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**UNIVERSITÄT BIELEFELD**  
**FAKULTÄT FÜR ERZIEHUNGSWISSENSCHAFT**

**Policy and Institutional Arrangements on the  
Provision and Sustainability of Non-Formal  
Secondary Education (NFSE) in Tanzania**

Thesis

By

Gennes Hendry Shirima

Prof. Dr. Wolfgang Jütte  
(Supervisor)

Prof. Dr. Dieter Timmermann  
(Supervisor)

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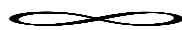
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## DEDICATION

To those  
deprived of  
formal  
education, and  
the ones who  
strive to restore  
their  
fundamental  
right to  
education.

Uniquely also,  
to my family,  
special mention  
is my son and  
friend,

Goodluck, who  
has a dream of  
becoming a  
lawyer to join  
the efforts of  
pursuing justice.



---

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## ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

ACSEE	Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education Examination
AD	Arusha Declaration
AE	Adult Education
AE/NFE	Adult Education/Non-Formal Education
AISSA	Association of Independent Schools of South Australia
ALE	Adult Learning and Education
ANFEDP	Adult and Non-Formal Education Development Plan
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BEST	Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania
BRN	Big Results Now
CBOs	Community-Based Organisations
CoBET	Complimentary Basic Education in Tanzania
CoL	Commonwealth of Learning
CSEE	Certificate of Secondary Education Examination
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
DAEO	District Adult Education Officer
D by D	Decentralisation by Devolution
DPs	Development Partners
DSI	District School Inspector
DVV	Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EFA	Education for All
ESA	Education Standards Agency
ESDP	Education Sector Development Plan
ESR	Education for Self-Reliance
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FLVS	Florida Virtual School
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GSA	Government of South Australia
HBS	Household and Budget Surveys
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HLIs	Higher Learning Institutions
HQs	Headquarters
IAE	Institute of Adult Education
ICBAE	Integrated Community Based Adult Education
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPPE	Integrated Post Primary Education
LGA	Local Government Authority
LGRP	Local Government Reform Programme
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoES	Ministry of Education and Sports
MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training

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MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
NCDC	National Curriculum Development Centre
NDV	National Development Vision
NECTA	National Examination Council of Tanzania
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NFEMIS	Non-Formal Education Management Information System
NFOSEP	Non-Formal Ordinary Secondary Education Programme
NFSs	Non-Formal Schools
NFSE	Non-Formal Secondary Education Programme
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NQF	National Qualification Framework
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
ODL	Open and Distance Learning
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFMDFM	Office of the First Minister and Depute First Minister – Northern Ireland
OSs	Open Schools
OUT	Open University of Tanzania
PEDP	Primary Education Development Programme
PHC	Population and Housing Census
PMO-RALG	Prime Minister’s Office – Regional Administration and Local Government
PPP	Public-Private-Partnership
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examination
PSRP	Public Service Reform Programme
QT	Qualifying Test
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAPs	Structural Adjust Programmes
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SEDP	Secondary Education Development Programme
SE-ODL	Secondary Education through Open and Distance Learning
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats
TIE	Tanzania Institute of Education
UIL	UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNEB	Uganda National Examination Board
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UPE	Universal Primary Education
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
USA	United States of America
VETA	Vocational Education and Training Authority
WB	World Bank
WECs	Ward Education Coordinators

## CHAPTER ONE

### RESEARCH PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT

“Research around the world is contributing to an increasingly rich understanding of how educational institutions are led and managed. However, it is important to recognise that educational leadership does not exist in a vacuum – it is exercised in a policy context...” (Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 8).

This study investigates the current state and role of Non-Formal Education (NFE) policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the establishment and provision of Non-Formal Secondary Education (NFSE)<sup>1</sup> in Tanzania. As the chapter’s block-quotation above illustrates, the management of any educational institution and its programmes depend on a wider policy context. Thus, this study is situated within the mixed areas of NFE policy and institutional management in a bid to understand both the regulatory and institutional dimensions pertaining to the establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE in the country. This introductory chapter, therefore, provides a framework for understanding this study and explains why researching on the provision of NFSE within the NFE policy and institutional framework is imperative.

#### 1.1 Background to the Problem

In recent decades, the concept of “lifelong learning” has become one of the important agendas both in national and international arenas, particularly, as a crucial component of well-being, as well as a dimension of economic development and quality of life (Babaci-Wilhite & Geo-Jaja, 2011). Within this framework, NFE is undertaken and identified as one of the important development agents (cf. UNESCO, 2013). In particular, NFE is mirrored as any organised and systematic educational undertaking conducted outside the formal education system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population as an alternative to or continuation of formal schooling (Colardyn & Bjornavold, 2004; Torres, 2011; Hefler, 2012; UIL, 2012; UNESCO, 2013). NFE in the context of lifelong learning, for example, minimises barriers to youth’s and adults’ participation in learning for individual and societal development (Nnazor, 2005). From a pragmatic perspective, NFE is also upheld as a remedy to and a means of addressing

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<sup>1</sup> This is an educational endeavour which provides secondary education to youth and adults in the form of open schooling outside the conventional school system. It is a strategic intervention that emerges from the demands of the clientele, and the clients come from diverse contexts such as those who missed out on the formal secondary education, dropped out or failed secondary education examinations. It has the potential of promoting secondary educational access and equity at minimal costs and in flexible schedules.

inadequacies of the formal education system by providing and updating knowledge and skills that enable the population to gain access to social, economic, cultural and political possibilities (Maruatona, 1999; Ahmed, 2008; Babaci-Wilhite & Geo-Jaja, 2011; Hussain & Haladu, 2013). In the Tanzanian context, NFE has been conceived in the perspectives of the former president Julius Nyerere, within the broad field of adult education (AE) which entails liberation of man in every way and constitutes a strong weapon in the fight against development enemies of “ignorance, poverty and diseases” (cf. Lema, Mbilinyi & Rajani, 2004). Thus, NFE as a component of lifelong learning in responding to the current development challenges is a significant and priority cog in educational policies and development plans.

Considering the key roles of AE/NFE<sup>2</sup>, various international development plans such as Education for All (EFA)<sup>3</sup> goals, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)<sup>4</sup>, and most recently, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)<sup>5</sup> have integrated and put forward lifelong learning as an educational policy. One of the commitments by UNESCO member states towards achieving the MDGs, EFA and UN agenda for sustainable human, social, economic, cultural and environmental development for instance, has been to design specific and concrete action plans and policies for fostering adult learning and education which integrate those macro policies and other national and regional development plans (UIL, 2010, p. 39). In this regard, serious attention ought to be devoted to implementing these set goals in solving various educational problems and could make a country such as Tanzania become a developed and competitive nation in the community of knowledge-based economy of today’s world. Tanzania can then

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<sup>2</sup> Adult education (AE) denotes the entire body of ongoing learning processes whereby adults develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge and improve their qualifications to meet their own needs and those of their society through formal, non-formal and informal education offered by a variety of actors—the state, civil society organisations and individuals (UIE, 1997; Mnjagila, 2011). Due to the connectedness of AE and NFE, the two terms have been jointly used as AE/NFE in the Tanzania context. They are, thus, jointly applied in this study though NFE is a subset of AE.

<sup>3</sup> The Dakar World Education Forum of 2000 set and called for a collective commitment to the attainment of six ‘Education for All goals’ in the world before 2015. Goal three is of more concern in this study – “Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes” (UNESCO, 2000, p. 16).

<sup>4</sup> It is an international agreement made at the beginning of the twenty-first century aimed at addressing the key global problems before 2015. The MDGs aimed to “eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, ensure environmental sustainability and develop a global partnership for development” (UNESCO, 2009, p. 2).

<sup>5</sup> This recent plan of action agreed upon by the UN member states seeks to build upon the MDGs and complete what was not achieved. The set goals are integrated and indivisible in nature, trying as they do to balance the dimensions of sustainable development: economic, social and environmental. Relevant to the current study is Goal No. 4: “Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all” (UN, 2015, p. 4).

maximises its growth, and create greater employability, as well as adapt effectively to the social environment. Irrespective of the ratified agreements and commitments, the discourse of lifelong learning within which NFE exists is still partially and inconsistently evident in policy and practice, particularly, in developing countries such as Tanzania (Yang & Valdés-Cotera, 2011).

Global population statistics suggest that almost half the world's population is under the age of 25, and about 90 percent of them live in developing countries (Williams, 2008, p. 3), where primary education is no longer enough to give young people a chance for decent work as the ongoing technological change requires stronger foundation skills. Likewise, the transition from primary to secondary education is not a guarantee for the majority of children who end up out-of-school and have to contend with severe cases of unemployment. UNESCO reports that out of 71 million youth worldwide are not in lower secondary school, three out of four youth live in the world's poorest countries where there are substantial barriers to pursuing secondary education (UNESCO, 2012, p. 4). More recently, the 2015 UNESCO report on out-of-lower secondary school youth shows that by 2012, about 21 million youth (33.4 percent) were from sub-Saharan Africa and the rest of West African countries (UIS, 2015, p. 25). This situation hints at the failure of individual countries and the world at large in attaining their education goals which they have incidentally ratified through various relevant binding documents. For instance, "out-of-school youth, unemployed and disengaged represent a political threat and source of potential unrest, a waste of human capital, or at least an unexploited resource" (Williams, 2008, p. 3).

Despite its potentiality in addressing the challenges of out-of-school youth, unemployment and disengagement, AE/NFE in many developing countries such as Tanzania does still not get the required attention since it is not fully recognised as functional one by both educational planners and policy-makers. It is rarely mainstreamed within the development plans and comprehensive policy frameworks, and whenever recognised it is usually subsumed under general education policies (Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991; UNESCO, 2009; Aitchison, 2012). To overcome these challenges facing AE/NFE, break up the existing barriers to education and reach the marginalised groups of children, youth and adults, it is imperative to consider all forms of education provision using a holistic approach, coupled with equitable policies and effective

institutional arrangements. However, for this to happen AE/NFE has to be a central part of the country's economic strategy and social policy through a process that expands upon the previous government's strategy as its policies cannot respond holistically to the related principles and programmes when they are incoherent and fragmented (UNESCO, 2009; Walker, 2011).

Additionally, AE/NFE researchers assert that the role and goals of AE/NFE are currently shifting from addressing literacy skills, mass campaigns and adult basic education issues that have dominated policy and practice in the past to equipping youth and adults with necessary skills for employment and further education (Torres, 2004; Walker, 2011; Kanukisya, 2012). To realise these revised goals, AE/NFE requires a policy response beyond rhetoric to keep up with the changes and accommodate the prevailing socio-economic needs of the society. However, this has not been the case in many African countries where AE/NFE focuses on the 3Rs<sup>6</sup>, and hence treated as the second best due to the misconceptions, and lack of consistency and continuity of the local educational policies which are sometimes turned around by the global reform policies (see also, Spronk, 1999; Nnazor, 2005; Bhalalusesa, 2007). This has been particularly experienced in several education reforms in Tanzania largely influenced by external policies under the pressure of The Bretton Woods institutions such as the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). As a result, much attention is paid to formal education with no tangible strategies towards serious investment in other sub-sectors such as AE/NFE and NFSE in particular.

In Tanzania's education reforms, for instance, the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) was initiated in 2004 in response to both the international policies such as EFA and MDGs, and nationwide policies such as the National Development Vision (NDV-2025)<sup>7</sup> and National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP)<sup>8</sup>, aimed at increasing access, equity and quality of secondary education to accommodate more primary school leavers (URT, 2004). Nonetheless, the provision of

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<sup>6</sup> The 3Rs refer to foundational basic skills: *reading, writing* and *arithmetic*.

<sup>7</sup> This is a National Development Vision aimed at achieving a high quality livelihood for its people, promoting good governance and a competitive economy before 2025 in Tanzania.

<sup>8</sup> This is a national strategy for economic growth and reduction of poverty in Tanzania which was approved by the Cabinet in 2005 for implementation over five-year phases. The strategy is informed by the National Development Vision-2025 and is committed to the achievement of MDGs. Its first goal of "ensuring equitable access to quality primary and secondary education for boys and girls, universal literacy among women and men and expansion of higher, technical and vocational education" is of particular interest to this study (URT, 2005, p. 9).

