learning processes because pupils have to queue for long time so that they could use them. Such situation led some children with disabilities to feel shame and inferior to their colleagues, a scenario, which led to social stigma and prejudice. Presence of social stigma and prejudice might lead parents not to allow their children to attend schools thereby pave the way for poor attendance (Kristensen *et. al.*, 2006; UNICEF, 2008; UNESCO, 2010). Such poor attendance might also be due to lack of resources in special as well as regular schools and prejudice caused by attending regular schools (UNESCO, 2010). Furthermore, it should be noted that inadequate toilets can be hazardous to health

of pupils and the community around schools, because absence of them could be the source of communicable diseases.

5.2.2 Retention Rates by Gender

The study showed that PEDP programmes successfully managed to retain pupils during their implementations from years 2000 to 2011. Retention of girls during the said programmes was successfully achieved since results from this study indicated that 95.7 percent of girls were retained in urban schools as compared to 80 percent in rural schools. For the retention of girls living in rural areas to be improved, there is need for their primary schools, either to build hostels or have special dormitories so as to accommodate pupils who are coming from remote areas. Moreover, it should be noted that the major sources of funds for many parents living in rural areas are farming and pastoral activities. Therefore, for children brought up from such families, it is very difficult for them to attend schools regularly. It should be noted that achievement of retaining girls by 80 percent was due to provision of capitation grants by the government, which facilitated many schools to have at least conducive and friendly learning environments, improved teaching and learning methods which were applied by teachers, improved infrastructures like toilets, new built classrooms and desks together with availability of text books reference books and so forth (URT, 2001; URT, 2004). Therefore, in order to improve education delivery in the country, there is need of continuing to provide financial incentives to rural communities.

Other recorded improvements which facilitated retention of pupils apart from built schools, new classrooms for pupils, availability of more reference books as well as text books, were full involvement of communities in ownership of operating schools, improvement in attendance of children to schools and minimal dropout rate of pupils (Björkdahl and Lundqvist, 2006). However, it should be noted that elimination of school fees and provision of subsidies like capitation grants for buying textbooks, pens and others, proved to increase attendance of learners and reduced their dropout from schools (Evans *et. al.*, 2008). Generally, funds are required to improve and maintain very critical resources like school fences (to ensure school safety) and separate toilets for boys as well as girls (improve sanitation measures) so as to make pupils learn well. It should be noted that during the programmes, many primary schools were not fenced, a pattern, which makes pupils insecure.

On the other hands, results from this study showed that 93.9 percent of urban boys were retained compared 78.5 percent rural boys (Figure 4.5). That was not a good achievement because there was very big variation between retention of urban and rural boys. Such variation is a bit big thereby making a rural boy pupil not to study effectively. Though in rural areas, parents tend to rely much on farming and cattle grazing for financial earnings, by involving pupils in such activities lead to their poor attendance in schools. Children may be involved in farming during vacations, if it falls in farming seasons. Otherwise, there are needs for parents to be educated so as to know that primary education is compulsory and pupils have no choice of either to attend or

not. Hence, it will make them participate fully in their studies. That could enable the existing retention gap identified between urban and rural boys be closed.

Moreover, in order to improve retention, the government had to increase number of teaching staff through new deployment, building more classrooms to reduce overcrowded classes and creating conducive learning environment in rural areas compared to those of urban areas. Though results from this study showed that there were successes obtained in retaining pupils regardless of their gender (boys and girls) and their locations (rural and urban), it should be noted that retention of pupils is a key challenge.

The other key challenge to be focused is on children with disabilities who need more attention so as to retain them. The study found that many children with disabilities though were enrolled to primary schools; their flow of retention was not static since there were rise and fall in their attendance, patterns which were clue to dropouts. Such pupils with disabilities faced poor physical infrastructure, which impeded their learning. Construction of many school buildings, which were either built before or during PEDP, did not consider needs for pupils with disabilities. Therefore, many pupils like those having visual and physical disabilities encountered problems of moving around the schools.

On the other hand, pupils with disabilities faced challenges of transportation, a pattern, which made mobility to be difficult in either urban or rural areas. Many children with

disabilities due to economic hardships of their families did not have reliable means of transport to help them move from their homes to schools. Even in urban areas, where there was public transport, were unfriendly for wheelchair users because there was no place to keep their wheelchair. By not having reliable means of transportation, such situation made them to be late in classes because much time was spent in travelling. Concerted efforts have to be done by government and stakeholders to ensure that transport facilities to children with disabilities are available and accessible. They have to ensure that all barriers facing children with disabilities while attending classes are removed so as to create friendly environment for learning.

Moreover in order to solve such barrier of transportation for children with disabilities, there was need for the government in collaboration with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to offer wheelchairs and other means of transportation to such pupils. Among these NGOs, there was Foundation for Civil Society (FCS), which provides funds to Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) to support education sector in monitoring education for children with disabilities. But if such an alternative would have failed, there could be need for linking family members with other fund providers like Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF), Tanzania Education Authority (TEA) and Save the Children. The TASAF has to assist poor families which rear children whose parents passed away due to different circumstances. For children who are at risk and live in difficult conditions, Save the Children has to make intervention. Lastly, there is need for the government to make deliberate efforts to select few schools, at least one in every district, to accommodate children with disabilities. Such primary schools should be

transformed to boarding schools so as to make pupils stay and learn properly with comfort.

Even in places where there was availability of public transportation, use of wheelchair was also unfriendly. There is need for the government and stakeholders to ensure that obstacles are eliminated so as to enable more pupils with disabilities study well. Moreover, another alternative, which could assist in solving the problem of transportation, was to use well structured Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) that could help to diversify sources of financing and provision. Through PPPs, cheap and reliable means of transportation could be acquired to enable either child with disabilities to be given first priority in boarding them or let them pay fares, which they can afford.

5.2.3 Dropout Rates by Gender

Results from this study indicated that there were some incidences of few pupils who dropped out from schools due to various reasons. From the findings, it was clear that some pupils dropped out from schools because of factors emerging from their home environments. The study showed that almost 1 percent (1.17 percent) of pupil dropped out by average throughout PEDP I and PEDP II. That was contrary to aspects identified from 2002 to 2006, which showed that dropout rate ranged between 4 percent and 3.4 percent (Mushi *et. al.*, 2008) and from 2007 to 2011 dropout rate ranged between 3.2 percent and 3.7 percent (Mushi *et. al.*, 2012). In this study, it was revealed that one factor, which led to school dropout was involvement of children in family activities. Parents involved their children in activities not merely out of choice but because they

were trying to meet their daily needs. It is obvious that parents in developing countries especially those living in rural areas because of poverty tend to involve their children in family activities (Todaro, 1997).

The demand-side for finance tries to offset very high opportunity costs of sending children to school in poor households (Patrinos and Ariasingam, 1997). In light of this study, it can be argued that PEDP programme achieved its goal because at least children were sent to school in the first place before dropping out. But such realized achievement was not enough to make parents to stop sending their children to the market to sell some goods, as results, findings from this study indicated that parents continued with their practices of sending children to sell stuffs. Hence this situation led some pupils to drop out from schools. Finally, the researcher urges that the government should take stern measures to parents who involve their children in petty cash businesses. At the same time, the government should continue to address problems of education by involving stakeholders.

Another factor identified from these findings included unfavorable living conditions, which forced children to drop out from school and girls to decide to get married. It was found out that girls were highly liable to domestic activities and had to drop out from school because of early marriage. In due regard, parents are supposed to be informed that the law does not allow a pupil to be married, whatever the persisting situation. At the same time, attention should be taken to increase number of female teachers in primary schools. The female teachers are highly needed as role models in primary

schools so as to raise awareness to school girls so that they can even learn and reach success levels like their teachers. Findings from previous studies stresses that female role models attract girls to school (Lexow, 2003) and provide them with professional aspirations (UNESCO, 2003/4).

It is worth noting that age at which children started their primary studies was also an influencing factor that caused them drop out, especially when all older children dropped out from their classes. Likewise, the study showed that children's age became an influencing factor that could make them drop out from studies. Thus, it can be concluded that over-aged children who dropped out from schools might had done so because they failed to manage teenage sexual pressure, which faced them. That can be evidenced by pregnancy as revealed in the literature review (URT, 2006a). From the findings, there is a direct link between age and teenage-sexual pressures consistent with literature on drop out of girls where over-age enrolled girls in primary school past puberty were at risk of pregnancy related school disruptions (Grant and Hallman, 2006). This is evidenced with Table 4.8, where in PEDP I, there were pupils who enrolled in primary schools with age between 7 to 12 years. Many who were enrolled from 2002 to 2004 were over-aged pupils and they have been among pupils who dropped out from schools in year 2006 and 2007 (Table 4.12).

5.2.4 Academic Performance by Gender

In examining pupils' achievement, the researcher focused on pupils' Primary Leaving Examinations (PSLE) scores in grades while comparing various pupils' academic

performances over two PEDP periods. Figures 4.14 and 4.15 show female and male pupils' performance in PSLE results during PEDP I and PEDP II. As evident in Figure 4.13, during PEDP I and PEDP II, girls' academic performance consistently improved better in the PSLE than boys' academic performance as shown in Figure 4.12. From statistical data, girls appeared to exhibit minimal variations in performance that were systematically not linked to background experience. Girls were mostly affected by poor learning motivation, lack of confidence building and cultural effects (chore works) (Brown, 1980; Ananga, 2010; Colclough *et. al.*, 2000; Sabates *et. al.*, 2010).

Pupils' high academic performance as found in this study was caused by several factors, which included availability of text books and reference books to pupils, recruitment of new teachers to reduce the existing shortage and reduction of regional as well as district inequalities in TPR (URT, 2004; URT 2008). This submission supports results from previous studies, which indicated that TPR had significant effects on examination results. An inverse relationship exists between examination results and TPR (URT, 2004; URT 2008). Regions with above average TPR had below average examination results and regions with below average TPR had above average examination results (URT, 2003).

Moreover, the researcher identified that improved teaching and learning methods had caused examination results to be improved. Teachers also had employed more participatory teaching methods than lecture methods in their teaching sessions. It should be understood that participatory teaching and learning processes provide room for

practical experiences and enable pupils to deploy more teaching aids, thereby bring quality learning.

