

Policies On Free Primary And Secondary Education In East Africa: Are Kenya And Tanzania On Course To Attain Education For All (Efa) Goals By 2015?

John Aluko Orodho¹

Associate Professor of Education and Research, Department of Curriculum Studies, School of Education,
Kenyatta University, Kenya

Abstract: *This paper provides a comparative perspective of two of the three East African Countries policies for expanding access to education, particularly with regard to equity and quality of basic education in Kenya and Tanzania. Against the background of the fast approaching deadline of 2015 for attaining Education for All (EFA), the paper provides a brief review of the policies in light of countries own stated goals alongside the broader international agendas set by the World Forum on EFA. It is concerned with two questions: What were the politics and underpinning philosophy surrounding the formulation of the policies in Kenya and Tanzania and have the policies changed over time, and if so why? What are the critical emerging challenges inhibiting the attainment of equity and quality of education in the two countries? The source of data for the paper was a combination of secondary data through desk literature review and primary data from studies conducted in some regions in the two countries, particularly in North Eastern Province of Kenya and Shinyanga Region in Tanzania. The major finding is that tremendous quantitative growth has occurred in access to primary and secondary education in the two countries. Nonetheless, education in these countries have been fraught with nearly similar unique multifarious and intertwined challenges of providing education, resulting in marked and severe regional and gender disparities in access to, and low quality of education. The two countries have put in place a series of educational interventions and drives including free primary education and subsidized secondary education, as well as bursaries for the poor needy learners that are yielding slow but positive progress towards the attainment of EFA goals. It is recommended that in order to attain EFA goals by 2015, these efforts should be accelerated and intensified with a view to reversing regional and gender disparities keeping in mind the fact that the deadline for the attainment of EFA goals is fast approaching and therefore making it urgent to translate the education policies into practice rather than the current rhetoric chimera.*

Key Words: *Education policies, equity, access, quality, practical policies, regional and gender disparities, education for all, rhetoric chimera (EFA) [350 words]*

I. Introduction

1.1 Background and context

The Kenya and Tanzania are among the three East African countries that are often held up as countries in Sub-Saharan Africa that have succeeded in the implementation of free primary education which is viewed as the first step towards achieving Education for All (EFA) and some of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Oketch & Rolleston, 2007, Republic of Kenya, 2012, Republic of Tanzania, 2010). In both countries, the implementation of free primary education (FPE) policy is leading to new policies for access to secondary education and ironically, in the case of Tanzania, to a decline in primary enrolment (Oketch & Roselleston, 2007), and in the case of Kenya, an exponential growth in primary school enrollment (Republic of Kenya/ UNESCO, 2012, United Republic of Tanzania, 2010; World Bank, 1999, 2012).

The desire for widened participation in education was one of the pillars for the fight towards independence, and indeed, perpetuated colonial rule that had existed in East Africa before independence in the 1960s (Ngware, Ezech, Oketch & Mudege; Oketch & Rolleston, 2007; Oketch & Ngware, 2012). Even as East African countries were preparing for independence, ensuring that the learners were educated and the need for critical mass of leaders who would bear the burden of leadership was in the mind of colonial administration and education was the conduit to do this (Oketch & Ngware, 2012). The challenges of education were enormous and so were those of development, but education was placed at the centre of modernization and seen as the modernizing catalyst (UNESCO, 1961; Njeru & Orodho, 2003; Republic of Kenya, 2012). Indeed, in the EAST African Region, independence and education were intricately intertwined (Oketch & Rolleston, 2007; Republic of Kenya, 2012; United Republic of Tanzania, 2010).

When independence was finally attained by each of the East African countries, education was declared a priority and promoted as the means of developing the most needed human resource to run the state institutions

and spur private sector development (Nyerere, 1967; Njeru & Orodho, 2003; Oketch & Ngware, 2012). Several policies were adapted to accelerate expanded access to Africans who had been excluded by the colonial system among them was the scrapping of Standard four examinations, commonly known as common entrance examinations (CEE) that was common in the three East African countries of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, thus consolidating the examination system into one uninterrupted seven years of primary education (Oketch & Ngware, 2012).