NFSE did not acquire adequate government attention within this programme until its second phase of 2009/13 when it was also mentioned in passing. Even the AE/NFE programmes' implementation strategies such as the AE/NFE sub-sector medium-term strategy (2010/11–2014/15) and the AE/NFE development plan (ANFEDP, 2012/13–2016/17) which partly cover NFSE, remain symbolic while the impetus and commitment to NFSE remain impractical as it had never adequately featured in the Tanzania government budget plans. Apparently, there is a discrepancy between policy statements and actual practice in AE/NFE. In the meantime, the government's focus and impetus in terms of policy and budgetary allocation are on the formal education sector (see also, Maoulidi, 2011). Nevertheless, the formal secondary school system does not serve the majority of secondary-school-age youth despite the SEDP being touted as an affirmative action. Table 1.1 illuminates on the magnitude of out-of-secondary-school youth problem:

**Table 1.1: Enrolment and Transition Rates in Formal Secondary Education**

Description	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
1. Transition Rate from Primary to Sec. School	51.6	43.9	52.5	53.6	-	-
2. Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) in Lower Sec.	36.2	43.6	47.3	50.2	51.4	45.5
3. Survival Rate (Form I - IV Circle).	-	-	70.3	78.4	77.3	70.2
4. Transition Rate from Lower to Upper Sec.	30.2	26.4	15.4	11.7	12.1	10.6
5. Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) <sup>9</sup> in Upper Sec.	4.0	4.4	4.9	5.0	5.1	4.2

**Source:** Digest of Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania [BEST] (URT, 2011a, 2013c).

Statistics in Table 1.1 show that on average 43.3 percent to 56.1 percent of primary school leavers have no opportunity of progressing to formal secondary education. Furthermore, the gross enrolment rate in formal secondary schools (both public and private) ranges fairly between 30 percent and 50 percent for the ordinary secondary and relatively low between three percent and five percent for the advanced secondary, out of the total secondary-school-age youth (URT, 2011a). Despite the slight increase in GER, the rate remains low, a problem that continues to affect many low-income countries, particularly, in nineteen sub-Saharan African countries including Tanzania where the gross enrolment ratio at the lower secondary level is below 60 percent (UNESCO, 2012). Such a discrepancy also stems from the rapid expansion of primary education as

<sup>9</sup> Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is the total number of students enrolled in a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding school-age population (URT, 2011a).



the number of youth qualified to pursuing secondary education has increased faster than the capacity of formal secondary education to absorb them (Kanukisya, 2012).

Similarly, the GER at advanced secondary education explicates significant low transition rate from ordinary secondary whereby more than 95 percent of all advanced level school-age youth are not in school. Moreover, the few youth in formal secondary education have been dropping out at the average rate of 5.04 percent every year, while the pass rates in their final examinations have dramatically been falling in recent years, hence swelling the number of out-of-secondary-school youth and unqualified graduates (see, for instance, URT, 2011a, 2013c). Table 1.2 explicates further:

**Table 1.2: A Trend of Pass/Failure Rates in Sec. Education Exams at a Glance**

	YEAR	% OF GENERAL PASS IN DIVISIONS					SUMMARY	
		Div. I	Div. II	Div. III	Div. IV	FAILED	Div. I-III	Div. IV&F
<b>CSEE</b>	<b>2007</b>	5.1	8.6	21.9	54.7	<b>9.6</b>	35.6	<b>64.4</b>
	<b>2008</b>	3.5	6.4	16.8	56.9	<b>16.3</b>	26.8	<b>73.2</b>
	<b>2009</b>	1.9	4.4	11.6	54.7	<b>27.5</b>	17.8	<b>82.2</b>
	<b>2010</b>	1.5	2.8	7.1	38.9	<b>49.6</b>	11.5	<b>88.5</b>
	<b>2011</b>	1.1	2.4	6.5	43.6	<b>46.4</b>	10.0	<b>90.0</b>
	<b>2012</b>	0.4	1.8	4.2	28.1	<b>65.5</b>	34.5	<b>93.6</b>
<b>ACSEE</b>	<b>2007</b>	7.7	18.5	42.2	23.9	<b>7.7</b>	68.4	<b>31.6</b>
	<b>2008</b>	10.7	22.2	39.7	20.2	<b>7.3</b>	72.5	<b>27.5</b>
	<b>2009</b>	12.8	22.2	47.9	11.5	<b>5.6</b>	82.9	<b>17.1</b>
	<b>2010</b>	9.4	23.3	49.6	11.6	<b>6.2</b>	82.2	<b>17.8</b>
	<b>2011</b>	7.3	20.2	51.1	13.5	<b>7.9</b>	78.6	<b>21.4</b>
	<b>2012</b>	5.7	20.9	53.1	12.6	<b>7.7</b>	79.7	<b>20.3</b>
	<b>2013</b>	0.8	12.5	70.5	10.2	<b>6.1</b>	83.8	<b>16.3</b>

**Source:** Digest of BEST (URT, 2011a, 2013c).

**Key** : CSEE/ACSEE – Certificate/Advanced Certificate of Sec. Educ. Examination.

Table 1.2 portrays a failure rate increase from 9.6 percent in 2007 to 65.5 percent in 2012, which is startling as youth drop out of the schooling system whereas those with division four are not guaranteed with further education due to their marginal passes and a few opportunities in the formal system available to them. Likewise, the formal secondary school system does not allow for repetition. Consequently, the dropout and failure rates among the youth result further into the ineffective transition to work and social life (cf. OECD, 1998). One policy response is to expand learning opportunities by developing similar arrangements for schooling (ibid.).



All the aforementioned challenges of low enrolment, high dropout and failure rates in secondary education in Tanzania are also compounded by a huge number of adults such as civil servants, farmers, entrepreneurs and others, who have had no opportunity to acquire secondary education, thus creating a big demand for secondary education out of the formal system. A significant indicator of such big demand is the number of candidates registering as private candidates to sit for the Tanzania national secondary education examinations. Statistics from the National Examination Council, for instance, show a total of 64,526 private candidates (22.56%) of all examinees who sat for ACSEE from 2009 to 2013, and 421,701 private candidates (19.45%) of all examinees who sat for CSEE in the same period (NECTA Statistics, 2009-2014). The figures suggest a vast number of youth and adults in the country who are unable to access secondary education in the formal system at the present. This situation has prompted the Institute of Adult Education (IAE) and a number of individuals and private institutions to take initiatives aimed at offering secondary education to out-of-school youth and adults outside the formal system. These are the *NFSE centres*<sup>10</sup> primarily operating as open schools countrywide. An estimated potential market targeted by these NFSE centres is captured in Table 1.3 as extracted from the national education statistics:

**Table 1.3: Matrix of Potential Market for NFSE in Tanzania**

Description	Figures of Potential Learners			Reference Page in the Source
	Figures for 2012	% for 2012	Annual % on Average from 2009 to 2012	
1. Youth aged 14-18, enrolled in CoBET (most likely to join NFSE)	108,058	N/A	Unmapped	57
2. Youth who completed Std. VII but failed PSLE	599,661	69.30	52.02	38
3. Youth who completed Std. VII but not enrolled in formal sec. schools	459,220	47.20	47.70	37
4. Youth who dropped out of secondary school (Form I-VI)	94,990	5.040	5.04	81&87
5 Youth who completed Form IV and failed CSEE (most likely to reseat)	211,090	56.90	45.10	93
6. Youth who passed CSEE but didn't get 3 credits or missed admission in the formal high school (most likely to reseat or join A-Level in NFSE)	120,574	75.47	76.82	95
7. Youth who completed Form VI with Div. IV & 0 (most likely to reseat)	8,971	20.30	18.92	97
8. Others who have had no opportunity to access secondary education	No basis for establishing their number			

**Source:** Digest of BEST (URT, 2013c).

Table 1.3 suggests that there are millions of Tanzanians who can benefit from the NFSE programme. Since the projected market/demand for NFSE is huge and still

<sup>10</sup> NFSE centres are academic units that exist to provide secondary education in a non-formal system. In the Tanzanian context, NFSE centres go by different names such as study centres, learning centres, tuition centres, evening classes, open schools, etc.

growing, the centres offering NFSE have been concurrently increasing from time to time and spouted in many parts of the country to fulfil the ever high demand. Nonetheless, these NFSE centres are unmapped, excluded from the public funding, coordination, inspection and supervision. This unregulated environment has brought about unregistered NFSE centres, the absence of uniformity of centres' titles, adoption of different curricula and syllabi, different delivery modalities and lack of quality assurance and control mechanisms. Certainly, these NFSE centres operate in the absence of specific and coherent NFE policy and institutional framework that would legally define and underpin them for proper organisation, coordination and sustainable provision of NFSE. In estimating sustainability of NFSE provision through the NFSE centres thus, one would like to know in much detail the current state and role of NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

A number of youth and adult education programmes in most developing countries, and Tanzania, in particular, has burgeoned as a result of the increasing emphasis in global development agendas on the provision of universal education to foster positive and sustainable change. However, empirical research findings and reports on NFE, as well as the general literature on AE/NFE suggest that AE/NFE programmes in developing countries have been historically neglected in the (pre)dominant policy discourses of education by either lacking a guiding policy or subjected to policy inconsistencies and mismanagement (see, for instance, Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991; Spronk, 1999; UNESCO, 2009; Aitchison, 2012; UNESCO, 2013). Tanzania in particular lacks a defensible AE/NFE policy and practice as the existing system of adult learning is not efficient enough due to the absence of flexible institutional framework to underpin institutions that organise and provide AE/NFE (Mutanyatta, 2005; Bhalalusesa, 2007; Shemwetta, Mwisomba & Reuben, 2008; Mnjagila, 2011). Apart from the drawbacks in the existing AE/NFE policies, there is also a huge discrepancy between statements and actual practices, while coordination and collaboration within and between the institutions that provide and/or manage AE/NFE services appear very little and unsystematic (Macpherson, 2007; Maoulidi, 2011). Due to these policy and managerial gaps, non-registered, unmapped and uncoordinated NFSE centres have been in operation as a venture of different providers in the country. Consequently, most of the NFSE centres have haphazardly been falling and rising hence threatening sustainability of NFSE

provision. In essence, the need and demand for NFSE, the positive response and initiatives by different NFSE providers, as well as the contribution of NFSE to the socio-economic benefits of individuals and the entire society cannot be underestimated. However, a fundamental question is on how the provision of NFSE as one of the NFE programmes offered by different providers is established, carried out, regulated and governed. Thus, what remains largely unexamined in this regard is the role and relevance of the NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing such provision in terms of establishing clear operational guidelines, setting standards, establishing institutional linkages, defining roles, and coordinating activities.

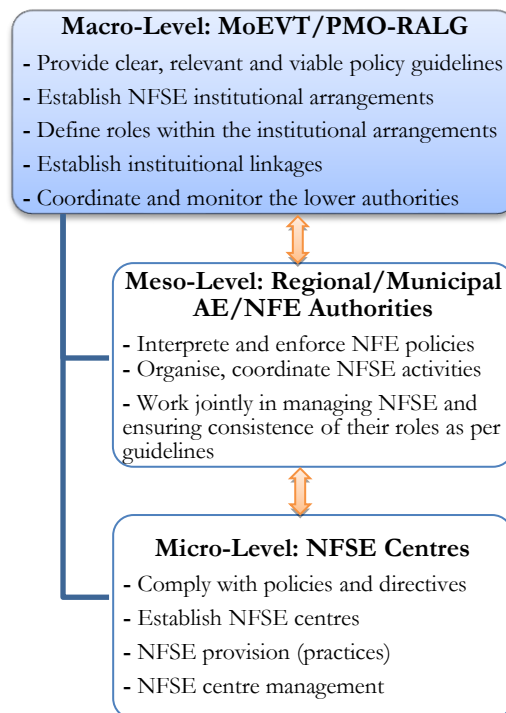
Despite being objectively crucial, the aforementioned concerns remain limitedly understood, unsolved and inadequately investigated in the NFE policy and management research. Previous studies in Tanzania have attempted to address partly and in a general way on the AE/NFE policy and management, and revealed lack of a clear policy, as well as managerial challenges in the areas of quality, programme organisation, monitoring and evaluation, and financing of the AE/NFE (see, for instance, Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002; Shemwetta et al., 2008; Shirima, 2010). Notably, the most recent study with a specific focus on NFSE is by Kanukisya (2012) who revealed a lack of a legal framework for running NFSE centres as one of the critical NFE policy challenges. Notwithstanding, these empirical studies are quite few and lack a specific focus and detailed investigation into the NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE. Amidst their findings, little is known regarding the scope of NFSE policy support mechanisms, as well as their role and relevance in guiding the provision of NFSE in the country. Furthermore, they offer little information on the interplay between the policy and governance of NFSE within the NFE institutional framework for its sustainable provision. Also, no evidence is offered on the challenges imposed on different NFSE institutional levels by the existing NFE policy and institutional arrangements, and their effects in the provision and sustainability of NFSE. As such, this thesis is timed potentially to fill that gap by providing a specific theoretical and practical understanding of NFE policy and institutional arrangements in the provision of NFSE. Such understanding would create an up-to-date map of NFSE provision and its future prospects. Thus, the research problem taken up hitherto in this thesis is the realisation of NFE policy and institutional challenges pertaining to the establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE in Tanzania as a gateway topic.

### 1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study aims to get inside the “black box” of Non-Formal Secondary Education Programme in Tanzania to understand better its overarching policy and institutional arrangements, and the extent to which they affect its establishment, provision and sustainability. Policy and institutional management facets/dimensions pertaining to the study of the provision of NFSE in this undertaking are considered in their interplay because, empirically, how educational institutions are organised significantly affects the facilitation or impediment of the implementation of the adopted educational policy or programme (Mosha, 2006). Likewise, the management of educational institutions and success of their programmes also depend largely on the broader policy and legal context (Bell & Stevenson, 2006; Molle, 2007). To realise the set overarching purpose, the following three specific objectives guided this empirical investigation:

- I. To examine the role and relevance of the adopted policy support mechanisms in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE.
- II. To analyse the NFE institutional arrangements and their roles in managing the establishment and provision of NFSE.
- III. To analyse the challenges imposed on the NFSE programme by the existing NFE policy and institutional arrangements, and the extent to which they impinge on the provision and sustainability of NFSE.