Furthermore, the researcher noted that improved examination results during the programmes had been triggered by improved examination structure, setting and formats. The noticed improved examination results was due to the reasons that examination questions for the subjects were either weighed differently from the previous ones or were highly improved to enable pupils understand them.

It was also revealed that pupils in urban areas outperformed pupils in rural areas in grade A and B for both male and female performance in PSLE results. The possible reason for that trend was that better-qualified teachers tended to be found more in urban areas than in rural areas. In addition to that, the possible explanation for such performance was the fact that extra tuition mostly found in urban settings might had served as remedial instructions to many pupils who under-performed. In fact, due to many parents who are living in rural areas to have low incomes, it was not possible for their children to attend tuition classes compared to urban areas where parents have better income.

Another possible reason for such trend was persistent imbalance of distribution of female teachers, where more female teachers concentrated mostly in urban schools (URT, 2004) as evidenced by distribution of head teachers by gender in Table 4.1. Moreover, Legotlo and Westhuizen (1996) in their studies showed that many teachers did not prefer working in remote and rural communities where there were difficult

means of transportation and poor housing conditions. They even found that in communities where schools were built in sparsely populated areas, their pupils traveled long distances to attend schools. Such situation made rural primary schools to be poorly resourced with teaching and learning materials, have poor enrolments of pupils and even depend solely on poor peasant parents (Legotlo and Westhuizen, 1996).

Experience obtained from another research showed that remote primary schools were facing shortage of teaching staff because teachers preferred to teach in well developed communities (Tshabangu and Msafiri, 2013). Those teachers who were present had low qualifications and poor experience in teaching. So far the study indicated that rural primary schools experienced teachers' absenteeism in a very higher level (Tshabangu and Msafiri, 2013). Such primary schools have higher teacher turnover since shortage of teaching staff made those who are available to have bad working conditions due to big classes (overcrowded classes) and hence, had higher working/teaching loads.

Girls' poor performance in PEDP I, irrespective of whether they were living in urban or rural areas, was caused by lack of good grounding in reading and numeracy skills. The study also found that although the gap on performance was narrowed between 2006 and 2008, it remained very large in post - PEDP. The researcher even noted that overall Grade 7 completion was significantly lower for children with physical disabilities. The poor progression of such pupils with disabilities was due to limited availability of resources, lack of proper assessment of their learning and performance in examinations, taught by poorly trained teachers, and limited parental support (Kristensen *et. al.*, 2006).

5.2.5 Strategies to Improve Enrolment, Retention and Academic Performance

The findings of the study disclosed strategies to apply so as to improve enrolment, retention and academic performance of boys, girls and children with disabilities in Tanzania. It should be noted that the strategy which needs the communities to be mobilized and conscientized on the importance of educating their children could not be left to be done by the government alone, instead all NGOs, political leaders, religious leaders, community leaders and stakeholders to be involved in this task. To achieve this, magazines, radios and televisions owned by government and private sectors should be used as means of conveying message to communities. Apart from mobilizing and conscientizing communities, government should also continue to enforce rules and policies so as to make parents send their children to schools.

Moreover, it should be noted that improving education in primary schools needs not only support of the government but also of the development partners, stakeholders and communities in delivering funds. This strategy which requires the government to provide financial incentives to low income families and even allocate funds for building infrastructures like classrooms, offices, dormitories and toilets, the funds provision should involve also others. In the country like Tanzania, enrolment of pupils at the primary school level should be extremely sensitive, while noting that some small changes brought in by costs and even from educational programmes that provide direct financial assistance or in-kind rewards have a significant positive impact on learners (Kremer and Holla, 2008).

On the other hand, result of study indicated another strategy which requires government to create awareness to parents not to hide children with disabilities in their homes. It is obvious that, many children with disabilities are neglected or hidden by their families (Possi, 1999). As it was observed in the study, the response from one head teacher revealed that there were parents who felt shame to expose out their children with disabilities, hence they hide them in homes and opt not to send them to schools. Therefore in order to help these parents, there is need to involve social workers, teachers, nurses, and the mass media to increase societal awareness and hence encourage parents bring children with disabilities to schools.

The study further indicates that there were insufficient staff rooms, offices, classrooms, libraries and even staff houses in primary schools involved in the study. In order to make these schools have sufficient infrastructures, the head teachers, community leaders, Ward Education Officer (WEO) and District Education Officer (DEO) should encourage parents to volunteer in development activities like bricks making, digging pit latrines and constructing classrooms.

5.2.6 Differential Impacts of PEDP on Enrolments, Retention and Performance

In this study, findings revealed that Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District experienced remarkably different increase in enrolment of pupils in the first year of PEDP implementation. Moreover, it was found that the programmes had a positive differential impact on primary school enrolment of males and females, where it was indicated that percentage change in enrolment of both boys and girls either increased

equally or decreased depending with years. Such differential impact depicts that the gender gap, which existed previously was closed to both male and female pupils. That led to the huge gap in enrolment of boys and girls, which existed in urban and rural areas at primary schools in previous years before PEDP implementation closed. That was good improvement noted concerning the role of programmes in maintaining gender parity. Therefore, it can be concluded that implementation of PEDP I and PEDP II minimized the existing gender gap between boys and girls.

Moreover, as found from this study, enrolment in year 2002 indicated that 52.6 percent of enrollees were female pupils and 47.4 percent were male pupils (Figure 4.4 and Table 4.7). That gave the differential impact on enrolment of pupils as opposed to results from study done by Hakielimu (2007), which showed that 48.5 percent of enrollees were female pupils and 51.4 percent were male pupils in year 2007. But at the same time, the study indicated that enrolment of pupils in year 2006 to bare a very small differential impact since enrolled pupils as found in this study were 49.2 percent to female pupils and 50.8 percent to male pupils as opposed to findings by HakiElimu (2007). They indicated that 49.3 percent of enrollees were female pupils and 50.6 percent were male pupils in all primary schools found within the country (HakiElimu, 2007).

The study also indicated that enrolment of pupils in terms of gender was higher to girls than boys. Such differential impact of girls to outnumber boys in enrolment was even found for the entire period of PEDP I and PEDP II. These findings significantly oppose

results from the study by HakiElimu (2007), which indicated that GER and NER were lower for girls than boys and hence, fewer girls were enrolled in standard one than boys.

In this study so far, findings indicated that the differential impacts on dropout rate of pupils from Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District was low as only 1.17 per cent in the entire period of PEDP I and PEDP II. These results differ with results from the study by Mushi *et. al.*, (2008, 2012), which indicated that dropout rate of pupils was 3.4 percent in the PEDP I and PEDP II. Thus, 1.17 percent dropout of pupils implies that there was one pupil who failed to complete his/her studies in primary schools during PEDP I and PEDP II. At the same time in this study, findings indicated that dropout rate was higher in rural than in urban primary schools. It means that there were many pupils who failed to complete their primary education in rural areas as compared with pupils who completed their studies in urban schools.

Differential retention rates of girls at primary level were significantly higher in Morogoro Urban District (95.7 percent) than those experienced in Morogoro Rural District. In the Morogoro Rural District, retention was fairly high where it ranged at 80.4 percent in the entire period of PEDP I and PEDP II. Also it was learnt that retention rates of boys at primary schools were notably higher in Morogoro Urban District where they stood at 93.9 percent than in Morogoro Rural District. The retention rates of boys were fairly good in Morogoro Rural District, they accounted for 78.5 percent.

The study also discovered that children with disabilities had to study and stay at primary school for ten years instead of seven years like normal pupils. Such trend of retention

made them to stay for three more years at primary school compared to duration taken by their counterparts, normal pupils. The situation made such primary leavers to join secondary education late, such that by time they joined secondary schools, they got their colleagues already in form three classes.

On academic performance of girls and boys during the two programmes, findings revealed that there were overall differential examination results caused by improved education provision in the country during PEDP I and PEDP II. Improved provision of education came through participatory teaching and learning processes, having qualified teachers, pupils to have good textbooks and introduction of Optical Marking Reader (OMR) for examination setting as well as answering. The study revealed that pupils' performance in PSLE improved more in PEDP II than in PEDP I and that girls' performance improved, an aspect, which caused many of them to be selected to join secondary schools more than their counterpart boys.

5.3 What Next after Ending the Primary Education Development Programmes?

Before reaching the end of PEDP in 2011, there was a need for the government of Tanzania to put forward strategies, which could perpetuate and preserve what had been achieved in PEDP implementation. The pupils, teachers as well as parents throughout the country between the years 2002 to 2011 witnessed brilliant achievements secured in terms of enrolment, retention and academic performances. The programmes sponsored by the Government of Tanzania in collaboration with donor countries offered financial

assistance to pupils living and coming from economically different families and poor children so as to enable them access as well as study properly in primary schools.

At the end of the programmes, there was need for the government to introduce either another programme or to have a plan, which could observe and make follow-up to investments done during PEDP implementation. That could help development projects left without being completed to progress. Ending the programmes without focusing on next steps on how to finish all started projects caused hardships to some of schools. Such situation led many primary schools having ongoing projects/investments and even already invested infrastructures, which needed minor rehabilitations and services to leave them barren (**Annex 15**). Such infrastructures included staff houses, classrooms, toilets and even desks. Many infrastructures that were in progress of being built were left in destitute situation, dilapidated and even some of them fell down, either due to wind and rainfall or were deserted because of lack of funds.

Under acquired experiences from PEDP, the government should have sustainable development projects, which could take over when any project ends in future. Experience from PEDP is a lesson to be worked upon in future so as to realise efficiency in next development undertakings.

5.4 Synthesis of the Findings

For the PEDP programme to be successful, a prerequisite was for schools to have teaching and learning facilities and infrastructure. These were acquired through

government funds and capitation grants which were provided to schools and pupils respectively. However, the conclusions made in this chapter are that, availability of schools, text and reference books, qualified teachers, provision of education funding were important factors that cannot be ignored in helping educational achievement. Actually, these factors facilitated enrolment, retention and academic performance to pupils in primary schools.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction to the Chapter

This chapter presents general summary, summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations disembarked on. The recommendations are given for policy, actions and for further research.