There is little doubt, therefore, that Kenya and Tanzania have common characteristics and historical backgrounds regarding access to education. At all educational levels in the two countries, access had historically been limited to few individuals during the colonial period and hence the countries faced similar educational and literacy challenges following political independence in the 1960s(Republic of Kenya,1964; Nyerere,1967). Kenya declared a campaign for Universal Primary Education (UPE) free of charge as a long-term objective in 1963 following the setting up of the Ominde Commission in 1964 (Republic of Kenya, 1964). Tanzania followed suit in 1967. Nonetheless, the two countries have had different experiences with the implementation of both UPE in the 1960s and FPE in the1990s and have different philosophies underpinning their education expansion more generally (Republic of Kenya, 1988; United Republic of Tanzania, 2008a, 2008b).

Sharing common borders, the two countries together with Uganda came together to form the East African Community (EAC), a loose federation as a political vehicle to pursue common goals in the 1960s. The community broke down in 1977 following philosophical differences in their development strategies. Tanzania followed a socialist model of development while Kenya adhered to capitalism in practice (although referred to 'African socialism' in development strategy policy documents) generally (Republic of Kenya,1964, Nyerere,1967). On being faced with similar challenges, partly as a result of policies of economic liberalization under Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), the EAC was revived in the 1990s to provide a common platform from which to address common problems. To date, this bond has been growing from strength to strength World Bank, 2008, 2010, and 2012).

While FPE is often associated with Jomtien and Dakar conferences of 1990 and 2000, respectively, which set the current EFA targets, the idea of UPE in the two East African countries is traceable to the 1961 Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, held in Addis Ababa (UNESCO, 1961; Republic of Kenya, 1964; Bogonko, 1992; Oketch & Ngware, 2012). The main purpose of the Conference was to provide a forum for African states gaining independence 'to decide on their priority educational needs for the promotion of economic and social development in Africa, and in the light of these, to establish a first tentative short and long- term plan for educational development in the continent, embodying the priorities they had decided upon for the economic growth of the region' (UNESCO, 1961 World Bank,2008, 2010).

However, they differed on how they emphasized and implemented policies for expanded access to education. Tanzania was the first to attain independence in 1961 and Mwalimu Julius Nyerere, the founding president, having been a teacher himself, placed emphasis on secondary education for the nation's development. Kenya gained political independence in 1963 and Mzee Jomo Kenyatta's Kenya African National Union (KANU) Government did not hesitate to declare education one of its key priorities for national development with emphasis placed on the development of secondary and tertiary education (Republic of Kenya, 1964; Nyerere, 1967). The two countries adhered to the agreed framework set out at the Addis Ababa conference which prioritized the expansion of secondary and tertiary(Oketch & Ngware,2012).

1.2 The Purpose and Justification of the Paper

The purpose of this paper is to analyze the policies on free primary and secondary education in Kenya and Tanzania and examine the extent to which they are on course to attain education for all (EFA) goals by 2015? The paper is guided by the following two questions: (i) What were the politics and underpinning philosophy surrounding the formulation of the policies in Kenya and Tanzania and have the policies changed over time, and if so why? And (ii), What are the critical emerging challenges inhibiting the attainment of equity and quality of education in the two countries?

The paper is spurred by the writings of the Panel of Eminent persons on the post 2015 development agenda who counseled that although education was a fundamental right and one of the most basic ways people can achieve well being, they lamented that globally, there is an education, learning and skills crisis (United Nations, 2013).They document that some 60 million primary school-age children and 71 million adolescents do not attend school(United Nations, 2013).They further state categorically that even in countries where overall enrolment is high, significant number for children leave school early. In fact, among the world's 650 million children of primary school age, 130 million are not learning the basics of reading, writing and arithmetic (Bookings Institution, 2013; UNESCO, 2013).