The research objectives seek to provide a wide scenery of the NFE policy and management practices across different institutional levels (macro, meso and micro), their synergy, and the possible effects. Fullan (2007) argues that a prerequisite for the implementation of a particular innovation, particularly, in building learning organisations is accomplishing a tri-level reform at the school/local level, the mid-part of the tri (district/regional level) and the state level. The aim is to establish permeable connectivity, interaction and mutual influence within and across the three levels rather than striving for alignment (Lasky et al., 2005). This study applies this approach in searching for the required information in achieving the general purpose of the study. Interaction of the NFE policy and institutional practices across these levels as applied in the current study is graphically presented in figure 1.1:



**Figure 1.1: Visualisation of Multilevel Synergy of NFSE Institutional Practices**

Figure 1.1 presents an ideal process of policy and institutional arrangements from the ministerial level and the supporting institutions where policies are developed and roles are arranged, down to the regional and municipal levels where policies are enforced and managerial functions are executed, and finally to the local level where several stakeholders are involved in providing and managing NFSE as per established guidelines. These levels, however, do not operate independently from one another but rather influence each other.

#### 1.4 Research Questions

Research questions for this study stemmed from the theoretical framework, the background information to the study, the research problem, and the research objectives of the study as presented thus far. Nonetheless, the questions may also require rooting in a more specific terrain. After all, the managerial performance of any educational undertaking is subject to the successful interplay of a number of factors, including managerial functions, competencies of those executing the roles and the existence of a well-founded institutional framework in the form of policies, rules, guidelines, and information (Powar, 2005). On the basis of this specific thematic context thus, this study endeavours to answer the overarching research question: *What is the current state of NFE policy and institutional arrangements, and how do they affect establishment, provision and*

*sustainability of NFSE in Tanzania?* Towards answering this general question and achieve the research objectives, the study explored the role and relevance of NFE policy, as well as the managerial aspects of institutional arrangements, their roles, linkages, and coordination. These aspects were addressed using several concrete questions, each of which was centrally connected to the broad purpose of this research and prompted by specific research assumptions. The following categories of concrete research questions were set:

#### **1.4.1 Category I: Policy and Regulatory Mechanisms for NFSE Provision**

- a) What are the adopted NFE policy support mechanisms in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE?
- b) How relevant are the adopted NFE policy support mechanisms in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE?
- c) What is the role of the adopted NFE policy support mechanisms in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE?

These research sub-questions intended to examine how contemporary AE/NFE policies are relevant, and their role in guiding the provision of NFSE. Thus, the questions were premised on the assumption that the existence of relevant and coherent NFE policies would bring together all the institutions and actors concerned, provide operational guidelines and modalities for NFSE provision, and offer a means for organising and coordinating NFSE activities, hence attain a clear defined framework for NFSE provision, as well as participation of different actors. The required information in response to the questions in this category is projected in Table 5.1 and the findings are presented in chapter six.

#### **1.4.2 Category II: NFSE Institutional Arrangements**

- a) What institutional arrangements are in place in managing the establishment and provision of NFSE in the country?
- b) How are the supporting institutions interlinked within the NFE institutional framework to ensuring consistency and effectiveness of NFSE activities?
- c) What roles do the supporting institutions within NFE institutional framework ought to perform in managing the provision of NFSE? And how do they function?

It was researcher's assumption that ensuring a thorough provision of NFE and attain sustainability of its programmes required appropriate institutional arrangements in terms of specified roles of each supporting institution, well-established institutional linkages and unification of the key roles across levels. Such mechanism establishes a sense of direction and consistency in the provision and management of NFSE, as well as in addressing shortcomings in administrative procedures. This also brings about the best use of scarce resources and interaction of different institutional units by avoiding conflicting and overlapping roles. The findings concerning the research questions in this category are presented, analysed and discussed in chapter seven

### **1.4.3 Category III: Policy and Institutional Challenges to NFSE Sustainability**

- a) What challenges are imposed on the NFSE programme and its institutional levels by the existing NFE policy and institutional arrangements?
- b) To what extent do those challenges impinge on the provision and sustainability of NFSE?

The underlying assumption under these sub-questions is that the provision of education has multiple challenges which may emerge from within the education system. In the current case, those challenges can be experienced at different NFSE institutional levels where implementation takes place and thus, if not well-addressed, may adversely impinge on the sustainability of NFSE provision. In this regard, the questions solicited information on the experiences of AE/NFE actors regarding the challenges of policy and institutional arrangements and their impact on the sustainability of NFSE. Chapter eight presents and discusses findings that answer the research questions in this category.

## **1.5 Rationale and Potential Significance of the Study**

The rationale for carrying out this study has its strong base in a number of issues:

*Firstly*, there has been a paucity of empirical studies on the provision of NFSE in Tanzania. In fact, even the literature on policy and management of NFE programmes available is scant and largely developed country-centred. Basically, NFE is one virtually largely unstudied area at the global level (Aspin et al., 2012). Thus, this study is potentially necessary for generating new knowledge that provides a basis for better understanding of the NFE policy and management practices, particularly, in the provision of NFSE from a developing country perspective.



*Secondly*, since NFSE programme is a new venture in Tanzania, little is known about its policy and institutional framework guiding its establishment and provision in a sustainable way. As such, there was a need for study to examine systematically the extent to which the current NFE policy and institutional framework affect the provision and sustainability of NFSE to bring into light both the intended outcomes and unintended deviations in running the programme so as to inform the development and/or improvement of NFE policies and management practices.

*Thirdly*, most studies conducted on NFE in Tanzania have had a focus on the evaluation of programmes developed and operating under the public sector such as complementary basic education (CoBET) and literacy and functional literacy programmes in terms of their operation and progress. Policy and management aspects, which play a pivotal role in the efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability of the programmes including the NFSE which is largely under the private sector, remain unexplored. This study, therefore, sought to fill that gap by shading light on the policy and managerial gaps and challenges in providing NFSE with a view to recommending appropriate actions to address them. After all, a viable and sustainable provision of NFSE is required to engender social and economic betterment of the youth and the broader community.

*Fourthly*, in the face of a paucity of studies and research-based knowledge on the policy and management of NFE programmes, the present study offers useful examples and analyses of the necessary conditions for enabling NFE programmes' sustainability as an inspiration and foundation for educational policy-makers, planners, researchers and other practitioners. The information generated would enable the proper identification of policy deficiencies and challenges in managing NFE, and provide an informed basis for policy advocacy in favour of NFSE and for further improvements and action.

Lastly, research findings in this undertaking are open and subject to criticism, and are expected to open new avenues for further debates and research since research as a "science is by its nature, a social activity, advanced by both co-operation and competitive processes" (Scott, 2004, p. 27).



## 1.6 Focus and Delimitation of the Study

This study is located in the area of NFE policy and institutional management, which falls under the general landscape of lifelong learning policy and governance that is undergoing phenomenal growth globally. More precisely, regarding the complexity of policy processes and institutional management, as well as the multiple approaches to policy and institutional research, this study focuses on and limits itself to the analysis of NFE policy and institutional arrangements, particularly, the role and relevance of the policy in guiding the provision of NFSE, and the role and linkage of the NFE institutional arrangements in managing the provision of NFSE. This focus was positioned after a critical review of contemporary literature on NFE policy and management both in the local and international contexts which revealed a greater discrepancy in the recognition and institutionalisation of NFE than in other forms of education provision. Thus, the study does not extend to either formal secondary education or any other NFE programmes such as complementary basic education (CoBET), literacy, post-literacy and functional programmes which are also organised for youth and adults in Tanzania. Besides, since NFSE is offered by several providers in an open and distance mode, this study is confined to the NFSE offered as open schooling in known and well established learning centres.

## 1.7 Interest in Studying NFSE

Ideas about researching policy and institutional arrangements for NFSE, and the way the findings are presented, analysed and discussed in this study stem from the intersection of my personal experience as a practitioner in the field, on the one hand, and the theoretical context as the main reference point for scholarship, on the other hand. As part of my Master's degree in Educational Management and Administration, I undertook a research project entitled "*Management and Sustainability of Non-Formal Ordinary Secondary Education Programme*" as a case study in only one municipality of Ilala. In the process, I learned that organisation of secondary education provision through the NFE system and its overall institutional structure was entirely fragmented, with operational guidelines unclear, a recipe of malpractices among stakeholders from the NFSE centres to the ministerial level, thereby affecting the sustainability of its provision. Building on this experience, I developed a keen interest in incrementally studying the matter more systemically and much more broadly in scope in a bid to determine the key challenges and their impact, and suggest remedial measures for policy and practice improvement.

Moreover, interest in this research topic was prompted by the fact that the provision of NFSE has largely remained a neglected area in many aspects compared to the basic NFE programmes and formal education. Nonetheless, recent studies have revealed that both the productivity and income of the self-employed people rise with their education level. For example, secondary school leavers including NFSE are more likely to work in the most modern part of informal economic sector as a means to fight against poverty, contribute to the overall economic development, as well as in HIV prevention and supporting democracy (Birks et al., as cited in Lewin & Caillods, 2001; Lewin, 2008; UNESCO, 2008; Hussain & Haladu, 2013). Furthermore, secondary education including NFSE is a crucial and compulsory stage in the education system since it is a point of departure for teacher education, polytechnic, higher education (refer to chapter two), and, indeed, a place where learners consolidate their basic knowledge, and get exposed to essential foundational skills that influence the entire course of their lives (Lewin & Caillods, 2001). On top of all that, researcher's interest in NFSE (see further details in section 3.3) was also catalysed by the usefulness of NFSE in reaching out to millions of unschooled youth from the deprived families, who otherwise could not be accommodated in the formal secondary education system.

## 1.8 Organisation of the Thesis

This study is structured in four main parts within which eight chapters are contained. *Part one* is introduction to the study which contains the first two chapters. Chapter one presents the research problem and its context. It also introduces issues relating to NFSE provision, the statement of the problem, the purpose and objectives of the study, and the lines of inquiry. Furthermore, it presents the rationale and significance of this inquiry. Chapter two sets the general context of the country of study by providing its socio-economic information, education system and training, and the general system of education financing and administration. It also provides necessary and relevant background information and possible implications for the provision and management of NFSE for better understanding discussions in the next chapters, and in interpreting the findings.

Chapter three and four collectively form *part two*, which dwells on the understanding of the NFE field and delineation of the theoretical frameworks of the study. Specifically, Chapter three presents a theoretical review of the contested terrain of policy,

management and sustainability of NFE programmes, as well as the previous empirical findings. Chapter four covers the adopted policy analysis frameworks and theoretical underpinnings of the study.

*Part three* covers the research methodology, which falls under chapter five. This chapter presents the research design and methodological processes of the study. It also provides information on the research participants' composition and selection processes, data collection methods, number of interviews conducted and procedures for data analysis. In essence, the first three parts comprise the guiding chapters of the study that establish the direction of this research undertaking before presenting, analysing and discussing data from the field.

*Part four* focuses on the presentation, analysis and discussion of study findings. In this regard, three chapters present and analyse data in addition to discussing the findings in accordance with the research objectives and questions. Chapter six in particular addresses the first research objective and its related research questions on the role and relevance of policies and regulations at the governance level that guide the provision of NFSE. Chapter seven presents, analyses, and discusses the findings on the role of the NFSE institutional arrangements and linkage of the NFSE supporting institutions as a means towards meeting the requirements of the second research objective and answer its allied research questions. Chapter eight presents, analyses and discusses the findings on the challenges imposed on the NFSE by the existing NFE policy and institutional arrangements, and their impact on the provision and sustainability of NFSE as required under the third research objective. These three chapters accordingly discuss empirical findings in relation to the theoretical framework (see chapters three and four) so as to understand and relate to the previous theories and findings, and build on new theories based on the constructs specified, measured, and analysed in this study.

*Lastly*, chapter nine as an independent chapter provides the general outlook and reflection on the thesis. It summarises the key findings and presents the conclusions, offers contribution of the current study to the existing body of knowledge, explains the limitations of the study, and suggests recommendations for improvement and further research. The chapter that follows presents the Tanzania's education system, its general context and implications to the provision of NFSE.

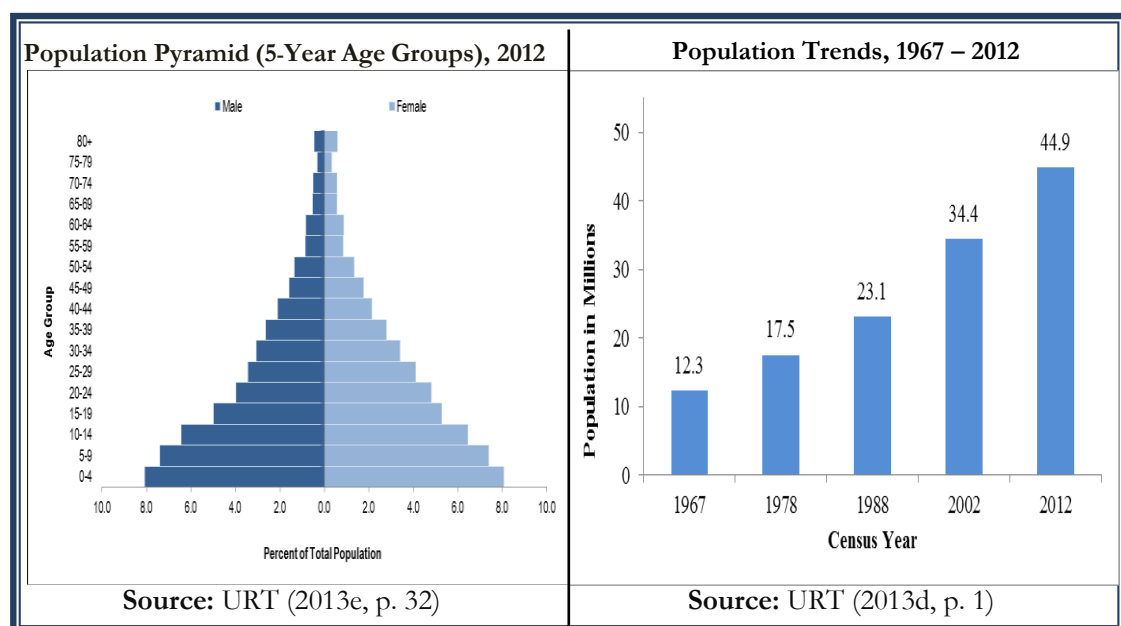
## CHAPTER TWO

### TANZANIA'S EDUCATION SYSTEM AND ITS GENERAL CONTEXT

This empirical research was conducted in Tanzania (further details in section 5.4). As such, this chapter provides a brief sketch of the country's socio-economic context relevant to the present study. It describes the general socio-economic features of the country, and more importantly its education system and training with specific focus on AE/NFE. This context is deemed important both for the study and readers as it provides requisite information about the study's setting and possible implications on the provision and management of NFSE in the country. Thus, the chapter provides a basis for better understanding the study as a whole, and more importantly for interpreting the findings in the subsequent chapters.