6.2 General Summary

The purpose of this research was to determine the differential impact of primary education development programmes on improving access, retention and academic performance of pupils from economically different communities in Morogoro, Tanzania. The objectives of study were to examine the differential enrolment rates, retention rates, dropout rates, academic performance of pupils, and the strategies to apply so as to improve enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils. These objectives were analyzed descriptively by using frequency tables, graphs, and percentages. The t-test at 0.05 significance level was used to establish the relationship between pupils' academic performances across time and place. It was aided through **Statistical Package for Social Sciences** (SPSS) Version 22. Purposive sampling procedure was used to select 12 primary schools (2 best-performing schools, 2 medium-performing schools, and 2 worst-performing schools in PSLE results) from rural and urban settings. The researcher used survey research design to examine the relationship among the variables in this study.

This study hoped to contribute knowledge to the existing literature on the impact of PEDP on improving education for specific groups of children including boys, girls, and children with disabilities from rural or urban areas in Morogoro, Tanzania. Meanwhile, the finding of study could provide planners, educators, administrators and other educational stakeholders with the strategies to apply in order to improve primary education delivery to boys, girls, and children with disabilities from rural or urban communities. Finally, it was also hoped that the study could contribute significant knowledge on educational planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, which may be used by practitioners, policy makers, education planners, managers and stakeholders to improve future programmes and provision of quality education in Morogoro, Tanzania.

6.3 Summary of Findings

The study sought to find out the differential impact of Primary Education Development Programmes on improving enrolment, retention and academic performance of girls and boys together with children with disabilities living in economically different income communities. Findings from this study revealed that PEDP programmes were significantly meant to improve enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils.

6.3.1 Enrolment Rates

The findings indicated that enrolment of pupils increased during PEDP, a situation that led to overcrowding of pupils in their classrooms. As it was observed in the findings, enrolment rate of pupils for the entire periods of PEDP implementation ranged from 47 to 53 percent and it increased by 18.4 percent for boys and 16.8 percent for girls. It was further disclosed that there was close relationship between improved school facilities and learning environment of learners due to PEDP and growing number of schools in the districts as well as increasing number of enrolment of pupils to effectively address learning needs with adequate available facilities.

Furthermore, the study measured the impact of capitation grants to pupils' performance by providing them with text books, reference books, desks and so forth thereby improved their academic performances. The study revealed that by pupils provided with such schools' requirements tended to motivate them to attend schools. Therefore, it can be inferred that provision of capitation grants had a significant relationship between enrolments as well as their retentions and improvement of pupils' academic performance.

In PEDP, the study found that physical infrastructures which were installed for children with disabilities to use were inappropriately designed. That might be partly attributed to either lack of special funds allocated to cater for the needs for children with disabilities or partly lack of understanding amongst the local community on educational needs for

children with disabilities. In this case, this study found that children with disabilities faced serious problems while studying, which made some of them not to participate fully in studies. In conclusion, it can be said that it is very expensive to accommodate children with disabilities and maintain their learning in primary schools if there is absence of special grants for them. Having grants will assist in maintaining and improve school environments as well as provide them with adequate facilities.

6.3.2 Retention Rates

The study disclosed that the two programmes increased retention of pupils in their schools and that it was noted to be satisfactory. Retention of pupils by average in both programmes (PEDP I and PEDP II) in Morogoro Rural District was 80.4 percent and in Morogoro Urban District, it was 93.9 percent. Retention of pupils increased due to improved physical infrastructure of primary schools, teaching and learning processes together with conducive learning environments. The improved school physical infrastructure was used as one of the major motivations in reducing constraints faced during schooling for pupils on scarcity of classrooms.

The difference in attendance between girls and boys was greater in rural areas than it was in urban areas. However, boys living in rural areas also exhibited lower enrolment rates than boys living in urban areas. Where, the retention rates of girls were higher in Morogoro urban (95.7) than rural (80.4), and the same trend was experienced to boys, where retention in Morogoro Urban District was 93.9 and Morogoro Rural District was

78.5. Furthermore, it was found that living in urban areas benefited both boys and girls. Hence, they regularly attended schools.

The study also identified that the differences in attendance in urban and rural areas certainly depended, in part, on unique characteristics of each of the two types of locations. There were dissimilarities in accessibility and quality of schools and there were disparities in general welfare and prevalence of poverty that affect attainment of primary education especially in rural areas.

On the other side, built classrooms did not support retention of pupils with disabilities. It was found out that constructions of school buildings done under PEDP did not take into consideration needs for pupils with physical disabilities and other kinds of disabilities. As a result, many pupils with disabilities, especially those with visual and physical disabilities used to struggle in their movements from one point to another within school premises.

6.3.3 Dropout Rates

The study found that PEDP contributed in minimizing dropout trends in primary schools and that dropout decreased with increasing levels of pupils to remain at schools. The dropout rate was low as 1.17 percent for both Morogoro Rural District and Morogoro Urban District. The study also established that dropout was higher in Pre-PEDP than During-PEDP and Post-PEDP periods. In addition, dropout was found to be a problem in rural primary schools as compared to urban schools. Some of major causes, which led

pupils to dropout were lack of parental awareness on importance of education, child marriage in the case of girl children, involvement in domestic work after class sessions, involvement in petty businesses to support for their parents' occupation because of poor economic conditions and parental preference in sending their grown up children to urban areas for wage labour.

The study identified that children with disabilities had to receive capitation grants from the government. Capitation grants motivated such pupils to attend schools and hence, they did not dropout. But findings identified that in some schools there was absence of data of enrolled children with disabilities. The cause behind absence of pupils' records in studied primary schools could be that their data were improperly kept.

6.3.4 Academic Performance

Findings from this study indicated that pupils' academic performance improved as a result of PEDP implementation in primary schools in their ten year periods. The quality of education in terms of examination results and learners' attainment in the region was good as inferred from the districts involved in the study. Pupils' examination performance results improved through active participation of teachers who were well trained and through deployment of new teachers. Effective use of teaching and learning materials during the programmes greatly helped on improving classroom teaching and learning processes. Identification of appropriate teaching and learning materials was helpful in making classroom interaction highly effective.

6.3.5 Strategies to Improve Enrolment, Retention and Academic Performance

Finally, this study examined strategies to apply so as to improve enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils in primary schools. The findings of study identified these strategies; the government to take deliberate affirmative action to mobilize and conscientize the communities at large on the importance of educating their children, creating awareness to parents not to hide children with disabilities in their homes, the government to build school infrastructure, the government and community to provide school meals to pupils and finally, the government to provide financial incentives to low income families.

6.4 Conclusions

The PEDP was implemented with the intention of improving primary education in the country through financial investments. PEDP I and II which were implemented between 2002 - 2006 and 2007 – 2011 had led to important improvements in primary education all over the country. There were substantive increases in the enrolment of pupils in rural and urban schools, while on other side, access to education for certain group children had been far from equal, hence were affected. Enrolment of children with disabilities seemed to be low either because their data were not kept well or not identified and hence recorded. Even resources required to improve the school learning environment for such group of children were very limited.

Retention of pupils seemed to improve due to financial support obtained from the government. Funds obtained were used for construction of classrooms and toilets and

purchase of teaching and learning facilities. Further, funding in education should be carefully done in order to ensure availability of school facilities (classrooms, libraries and other infrastructure like toilets, staff rooms, staff houses) and enable increasing number of qualified teachers to be employed so as to improve retention of pupils.

The findings of study reveal that problem of dropout existed and pupils dropped from their education system before completing Primary education level, thus to a great extent, causing wastefulness to the enrolment system. For that case, in order to terminate dropout in schools, the first major exercise is to know reasons for low promotion and high dropout and repetition rates. This should be necessarily followed by adopting reasons and specific strategies without which no improvement can be expected. The reasons as well strategies may vary from location to location.

In terms of improving academic performance, these primary schools should have competent teachers who can teach and help pupils perform well in their PSLE. In order to achieve this, the government has to develop well structured and robust pre-service teacher education programmes and in-service teacher training so as to allow teachers to continually develop and upgrade their content knowledge and pedagogical skills.

Finally, in order for the government to improve students' enrolment, retention and academic performance, there is a need to have adequate facilities that could provide convenient atmosphere and amenities for pupils' success (Blincoe, 2008). The government through head teachers should ensure that all learning facilities are

maintained and buildings are kept clean and neat. Further, stakeholders should provide suggestions which offer possible ways of improving enrolment, retention and academic performance of pupils in primary schools.

6.5 Recommendations

6.5.1 Recommendations for Policy

Researcher recommends that government should ensure that families and stakeholders are involved in policy decisions, so as to make them participate fully in discussions, planning, and evaluating the implemented programmes in the country. Researcher recommends that government should develop policy which clearly stipulates targets which show up-to-date enrolment strategies and actual follow-up measures to ensure children with disabilities access primary education.

The government should have a well structured policy that robust pre-service teacher education programmes and in-service teacher training so as to allow them to continually develop and upgrade their content knowledge and pedagogical skills in order to improve academic performances of pupils.

6.5.2 Recommendations for Actions

The government should mitigate out all factors that accelerate dropout among pupils by instituting policies, strategies and action plans involving all stakeholders.

The government and community members should rehabilitate school buildings so as to make them accessible to children with physical disabilities and meet their physical needs.

Finally, the government should put forward a legal framework that would make it mandatory for future construction of school buildings and other public buildings to take into account needs for children with physical disabilities.

6.5.3 Recommendation for Further Research

The researcher recommends that further investigations of this topic should be done using a qualitative approach. By using qualitative study approach, study will provide detailed descriptions on how the programmes had impacted on pupils' enrolments, retention and academic performance.