1.3 Research Methodology

The paper is based on a historical research design utilizing two sources of data: secondary data from desk review of literature supplemented with primary data from studies in North Eastern Province in Kenya and Shinyanga Region in Tanzania. In an attempt to answer the two questions, this paper explores a variety of issues concerning the implementation process including: questions of the supply of school places, the level of social and economic demand and the presence of possible access inhibitors (including the availability of facilities). Access indicators such as pupil flows and rates of retention/dropout, achievement, transition to secondary and participation of excluded groups are sharply focused on. The paper finally explores main challenges inhibiting effective implementation of the education policies, focusing sharply on issues related to access, equity and quality of education in the two countries along with the implications for the poorest groups and subsequently offer a possible way forward.

II. Findings and Discussion

2.1 The Political and underpinning policies in Free Education

2.1.1 Policy Evolution in Kenya

As we have noted, the first step towards the implementation of UPE in Kenya was the abolition of the racial school system which had existed under the colonial government. The next step was the scrapping the Standard IV examination that made it difficult for Africans to progress beyond four years of schooling during colonial time. The third step was the elimination of school fees in semi-arid areas and their remission for needy cases throughout the country in 1974. This was followed by a policy of the provision of free primary education for the first four years from January 1974 (Bogonko, 1992:25 Republic of Kenya, 1984, 1989). In 1978, a national policy of seven years free primary education was announced. These changes saw primary education enrolment rise by 23.3 percent from 980,849 pupils in 1964 to 1,209,680 pupils in 1968. 'By 1983, expansion in enrolment had more than quadrupled from 891,553 (or less than 60 per cent of school-age children) in 1963 to about 4.3 million (or nearly 93 percent of primary- age children) in 1983' (Bogonko, 1992:25). But the efficacy of the FPE policy came under question due to a sharp decline in enrolment experienced between 1975 and 1978. Bogonko (1992:26) notes that, 'the charging of fees for Standards. V-VII and non-fee costs levied on parents were responsible for the recession. When free education was provided for Stds. V-VII in 1979, a sharp increase was once again noticed'. After Moi took over as President in 1978 following the death of Kenyatta he declared full FPE and stressed that no levies should be charged. This continued as the national policy until 1988 when cost-sharing was introduced (Republic of Kenya, 1988). Cost-sharing required parents to contribute to the education of their children, particularly in purchasing books and equipments and constructing school buildings. This was the main reason behind a decline in what had been an impressive primary GER. When FPE was reintroduced in 2003, the NARC Government declared that all levies should be eliminated for the eight years of Kenya's primary education and the policy was implemented at once for all grades nationwide (Republic of Kenya 2005, 2010, 2012).

King (2005) discusses a number of trade-offs which are emerging between 'basic' and 'post-basic' educational provision in the context of Kenya. These relate to issues of quality, access, and inequality, the provision of other social services, the development of productive employment opportunities, and the evolution of international and donor development policy alongside that of the Kenyan government. He notes that despite a shift in international development thinking towards poverty reduction and UPE in the 1990s, as well as a heavy reliance by Kenya on donor assistance for recurrent education expenditure, Kenya retains its commitment to a broad-based educational strategy which makes reference to links with the labour market, economic growth, wealth creation and the informal employment sector.

From the 1980s, Kenya's support for 'diversified' schools and their work-orientation had been at odds with international thinking which emphasized high returns to primary education and basic education expansion. The poverty perspective has become evident in Kenyan policy particularly since the externally driven PRSP which focuses on the provision of essential social services, which includes primary education, for low income groups. This agenda has encouraged the identification of inequities in the Kenyan education system particularly concerning cost-sharing and measures such as bursaries for the most disadvantaged in the education system have been put in place. However, moves in the international agenda more recently for education and development towards more comprehensive approaches have brought more coherence between international EFA goals and Kenyan policies. Kenya continues to emphasize wealth creation, the micro and small enterprise sectors, skills and technology. The 2004 and 2005 sector-wide approaches (SWAPs), developed in conjunction with external partners, also make reference to these aspects of a more comprehensive approach and King suggests that the Kenya Education Sector Support Programme (KESSP) may represent a strategic compromise between external and internal development priorities in Kenya (King, 2005).