#### 2.1 Demography and Socio-economic Dynamics

According to the Population and Housing Census (PHC) of 2012, Tanzania had a population of 44,928,923 compared to 12,313,469 registered in the 1967 census, and also represents an increase of 30 percent in ten years from 34.4 million people registered in the 2002 census (URT, 2013d). Figure 2.1 presents the country's population dynamics:



**Figure 2.1: Demographic Profile of Tanzania**

The pattern exhibited by the population pyramid (see more details in URT, 2013e, p. 30) depicts a young population age structure, with about 54 percent of the population aged below 19 by 2012. This group represents children and youth in pre-primary, primary, and secondary education (link with section 2.2). The age group of 20-29, which represents youth in need of tertiary/higher education accounts for 16.4 percent of the population, while the population of youth and working age-group 20-59 accounts for 40 percent (ibid.). The rapid increase in population over the years, particularly the youth as depicted in figure 2.1 has altered many patterns of life and poses a lot of challenges to the provision of social services such as education. The increase of demand for education in the whole country and at all education levels is a big challenge, particularly, in big cities such as Dar es Salaam and Arusha where data for this study was collected. Population statistics show relatively high demographic pressure on the country's education system. This demand for education is very fragile, particularly, for primary and secondary education, even when education is free. For instance, in Tanzania the number of youth with the required qualifications for pursuing secondary education has rapidly outstripped the capacity of the formal secondary education to accommodate them, hence leading to a high rate of out-of-school youth and adults (refer to Table 1.1 and 1.3). The rapid increase of the young adult population in the face of the few education opportunities implies serious implications for the country's social equity, and poses potential political and economic threats in the future. The figures suggest that there was a need for more investment in education in all forms including NFE, which is more flexible and cost-effective for the future human capital and potential labour supply.

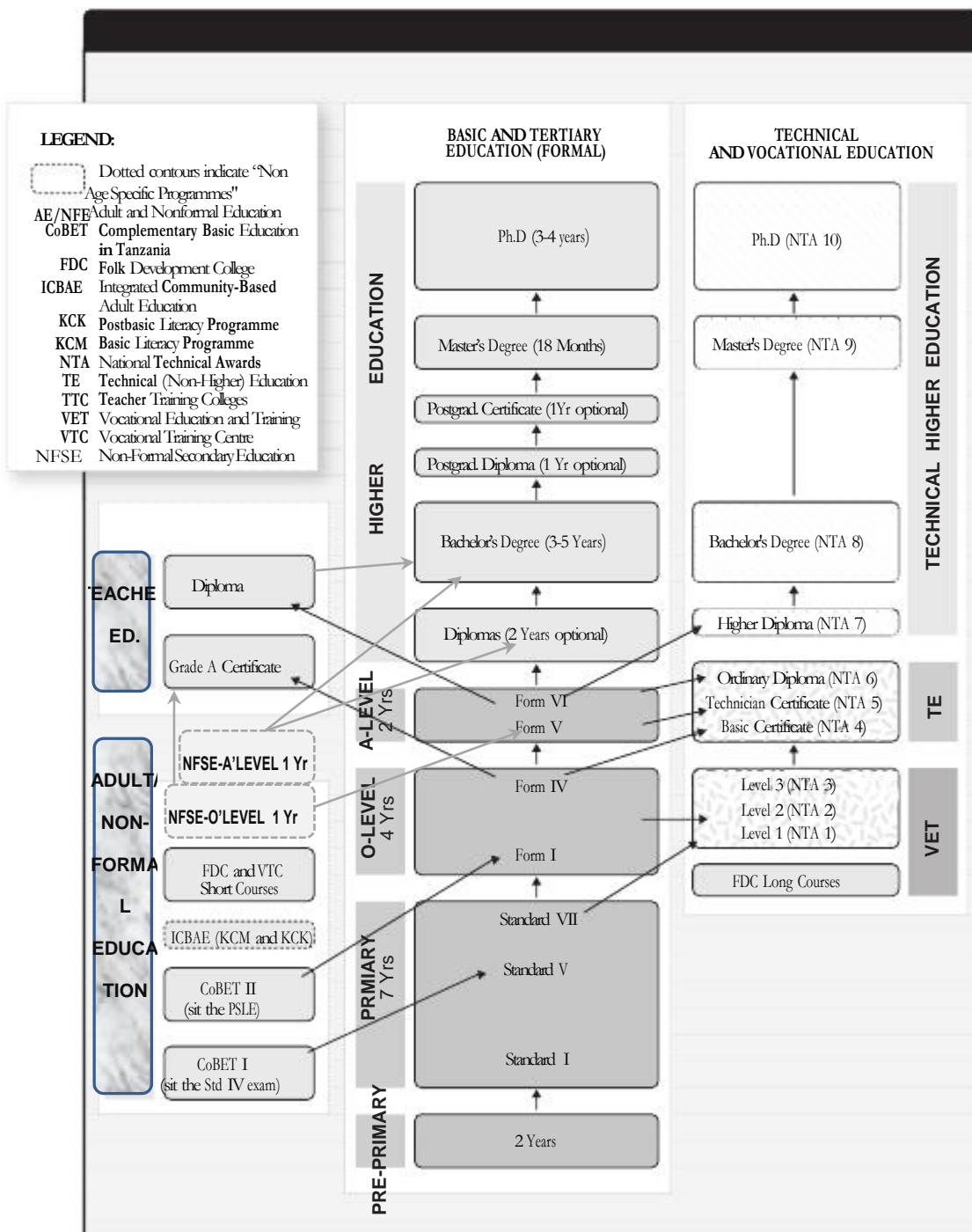
In the development arena, Tanzania under its national development vision strives to become a middle-income country by 2025. Currently, the country is still a low-income country with an annual gross domestic product (GDP) growth of seven percent (URT, 2013f), whereas the current annual population growth rate is pegged at 2.7 percent and is expected to double in the next 26 years (URT, 2013d). Although the GDP has been growing at five percent to seven percent annually (URT, 2013f), poverty remains a considerable socio-economic issue. According to the Household and Budget Surveys (HBS) of 2011/12 and related reports, although the percentage of the total population living below the basic needs poverty line (interpreted as below 1\$ living cost per person

per day) has decreased from 34.4% in 2007 to 28.2% in 2012, the figures are still startling as in absolute terms, poverty has, in fact, stayed static if not increased as there were 12.7 million poor people in 2012 compared with 12.7 million in 2007 and 11.7 million in 2001 (see URT, 2011c, p. 60, 2014b, p. xxi, 2015, p. 30). Also, pandemic diseases have stalled the country's development as the HIV prevalence by 2014 was 5.7 percent, whereas that of malaria was 4.1% by 2011/2012 (see URT, 2013f, 2014c, 2015). This situation can affect the supply and demand of education services as children and youth are likely to become orphans, and their household resources are likely to be affected, forcing many children and youth to drop out of school in families living with or dying of malaria and AIDS. In this context, several alternatives to providing education in all spheres in flexible and cost-effective ways such as NFSE have become not only important but also mandatory.

## **2.2 Structure and Dynamics of Education System and Training**

The education system in Tanzania includes both formal and non-formal education provision. The formal education is based on a 2-7-4-2-3+ system. Nevertheless, there are other formal professional trainings which do not follow this ladder of the system. NFE for its part has no specified duration. As this thesis focuses on NFSE for youth and adults, the structure of the education system as a whole is important background information. It is asserted that opting for any form of education provision has a significant impact on the institutional effects of the education system (Hefler, 2012). Figure 2.1 (link with Appendix VI) provides a broader visualisation of the structure of education by integrating all forms of education provision. The sections that follow describe in detail the education system and training, and enrollment dynamics:

Figure 2.2: Structure of the Tanzanian's Education System



Source: URT (2011c).

### **2.2.1 Pre-primary education**

In Tanzania's education system, two years are for pre-primary education. Generally, infants and children aged 2-6 years are cared for and receive elementary education in day-care centres, kindergartens, and nursery schools. However, the formal two years are for children aged five and six (URT, 2013c). Pre-primary schools are largely part of primary school establishments. The acquisition of this pre-primary education is largely non-mandatory and no examination is provided in public schools for progression to Standard/Grade One. The data for 2013 shows that the GER (total enrolment of the pre-primary school population) is 37.3 percent, and the NER (percentage of official school age 5 to 6 years pupils enrolled) is 35.5 percent (URT, 2013c). The figures generally show a significant low enrolment in pre-primary education, and the trend was marked as decreasing compared to previous years (*ibid.*). The situation has been exerting pressure on primary education and in achieving the universal primary education as stipulated in education policies. Although the government affirmed its role in the provision of pre-primary education in the ETPs, there is no operational plan to actuate this policy action (Lyabwene, 2007). Rural areas are under-served and have low quality services. Inevitably, rural-based children are the most disadvantaged (*ibid.*).

### **2.2.2 Primary education**

Primary education is a seven-year cycle and universal and compulsory for all children aged seven to 13. At the end of this cycle, pupils enrol in secondary education, vocational training, and AE/NFE programmes such as the NFSE, or enter the world of work (see figure 2.1 and Appendix VI). The language of instruction in these primary schools is Kiswahili for public schools and English for private schools. Statistics show that with the implementation of the primary education development plan (PEDP) as an affirmative action for achieving universal primary education (UPE), the number of pupils enrolled in primary school has doubled, with GER and NER of 96.2 percent and 89.7 percent, respectively, recorded in 2013 (URT, 2013c). These figures are based on the pupils officially registered in schools and, thus, do not necessarily reflect the rates of school attendance and completion of the primary school cycle.

Whereas several research findings and evaluation reports signify that the quality of primary education across Tanzania has never been satisfactory, findings on reading and numeracy assessment show further that only four out of ten students in Standard Seven



(end of primary school cycle) can correctly perform a Standard Two assignment (UWEZO, 2011). Both the increase of enrolment in primary school and the low qualitative achievements have great implications for secondary education to which primary school leavers generally transition.

### **2.2.3 Secondary education**

Secondary education refers to post-primary formal education offered to those who have completed seven years of primary education and met the requisite entry requirements of joining secondary education. The language of instruction is English for both public and private schools. This level is sub-divided into ordinary secondary education for the first four years, followed by two years of advanced secondary education. Ordinary secondary education leavers progress to advanced secondary on academic merit obtained in their final national examinations at that level. The ordinary secondary education graduates can also join vocational or professional training or the world of work, whilst the advanced level graduates may join either tertiary and higher education institutions or the world of work (see figure 2.1 and Appendix VI).

Statistics presented in Table 1.1 show that 43.3 percent to 56.1 percent of primary school leavers do not have an opportunity to join formal secondary education. In the meantime, the GER in the formal secondary schools—both in public and private—ranges fairly between 30 percent and 50 percent for ordinary secondary and relatively low between three percent and five percent for advanced secondary school, out of the total secondary school age youth (URT, 2011a, 2013c). This data confirms a significantly low transition rate from primary to ordinary secondary and from ordinary secondary to advanced secondary, which further suggests that some of those who fail to attend or drop out of school would receive no further schooling. Alternatively, AE/NFE programmes such as NFSE play a big role in absorbing them.

### **2.2.4 Higher education**

As part of tertiary education, higher education in Tanzania is provided by universities, university colleges, ordinary tertiary colleges and institutes. This level caters for secondary education students who successfully negotiate this stage and for some from other streams such as NFE and other tertiary colleges, leading up to the award of degrees. This circle has a minimum of three years depending on the respective field of

study (refer to figure 2.1 and Appendix VI). By 2013, Tanzania had 46 universities and university colleges (public and private), following liberalisation of education under the 1995 Education and Training Policy (ETP) which accommodated private education in the country as part of the partnership from the 1990s onwards (URT, 2013c). The data suggests a significant increase in learning opportunities in HLIs. Previously, there were only 4,269 university students enrolled in 1991 compared to 162,510 in 2013 (ibid; Kahangwa, 2013). Amidst this rapid expansion, higher education is confronted by several challenges, with budgetary constraints being the most critical one. On the other hand, the participation of female students in degree programmes in both government and non-government universities and university colleges was as low as 35.2 percent by the 2012/13 academic year (URT, 2013c).