REFERENCES

- Adu, B. (2007). Escaping poverty through education: Focus on Eastern Province, *Teachers Image Magazine*, 14, 28-31.
- Akabayashi, H., and Psacharopoulos, G. (1999). The trade-off between child labour and human capital formation: A Tanzanian case study, *Journal of Development Studies*, 35(5), 120-140.
- Al-Samarrai, S., and Peasgood, T. (1998). Educational attainments and household characteristics in Tanzania. *Economics of Education Review*, 17(4), 395-417.
- Ananga, E. (2010). Understanding the push and pull factors in school dropout: A case study of Southern Ghana, *CREATE Monograph Series*, Brighton: University of Sussex, UK.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Bazavieh, A., and Sorensen, C. (2006). *Introduction to Research in Education* (7th ed.). Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Bailey, K., (1994), *Methods of Social Research* (4th ed.). New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Basic Education Development Committee (BEDC) (2001). *ESDP – Primary Education Development Plan (2002-2006)*. Retrieved from:
http://www.tanedu.org/pedp_doc.pdf.
- Bell, L., and Rhodes, C. (1996). *The skills of Primary School Management*, London: Routledge.
- Berger, J. B., Ramírez, G. B. and Lyons, S. (2012). Past to present – A historical look at retention. In Seidman, A. (Ed.), *College Student Retention – Formula for Student Success*. Plymouth: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers.

- Bertaux, D. (1981). *Biography and society: The life history approach in the social sciences*. London: Sage.
- Bishop, J., and Wöbmann, J. (2001). Institutional effects in a simple model of educational production. *Kiel Working Paper*, 1085.
- Björkdahl, E., and Lundqvist, P. (2006). *The abolishment of school fees in Tanzania* (Master's thesis). Goteborg University. Bocquie.
- Borg, W. R. and Gall, M. D. (1989). *Education research: An introduction* (4th ed.). New York: Longman.
- Blincoe, J. M. (2008). *The age and condition of Texas high schools as related to student academic achievement* (EdD dissertation). The University of Texas at Austin, United States.
- Bracey, G. W. (2001). Small schools, great strides. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 82(5), 413-14.
- Brooks-Gunn, J., Duncan, G. J., and Aber. J. L. (Eds.). (1997). *Neighborhood poverty, Volume I: Context and consequences for children*. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Brown, F. B. (1980). *A Study of the School Needs*. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 61, 537 – 540. 1085.
- Cambridge University Reporter. (2003). *Indicators of academic performance*. Retrieved on August 8, 2007 from <http://www.admin.cam.ac.uk/reporter/2002-3/weekly/5913/>
- Campbell, D. T. and Stanley, J. C. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Carr-Hill, R., and Ndalichako, J. (2005). *Education sector situation analysis. Final Draft Report Revised*. Tanzania.

- Cheers, B. (1990). Rural disadvantage in Australia. *Australian Social Work*, 43 (1), 5-13.
- Chowdhury, A., and Pati, C. (1997). Effect of selected family variables on social preference, academic achievement and self-concept of elementary school children, *Early Child Development and Care*, 137 (1), 133-143
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge.
- Colclough. C., and Al-samarrai, S. (2000). Achieving schooling for all: budgetary expenditures on education in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. *World Development*, 28, 1927-1944.
- Considine, G., and Zappala, G. (2002). Influence of social and economic disadvantage in the academic performance of school students in Australia. *Journal of Sociology*, 38, 129-148.
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications
- Creswell, J. W., and Clark, V. L. P. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2011). Controversies in mixed methods research. In N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook on qualitative research* (4th ed., pp. 269–284). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Curran, J. and Blackburn, R. (2001). *Researching the small enterprise*. London: Sage Publications.

- Dancer, D. and Rammohan, A. (2004). *The determinants of schooling in Egypt: The role of gender and rural-urban residence, working Papers ECON2004-2*. School of Economics and Political Science, University of Sidney, Sydney.
- Davidson, E. (2004). *The progress of the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) in Tanzania: 2002–2004*, working paper 04.2. Dar es Salaam, Tanzania: HakiElimu.
- Deininger, K. (2003). Does cost of schooling affect enrolment by the poor? Universal primary education in Uganda. *Economics of Education Review*, 22, 291- 305.
- Dills, K. A. (2006). Trends in the relationship between socioeconomic status and academic achievement. Retrieved from http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=886110
- Eamon, M. K. (2005). Social demographic, school, neighborhood, and parenting influences on academic achievement of Latino young adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 34(2), 163-175.
- Escarce, J. J. (2003). Socioeconomic status and the fates of adolescents. Retrieved from <http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid>
- Evans, D., Kremer, M. and Ngatia, M. (2008). *The impact of distributing school uniforms on children's education in Kenya*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank
- Felder, M. R., Mohr, H. P., Dietz, J. E. and Ward, B.L. (1994). A longitudinal study of engineering student performance and retention: Differences between students from rural and urban backgrounds. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 83(3) 209-217.
- Fink, A. (2012). *How to conduct surveys* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Filmer, D. (2005). *Disability, Poverty and Schooling in Developing Countries: Results from 11 Household Surveys*. World Bank Discussion paper.
- Fitzpatrick, J. L., Sanders, J. R. and Worthen, B. R. (2011). *Program evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines*. New Jersey: Pearson Education.
- Fitzpatrick, J., Snaders, J. and Worthen, B. (2012). *Program evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Fowler, F. J. (2009). *Survey research methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Fraenkel, J. and Wallen, N. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Galabawa, J. C. J., Kilindo A.A., Sichona, F.J, Mwaimu A.S.M., Kivanda, C.H.M. and Mugussi D.I. (2001). *Education sector country status report*. Final report presented to the Ministry of Education and Culture, Tanzania.
- Gallant, M., and Maticka-Tyndale, E. (2004). School-based HIV prevention programs for African youth. *Social Science and Medicine*, 58, 1337–1351.
- Graetz, B. (1995). Socioeconomic status in education research and policy. In Ainley, J, Graetz, B., Long, M. and Batten, M. (Eds). *Social economic Status and School Education*. Canberra: DEET/ACER.
- Guest, G., Bunce, A. and Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), 59.
- Hagedorn, L.S. (2006). *How to define retention: A new look at an old problem. transfer and retention of urban community college students (TRUCCS)*. USC Rossier School of Education, Los Angeles, CA.

- HakiElimu (2007). *What has been achieved in primary education? Key findings from government reviews*. Dar es Salaam: HakiElimu.
- HakiElimu (2009). *Where are we after the second year of the implementation of Primary Education Development Program II? Key findings from government reviews of the implementation of Primary Education Development Program II 2007/08*. Dar es Salaam: HakiElimu.
- Hansen, N.M. and Mastekaasa, A. (2006). Social origins and academic performance at university. *Oxford University press*. Retrieved from <http://esr.oxfordjournals.org/cgi/content/abstract/22/3/277>
- Hanushek, E. A, 1995. Interpreting recent research on schooling in developing countries. *World Bank Research Observer*. 10(2): 227-46. Washington D.C: The World Bank.
- Henning, E., Van Rensburg, W. and Smit, B. (2004). *Finding your way in qualitative Research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Hittleman, D. R. and Simon, A. J. (1997). *Interpreting educational research: An introduction for consumers of research* (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Humanium (2014). *Children's rights: right to education – situation of children's right to education worldwide*. Retrieved from <http://www.humanium.org/en/world/right-to-education/>
- Jeynes, William H. (2002). Examining the effects of parental absence on the academic achievement of adolescents: the challenge of controlling for family income *Journal of family and Economic Issues*, 23(2)

- Kerlinger, Fred N. (1979). *Behavioral research: a conceptual approach*, New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Kheni, A. N. (2008). *Impact of health and safety management on safety performance of small and medium-sized construction businesses in Ghana* (PhD. Thesis). Loughborough University.
- Klepp, K.-I., Ndeki, S., Leshabari, M. T., Hannan, P. J. and Lyimo, B. A. (1997). AIDS education in Tanzania: promoting risk reduction among primary school children. *American Journal of Public Health*, 87(12), 1931–1936.
- Kolcic I, O, P (2006). *Academic performance and scientific involvement of final year medical students coming from urban and rural backgrounds*. Andrija Stampar School of Public Health, Medical School, University of Zagreb, Croatia. <http://rrh.deakin.edu.au/>
- Kremer, M. and Holla, A. (2008) Pricing and access: lessons from randomized evaluations in education and health. In W. Easterly and J. Cohen, (eds.), *What works in development? Thinking big and thinking small*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Kristensen, K., Omagar-Loican, M., Onen, N. and Okot, D. (2006). Opportunities for inclusion? The education of learners with special educational needs and disabilities in special schools in Uganda. *British Journal of Special Education*, 33(3), 139 – 147.
- Kwesiga, C. J., (2002). *From elite to mass higher education in Uganda: The sloughing of Makerere University*. Paper presented at the International Conference on

- Women's Worlds: Gains and Challenges, July 22-26, Makerere University, Kampala.
- Lai, F. (2004). *The impact of school quality on educational performance: evidence from the middle school educational reform in Beijing's Eastern City District* (PhD. Thesis). University of California, Berkeley, CA, USA.
- Lavy, V. (1996). School supply constraints and children's educational outcomes in rural Ghana. *Journal of Development Economics*, 51, 291-314.
- Lee, J., and McIntire, W. (2001). Interstate variation in the mathematics achievement of rural and non-rural students. *Journal of Research in rural education*, 16(3)
- Legotlo, M. and Westhuizen, P.C. (1996). Coming on board; problems facing principals in developing countries. *Educational Management and Administration*, 24(4), 401 – 410.
- Lexow, J. (2003). *Gender issues in education in Ethiopia*. Input to JRM , ESDP, October-November 2003.
- Lewis, M. (2001). *Facility conditions and student test performance in the Milwaukee public schools*. Scottsdale, AZ: Council of Educational Facility Planners International
- Lloyd, C., Mensch, B. and Clark, W. (1998). *The effects of primary school quality on educational participation and attainment of Kenyan girls and boys*. Paper presented to the annual meeting of the Population Association of America, Chicago.
- Lyons, J. B. (2002). The learning environment: Do school facilities really affect a child's education? *Learning By Design*, 11, 10-13.