2.1.2 Policy Evolution in Tanzania

The trend of expansion which resulted from Nyerere's efforts in 1969 was a logical outcome of three factors. First, following the shift of emphasis to expanding primary education as expressed by the Second Five Year Development Plan the government, in 1971, ordered an end to the expulsion of primary pupils for non-payment of school fees (Nyerere, 1967; United Republic of Tanzania, 2000a, 2000b; Oketch & Rolleston, 2007). Second, expansion was concentrated at the upper primary school (Standards V-VIII) so that by 1974 there were enough places for Standard IV leavers at the next level. Third, primary school fees were abolished in 1973 (Bogonko, 1992:27). Primary enrolment grew steadily at a rate of 6 percent from 1961 to 1976. In 1974 the government announced the 'Musoma declaration' (a plan to achieve UPE by 1977) and dramatic expansion ensued, including a large rise in the number of teachers. Enrolment ratios fell however, in the period from 1979-84 indicating that rapid expansion may have been difficult to sustain and possibly indicates the low degree of relevance of primary education to rural life (Coletta & Sutton, 1989).

According to Coletta and Sutton (1989), there was little expansion at the secondary level owing to the government's prioritizing of equity goals once emphasis was shifted to primary education. There was however, substantial expansion in adult basic education and as a result adult literacy rose from 31 percent in 1967 to 85 percent by 1983. They contend that the social infrastructure developed by government for the literacy campaigns was used to publicize the UPE drive. Invariably, this also enabled teacher recruitment to fill the growing demand in the primary sector. Expansion was characterized by low costs to both the government and to users. In 1969 all fees were banned and a free text book policy was introduced (Coletta & Sutton, 1989). Whilst almost all recurrent costs were met by the government, per student expenditure in Tanzania remained low, at a mean annual figure of 34 USD in 1981 as compared to 71.5 USD across East Africa. The role of local communities in school construction and low teacher salaries were key explanations for the low costs.

Tanzania instituted a successful and innovative programme of distance education for in-service teacher training in the late 1970s. The lack of secondary school graduates meant the UPE drive would depend on training primary school graduates for teaching, and over 45000 were enrolled from 1976 to 1979 to a primary correspondence and radio instruction based scheme. Evaluations found the programme achieved favourable and cost-effective results when compared to traditional teacher training partly due to effective co-ordination of local, district and central government through the national political party machinery (Coletta & Sutton, 1989). Thus, Coletta and Sutton (1989) identify lessons to be learnt from the successes of community action and involvement in educational expansion in Tanzania. They note that the abolition of fees contributed to growth in enrolments which indicates that costs had previously been a barrier to access. Tanzania's 'education for self-reliance' is considered a successful example of an integrated approach to rapidly expanding social service provision. The elements identified in Tanzania's successful and sustainable UPE approach include political commitment, increased social demand, meeting capital costs through community participation, increasing recurrent expenditure through intra-sectoral budget shifts, micro-planning for schooling at the local level, provision and motivation of sufficient competent teachers, raising educational quality and relevance through curricular and examination reform, localizing control and accountability and promoting access for girls and marginalised groups (Coletta & Sutton, 1989; Oketch & Rolleston, 2007; Oketch & Ngware, 2012).

On their part, Court and Kinyanjui (1980) argues that Tanzanian policy included other redistributive measures such as concentration of primary school funding on deprived areas, positive discrimination for secondary school access on a regional basis, broadening of assessment criteria and emphasising non-academic factors. The two scholars suggest that Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) had not; at the time of writing displaced the academic role of education in competing for places higher up the system and indeed access to secondary schooling remained determined by examination performance (Court & Kinyanjui, 1980). The policy presented a number of difficulties and dilemmas including problems of defining acceptable non-academic selection criteria, the issue of whether to accept English as a medium of instruction, the reform of administrative structures to reflect self-reliance and local initiative, the reconciliation of national and regional education/development priorities under a decentralized system and the development of structures of opportunity which reinforce rather than undermine educational policy (Court & Kinyanjui, 1980).