### **2.2.5 Other tertiary education programmes and trainings**

Apart from higher education, there are other formal tertiary education programmes and courses offered by colleges and intermediate polytechnics, which encompass post-ordinary level secondary education, leading to the award of certificates, diplomas and advanced diplomas. Graduates also have the possibility of continuing with further education or joining the world of work.

### **2.2.6 Vocational education and training**

Vocational education and training is co-ordinated by the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) in Tanzania, whereby post-primary and post-secondary vocational centres owned by both government and private providers offer training in crafts such as tailoring, masonry, painting and carpentry lasting for up to four years and ending in the conferment of artisan certificates of competence or technician diplomas. Successful students may join the world of work or continue with further training.

### **2.2.7 Non-formal education and its diversity**

Generally, the country strives to promote and strengthen linkages between formal and non-formal education and training. NFE, as stated elsewhere, is generalised as out-of-school education as distinguished from formal education, although either type may include at certain stages some aspects of the other. As figure 2.1 and Appendix VI illustrate, successful graduates may join the world of work or continue with further education by venturing into the formal system. Forming a part in the field of adult

education, NFE is diversified in the aspects of target groups, teaching content, providers, institutional arrangements, funding structures etc (cf. Jütte & Lattke, 2014). Thus, it has a range of programmes:

### ***Range of NFE programmes***

The AE/NFE sub-sector in Tanzania covers a wide range of programmes. According to URT (2012a), AE/NFE programmes include:

- i. Literacy programmes* aimed at enhancing the provision of adult literacy in Tanzania such as the “Yes I Can” literacy programme. According to the 2012 census, however, the adult literacy rate was only 77.5 percent for males and 62.2 percent for females.
- ii. Basic and post-literacy programmes* are structured to provide knowledge, skills and attitudes required for social, economic and political participation, as well as consolidating the literacy skills obtained. These programmes link with various forms of life skills and income generating activities whereby learners participate in developing curricula and study materials under the framework of Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE).
- iii. Basic education for out-of-school children and youth programmes* is aimed at providing education to all out-of-school children and youth as their basic right. A good example is the Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (CoBET) which provides primary education for those who missed it out.
- iv. Continuing education* includes a range of programmes such as open and distance learning (ODL), and academic and professional courses offered by different public and private institutions. The ODL which is referred to in this study as NFSE programme targets offering secondary education to out-of-school children, youth and adults, as well as enhancing academic and professional skills for workers.

### ***Providers and institutions responsible for coordinating AE/NFE***

Since there are many programmes offering AE/NFE in Tanzania, different actors provide these programmes. Although the government remains the primary provider of literacy and basic skills programmes in Africa (Aitchison & Alidou, 2009), the NGOs in their broad range—civil society organisations (CSOs), community-based organisations (CBOs), private institutions and individuals are key players in Tanzania (cf. Macpherson,

2007; URT, 2008b, 2012a). Nevertheless, it is difficult to locate precisely all actors engaged in providing AE/NFE since the sub-sector is broad and diverse as there is a lack of reliable information about its provision. Although the government is expected to play an extensive tripartite role as NFE provider, manager and regulator, empirical evidence suggests that most of the programmes are provided and managed entirely by NGOs and individual providers (Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002; Macpherson, 2007; Kanukisya, 2012). Generally, however, the Institute of Adult Education, Local Government Authorities, and the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (now renamed the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology) are key institutions responsible for managing AE/NFE programmes at the national level. Table 2.1 shows institutions offering AE/NFE, programmes offered, providers involved, and areas of AE/NFE learning (competencies, skills and the general knowledge):

**Table 2.1: AE/NFE Programmes and Coordinating Institutions**

AE/NFE Programme	Providers			Area of Learning			Target Group(s)	Funding Source
	Public	NGOs	Private	General Competencies	Technical Skills	Income Generating Skills		
<b>ICBAE</b>	√					√	Illiterate Adults 19+ old years	Government
<b>CoBET</b>	√	√		√			- Drop-outs 11-18 years - Non-enrolled - Disadvantaged groups	-Government -Donors
<b>ODL/NFSE</b>	√	√	√	√	√		- Std. VII leavers - CoBET leavers - Secondary education - Dropouts - Disadvantaged groups - Up-grading group - CSEE/ACSEE failures - Marginalised groups	Individual contribution
<b>Certificate</b> -Law -Mass Comm & Journalism	√				√		- Upgrading group - Form IV & VI leavers	Individual contribution
<b>Certificate</b> -Certificates in Adult and continuing Education -Mass Comm. & Journalism	√				√		- Teachers - Form IV leavers	Individual contribution
<b>Ordinary Diploma</b> -Adult and Continuing Educ. -Adult Education and Community Development -Distance Education	√				√		- Teachers - Form IV & VI leavers	-Individual contribution - Employers - MoEVT
<b>Degree</b> -Adult and Continuing Educ. -Adult Education and Community Development	√				√		- In-service teachers - Form IV & VI leavers	-Individual contribution - Employers - MoEVT

**Source:** MoEVT and IAE Officials, and URT (2008b).

### 2.3 Financing of NFE within the Education Sector Budget

Tanzania's public education expenditure has increased significantly over the past decade. The data shows that the total volume of government expenditure on education has

increased from 4.0 percent of the GDP in 2003/4 financial year to 6.2 percent of the GDP in 2013/14 (URT, 2013c). The total expenditure covers pre-primary education, primary education, AE/NFE, secondary education, teacher education, tertiary and higher education, folk education and the cost of running all education institutions and supporting services (ibid.). Table 2.2 details the total education budget in each year as a percentage of the country's GDP and the share of each education sub-sector as a percentage of the monies allocated in the education budget each year.

**Table 2.2: Trend of Education Budget as per GDP and Its Sub-sector Shares**

Financial Year	Education Sector as % of GDP	Share of Education Budget for Different Sub-Sectors			
		Primary, NFE, and other Ed. Inst.	Secondary Education	Teacher Education	Tertiary and Higher Education
2003/04	4.0	74.1	6.7	1.6	17.7
2004/05	3.6	63.8	18.2	1.2	16.7
2005/06	4.2	62.5	15.6	1.3	20.6
2006/07	5.3	64.5	12.5	1.1	21.9
2007/08	5.3	56.2	15.8	1.8	26.2
2008/09	5.8	67.6	9.3	1.8	21.4
2009/10	6.2	69.5	6.2	2.7	21.6
2010/11	6.3	62.2	9.8	1.4	26.5
2011/12	5.8	50.8	20.4	1.6	27.2
2012/13	6.5	55.8	17.6	1.6	24.9
2013/14	6.2	55.5	15.5	1.7	27.3

**Source:** URT (2013c, pp. 181&183).

The data presented in Table 2.2 shows the increase in the education budget in terms of percentage of GDP is significant although the macroeconomic context suggests that the GDP is that of a low-income country. Moreover, such expenditure trend needs to be interpreted by comparing with the demographic pressure on the education system as described in section 2.1 which in totality gives an impression that the budget is inadequate. The share of the total budget of the education sector that goes to the secondary education sub-sector, for instance, has never been incrementally stable. Even the increase in the total education budget is mainly fuelled by the increase in the volume of recurrent expenditure as development expenditure has been unstable. For instance, the education sector analysis shows that recurrent expenditure, as part of the education budget, represented on average about 85 percent of the total education expenditure from 2004 to 2009 (URT, 2011c). Thus, a full realisation of education developments, in general, remains difficult.

Regarding financing of AE/NFE programmes, the main sources of funds are the government and donors supplemented by the private sector, civil societies, and partly learners' contributions for some few programmes such as ODL (refer to Table 2.1). It is, therefore, apparent that there is a public-private partnership (PPP) engendered by the ETP of 1995, which has increased due to the failure of the public education budgets to meet the rising demand for education as the country's population continues to swell. Donor support comes from bi-lateral and multi-lateral organisations such as UNICEF, UNESCO, WB, Commonwealth of Learning (CoL) and Adult Education and Development (DVV), through the general country budget support system (*ibid.*). Thus, it is difficult to figure out the total amount specifically directed to AE/NFE. Likewise, funding from the private sector and CSOs also remains largely unknown due to lack data and an effective system for the coordination of AE/NFE (URT, 2008b). Generally, literature available shows that the AE/NFE sub-sector has remained grossly under-funded to operationalise effectively its mission in Tanzania (URT, 2008b; Macpherson, 2007; Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002). Although NFE is featured in the budget as generally presented in Table 2.2, its proportion for several years has been less than 0.19 percent of the education budget (see Macpherson, 2007). And it has also been unlikely such even such a paltry allocation was fulfilled in full during implementation as during the mid-term and long-term AE/NFE plans have been hardly implemented in full because of insufficient funds. In other words, the AE/NFE sub-sector is grossly under-funded.

#### **2.4 Management and Administration of Education and Training**

In the past, the education system in Tanzania was entirely managed and coordinated by the MoEVT, but the introduction of the Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP) and the Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) in 1998 aimed to improve the management of education services by devolving power from the central to local government authorities. Thus, it has allowed the sector to be co-ordinated in collaboration with the Prime Minister's Office – Regional Administration and Local government (PMO-RALG) (see URT, 2013a). Within these integrated structures, education programmes including AE/NFE are supposed to be implemented and monitored at the regional and local levels. In this regard, PSRP and LGRP seek to integrate the previously centralised service sectors, create real multi-functional governments at the local level, and make local institutions more autonomous by, *inter alia*, giving them powers over all local affairs and creating good governance based on

political and financial accountability, democratic procedures and public participation (Macpherson, 2007; URT, 2013a, 2014a).

For AE/NFE, regional and district authorities are tasked with the facilitation, administration, monitoring and evaluation, and data collection and information dissemination of all initiatives related to AE/NFE (URT, 2013a), whereas the PMO-RALG is responsible for overseeing the decentralisation of government functions to the local levels. However, it is impossible to ascertain the extent to which such collaborations exist between MoEVT and PMO-RALG as it is always determined by their institutional linkages, coordination mechanisms, resources allocation, and their roles (see further discussion in chapter seven).

**CHAPTER THREE**  
**THE CONTESTED TERRAIN OF POLICY, MANAGEMENT**  
**AND SUSTAINABILITY OF NFE PROGRAMMES: A REVIEW OF**  
**THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL PERSPECTIVES**

“Conducting a literature review is a means of demonstrating an author’s knowledge about a particular field of study, including vocabulary, theories, key variables and phenomena, and its methods and history. ...it provides a framework for relating new findings to previous findings in the discussion section of a dissertation.”  
(Randolph, 2009, p. 2).

This chapter establishes conceptualisation of the key concepts used and offers analysis and discussion of different theoretical and empirical perspectives and trends underlying NFE programmes with regard to policy and institutional management as the excerpt above has illuminated. This conceptualisation helps to identify the central issues in terms of what has been done and what needs to be done. The established research problem in this undertaking is the policy and institutional challenges pertaining to the provision and sustainability of NFSE, whereas the course of action is the improvement of NFE policy and institutional governance to ensure sustainability of NFSE provision. In the body of knowledge so far, substantial theoretical works exist on education policy and institutional management in general though no specific works exist at the intersection of all the key facets of this study. Thus, this chapter presents relevant and related themes, as well as the past empirical findings to identify the key variables to the topic and their relationships, gain new perspectives and establish a practical need not yet met in terms of how NFE programmes have been operating and managed. This review enables the placing of the current research in a broader context and figuring out how NFE programmes and NFSE in particular can be improved. The theoretical and empirical literature review also enabled the development and shaping of the research questions in addition to informing the research findings.

**3.1 Terminological Discussion**

Before embarking on a detailed theoretical review and discussion, the researcher sought to establish first a common understanding of the key terms used by discussing their meanings and implications for this study basing on different perspectives. Thus, this section provides operational definition of the terms central to the current study, making them explicit for precision and clarity of understanding.



### 3.1.1 Non-formal education (NFE)

Understanding NFSE, as one of the NFE programmes addressed in the current study requires first understanding NFE as a form of education provision. Conceptualisation of NFE is however, quite nebulous due to its inherent characteristics of elasticity, openness to change, and flexibility to adapt to heterogeneous groups with diverse needs of education (Romi & Schmida, 2011; UNESCO, 2013). Moreover, it has contextual meanings that have been attached to it over time and space. From its inception, NFE had singular identification as a service for undeveloped countries targeting poor rural populations and those who were geographically deprived of formal education (Okukawa, 2006; Smith, 2001a; Romi & Schmida, 2011). Due to the negative connotation in this definition, and lack of adequate internal policy debate about NFE in many northern countries in the past, NFE was preferably termed as community education, community learning, and social pedagogy in their countries (Smith, 2001b). However, in 1970s NFE became an integral part of the international discourse on education policy where it was associated with lifelong learning (ibid.). Although it has already developed into a worldwide educational arena and become a significant education sub-sector, NFE remains inadequately conceptualised in terms of its policy and planning articulation which remain rather limited, and its provision yet to reach its potential (Brennan, 1997). In fact, NFE is still suffering from lack of a comprehensive and adequate theoretical framework due to its lack of formality and use of formal education as its prop (Romi & Schmida, 2011). Consequently, it has been given names such as complementary, supplementary, alternative, second chance and out-of-school education which are viewed through the lenses of the formal education (see, for example, Brennan, 1997; Romi & Schmida, 2011; Aitchison & Alidou, 2009).