- Maliyamkono, T.L. and Bagachwa, M.S.D. (1990) *The second economy in Tanzania*, Ohio University Press.
- Malekela, George. (1995). Equality and Equity Concern in Primary Education. In *Papers in Education and Development*. Faculty of Education. University of Dar es Salaam. NO. 16.
- Malekela, G. (2003). Current practices in primary education in Tanzania. In Mtana, N., Mhando, E., and Höjlund, G. (eds), *Teaching and learning in primary education in Tanzania*. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Culture.
- Malim, T., and Birch, A. (1998). *Introductory psychology*. New York, NY: Palgrave Publishers Ltd.
- Mason, A.D. and Rozelle, S.D. (1998). Schooling Decisions, Basic Education, and the Poor in Rural Java. Washington DC: World Bank. Retrieved from <http://agecon.ucdavis.edu/people/faculty/scottrozelle/docs/.../ARTICLE4.pdf>, on 7 July 2013.
- Mathison, S. (1988). Why triangulate? *Educational Researcher*, 13-17.
- Maticka-Tyndale E., Wildish J. and Gichuru M. (2004). HIV/AIDS and education: Experience in changing behaviour: A Kenyan example. *London, Commonwealth Education Partnerships*, 3, 172-175.
- Mbaabu, L. N. (1983). *A study of administrative problems experienced by primary school head teachers* (M.Ed. Thesis). Kenyatta University, Nairobi.
- Mbelle, A.V.Y. (2001). Macroeconomic policy and performance of the manufacturing sector in Tanzania: Has liberalization helped? An econometric approach. In

- Szirmai A. and P. Lapperre (eds.), *The industrial experience of Tanzania*. New York, NY: Palgrave, pp 300-317
- Mbelle, A. V.Y. (2008). *The impact of reforms on the quality of primary education in Tanzania, Research Report*, 08.1, Dar es Salaam: REPOA.
- McMillan, J. H., and Schumacher, S. (2001). *Research in education: A conceptual introduction* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Longman. Available at repository.up.ac.za/bitstream/handle/2263/24285/03chapter3.pdf? Retrieved on 12 October, 2015.
- McMillan, J. and Western, J. (2000). Measurement of social-economic status of Australian higher education students. *Higher Education*, 39(2).
- Mertens, D. M. (2005). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Mertens, D. and Wilson, A. (2012). *Program evaluation theory and practice: A comprehensive guide*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Michael, A. (2012). *Access to and provision of pre-primary and primary education to children with disabilities in Tanzania*. Dar es Salaam: The Kesho Trust (TZ).
- Miller, W. P. and Birch, R.E. (2007). *The influence of type of high school attended on university performance*. Retrieved on December 3, 2008 from <http://www3.interscience.wiley.com/journal/118538313>
- MoEC (2000). *Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST)*. Dar es salaam. Ministry of Education and Culture.

- MoEC (2001), *Education Sector Development Programme: primary education development plan (2002-2006)*, Basic Education Development Committee, Tanzania.
- MoEC (2005). *Basic education statistics in Tanzania (BEST)*. Dar es salaam: Ministry of Education and Culture.
- MoEVT (2008). *Basic education statistics in Tanzania (BEST)*. Dar es salaam: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.
- MoEVT (2011). *Basic education statistics in Tanzania (BEST)*. Dar es salaam: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.
- MoEVT (2013). *Basic education statistics in Tanzania (BEST)*. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.
- Morgan, D., Mahe, C., Mayanja, W., Okongo, M. J., Lugeba, R. and Whitworth, J.A.G. (2002). HIV-1 infection in rural Africa: Is there a difference in median time to AIDS and survival compared with that in industrialized countries? *AIDS*, 6, 597-603.
- Mosha, H. (1988). A reassessment of indicators of primary school quality in developing countries: Emerging evidence from Tanzania. *International Review of Education*. UNESCO: Institute of Education. 34(1), 17-45.
- Mosha, H. (1995). Primary education politics in Tanzania. In *Papers in Education and Development*. Faculty of Education, University of Dar es Salaam. NO.16:1-16.

- Mosha, H. (2000). Conceptualizing quality of education . In J. Galabawa, J. Senkoro and A. Lwaitama (Eds.). *The Quality of Education in Tanzania: Issues and Experiences*. Dar-es-Salaam: Tanzania Institute of Kiswahili Research.
- Mushi, D. P., Chonjo, P., Omari, I., Mbelle, A., Shitundu, J., Pambe, D. and Madege, L. (2008). *Evaluation of the Impact of the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) 2002-2006: Final Report submitted to Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, Dar es Salaam*.
- Mushi, D. P., Chonjo, P., Omari, I., Kundi, B., Sichona, F., Kessy, A., Mkude, G., Yona, F., Mkilania, I., Mpayo, E., Mallya, D. and Kadege, L. (2012). *Evaluation of the Impact of the Primary Education Development Programme Phase Two (PEDP II) 2007 – 2011: Final Report submitted to Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania*.
- National Bureau of Statistics (2003). *Population and housing census 2002*. Dar es Salaam: NBS.
- Nyerere, J. K. (1967). *Education for self-reliance*. Dar es Salaam: Government Printers.
- Omari, I. M., Mbise, A. S., Mahenge, S. T., Malekela, G. A. and Besha, M. P. (1983). *Universal primary education in Tanzania*. Ottawa: IDRC.
- Omari, I. M. and Mosha, H. J., (1987). *The quality of primary education in Tanzania*. Nairobi: IDRC.
- Omari, I. M. (2011). *Concepts and methods in educational research*; Dar es Salaam: Oxford University Press.
- Orlosky, D. E. (1984). *Educational administration today*. Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.

- Osaki, K. (2002). Science education in Tanzania: Past, present and future trends. In K. Osaki, W. Ottevanger, C. Uiso, and J. van den Akker (Eds.), *Science education research and teacher development in Tanzania*, (pp. 1-14). Amsterdam: Vrije Universiteit.
- Owen , V. (1999). Exploring beliefs about academic performance achievement. *The Uganda Education Journal*, Vol. 2: pp. 57.
- Patrinos, H.A. and Ariasingam, D.L. (1997). *Decentralization of education: Demand-side financing*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Payne, G. and Payne, J., (2004). *Key concepts in social research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Planning Commission (1998). *Morogoro region socio-economic profile*. Dar es Salaam: Government Printers.
- Portes, A and MacLeod, D. (1996), Educational progress of children of immigrants: the role of class, ethnicity and school context, *Sociology of Education*, 69, 255- 75.
- Possi, M. K. (1999). Culture and disability: superstitions behavior towards people with disabilities in Coastal Tanzania. *African Journal of Special Needs Education*, 1, 22-35.
- Psacharopoulos, G. and Woodhall, M. (1997). *Education for development: An analysis of investment choices*. Washington: World Bank.
- Punch, K. (2006). *Introduction to social research, quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London: SAGE Publications.

- Rajani, R. and Sumra, S. (2003). Is extra funding for primary education making a difference? Conceptual and measurement challenges. HakiElimu Working Paper Series No.3, Dar es salaam: Haki Elimu.
- Rogan, J. and Grayson, D. (2003). Towards a theory of curriculum implementation with particular reference to science education in developing countries. *International Journal of Science Education*, 25 (10), 1171-1204.
- Rumberger, R. W. (2001). Who drop out of school and why: *Review of Educational Research*, University of California Santa Barbara 93106, National academy press.
- Sabates, R., Akyeampong, K., Westbrook, J. and Hunt, F. (2010). School Dropout: Patterns, Causes, Changes and Policies. *Background Paper for the UNESCO GMR*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Schargel, F. P. and Smink, J. (2001). *Strategies to help solve our school dropout problem*. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
- Sandelowski, M. (2000). Combining qualitative and quantitative sampling, data collection, and analysis techniques in mixed-methods studies. *Research in Nursing and Health* 23:246–255.
- Sander, W. (1999). Endogenous expenditures and student achievement. *Economics letters* 64: 223-231.
- Sampson, D. (2004). *Academic performance, mental health and school factors*. writing.byu.edu/honors_program/honors_150/contest/2004/sampsondonald.pdf
- Sayer, A. (1992). *Method in social science: A realist approach* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge

- Sekwao, N. V. (2004). *National report on the development of education 2001-2004*.
http://www.ibe.unesco.org/International/ICE47/English/Natreps/reports/tanzania_ocr.pdf
- Sentamu, N. P. (2003). School's influence of learning: A case of upper primary schools in Kampala and Wakiso Districts. *Uganda Education Journal*, 4.
- Shuey, D. A., Babishangire, B. B., Omiat, S. and Bangarukayo, H. (1999). Increased sexual abstinence among in-school adolescents as a result of school health education in Soroti district, Uganda. *Health Education Research*, 14(3), 411–419.
- Stufflebeam, D. (2003). *The CIPP model of evaluation*. In T. Kellaghan, D. Stufflebeam and L. Wingate (Eds.), Springer: International handbook of educational evaluation.
- Sumra, S. (2003). *Implementation of Primary Education Development Plan: Voice from the community*, Dar es Salaam: HakiElimu,.
- Swats, P. and Wachira, E. M. (2010). *Tanzania: ICT in Education Situational Analysis*, Gesci.
- Tabachnick, B. G. and Fidell, L. S. (2000). *Using multivariate statistics*. New York, NY: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tansel, A. (2002). Determinants of school attainment of boys and girls in Turkey: individual, household and community factors. *Economics of Education Review* 21: 455-470
- Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: combining qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Thorndike, R. M. (1997). *Measurement and evaluation in psychology and education* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Thurlow, M. L., Sinclair, M. F. and Johnson, D. R. (2002, July). Students with disabilities who drop out of school: Implications for policy and practice. *Issue Brief*, 1(2). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, Institute on Community Integration, National Center on Secondary Education and Transition.
- Tietjen, K., Prather, C. and Agency for International Development (IDCA), Washington, DC Office of Women, in Development. (1991). *Educating girls: Strategies to increase access, persistence, and achievement*. USAID.
- Todaro, M.P. (1997). *Economic development*. Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Tremblay, S., Nancy, R. and Berthelot, J. M. (2001). Factors affecting grade 3 student performance in Ontario: A multilevel analysis. *Education Quarterly review*. Vol 7,no.4.
- Tshabangu, I. and Msafiri, A. (2013). Quality education in Tanzania: Perceptions on global challenges and Local Needs. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, 3(3), 800 – 813.
- Tungaraza, F. (2010). Climbing up the challenging hill from exclusion to inclusion: Teachers and administrators' attitudes towards integration in Tanzanian primary schools. *Lwati: A Journal of Contemporary Research*, 7(1), 102-120, 2010.
- UNESCO (1989). *Measuring Access to, and participation in Education*. Paris: IIEP.