2.2.0 Impact of Free Education Policies in Kenya and Tanzania

2.2.1 Impact of Free Basic Education in Kenya

In Kenya, basic education encompasses Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE), primary and secondary education. UBE covers all children, especially those of school-going age between six to seventeen years. Special consideration is given to girls, and the most vulnerable, such as orphans, street children, those in urban slums, those in coastal regions, around the lakes and those in areas of agricultural potential where the work environment predisposes children to practices that take them away from school (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

The MoE and its stakeholders designed and developed the KESSP based on a Sector-Wide Approach to Planning (SWAP). This was developed through a consultative process as the only programme for the sector through which stakeholders would channel their support to education. The first phase of KESSP was designed to run from 2005 to June 2010. Under this phase, the focus has mainly been on access, equity, quality and relevance of education as well as strengthening sector management. The government has paid special attention on the attainment of EFA and the MDGS (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

Over the years, enrolment has been steadily rising from 5.9 million (boys 3 million, girls 2.9 million) in 2000 to 7.2 million (boys 3.7 million, girls 3.5 million) in 2005, to 9.4 million (boys 4.8 million, girls 4.6 million) in 2010. The steady increase, especially since 2003, can be partly attributed to strategies put in place by the Government of Kenya such as the introduction of free primary education and the school infrastructure programme. Transition rates over the same period have been slow, with very few children transitioning to secondary schools due to a variety of challenges. However, after the abolition of school fees in 2003 a positive trend has been recorded with transition rates increasing from 43.3% (boys 43.8%, girls 42.6%) in 2000, to 56% (boys 57.2%, girls 54.7%) in 2005, surpassing the set target of 70% by 2010 stand at 72%. the gender parity index was 0.98%, in 2008, in 2009 it was 0.96% and to 1.02% in 2010. GPI has improved and at national level, there is gender parity, but regional disparities remain (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

From the year 2000, there was an increase in the Gross Enrolment Rate from 99.6% to 109.8% in 2010, indicating that the system may have either under-age or over-age pupils enrolled, or both. The Net Enrolment Rate indicates that there has been a steady increase since the baseline years 2000; however, the government did not achieve the target of 100% NER by 2010 as depicted in Table1.

Table 1: Primary Gross Enrolment Rate in Kenya 2000-2010

Year	Boys	Girls	Total	GER/Boys	GER/Girls	GER/Total
2000	3,680,176	2,933,156	6,613,332	111.3	88.0	99.6
2001	3,3002,176	2,939,134	5,941,610	90.8	88.1	89.4
2002	3,073,929	2,988,813	6,062,742	92.9	89.6	91.2
2003	3,674,398	3,485,124	7,159,522	111.1	104.5	107.8
2004	3,821,837	3,575,209	7,397,046	112.0	103.9	108.0
2005	3,912,399	3,690,112	7,602,511	111.2	104.0	107.6
2006	3,896,578	3,735,535	7,632,113	106.4	101.1	103.8
2007	4,258,616	4,071,532	8,330,148	111.8	106.0	108.9
2008	4,440,770	4,284,282	8,725,052	112.2	107.3	109.8
2009	4,643,435	4,433,983	9,077,418	112.8	107.2	110.0
2010	4,751,943	4,629,268	9,381,211	108.8	109.9	109.8

Source: Ministry of Education MoE EMIS Data (Republic of Kenya, 2013).

The PTR has also been rising steadily since 2003 due to an influx of pupils because of the introduction of free primary education. The observed trends indicate that the country is on course to achieve EFA Goal 2 by 2015.

In the secondary level there has been a positive trend. Table 2 shows trends in access equity, completion and gender parity at the secondary school level. Since 2000, secondary school enrolment has been below average. The secondary completion rate also increased, with over 90% of those enrolling in secondary school completing their education.

Table 2: Secondary school Indicators in Kenya by 2010

Indicator	Baseline value 2000	Target 2005	Actual 2005	Target 2010	Actual 2010	Gap 2010
Gross Enrolment Rate GER	25.5	100	28.8	100	47.8	52.2
Net Enrolment Rate NER	14.1	100	20.5	100	32.7	67.3
Completion Rate	90.9	100	97.1	100	97.6	2.4
Gender Parity Index	1.01	1.00	.83	1.00	1.02	+.02
% Trained Teachers	97.3	100.0	97.9	100.0	99.80	0.20

Source: Ministry of Education, EMIS Data (Republic of Kenya, 2013).