An explicit agreement is, however, noticed among educational researchers in denoting NFE against other forms. They seem to qualify the best known “tripartite forms of education” from the work of Coombs and Ahmed (1974) as a minimalist technical definition. Coombs and Ahmed, as cited in Brennan (1997, p. 186) provide the following definitions:

- i. Formal education* is “the highly institutionalised, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured education system—spanning schools and university.”
- ii. Informal education* is “the truly lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and the educative influences and resources in his or her environment.”

- iii.* *Non-formal education* is “any organised systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups of the population, adults as well as children.”

Apart from their overlapping elements and being derived from Western concepts, these definitions have been found wanting as they are limited in scope and the distinction made in the three forms is largely administrative as they are primarily differentiated by the institutions and groups from which learners receive learning experiences (Smith, 2001b). Complementing on Smith’s critique, one would also argue that, although the definition of NFE is not that simple and straightforward, an attempt to consider the clientele’s intention to pursue, the context, and varied methodological processes of provision are quite crucial. Thus, under multiple perspectives, the term NFE continues to be somewhat unclear and lacking an agreed-upon operational definition, which may lead to different interpretations by policy-makers, planners and other practitioners.

Towards finding an independent meaning which comprehensively encompasses an array of its characteristics and establishes a clear-cut distinction from other forms of education, recent scholars have suggested different conceptual frameworks for NFE.

The following statements provide general meanings of NFE:

- i.* “Any organised and sustained educational activities that do not correspond exactly to the definition of formal education. Non-formal education may, therefore, take place both within and outside educational institutions, and cater to persons of all ages. Depending on country contexts, it may cover educational programmes to impart adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children, life-skills, work-skills, and general culture. Non-formal education programmes do not necessarily follow the ‘ladder’ system, and may have differing duration” (Torres, 2011, p. 44).
- ii.* “Any organised educational activity outside the established formal system — whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity — is intended to serve identifiable learning clientele and learning objectives” (Okukawa, 2006, p. 7).
- iii.* “Learning that has been acquired in addition or alternatively to formal learning. In some cases, it is also structured according to educational and training arrangements, but more flexible. It usually takes place in community-based settings, the workplace and through the activities of civil society organisations. Through the recognition, validation and accreditation process, non-formal learning can also lead to qualifications and other recognitions” (UIL, 2012a, p. 8).

These multiple definitions provide a more rounded understanding of NFE. Compared to the classical definition by Coombs and Ahmed, their analytic distinction points out that formal and non-formal education share some similarities in pedagogical forms though they largely differ in their administrative arrangements, methodological approaches, educational objectives, and groups of learners targeted as their point of

departure (cf. Ahmed, 2008; Hefler, 2012). On the other hand, Rogers as cited in Spronk (1999) tries to offer taxonomic characteristics of the main forms of education in a comparative way to distinguish between traditionally defined formal versus non-formal education:

**Table 3.1: Distinguishing Features of Formal versus Non-Formal Education**

	<b>Formal Education</b>	<b>Non-Formal Education</b>
Target group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· mainly young</li> <li>· universal</li> <li>· compulsory</li> <li>· selective</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· mainly adults</li> <li>· those interested</li> <li>· voluntary</li> <li>· open</li> </ul>
Time scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· full-time</li> <li>· primary activity of participants</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· part-time</li> <li>· secondary activity of participants</li> </ul>
Relevance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· separate from life</li> <li>· in special institutions</li> <li>· in sole purpose buildings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· integrated with life</li> <li>· in the community</li> <li>· in all kinds of settings</li> </ul>
Programme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· run by professionals</li> <li>· excludes large parts of life</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· participatory</li> <li>· excludes nothing</li> </ul>
Curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· one kind of education for all</li> <li>· set curriculum</li> <li>· compartmentalised</li> <li>· subject-centred</li> <li>· controlled by teacher</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· meeting learner defined needs</li> <li>· open curriculum</li> <li>· integrated</li> <li>· problem-centred</li> <li>· controlled by learner</li> </ul>
Methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· teacher-centred</li> <li>· mainly written</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· learner-centred</li> <li>· much is oral</li> </ul>
Objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· conformist</li> <li>· set by teachers</li> <li>· competitive</li> <li>· individualist</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· promotes independence</li> <li>· set by learners</li> <li>· collaborative</li> <li>· collective</li> </ul>
Relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· hierarchical</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· egalitarian</li> </ul>
Validation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· terminal at each stage</li> <li>· validated by education profession</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· continuing</li> <li>· validated by learners</li> </ul>

**Source:** Rogers, as cited in Spronk (1999, p. 2).

Generally, the definitions by different theorists in their totality in literature describe different characteristics of NFE which can be largely summed up as: methodological flexibility and responsiveness to learners' needs such as determining the aims, contents and curricula; administrative arrangements such as provision modalities, management procedures, programme duration, assessment and evaluation; as well as entry flexibility and openness to learners. These attributes make NFE be treated as more functional, flexible and relevant. However, it is fundamental to know how these features can

delineate NFSE and NFE practices in Tanzania, and how are they accommodated in the policy and planning to ensure NFSE reaches its potential.

In the Tanzanian context, empirical evidence uncovered at practical level shows that NFE and the broad term EFA have been reduced by the educational policy-makers, planners and other practitioners to the provision of basic education specifically primary education for all children (Bhalalusesa, 2007). This definition is applied universally but without adequately addressing all the cases of education provision for out-of-secondary-school youth and adults, as well as those who would like to upgrade their education level for many reasons. Firstly, the definition of NFE in Tanzania was arrived at when it was emphasised to play a supplementary role (provision of skills training), and alternative role (literacy activities). These practices reflect what empirical findings demonstrate to be over-emphasis on practice, which lack comprehensive and adequate theoretical framework which poses a great challenge to NFE today (Romi & Schmida, 2011). The challenge of out-of-schools youth at the secondary level and to the adults in need of secondary education as an emerging concern, therefore, was not keenly addressed in the definition. In this case, one would argue that the full range of learning opportunities provided by the NFE domain to the youth and adults still needs to be mapped out as it has significant implications for planning, policy and practice.

Secondly, the concept of learning activities outside the framework of formal school both in literature and as applied in Tanzania may not adequately reflect some of the current NFE activities where equivalent programmes such as NFSE adopt almost the same curriculum used in the formal secondary schools, with almost similar learning methodologies that lead to the same national examinations and certification despite their curriculum being blended and time required cut short. This is a new development in NFE that requires more current and comprehensive description of its activities towards changing the direction of policy and management arrangements for NFE in general.

Also, the flexibility of NFE is generally addressed basing on its ability to adapt to heterogeneous groups and where it can take place (see, for example, Romi & Schmida, 2011; UIL, 2012a). However, the key issue of the NFE structure and its organisation, particularly, the flexible points of entry and exit, re-entry and re-exit at any point in time as the basic characteristics of NFE programmes such as NFSE are also lacking. All

these aspects have implications for the planning of NFE programmes and their coverage in the policy framework.

Taking into account the different forms of NFE programmes, the current study considers NFE as education for out-of-school youth and adults who, for one reason or another, missed or dropped out of the formal education system, as well as an extension of formal schooling for those in need of further training for employment. It is, therefore, considered an alternative learning to the formal system with a flexible structure that allows different points of entry and exit, re-entry and re-exit. This operational definition gives direction on what policy and management issues are addressed in the current study and, thus, a gap that this study sought to address is to identify how the features of NFE discussed are accommodated in the existing policies that guide the provision of NFSE and in structuring and managing NFSE activities in the country.

### **3.1.2 NFE policy as a concept**

Conceptualising policy as a concept is quite crucial to the current study in a bid to understand how it might influence the patterns and trends of NFE since policies control and have implications for all practices (Williams, 2008). Confining the definition of policy to a single definition, however, is challenging because of a range of conceptual issues it contains. Taylor et al. (1997), for instance, find it difficult to define policy as it is continually evolving. In this case, understanding the complexity of policy requires conceptualisation of policy analysis in its general framework. However, a simple and commonly used definition is offered by Bell and Stevenson (2006) to the effect that policy is “a programme of action or a set of guidelines that determine how one should proceed given a particular set of circumstances” (p. 14). Configured in this definition of a policy is a statement of intent which comprises statements of what should happen and how.

Other policy theorists define policy as a response to a social reality by the political-administrative system to solve a public problem (Mazrotto, Bruno, & Bonham, 2000; Knoepfel, Larrue, Varone, & Hill, 2007). This definition presents a policy as a political process in its entirety. Similarly, Bell and Stevenson (2006) underscore the political dimension of a policy by stating categorically: “[P]olicy is political: it is about the power

to determine what is done” (p. 9). Other policy theorists also insist that policy is about the exercise of political power legitimated by compromises between autonomous and independent stakeholders (Codd, 1988; Mosha, 2006; Thissen & Walker, 2013). In searching for the simplicity of the term and connecting it to educational arena, the definition by Mosha (2006) was also adopted which describes policy as “pronouncements by the government that direct the course of education in consonance with the national vision” (p. 39). Apart from guiding the personal and institutional behaviour and action, the latter definition shows that the set objectives and activities in the educational policies need to be aligned with the broad goals in the macro development plans and policies (cf. Molle, 2007; UNESCO, 2013).

At a more practical level, education policy as a public policy is referred to as “a large number of legislative and administrative activities aimed at the resolution of real problems” (Knoepfel et al., 2007, p. 24). Knoepfel et al.’s definition tries to offer an analytical frame for defining public policy by giving all public administrations a view of all of their activities and how they should be carried out to foster the proper implementation and management of all educational practices.

Generally, all the policy definitions offered in this section contain some of the following concepts and meanings:

- i.* political power and compromises,
- ii.* a number of legislative and administrative activities,
- iii.* a set of guidelines,
- iv.* a group of actions,
- v.* selection of goals,
- vi.* accomplishment of the set goals,
- vii.* definition of values,
- viii.* response to a social reality, and
- ix.* resolving public problem.

These concepts are key ingredients in defining policy although they may entail different meanings in their application. Nevertheless, a more comprehensive, relevant and specific framework of policy definition to the current study may be needed. This is a framework by Simonson (2007), which conceives policy as a course of action which

comprises the aspects of statutes, procedures, rules and regulations adopted towards achieving a set of goals. This definition fits well in this study since it is conceptualised from the institutional point of view which is the direction of the current study.

From the varied insights offered so far in this section, NFE policy in this study, therefore, means a plan of action comprising coherent and achievable goals, principles, rules, procedures and strategies to guide NFE institutional practices, decisions and operations, in dealing with the existing and/or emerging problems in the entire NFE institutional system. In this case, NFE policy may take any form of substantive policy documents, institutional policy guidelines, strategies, implementation plans, Acts, regulations, circulars and other directives which bind together all institutions engaged in providing NFE in the country. These policy aspects ought to shape many aspects of schooling including the governance structure, operating modalities, funding mechanisms, reforms and the expected outcomes (Lasky et al., 2005; UIL, 2009).

### **3.1.3 Understanding management**

A number of management theorists have defined management differently. Okumbe (1998) views management as the process of designing, developing and affecting organisational objectives and resources so as to achieve the predetermined organisational goals. Focusing on educational management, Bush (2008) argues that educational management should be centrally concerned with the purpose or aims of education which provide a crucial sense of direction underpinning the management of educational institutions. To achieve successful management, Bush emphasises on a clear link between aims, strategy and operational management. Nevertheless, since management of educational institutions and success of their programmes depend much on the policy and legal context (Bell & Stevenson, 2006; Molle, 2007), the definition of management is thus connected to education policy by Bolam, as cited in Bush and Middlewood (2005), who defines educational management as “an executive function for carrying out agreed policy.” (p. 3). This definition shows that policy and management practices are always in interplay.

Despite good definitions of management provided in this section, a more detailed and contextual definition to the current study can be offered. In the light of the above discussion, the term management in this study contextually refers to as the ability of an



educational institution to organise, coordinate and supervise the implementation of educational plans and programmes efficiently and effectively, in line with the established educational policy (cf. Mosha, 2006). This definition is deemed appropriate as it takes into account the requirements of the current study which cut across educational policy and management. Thus, management in this context is expected to be translated and carried out across NFSE institutional levels from the central ministry and intermediate levels of administration, down to the learning centres in an interactive manner.

#### **3.1.4 NFE institutional arrangements**

Institutional arrangements can be differently contemplated depending on the field where it is applied. In the literature on policy studies *per se*, the term entails the identification of both formal and informal rules in asserting the interests and managing the modes of actors' interactions (Knoepfel et al., 2007; RSA, n.d.). In the governance of public services, on the other hand, it means authority, distribution of powers within an institution, systemic capacity, coordination of activities, network or linkage between different units of institution, and the flow of information (see, for instance, Lockheed et al., 1991; Azfar et al., 1999; Dedehouanou & Berthe, 2013). In information management, the term implies networks of entities and organisations engaged in implementing programmes and practices (Definition Proposal for National Institutional Arrangements, n.d.). Generally, however, there is a common agreement in literature that the key aspect in all the components of institutional arrangements mentioned is the decentralisation concept which connotes the transfer of power to the sub-units of governance in the institutional framework. In this regard, institutional arrangement determines the quality of social service delivery, and the outcomes, particularly, in education provision (Reinikka & Svensson, 2003; Dedehouanou & Berthe, 2013).