- UNESCO (1994). *The salamanca statement and framework for action on special needs education*. UNESCO: Paris.
- UNESCO (2000). *The Dakar Framework for Action*. [Online] Paris: UNESCO
- UNESCO (2000a). *The 2000 EFA assessment country reports – Tanzania mainland*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2000b). *The Dakar framework for action – Education for All: meeting our collective commitments*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2002). *Women basic education, community health and sustenance development*. Monograph of papers presented at a strategic planning Workshop at University of Nairobi, Nairobi.
- UNESCO. (2003). *EFA global monitoring report 2003/4. Gender and Education for All: The leap to equality*. Paris: Author.
- UNESCO (2005). *Global monitoring report*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2007). *Strong foundations. Early childhood care and education*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization 7, Place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France [http:// unesdoc. unesco.org/ images/ 0014/001477/147794e.pdf](http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001477/147794e.pdf)
- UNESCO (2009). *Global Monitoring Report, overcoming inequality: why governance matters*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2010). *Reaching the marginalized*. EFA global monitoring report 2010. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- UNESCO (2011). *Global education digest 2011: comparing education statistics across the world*. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

UNESCO (2012). *Global monitoring report 2012*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (2014). *Out of school children*. Paris: UNESCO.

UN (2003). *Indicators for monitoring the millennium development goals*. New York, NY: United Nations Development Group.

UNICEF (1990). *Women and children in Tanzania: a situational analysis*, Dar es Salaam: UNICEF, Nov. [The Report was prepared and published with the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania]

UNICEF (2008) *Monitoring Child Disability in Developing Countries: Results From the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys*: United Nations Children's Fund, Division of Policy and Practice: New York.

United Nations (2013). *Assessing Progress in Africa towards the Millennium Development Goals, MDG Report 2013: Food security in Africa: Issues, challenges and lessons*, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA). May 2013.

United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) (2008). *Making Education Work; the gender dimension of the school to work transition*, Bangkok, Thailand.

URT (1995). *Education and Training Policy*, Ministry of Education and Culture, Tanzania.

URT (2000). *Education in a global era: challenges to equity, opportunity for diversity*. Paper presented at the Fourteenth Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers (14 CCEM) Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada, 27 – 30 November, 2000.

- URT (2001). *Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP), Primary Education Development Programme I (2002 – 2006)*, Basic Education Development Committee (BEDC), July 2001.
- URT (2003). *Joint Review of the PEDP*, Dar es Salaam: MOEC and PO-RALG, November 2003.
- URT (2004). *Joint Review of the PEDP*, Dar es Salaam: MOEC and PO-RALG, October 2004.
- URT (2006). *Education and Training Sector Development Programme (ESDP), Primary Education Development Programme II (2007 – 2011)*, Basic Education Development Committee, November 2006.
- URT (2006a). *Basic education statistics in Tanzania (BEST): 2002-2006*, Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.
- URT (2006b). *PEDP Progress Report July 2005-June 2006*, Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and PMO-RALG, October 2006.
- URT. (2008). *Education sector development programme (2008 – 17)*. Retrieved from <http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Tanzania%20UR/Tanzania-ESDP-2008-2017.pdf>
- URT (2010). *Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST) 2006-2010*, Revised National Data Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.
- URT (2012). *Education and Training Sector Development Programme (ESDP), Primary Education Development Programme III (2012 – 2016)*, Basic Education Development Committee, July, 2012.
- URT (2012b). *United republic of Tanzania, 2012 population and housing census*. Dar es Salaam: National Bureau of Statistics.

- URT (2013). *Basic facts and figures 2012 on human settlements in Tanzania mainland*. Dar-es-Salaam: National Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Finance.
- URT (2014). *Basic education statistics in Tanzania (BEST) 2009 – 2013*. National Data (Draft) Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.
- U.S. DOS (U.S. Department of State). 2006. *Office of the global AIDS coordinator: Focus countries*. Washington, DC: U.S. DOS. <http://www.state.gov/s/gac/countries/fc/index.htm> (accessed May 25, 2006).
- Van der berg, S. and Burger, R. (2003). Education and socio-economic differentials: A study of school performance in the Western Cape. *The South Africa Journal of Economics* 713: 496-522.
- Wamahi, S. P. Opondo, J. and Nyagah, G. N. (1992). *Educational situation of the Kenya girl child*. Nairobi: UNICEF and ERNIKE.
- Wanyoike, W. (2003). *Understanding youth and family from a christian perspective*. Nyeri, Kenya: Wilson Wanyoike publisher.
- Wanjiru, N. (2007). *Factors contributing to school dropout in Mombasa district - Kenya* (M. Ed Thesis). University of Nairobi, Nairobi.
- Weaver, K. and Olson, J.K. (2006). Understanding paradigm used for nursing research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 53 (4), 459-469.
- Wiersma, W. and Jurs, S.G. (2009). *Research methods in education: an introduction (9th ed.)*. Boston, M.A: Pearson.
- Wößmann, L. (2001) Why students in some countries do better: International evidence on the importance of education policy, *Education Matters*, 1, 67-74.

- Wöbmann, L. and Gundlach. (2001). The fading productivity of schooling in East Asia. *Journal of Asian Economies* 12, 401-417.
- World Bank (1998). *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: policies of readjustment, revitalization and expansion*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- World Bank (2006). *GINI per Capita 2005, Atlas method and PPP*. World Development Indicators database.
- World Bank and UNICEF. (2009). *Six steps to abolishing primary school fees operational guide*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- Worthern R. and Sanders, R. (1998). *Educational evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines*. New York: Longman.

ANNEXES

Annex 1 : Official List of MDG Indicators

Official list of MDG indicators

All indicators should be disaggregated by sex and urban/rural as far as possible.

Effective 15 January 2008

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)	
Goals and Targets (from the Millennium Declaration)	Indicators for monitoring progress
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	
Target 1.A: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people, whose income is less than one dollar a day	1.1 Proportion of population below \$1 (PPP) per day ⁱ 1.2 Poverty gap ratio 1.3 Share of poorest quintile in national consumption
Target 1.B: Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people	1.4 Growth rate of GDP per person employed 1.5 Employment-to-population ratio 1.6 Proportion of employed people living below \$1 (PPP) per day 1.7 Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment
Target 1.C: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	1.8 Prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age 1.9 Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education	
Target 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	2.1 Net enrolment ratio in primary education 2.2 Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary 2.3 Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds, women and men
Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women	
Target 3.A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015	3.1 Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education 3.2 Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector 3.3 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality	

Target 4.A: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate	4.1 Under-five mortality rate 4.2 Infant mortality rate 4.3 Proportion of 1 year-old children immunised against measles
Goal 5: Improve maternal health	
Target 5.A: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	5.1 Maternal mortality ratio 5.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
Target 5.B: Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health	5.3 Contraceptive prevalence rate 5.4 Adolescent birth rate 5.5 Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits) 5.6 Unmet need for family planning
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	
Target 6.A: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse spread of HIV/AIDS	6.1 HIV prevalence among population aged 15-24 years 6.2 Condom use at last high-risk sex 6.3 Proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS 6.4 Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10-14 years
Target 6.B: Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it	6.5 Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to antiretroviral drugs
Target 6.C: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	6.6 Incidence and death rates associated with malaria 6.7 Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets 6.8 Proportion of children under 5 with fever who are treated with appropriate anti-malarial drugs 6.9 Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis 6.10 Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability	
Target 7.A: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources	7.1 Proportion of land area covered by forest 7.2 CO ₂ emissions, total, per capita and per \$1 GDP (PPP) 7.3 Consumption of ozone-depleting substances 7.4 Proportion of fish stocks within safe biological limits
Target 7.B: Reduce biodiversity loss,	7.5 Proportion of total water resources used

achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss	7.6 Proportion of terrestrial and marine areas protected 7.7 Proportion of species threatened with extinction
Target 7.C: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation	7.8 Proportion of population using an improved drinking water source 7.9 Proportion of population using an improved sanitation facility
Target 7.D: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	7.10 Proportion of urban population living in slums ⁱⁱ
Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development	
Target 8.A: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction – both nationally and internationally Target 8.B: Address the special needs of the least developed countries Includes: tariff and quota free access for the least developed countries' exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction Target 8.C: Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and small island developing States (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly) Target 8.D: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to	<i>Some of the indicators listed below are monitored separately for the least developed countries (LDCs), Africa, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States.</i> <u>Official development assistance (ODA)</u> 8.1 Net ODA, total and to the least developed countries, as percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income 8.2 Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation) 8.3 Proportion of bilateral official development assistance of OECD/DAC donors that is untied 8.4 ODA received in landlocked developing countries as a proportion of their gross national incomes 8.5 ODA received in small island developing States as a proportion of their gross national incomes <u>Market access</u> 8.6 Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and least developed countries, admitted free of duty 8.7 Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries 8.8 Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as a percentage of their gross

make debt sustainable in the long term	<p>domestic product</p> <p>8.9 Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity <u>Debt sustainability</u></p> <p>8.10 Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative)</p> <p>8.11 Debt relief committed under HIPC and MDRI Initiatives</p> <p>8.12 Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services</p>
Target 8.E: In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries	8.13 Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis
Target 8.F: In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	<p>8.14 Fixed telephone lines per 100 inhabitants</p> <p>8.15 Mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants</p> <p>8.16 Internet users per 100 inhabitants</p>

Annex 2 : Primary School Enrolment Survey Form**Primary School Enrolment Survey Form****NAME OF SCHOOL**