Data displayed in Table 2 on secondary school indicators in Kenya reveals that , in 2000, the GER was 25.55% (boys26.6%, girls 23%), in 2005 GER increased slightly to 28.8 %(boys 30.7%, girls 26.9%) and finally in 2010 to 47.85 %(boys 50.9%, girls 46.3%). This could have been a result of the introduction of Free Day secondary Education in 2008. Net enrolment also increased slightly in 2000, from 14.1%(boys 13.9%, girls 14%) rising to 20.5% (boys 21.9%, girls 19.1%) in 2005, to 32.7% (boys 32.4%, girls 32.9%) in 2010(Republic of Kenya/UNESCO,2012).

The significant increase in enrolments between 2005 and 2010 may be attributed to the introduction of Free Day Secondary Education in January 2008. The gender parity index at secondary school level has steadily narrowed, except in 2005 when it briefly widened. However, the overall trend has improved and Kenya has almost achieved gender parity at secondary school level (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

2.2.2 The (UPE) Drive in Tanzania and resultant Impact

Given the process of economic liberalization from 1985, the basis for the implementation of egalitarian slowly withered away, in effect the gains that had accrued from UPE policy were gradually reversed. The GER was estimated at 95 percent in 1982(United Republic of Tanzania, 1984) dropped to around 76 percent in 1998 and NER to 53 percent from 68 percent (United Republic of Tanzania, 1999a, World Bank, 1999). As the disjunction between the rhetoric of egalitarian and reality of inequalities and deteriorating quality of education became apparent, the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania introduced the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) to guide the Ministry of Education in the country (United Republic of Tanzania, 2008a). This is a comprehensive programme aimed at total transformation of the education sector into an efficient, effective and outcome based system (Oketch & Ngware, 2012; United Republic of Tanzania, 2008a, 2008b). The Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) in Tanzania (United Republic of Tanzania, 2001a) was the first outcome of the ESDP. It focused on expanding access, quality improvement, management and capacity building in the period of 2002 to 2006(United Republic of Tanzania, 2001a, 2001b). Currently, the United Republic of Tanzania is implementing PEDP-II (2007-2011) to consolidate gains achieved in PEDP-I (Oketch & Ngware, 2012).

In terms of access, the implementation of PEDPII has been extended to cover pre-primary education of two years, and it is a requirement for each primary school to have a pre-primary school wing on the understanding that the first few years are the most formative in the mental and intellectual development of a child (United Republic of Tanzania, 2010).Available statistic indicate that there are more than 850,000 children attending pre-primary education n Tanzania mainland and is envisaged that 2,043,983 will be enrolled in pre-primary schools by 2011(United Republic of Tanzania, 2009a, 2009b). The user-fees and compulsory charges were abolished, hence making enrollment to surge as depicted in Table 3.

Table 2: Overall Primary Education Enrolment Trend 2006-2010

Year	School age population 7-13	Enrolment of Std I-IV	Total enrolment Std 1-VII	Net Enrolment Rate NER	Gross Enrolment Rate GER
2006	7,063,362	6,788,531	7,959,884	96.1	112.7
2007	7,271,198	7,075,899	8,316,925	97.3	114.4
2008	7,490,693	7,284,331	8,410,094	97.2	112.3
2009	7,637,613	7,324,848	8,441,553	95.9	110.5
2010	7,911,584	7,547,806	8,419,305	95.4	106.4

Source: *Basic Education in Tanzania (United Republic of Tanzania, 2010).*

An examination of the data carried in Table 3 illustrates that slightly over 8.4 million children were enrolled in primary schools in 2010 compared to 7.9 in 2006. The NER and GER were 95.4 and 106.4 percent, respectively, in 2010 compared to 96.1 percent and 112.7 percent, respectively, in 2006 indicating a notable decline. The MKUKUTA (the Kiswahili acronym of *Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini Tanzania meaning* National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty in Tanzania) target for NER is 99 percent by 2010 (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009b).