Nevertheless, the specific or contextual meaning of institutional arrangements in educational institutions, and the possible influences in altering provision of education, in general, remain insufficiently uncovered in the literature. The term is generally applied in education to mean a setup of different institutional units involved in implementing an educational plan (cf. URT, 2013b). In the absence of a clear and straightforward definition of the term in the educational arena, the meaning of NFE institutional arrangements as used in this study has been gleaned from the discussion just presented to suit the context of the current study. The applicable definition draws on both policy



and governance/management fields. It denotes, therefore, the established networks of supporting institutions and units involved in planning, policy-making, coordination, monitoring, evaluation, and supporting the implementation of the NFE plan or programme within specified policy guidelines. Such network includes both vertical and horizontal linkages between and among the supporting institutions, and across levels, with clear defined roles of the actors. How these determinants of institutional arrangements function to ensure proper provision of NFSE and its sustainability as an educational programme is what this study attempts to find out.

### 3.1.5 Sustainability in different perspectives

The term sustainability is often associated with development. In theory and practice, *sustainability* and *sustainable development* are commonly used interchangeably and are prioritised in global environmental conservation discussions. In this discussion, the term is mostly confined to the field of ecology as its initial use was in the debates of the 1970s, particularly during the United Nations Stockholm Conference on the Environment held in 1972 (Warhurst, 2002). It is thus connected to the environmental concerns in fostering people's ability to expand social prosperity and economic progress (Clugston & Calder, 1999; Johnston, 2007). The most frequently used definition of sustainability in relation to development is "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development, as cited in Clugston & Calder, 1999, p. 1). Within the field of ecology itself, however, the literature shows that definitions and approaches to sustainability vary widely and substantially depending on the views, interests and focus of those defining the term. In this case, the definition of sustainability remains broad and nebulous. I would, however, contend that sustainability is more than a concept with unique attributes confined to a particular field. A single definition of the term may seem futile since sustainability can be conceived as both a goal and as a process. Moreover, it has also other attributes that make it useful as a management dimension in different contexts.

Moving beyond the environmental science in defining sustainability, the term is currently becoming more relevant in many other professional contexts, and thus diffusing into various societal systems and careers (Hergert, 2010). In fact, sustainability is now applied across a range of areas such as society and economy (Bourke, 2009).

Because of different dimensions of sustainability, Clugston and Calder (1999) argue that “every institution committed to sustainability will find its own way of defining sustainability for itself” (p. 14). In an attempt to contextualise its definition, Swerissen (2007) defines sustainability from community programme’s perspective by providing its key attributes, that is, the benefits and ability to maintain those benefits of the programme for individuals and populations. Swerissen further explains sustainability as the process of sustaining programme activities over time rather than the outcomes by incorporating new programmes into the existing organisational structures, a process dubbed *institutionalisation* of programmes (cf. Fullan, 2007). Sustainability is also viewed as a *capacity* to deliver the required service and respond to the emerging needs in an on-going process of programme planning, intervention and evaluation (Swerissen, 2007; Johnson, Hays, Center & Daley, 2004; Mancini & Marek, 2004). Emphasising on the same issue of the institutionalisation process, the Altarum Institute (2009) posits that at the organisational level, sustainability means “continuing programme activities within an organisational structure and ensuring that programme goals, objectives, and approaches adapt to changing needs over time” (p. 1).

Specifically in the educational context, sustainability can have its own conceptualisation. Bourke (2009) conceives the term in three ways: that it is about “what we teach (our curriculum), how we teach (andragogy), and the method of delivery (open and distance learning (ODL)” (p. 52). The definition Bourke provides seems to be relevant to some extent since it assumes a management dimension which embodies both the goal and process of teaching adults. On the other hand, Bourke’s definition mostly reflects the classroom context whereas the policy and management concerns outside the classroom walls are not taken into account. Moreover, literature in education programmes offers a slight different lens on sustainability. For example, Century and Levy (2004) presents sustainability as *maintenance* which is a process of “embedding a programme, as designed, into an existing school system so that all of its elements become standard practice” (p. 3). The basic argument advanced by Century and Levy is that sustainability is beyond the outcomes of the programme as some other theorists in this review have tended to contend.

The discussion and conceptualisation of the term sustainability in the range of contexts presented so far reveal different concepts associated to, and integrated in the term such

as development, philosophy of enduring the future, long-term survival, goal and process, maintaining benefits, institutionalisation/embedding new activities into an existing system, capacity, and somewhat the entire system engagement. Nevertheless, the discussion has indicated a lack of consensus among different fields in conceptualising sustainability. The multiple meanings of sustainability, on the other hand, appear to converge on what and how it occurs, which may suggest that a working and effective definition needs to reflect the specific expectations of a particular programme and, indeed, the context to which the term is being applied.

In this regard, the disagreement on some of the concepts attached to sustainability may arise because of the contexts in which they are potentially applied. For instance, long-term endurance of a programme is agreeable but tricky when it comes to the critical dimensions of sustainability and their implementation in a particular context. Thus, sustainability in the current study is understood as a commitment to long-term efforts towards achieving NFSE provision whereas sustainable NFSE programme constitutes a process of getting there, which involves initiation, implementation and institutionalisation (Fullan, 2007) (refer section 3.4 for further discussion). I would thus subscribe to Century and Levy (2004) as sustainability is and, indeed, should be a process of embedding a programme into the existing education system so that all of its elements become standard practice through the involvement of different educational actors across levels in ensuring that change is their primary goal and philosophy.

### **3.2 The Need and Role of NFE**

NFE is currently dominating the debates in lifelong learning policies under the broader concept of learning society as its umbrella (see, for instance, UIL, 2013; UIS, 2015). In this regard, lifelong learning is considered to be a strategy for socio-economic development of the large society. However, the relationship between NFE, as one way of building a learning society, and its influence in different development dimensions is viewed from different angles. From the economic perspective, the main rationale for NFE is the creation of human capital, which is highly significant for economic growth (UIL, 2009). Arguably, the role of NFE transcends the socio-economic spheres to include a political dimension since there is a strong link between adult learning and democracy (Hussain & Haladu, 2013). Moreover, it also helps to meet environmental challenges (UIL, 2010). Considering all the cases collectively, the study established a

need and necessity of NFE to be generally determined by its array of social, economic, environmental and political impacts. Literature such as Faure et al. (1972), Óhidy (2008), Kuncaitis (2009), Hussain and Haladu (2013), and UIL (2010) mention some of the current factors that present NFE as a necessary and quick intervention. They are synthesised as:

- i.* Changes in the social structures, joining the labour market and confronting international challenges.
- ii.* An increase of social role of individuals, groups and organisations.
- iii.* Rapid economic progress whereby knowledge and information are becoming the foundation of a modern economy.
- iv.* A rapid environment change which hinders the sustainability of human development.
- v.* Increasing challenges of work and unemployment.
- vi.* The conflict between the generations where the gap should be filled through education.
- vii.* The role of sciences as daily life is becoming more scientific.
- viii.* The increase of opportunities and dangers of the technological progress which require more sophisticated skills and knowledge.
- ix.* The increasing gap between the North and South which can only be reduced through education.
- x.* Democratic development which integrates the question of political stability and economy, which need more awareness and self-realisation.
- xi.* A need to upgrade professional skills to increase personal value at jobs for security purposes.

These socio-economic and political environments demand a highly educated workforce, thus underscoring the necessity of NFE as one component of human resources development. Empirical findings suggest further that due to the changes in socio-economic structures and the scientific and technological revolution, NFE has become even more important as its contribution to development constitutes a means for reaching the majority of the poor and empower them to take control of their lives and fight against oppressive social relations (Rogers, as cited in Ahmed, 2008). When innovation produces some scientific evidence in its long-term positive effects on the targeted stakeholders, it maximises its sustainability (Johnson et al., 2004).

Further empirical findings from specific NFE studies conducted in Thailand, Bangladesh, Ethiopia and Tanzania (just to mention a few) affirm the usefulness of NFE in reaching out to millions of unschooled children, youth and adults and other marginalised and deprived segments of modern society (see, for instance, Hugkuntod & Tips, 1987; Menkir, 2002; Romi & Schmida, 2011; Aitchison, 2012; UIS, 2015). Its importance lies in its positive relationship between the learning process, enhanced productivity and socio-economic development (URT, 1995a, IAE, 2006b). It is also underscored in scientific reports in international discourses to the effect that NFE programmes such as NFSE play a crucial role in providing second-chance education for out-of-school youth as well as expanding learning opportunities to areas located beyond the reach of the formal public school system (UIS, 2015; cf. Hoppers, 2006). These facts may suggest that NFSE as an endeavour within NFE programmes offered in Tanzania is crucial and, thus, requires a special address in the educational policy arena and proper organisation and management of its practices to ensure its sustainability.

### **3.3 Genesis of NFSE and its Potentiality in Tanzania**

Immediately after independence in 1961, education for all campaign as a measure for the eradication of illiteracy was one of the main agendas in then Tanganyika (before its union with Zanzibar in 1964 to forge the current United Republic of Tanzania). The emphasis was on basic education, literacy, and functional literacy programmes for adults. At this stage, few people had access to formal secondary education. Having the IAE in place in 1963 led to the introduction of evening classes and weekend schools which offered services to the civil servants who wanted to up-grade their education level and sit for qualifying examinations (Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002). In particular, the National Correspondence Institute (NCI) established in 1970 within the IAE started offering courses (basic subjects) in secondary education through distance education (IAE, 2006b). As stated in chapter one, the formal education system was, and is still too inadequate to provide skills, knowledge and attitudes universally to all children and youth. This systemic exclusion of youth from the formal education also implied their limited employability in the formal sector. As such, there was a need to find a viable alternative.

Recently, the need of education as an agent of development, failure of the formal education system to meet socio-economic needs, the teeming numbers of out-of-school

youth, pressure from different international declarations such as EFA, MDGs and most recently SDGs, have led to a positive response from different public and private educational institutions in establishing non-formal secondary education programme. This is an educational endeavour which provides secondary education to the youth and adults in the form of open schooling outside the conventional school system. It is a strategic intervention that emerged from the demand of clientele, who come from diverse contexts such as those who missed out on the formal secondary education, those who dropped out or failed secondary education examinations. It has the potential of promoting secondary education access and equity at a minimum cost and in flexible schedules (URT, 2013a, 2013b). In fact, it helps to overcome barriers to secondary education learning such as personal constraints, lack of learning opportunities in formal schools, and job commitments as it enables professional development by combining learning with work. According to Hoppers (2006), NFSE serves a tripartite role as *supplementary* to augment formal education, *compensatory* to those with challenges of accessing or performing well in formal schools, and as an *alternative* to formal secondary schooling.

From 2000 onwards, NFSE programme under the IAE and other private institutions has been growing in a remarkable pace. IAE (2006) asserts that this is basically a result of the Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) which emphasises on non-formal secondary education programme. But this could also be a result of an increase demand for education due to the fast growing population (refer section 2.1), the incapacity of the formal secondary education system to absorb all youth in need, as well as the pressure of globalisation. Currently, NFSE is offered all over the country by the IAE through its Open and Distance Learning (ODL) programme using distance learning, face-to-face sessions, and evening classes (cf. IAE, 2006). Private institutions and individuals also offer the programme on face-to-face basis but in more flexible schedules.

### **3.4 NFSE as a Planned Educational Change**

NFSE provision is categorically termed as a new innovation in Tanzania, offered by both public and private providers. Such an educational innovation is regarded in management as a process of a planned change. Thus, innovation and planned change are used interchangeably to refer to change in practice by involving a noticeable shift

from the existing normative practices (Fullan, 1991; Everard et al., 2004; Fullan, 2007). Fullan (2007) presents a theoretical overview of understanding and managing educational change by examining a specific innovation to examine how it started and how it progressed so as to determine its success factors, build the innovation, the capacity of the organisation, and the entire system and end up with sustainable improvements. Fullan offers the major phases for managing an innovation such as NFSE for its successful and sustainable implementation, which can be analysed and translated in three ways thusly:

### **3.4.1 Initiation phase**

This initial phase involves reaching a decision to introduce an educational innovation or proceed with the change. In his theorisation, Fullan (2007) posits that an individual, a social group or an institution can initiate or promote a programme or show a direction of change as a result of specific reasons. The pressure for change may spring from outside the learning institution or education system, or from within (cf. Dacin, Goodstein & Scott, 2002; Everard et al., 2004; Mills et al., 2010; Zucker, 2012). The reasons for the educational change are basically many but “the alleged failure of education to prepare young people for working life and the erosion of the country’s capacity to afford escalating public expenditure” stand out (Everard et al., 2004, p. 237). Fullan (2007) further underscores dissatisfaction, inconsistency, or intolerability in the current situation of education provision as other reasons catalysing change. As change in practice may occur at any level of the education system, private institutions and individuals who introduced NFSE are in all accounts agents of change although this may require further initiation of the compliant policies to formalise the innovation and make it fully functional. However, initiation is potentially influenced by factors such as its clarity and quality; advocacy and support from the central administration; community pressure due to demographic changes; and quality of internal leadership for initiating programmes to avoid too many fragmented and uncoordinated changes (see, for instance, Fullan, 2007, p. 70; Hawkins & Winter, as cited in Smith, 2002, p. 33). In this regard, the researcher considers and seeks to answer questions such as: How well-designed is the NFSE programme to address the perceived needs of youth and adults? How is the innovation supported by the policy guidelines? How does the NFE system mediate in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE to avoid too many fragmented



and uncoordinated practices? Successful coverage of these issues would ensure thorough implementation and sustainability of the NFSE as a new innovation.