School Location		Tick					School quality				
A	URBAN						U1	U2	U3		
B	RURAL						R1	R2	R3		
Basic Profile of the School											
Items	Male	Grad.	Dipl.	Certif.	Female	Grad.	Dipl.	Certif.	Total		
Number of Teachers											
	Male				Female						
Number of Pupils											
An increase of school facilities											
	2000	2001	2006	2011	2014						
Number of Toilet - Holes											
Number of Classrooms											
Number of staffrooms											
Number of Staff houses											
Pupils' Enrolment and completion Statistics											
Pupils enrolled in class 1				Pupils who completed class 7				Difference			
Year	Female	Male	Total	Year	Female	Male	Total	Year	Female	Male	Total
2000				2006				2006			
2001				2007				2007			
2002				2008				2008			
2003				2009				2009			
2004				2010				2010			
2005				2011				2011			
2006				2012				2012			
2007				2013				2013			
2008				2014				2014			
2009											
2010											
2011											
2012											
2013											
Enrolment and completion trends of Pupils with Disabilities in class 1 and 7											
Type of disabilities: visual impairment/hearing impairment/intellectual impairment/physical disability/autism /deaf and blind/Albino											
Disabled enrolled in class 1				Disabled who completed class 7				Difference			
Year	Female	Male	Total	Year	Female	Male	Total	Year	Female	Male	Total
2000				2006				2006			
2001				2007				2007			
2002				2008				2008			
2003				2009				2009			

Annex 3 : Primary School Retention Survey Form**Primary School Retention Survey Form**

Pupils who started class 1	Pupils who finished class 7					
Year	year	Female	Male	Total	percentage	
2000 →	2006					
2001 →	2007					
2002 →	2008					
2003 →	2009					
2004 →	2010					
2005 →	2011					
2006 →	2012					
2007 →	2013					
2008 →	2014					
Disabled pupils who started class 1 and finished class 7 in different years						
Type of disabilities: visual impairment/hearing impairment/intellectual impairment/physical disability/autism /deaf and blind/Albino						
Year	year	Female	Male	Total	percentage	Type
2000 →	2006					
2001 →	2007					
2002 →	2008					
2003 →	2009					
2004 →	2010					
2005 →	2011					
2006 →	2012					
2007 →	2013					
2008 →	2014					

Annex 4 : Primary School Dropout Survey Form

Primary School Dropout Survey Form							
Pupils who dropped out from school between 2002 – 2013							
For Disabled, please identify type of their disabilities if: visual impairment/hearing impairment/intellectual impairment/physical disability/autism /deaf and blind/Albino							
Year	Number of drop out				Total		
	Female		Male		Normal	Disabled	Total
	Normal	Disabled	Normal	Disabled			
2000							
2001							
2002							
2003							
2004							
2005							
2006							
2007							
2008							
2009							
2010							
2011							
2012							
2013							

Annex 5 : Primary School Performance Survey Form

Primary School Performance Survey Form							
Performance in PSLE							
Pupils who passed or failed PSLE in 2002 – 2013							
Year	Female		Male		Total		Comments
2000	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2001	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2002	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2003	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2004	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2005	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		

2006	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2007	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2008	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2009	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2010	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2011	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2012	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		
2013	A		A		A		
	B		B		B		
	C		C		C		
	D		D		D		
	E		E		E		
	Fail		Fail		Fail		

Annex 6 : Primary School Fund Tracking Form**Primary School Fund Tracking Form**

Name of School _____

Primary Education Development Program I:

	2000/0 1	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	TOTAL
A. RECURRENT BUDGET							
Primary Enrolment							
1. Capitation Grants							
2. Capitation Grants for students with special learning needs.....							
3. Special Needs Education.....							
4. Non Formal Education.....							
5. Technical Assistance.....							
6. Incentive to teachers Involved in Double Shift...							
7. Examinations and Assessment.....							
8. Curriculum Development.....							
9. Cross-Cutting Issues.....							
10. Maintenance Costs (3% of Development budget)							
TOTAL RECURRENT BUDGET							
B. DEVELOPMENT BUDGET							
1. Pre- Primary Class rooms Construction...							
2. Primary Class rooms' Construction							
3. Pre- Primary Toilets.....							
4. Primary Toilets.....							
5. Pre- Primary Desks.....							
6. Primary Desks.....							
7. Pre- Primary, Primary Teachers Houses construction costs.....							
8. Construction of Water Tanks (for 30% of Primary schools).....							
TOTAL DEVELOPMENT BUDGET							
TOTAL PEDP BUDGET							

Primary Education Development Program II:

	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2011/12	2012/13	TOTAL
A. RECURRENT BUDGET							
Primary Enrolment							
1. Capitation Grants							
2. Capitation Grants for students with special learning needs.....							
3. Special Needs Education.....							
4. Non Formal Education.....							
5. Technical Assistance.....							
6. Incentive to teachers Involved in Double Shift...							
7. Examinations and Assessment.....							
8. Curriculum Development.....							
9. Cross-Cutting Issues.....							
10. Maintenance Costs (3% of Development budget)							
TOTAL RECURRENT BUDGET							
B. DEVELOPMENT BUDGET							
1. Pre- Primary Class rooms Construction...							
2. Primary Class rooms' Construction							
3. Pre- Primary Toilets.....							
4. Primary Toilets.....							
5. Pre- Primary Desks.....							
6. Primary Desks.....							
7. Pre- Primary, Primary Teachers Houses construction costs.....							
8. Construction of Water Tanks (<i>for 30% of Primary schools</i>).....							
TOTAL DEVELOPMENT BUDGET							
TOTAL PEDP BUDGET							

Annex 7 : Strategies to Improve Primary School Education Delivery

Name of School _____

In each item, please choose one answer by ticking in the appropriate box

S/N	Strategy to improve enrolment of pupils in primary schools	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	Head teacher to develop an enrolment plan of pupils				
2.	Government to build more classrooms for pupils				
3.	Government to enforce legal actions to parents who do not send their children to schools				
4.	Schools to cooperate with communities				
5.	School to enrol pupils who dropped out of studies				
6.	Government to introduce new development programme				
7.	Government to mobilize and conscientize the communities on the importance of education				
8.	Creating awareness to parents not to hide children with disabilities				
9.	Giving gifts to pupils e.g. pens, exercise books, etc				
10.	Government to identify and secure sufficient resources to meet enrolment objectives				
11.	Government to employ more teachers				
12.	Improve life support programs to pupils				
	Strategy to improve retention of pupils in primary schools				
13.	Create schools friendly environment				
14.	Make intervention to dropout pupils				
15.	Introduce school feeding programme				
16.	Improve school infrastructures (classrooms, toilets, safe water)				
17.	To provide financial incentives to low income families				
18.	Avoid corporal punishment during teaching learning processes				
19.	Use incentive to retain pupils in schools				
20.	Build more toilets in primary schools				
21.	Increase donors support to education				
22.	Introduce compulsory attendance of children to schools				
23.	Introduce guidance and counselling to pupils				
24.	Having frequent meetings with parents				

	Strategy to improve academic performance of pupils in schools				
25.	Introduce corporal punishment to failures				
26.	Offer weekly and monthly tests				
27.	Set pupils academic goals				
28.	Improve teaching and learning environment				
29.	Introduce school feeding programme				
30.	Rewarding high performing pupils				
31.	Enhance residential facilities to teaching staff				
32.	Teachers to use participatory teaching methods				
33.	Introduce gift and rewards systems to good performing pupils				
34.	Build dormitories to girls and children with disabilities				
35.	Deepen relationships between pupils with counsellors				

Annex 8 : Research Clearance from Directorate of Research and Postgraduate Studies

THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA

DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH, PUBLICATIONS, AND POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

P.O. Box 23409 Fax: 255-22-2668759 Dar es Salaam, Tanzania,
<http://www.out.ac.tz>



Tel: 255-22-2666752/2668445 ext.2101
 Fax: 255-22-2668759,
 E-mail: drpc@out.ac.tz

17/09/2015

Regional Administrative Secretary,
Morogoro.

RE: RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The Open University of Tanzania was established by an act of Parliament no. 17 of 1992. The act became operational on the 1st March 1993 by public notes No. 55 in the official Gazette. Act number 7 of 1992 has now been replaced by the Open University of Tanzania charter which is in line the university act of 2005. The charter became operational on 1st January 2007. One of the mission objectives of the university is to generate and apply knowledge through research. For this reason staff and students undertake research activities from time to time.

To facilitate the research function, the vice chancellor of the Open University of Tanzania was empowered to issue a research clearance to both staff and students of the university on behalf of the government of Tanzania and the Tanzania Commission of Science and Technology.

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr Andrew Caleb Randa, HD/E/1077/T.13** who is a PhD student at the Open University of Tanzania. By this letter, **Mr Andrew Caleb Randa** has been granted clearance to conduct research in the country. The title of his research is "**Differential Impact of Primary Education Development Program in Improving Access, Retention and Performance of Pupils from Economically Different Communities in Morogoro, Tanzania**". The research will be conducted in Morogoro Region. The period which this permission has been granted is from 17/09/ 2015 to 17/02/2016.

In case you need any further information, please contact:

The Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic); The Open University of Tanzania; P.O. Box 23409; Dar Es Salaam. Tel: 022-2-2668820

We thank you in advance for your cooperation and facilitation of this research activity.

Yours sincerely,

Prof Hossea Rwegoshora

For: VICE CHANCELLOR

THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA

Annex 9 : Letter from Morogoro Regional Administrative Secretary

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

Telegraphic Address: "REGCOM"
Commissioner's Office,
Phones: 023 2604237/2604227



Regional
P.O. Box 650,
MOROGORO.

Fax No: 260 09 73
In Reply please quote:

Ref. No: AB. 175/245/01/284

13 October 2015

District Administrative Secretaries,
Morogoro, Kilosa, Mvomero, Gairo,
Kilombero, Malinyi na Mahenge.

Re: RESEARCH PERMIT

Please refer to the above mentioned subject.

I am writing to introduce to you **Mr. Andrew Caleb Randa** who is bonafide PhD student at Open University of Tanzania.

The title of his research is **Differential Impact of primary Education Development program in Improving Access., Retention and Performance of Pupils from Economically Different Communities in Morogoro, Tanzania.** The period for which this permission has been granted is from 17/09/2015 to 17/02/2016.

Please provide him with all necessary assistance to enable the accomplishment of this activity.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Emmanuel Mazengo
For; Regional Administrative Secretary

Cop: Vice Chancellor
The Open University of Tanzania
P.O. Box 23409
DAR ES SALAAM

" Mr. Andrew Caleb Randa
Researcher.