2.3 Challenges Facing Education in Kenya and Tanzania

2.3.1 Challenges facing Education in Kenya

The introduction of Free Primary Education made many parents in Kenya of low level households to heave a sigh of relief. Majority of the Kenyan children before the advent of Free Primary Education were not able to access Primary Education due to the escalating cost of education, and they perceived the introduction of free Primary Education (FPE) and Free Day Secondary Education (PDSE0 as a panacea to their problems regarding education. However, despite these impressive gains at the national level, these policies have been fraught with a myriad of intertwined problems ranging from regional and gender disparities in access to, and participation in education to a range of issues related to the quality of education provided in public schools in Kenya. At the primary school level, some of the factors which have hindered the attainment of the targets include poverty especially in the urban slums and ASAL areas, insecurity in some areas, especially North Eastern Region due to cattle rustling, and negative cultural practices that affect girls in particular(Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).Such practices include early marriage, child labor in agricultural areas where children are withdrawn from schools to pick tea, coffee, and even Khat (*miraa*), fishing zones, as well as tourist zones along the coastal region of the country which keeps children away from schools. Due to high poverty levels,

especially in urban areas, most parents are unable to meet their family's basic needs and hence use their children to supplement their meager incomes (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

The Government of Kenya has trained all (100%) primary school teachers, but budget constraints that led to a freeze on hiring civil servants have had adverse effects on teacher hiring and deployment. The Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) has improved steadily since the introduction of FPE; however, there are regional variations where PTRs are higher than the national level of 45:1 for instance Coast Province with 53.3 in 2007 and even 60:1 in some schools (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

At the secondary school level in Kenya, one of the key factors constraining growth in enrolment at this level is a lack of adequate secondary schools to match primary schools. In 2003, there were 3,583 public secondary schools and 452 registered private secondary schools, compared to 17,697 public primary schools. Following implementation of FPE there was an increase in demand for secondary education, which was and still is more acute in urban areas, especially urban slums, where over 60% of the total urban population is concentrated. However, with the introduction of free day secondary education in 2008 enrolment at secondary level increased slightly schools (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

At the secondary level in Kenya, there are conspicuous regional and gender disparities as well as low quality of education (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012). The two regions identified as having huge disparities in enrolment are Nairobi and North Eastern provinces. In 2002, North Eastern Province recorded a Net Enrolment Rate (NER) in which 16.8% (boys 19.6% and girls 14.1%) of school-age population children were attending school. This implies that 89.4% of boys and 85.9% of girls of school-going age are not accessing education at this level (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

The training has not been well structured or systematic enough to take into account the high turnover of head teachers and school committees. The cascading system employed to reach the officers is not effective and dilutes content by the time it gets to the grass roots level. Limited staffing at the MoE headquarters coupled with inadequate implementation and supervisory field staff, has greatly affected the ministry's programming. The ministry of Education has admitted that it does not have adequate personnel to address emerging issues such as information technology, human rights, environmental issues, guidance and counseling, and governance and accountability, among others (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

2.3.2 Challenges Facing Education in Tanzania

This target is attainable; however, the challenge is that there are regional disparities in the provision of education in Tanzania. The specific challenges include reaching the children not enrolled and the hardest to reach who include most vulnerable Children (MVC) residing in some regions such as Shinyanga Region (Orodho,2005) and other urban districts(Oketch & Ngware,2012) .Available data similarly shows that almost one in five pupils is not attending school at any time , which challenges any complacency based on positive enrolment data (United Republic of Tanzania,2009b :42). The survival rate is estimated at 81.4 percent suggesting that internal efficiency needs improvement by achieving lower repetition and drop-out rates (United Republic of Tanzanian, 2010). The children most at risk of not being enrolled , not attending regularly and/or dropping out of school again will include orphans and other MCCs- the disabled, urban street children, those living in hard to reach areas and extremely poor households for which the opportunity cost for attending school is quite high (Oketch & Ngware, 2012 ;United Republic of Tanzania,2010).

Available statistics also demonstrate that the introduction and adoption of UPE in Tanzania has negatively impacted on the quality of education in Tanzania (Orodho, 2005, United Republic of Tanzania,2010). The percentage pupils passing Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) in Tanzania has shown a decline for three consecutive years (2007-2009) , poor performance in mathematics, science and languages and disproportionately girls performing poorer than boys(United Republic of Tanzania, 2009a, Orodho,2005). Annual Education Sector Reviews have expressed serious concerns about acute shortage of teachers and high pupil/text book ratio with large variations across regions and districts, urban and rural areas and the negative impact these have on learning outcomes (United Republic of Tanzania, 2009b, 2010, Orodho, 2005). The challenge to the government is how to improve quality of primary education so as to enhance achievements and learning outcomes. This, of course, indicates that Tanzania, just like Kenya, is yet to achieve EFA despite the fast approaching deadline of 2015.

III. Conclusion and Recommendations

It is evident that Kenya and Tanzania have been successful in increasing enrolments although they now face two particular problems, enrolling the remaining 10 to 20 per cent of the relevant school age population at the primary level who tend to be the poorest children, and ensuring that those in school benefit from quality learning. It is also arguable that, even where fees are not factors in preventing access to, and retention in education they may still has a regressive impact. The greater the level of household income

inequality, as was the case in the North Eastern Province of Kenya and Shinyanga Region of Tanzania, the harder it is for the poor to pay fees.

The experience of Kenya and Tanzania shows that the elimination of fees at the primary level can have dramatic results. Inevitably, increased enrolment has resulted in concerns for deteriorating quality and increased demand for secondary education. On the negative side, low enrolment may reflect a lack of supply of schooling, the opportunity costs of attending school, the perceived low returns from schooling in the labour market or other factors such as the distance to school and for girls the existence of female teachers and separate toilets. Thus, findings reported in this paper support the earlier conclusion by Raja and Burnett (2004) that determinants of enrolment include household income, schooling cost, and presence of schools, community involvement, transportation, education quality and relevance.

It is also evident that price elasticities of demand for education are often higher for the poor and for girls in Kenya and Tanzania. There is ample evidence and good intuitive reasoning for the idea that enrolments will be lower for the poor and for girls as the household cost of education rises and as a result, reductions in the costs of schooling for these groups will promote equity. However, it is also cautioned that the direct impact of fees on learning and educational quality is more difficult to discern. It is apparent that demand for education is sensitive to quality as well as price so it may be that in some circumstances at least, a trade-off between price and quality exists among some communities in Kenya and Tanzania.

In the Kenyan context, it appears the Government of the Republic of Kenya is banking on community partnership which led to the establishment of *harambee* secondary schools in the 1970s but whether that will work today given the different labour market circumstances is not clear. It is likely that the poor will find it difficult to access secondary education even after completing primary education. This will limit the impact of education on poverty reduction and in meeting the MDGs. It is evident that there is to clearly understand the shift in the factors that might encourage or hinder strong community involvement in the development of basic education and whether the policies outlined by the Government are likely to have any impact. For instance, do these policies address causes of exclusion in higher levels of basic education among the poor? Given that governments in Kenya and Tanzania are offering free education and yet some regions are still lagging behind in access to, and quality of education, the unanswered question is : Is it lack of adequate facilities (supply-side factor) that is causing low enrollment in semi arid areas or is it a lack of interest (demand-side factor) in further basic education? Or which other factors are inhibiting access to higher levels of basic education? Will FPE work for the poor in terms of helping them advance to some form of secondary education which has been made part of basic education in Kenya?

The overall conclusion is that tremendous quantitative growth has occurred in access to primary and secondary education in the two countries. Nonetheless, these countries have experienced unique multifarious and intertwined challenges of providing education, resulting in marked and severe regional and gender disparities in access to, and quality of education. The overall quality of education in the two countries has also been questionable. The two countries have put in place a series of educational interventions and drives including free primary education and subsidized secondary education, as well as bursaries for the poor needy learners that are yielding slow but positive progress towards the attainment of EFA goals. It is concluded that these efforts should be accelerated and intensified with a view to reversing regional and gender disparities keeping in mind the fact that the deadline for the attainment of EFA goals is fast approaching and therefore making it urgent to effectively translate the education policies into practice rather than the current rhetoric chimera.

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