Annex 10 : Letter from District Administrative Secretary (DAS) - Morogoro (Rural)

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

Anuani ya Simu:MKUU WA WILAYA
SIMU NAMBARI: 2614096
FAX NAMBARI: 2613848



OFISI YA MKUU WA WILAYA,
WILAYA YA MOROGORO,
S.L.P 681,
MOROGORO.

Unapojibu Tafadhali taja:

Kumb Na.AB.210/249/01/C.141

Tarehe : 03 Novemba, 2015

Mkurugenzi Mtendaji,
Halmashauri ya Wilaya,
S.L.P 1880,
MOROGORO.

YAH: KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI NDUGU ANDREW CALEB RANDA

Tafadhali rejea somo la hapo juu.

Mtajwa hapo juu ni mwanafunzi kutoka Chuo Kikuu Huria cha Tanzania ambaye kwa hivi sasa anafanya utafiti katika Wilaya yetu.

Kibali kinatolewa kwa mtajwa hapo juu ili aweze kufanya utafiti juu ya *"Differential Impact of Primary Education Development Program in Improving Access, Retention and Performance of Pupils from Economically Different Communities in Morogoro Tanzania"*.

Eneo la utafiti ni katika shule za msingi zilizopo Morogoro vijijini na kibali hiki ni cha muda wa miezi mitano kuanzia tarehe 04/11/2015 hadi tarehe 03/04/2015.

Tafadhali tunaomba apewe ushirikiano

Madunda, P.H

**Kny: KATIBU TAWALA WILAYA
MOROGORO**

**K.N.Y. KATIBU TAWALA WILAYA
MOROGORO**

Nakala: Ndugu Andrew C. Panda
Mtafiti

Annex 11 : Letter from District Administrative Secretary (DAS) - Morogoro – Municipal

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

Anuani ya Simu:MKUU WA WILAYA
SIMU NAMBARI: 2614096
FAX NAMBARI: 2613848



OFISI YA MKUU WA WILAYA,
WILAYA YA MOROGORO,
S.L.P 681,
MOROGORO.

Unapojibu Tafadhali taja:

Kumb Na.AB.210/249/01/C.136

Tarehe : 23 Oktoba, 2015

Mkurugenzi,
Halmashauri ya Manispaa,
S.L.P 166,
MOROGORO.

YAH: KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI NDUGU ANDREW CALEB RANDA

Tafadhali rejea somo la hapo juu.

Mtajwa hapo juu ni mwanafunzi kutoka Chuo Kikuu Huria cha Tanzania ambaye kwa hivi sasa anafanya utafiti katika Wilaya yetu.

Kibali kinatolewa kwa mtajwa hapo juu ili aweze kufanya utafiti juu "*Differential Impact of Primary Education Development Program in Improving Access, Retention and Performance of Pupils from Economically Different Communities in Morogoro Tanzania*"

Eneo la utafiti ni katika shule za msingi zilizopo Manispaa ya Morogoro. Kibali hiki ni cha muda wa miezi mitano kuanzia tarehe 22/10/2015 hadi 21/03/2016.

Tafadhali tunaomba apewe ushirikiano

Madunda, P.H

**Kny:KATIBU TAWALA WILAYA
MOROGORO**

Nakala: Ndugu Andrew C.Randa
MTAFITI

Annex 12 : Letter from District Executive Director (DED): Morogoro (Urban)**HALMASHAURI YA MANISPAA MOROGORO**

Simu/Nukushi Na: 023 – 2614727
 Barua pepe: info@morogoromc.go.tz
 Tovuti: www.morogoro.go.tz
 Unapojibu taja:



Ofisi ya Mkurugenzi wa Manispaa,
 S.L.P 166,
 MOROGORO,
 TANZANIA

Kumb. Na: R.10/MMC 24/Vol.III/80

04 November, 2015

Walimu Wakuu,
 Shule za Msingi,
Manispaa Morogoro

Yah: **KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI**

Kichwa cha habari hapo juu chahusika.

Namtambulisha Ndugu Andrew Caleb Randa kwa ajili ya kufanya utafiti katika shule za msingi Manispaa ya Morogoro. Utafiti huo utahusu ***“Differential Impact of Primary Education Development Program in Improving Access, Retention and Performance of Pupils from Economically Different Communities in Morogoro Tanzania”***.

Tafadhali apatiwe msaada anaohitaji ili aweze kukamilisha utafiti wake.

C.C. Wangwe

Kny: **MKURUGENZI WA MANISPAA
 MOROGORO**

**K.N.Y. MKURUGENZI WA MANISPAA
 MOROGORO.**

Barua zote ziandikwe kwa Mkurugenzi wa Manispaa Morogoro

Annex 13 : Letter from District Executive Director (DED): Morogoro (Rural)

JAMHURI YA MUUNGANO WA TANZANIA
HALMASHAURI YA WILAYA MOROGORO
(Barua zote zitumwe kwa Mkurugenzi Mtendaji Wilaya)

Simu Na. 023 261 3185
 Simu Na.023 261 4872

Fax Na. 023 261 3185

Unapojibu tafadhali taja:

Kumb. Na. ED/MDC/D.30/6/VOL.I/120

Waratibuelimu Kata,
 Walimu Wakuu,
 Halmashauri ya Wilaya Morogoro



OFISI YA MKURUGENZI MTENDAJI (W),
 S.L.P. 1880,
MOROGORO.

17/11/2015

YAH: KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI NDUGU ANDREW CALEB RANDA

Tafadhali husika na somo la hapo juu.

Mtajwa hapo juu ni Mwanafunzi kutoka Chuo Kikuu Huria cha Tanzania ambaye kwa hivi sasa anafanya utafiti katika Wilaya yetu.

Kibali kinatolewa kwa mtajwa hapo juu ili aweze kufanya utafiti juu ya *"Differential Impact of Primary Education Development Program in Improving Access, Retention and Performance of Pupils from Economically Different Communities in Morogoro Tanzania"*.

Eneo la utafiti ni katika Shule za Msingi za Wilaya Morogoro Vijijini Fulwe, Njianne, Mvuha, Gwata, Kibangile, Mbwade, Mfumbwe, Mazizi, Kizinga na kibali hiki ni cha muda wa miezi mitano kuanzia tarehe 18/11/2015 hadi tarehe 17/04/2016.

Tafadhali tunaomba apewe ushirikiano.


 Donald W. Pambe

**KAIMU MKURUGENZI MTENDAJI WILAYA
 MOROGORO**

Nakala kwa: Ndugu Andrew C. Randa
 Mtafiti

Annex 14 : Photograph Showing Pupils' Performances and Capitation Grants

UFAULU WA WANAFUNZI DARASA LA SABA														
MWAKA	WALIOSAJILIWA			WALIOFANYA			WALIOFAULU			%MIA	WALIOFELI			%MIA
	WAV	WAS	JML	WAV	WAS	JML	WAV	WAS	JML		WAV	WAS	JML	
2001	81	86	167	81	86	167	13	17	30	17.96	68	69	137	82
2002	88	103	191	88	103	191	40	51	91	47.6	48	52	100	53
2003	99	102	201	99	102	201	61	64	125	69.14	38	38	76	31
2004	59	48	107	59	48	107	53	41	94	89.52	06	07	13	12
2005	37	36	73	37	36	73	31	36	67	91.8	06	00	06	08
2006	69	76	145	69	76	145	69	71	140	96.55	00	05	05	03
2007	44	59	103	44	59	103	43	59	102	99.03	01	00	01	01
2008	61	63	124	61	63	124	61	59	120	96.77	00	04	04	03
2009	60	63	123	60	63	123	59	58	117	95.12	01	05	06	05
2010	44	41	85	44	41	85	42	41	83	97.65	02	00	02	02
2011	32	47	79	32	47	79	32	47	79	100	-	-	-	-
2012	35	48	83	35	48	83	35	48	83	100	-	-	-	-
2013	44	47	91	44	47	91	40	44	84	92.8	04	03	07	07
2014	47	44	91	47	44	91				87.2				82.8
2015														

GAO WA FEDHA ZA RUZUKU CAP - 2010 - 2014							
KA	KIPINDI	VITABU	VIFAA	UKARABATI	MITIHANI	UTAWALA	JML KUU
0	JAN -MACH	243,205.20	121,602.60	121,602.60	60,801.30	60,801.30	608,013.00
	APR - JUN	134,966.72	67,483.36	67,483.36	33,741.68	33,741.68	337,416.80
	JULY - SEPT	147,458.08	73,729.04	73,729.04	36,864.52	36,864.52	368,645.20
	OCT - DEC	20,3515.20	101,757.60	101,757.60	50,878.80	50,878.80	508,788.00
1	JAN -MACH	75,993.12	37,996.56	37,996.56	18,998.28	18,998.28	189,982.80
	APR - JUN	42,296.68	21,148.34	21,148.34	10,574.17	10,574.17	105,741.70
	JULY - SEPT	44,334.88	22,167.44	22,167.44	11,083.72	11,083.72	110,837.20
	OCT - DEC	94,953.60	47,476.80	47,476.80	23,783.40	23,783.40	237,834.00
2	JAN -MACH	160,126.86	80,063.42	80,063.42	40,031.71	40,031.71	400,317.00
	APR - JUN	86,635.08	43,317.54	43,317.54	21,658.77	21,658.77	216,587.70
	JULY - SEPT	97,129.20	48,564.60	48,564.60	24,282.30	24,282.30	242,823.00
	OCT - DEC	43,042.10	21,521.05	21,521.05	10,760.30	10,760.30	107,605.26
3	JAN -MACH	100,926.00	50,463.00	50,463.00	25,231.15	25,231.15	252,315.00
	APR - JUN	1,172,875.79	586,437.89	586,437.89	293,218.95	293,218.95	2,932,189.47
	JULY - SEPT	41,937.59	20,968.79	20,968.79	10,484.40	10,484.40	104,843.97
	OCT - DEC	90,217.90	45,108.95	45,108.95	22,554.47	22,554.47	225,544.74

Annex 15 : Photograph Showing Foundation of the Classrooms