### 3.4.2 Implementation phase

This phase is a process of moving forward the decisions reached in phase one, where an attempt to put an educational innovation into practice is made. Thus, the initiation and implementation processes are in a mutual relationship as they are loosely coupled and they are interactive. The implementation of educational innovation is termed as a critical stage in accomplishing the desired objectives (Fullan, 2007). However, for the process to be effective it depends on factors that are threefold: *Firstly* are characteristics of change such as priority need clarity about goals and means; complexity of change in terms of sophisticated array of activities, structures and strategies for implementation; and the quality and practicality of the programme (ibid.). The overriding goal is to do away with political expediency and attend ensure quality through making right decisions from the outset and the planning phase of the programme to ensure programme's feasibility and sustainability (Swerissen, 2007). *Secondly* are the local factors including the social conditions of change, the institution where people work, and all activities that influence change, including the leadership and support provided by the central administration beyond an institution or programme. *Thirdly* are external factors that place the programme in a broader social context during its implementation. In this endeavour, governmental agencies such as the Ministry of Education, regional and district authorities, on the one hand, and external partners and NGOs, on the other hand, ought to play their roles to support the programme implementation in a wider scope in the country (Lasky et al., 2005; Fullan, 1991, 2007).

All the factors for implementing a new educational innovation bring into light the understanding that governmental agencies, individuals, private institutions and all other stakeholders should not be preoccupied with policy and programme initiation while underestimating the complexity of the implementation process. In this sense, therefore, it is worth emphasising that implementation is the means towards achieving programme outcomes as postulated by Fullan (2007). Since there are reciprocal ties between initiation and implementation, which also affect the programme's sustainability, the fundamental questions in this research remain: Is the NFSE programme receiving equal attention as formal education programmes during the implementation of countrywide



educational programmes? Is the programme implementing realistic set goals towards achieving the intended outcomes?

### **3.4.3 Continuation phase**

This stage is also known as institutionalisation or sustainability where educational innovation is incorporated in the education system as an integral part of the entire system. In this case, the programme is sustained beyond its beginning (Fullan, 2007). The former two phases determine, to a large extent, the realisation of this phase as they are all connected and influence each other. This kind of sustainability of a programme depends on institutional leadership in maintaining the practices, as well as the commitment of policy-makers to pushing and keeping the innovation going (ibid). Continuation depends on whether the change gets embedded into the structure through policies, budget, and schedule; whether change has acquired critical support of administrators and others during institutionalisation; and whether well-established procedures for continuation assistance such as trained policy makers and planners are in place (ibid).

Continuation of the NFSE programme being the focus and dependent variable in the current study, the following questions ought to be answered: Is the country's education policy comprehensive and relevant enough in addressing the needs of the majority of the out-of-school youth? Is there enough support and consolidated partnership between the government and private providers in providing NFSE among the majority out-of-school youth? How are the central administration and its respective lower level authorities concerned about the implementation of the on-going NFSE programme?

### **3.4.4 Functioning of the phases in managing an innovation**

The three phases of educational change process as introduced by Fullan are interconnected in a mutual relationship and thus cannot be treated as a linear process. Events at one phase can feed back to inform improvement at previous stages, which later proceed to work their way through in a continuous interactive manner (Fullan, 2007). For instance, an introduction of an NFSE programme by any actor at any level in the education system may be substantially modified at any stage during initiation, implementation, or institutionalisation. This process produces the outcomes depending on given criteria and objectives, which can be referred to several different types of

results experienced in terms of the degree of learning improvement and programme capacity.

Literature review in this section highlights an array of issues to be considered in studying the management of a programme as a planned educational change in an institution. However, the processes presented are still relative. In reality, change is not merely a technical issue as the reasons and aims for initiating an educational change in a particular context may vary and, thus, some of the issues pointed out are not universal. For instance, most of the experiences on the management of education innovations including those by Fullan (2007) come out of researches conducted in educational institutions that operate in a decentralised system and, particularly, in developed countries. Their applicability to developing countries such as Tanzania where decentralisation is not fully realised may thus be limited. After all, the initiation of change may begin at any level of the education system as Fullan (2007) aptly pointed out. In fact, this is more possible in a decentralised system where heads of institutions are autonomous and have control over the resources unlike centralised/semi-centralised systems such as those operating in Tanzania where innovations are mostly initiated and controlled at the top in a top-down approach. As most of the developing countries are evolving from centralised to decentralised systems and as Fullan emphasises on the uniqueness of each case in managing a planned change, the experiences on the change process can still inform the examination of the NFE policy and institutional practices, which have a direct bearing on the provision of NFSE as planned change in the Tanzanian context.

### **3.5 Terrain of AE/NFE Policies and Practices**

This section draws from different contexts in discussing AE/NFE policies and practices, the underlying legislations and regulations, the intersection between the policies/regulatory context and a particular NFE programme such as NFSE, and their role and relevance in guiding the provision of education in a non-formal system.

#### **3.5.1 Features of AE/NFE policies in African context**

AE/NFE in most developing countries particularly those in sub-Saharan African region lacks an outstanding, comprehensive and coherent policy framework (UIL, 2009; Aitchison & Alidou, 2009). Fragmented policies tend to be dominant despite AE/NFE

being an important concern and component of educational programmes in those countries for the past nearly three decades (Govinda, 2008). Case studies of AE/NFE policies from some sub-Saharan African countries may disclose further as explicated in Table 3.2:

**Table 3.2: AE/NFE Policies from a sub-Saharan Africa Sample**

Country	AE/NFE Policy	Policy Content Summary
Mali	National Policy of Non-Formal Education, 2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ To increase the adult literacy rate at least 50% (40% for women) and allow at least 50% of school-leavers and youth aged 9 to 15 who have never been to school to reach a minimum learning level.</li> </ul>
Mozambique	National Strategy for Adult Literacy and NFE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Designed mainly to eradicate illiteracy in the country.</li> </ul>
Burkina Faso	Non-Formal Education Policy, 2006	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ To promote literacy and alternative forms of education as factors of local development and to support access to lifelong learning opportunities.</li> </ul>
Cape Verde	Law No. 34/98, 1998; & Law No. 38/99, 1999	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Approves the Curriculum of Basic Education for Adults.</li> <li>▶ Approves the assessment system for learners of adult basic education.</li> </ul>
Niger	National Policy of Non-Formal Education, 2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ To consolidate and develop social achievements in literacy and non-formal education; define the major options, guidelines and policy measures necessary for the development of this sub-sector.</li> </ul>
South Africa	Adult Basic Education and Training Act, 2000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Provides for the establishment of public and private adult learning centres, funding for Adult Basic Education and Training provision, the governance of public centres and quality assurance mechanisms for the sector.</li> </ul>
Lesotho	Draft National Policy Document on Non-Formal and Adult Education, 1998	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Has never been adopted as policy, but it is referred to and used for planning purposes. Cited liberally in the chapter on lifelong learning and non-formal education in the Education Sector Strategic Plan 2005-2015.</li> </ul>
Tanzania	Embedded in the Education and Training Policy, 1995	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ A chapter subsumed in the education and training policy aimed primarily at providing literacy skills and fostering the acquisition of knowledge, skills and values for the enhancement and improvement of life.</li> </ul>
	Embedded in the New Education and Training Policy, 2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ A general policy statement on AE/NFE subsumed in the new education and training policy aimed at ensuring education and training including adult education is efficiently provided at all levels.</li> </ul>

**Source:** Adopted from UIL (2009) and URT (1995a, 2014a).

As mapped out in Table 3.2, AE/NFE in many sub-Saharan countries is mainly associated with literacy and adult basic education. This orientation could be attributed to the misconception of AE/NFE which results in its not being treated as an independent field but one that is subsumed in the general education policies of the many of the countries. Carr-Hill and Carron (1991), for instance, assert that NFE in many developing countries is not recognised by educational planners as real but rather as merely playing a para-formal or subsidiary role. On the other hand, a UNESCO global report on adult learning and education is broad-based:

The extent to which countries are locked into widespread poverty, high levels of internal inequality and international debt influences the direction of adult education policy-making. For example, in sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, and much of Asia-Pacific and Latin America and the Caribbean, adult education is equated with adult literacy and compensatory or 'second chance' education. (UIL, 2009, p. 33).

Tanzania, as one of the countries UNESCO mentions, has demonstrated the same trend, which are also supported by empirical findings that AE/NFE and the broad related concepts relating to EFA have been misconceived among educational policy-makers, planners and other practitioners as the provision of basic education, specifically primary education for all children (Bhalalusesa, 2007; Mnjagila, 2011). This misconception has a great effect on the AE/NFE policy as Tanzania and many other SADC member countries show that they neither have independent national policies nor strategic plans for ODL, hence making the effectiveness of many ODL activities elusive (Shemwetta et al., 2008). According to Ismail (2008), lack of a national policy framework consequently results into the inadequate provision of AE in general as was the case in Uganda. Despite some policy visibility on AE/NFE gained since 2000 in developing countries including Tanzania, it is argued that this policy has largely been influenced by public opinion and civil society pressure for change and improvement, as poor progress in achieving EFA goals is still evident (UIL, 2009). Similar experiences have been documented in other developing countries in the Asia-Pacific region (cf. Ahmed, 2002; Ouane, 2011). In fact, the adult education policies and programmes such as literacy, basic education and NFE available amount to just building blocks yet to adequately add value to lifelong learning in the respective countries (Ahmed, 2002).

On the other hand, the national reports from different countries prepared by UNESCO for CONFINTEA VI point further to some policy features shared by most of the developing countries. Apart from AE/NFE policies being incoherent, fragmented and

usually subsumed in the general education policies, they are also rarely mainstreamed within the comprehensive development plans (UIL, 2009, 2010). This prevailing situation has adversely been impacting on the AE/NFE practices, particularly in guiding and managing programmes such as NFSE that offer secondary education to youth and adults in deprived societies.

It is evident that, even where AE/NFE policy is adopted, there is still a great challenge to the AE/NFE practices because the discourse of lifelong learning in its broad sense is still partially and inconsistently evident in policy (cf. Yang & Valdés-Cotera, 2011). In terms of content, O’Gara, Long and Vargas-Barón (2008) posit from an early childhood development (ECD) perspective:

[T]he policy statements usually lack clear operational objectives, strategies, programmes, indicators, targets, and structures. They do not include discussion of training systems, structural and organisational relationships among different groups of providers, social communications, policy advocacy, financial investment, evaluation, monitoring, and long-term accountability (O’Gara, Long & Vargas-Barón, 2008, p. 32).

This statement shows that short of comprehensive lifelong learning framework and relevant content leads to a wide gap between legislation, policy and implementation, as well as lack of adequate resources allocation, governance arrangements and full governments’ commitment. In consequence, AE/NFE end up reaching only small segments of the potential clientele (cf. UIL, 2009, 2013). Nnazor (2005) and Ahmed (2008) go a step further by arguing that in such a situation, dominant themes of NFE appear to focus on the deficits in primary education and imparting skills and knowledge to a few disadvantaged adults. Nevertheless, the adoption of lifelong learning as a guiding principle for education policies does not automatically translate into equitable access to adult education but requires further the establishment of legal, funding and governance structures, which link formal, non-formal and informal adult learning in a continuum.

### **3.5.2 Context and trend of AE/NFE policies and practices in Tanzania**

From a historical perspective, the current NFE policy in Tanzania appears to be a proliferation of the adult education policy championed immediately after independence in 1961 by the Late Julius Nyerere, the founder president of the young republic. It can be also associated with the global policy dynamics and initiatives aimed at addressing

educational challenges through the philosophy of lifelong learning in a bid to respond to the rapid social, political, environmental and economic changes. These challenges across different spheres over time have also influenced various changes in the provision of NFE and its respective policies in Tanzania. A better understanding of the NFE policy context in Tanzania can be traced retrospectively from the period before independence, the 1961-1980 post-independence period, from the 1980s to 1990, and from 1990 to-date. This tracing of the NFE policy enables one to gain insights into what has influenced its development and how it has been guiding the provision of NFSE in Tanzania to-date.

### ***The pre-independence period***

Despite this period being scantily documented, Kweka (1995) reports that before independence NFE programmes were provided by both the colonial government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) sponsored mainly by religion institutions. During the German colonial period (the 1880s - 1919), for instance, government clerks were trained while Christian missionaries taught Kiswahili literacy as well as skills such as masonry, carpentry and agriculture to their converts, whereas Muslims taught Arabic literacy and Kiswahili language (ibid.). No written policy is reported to have existed during this time; however, the philosophy that guided services and NFE provision was to produce resourceful people who could serve the colonial government and its agents.

Although the provision of education was based on racialised classes during colonial period (URT, 1995a), NFE is reported to have been expanded during the British colonial period following the introduction of education policy by the British government (Education Ordinance, 1927) and the subsequent Memorandum of Education for African Communities of 1935, which emphasised on adults to be educated in tandem with school children, as the children could not bring about the immediate economic and social transformation as expected (Mushi, 2012). In effect, it was not until 1949 that the colonial Welfare Department was established where literacy, commercial subjects and later in 1950 sewing, knitting, cookery and community self-help projects were taught (Kweka, 1995; Mushi, 2012). Other forms of NFE provided by the colonial government included health and agricultural extension services, which received much attention to ensuring production of the much-needed raw materials accompanied by vocational training established by religious NGOs such as cooperative

education, carpentry, masonry and tailoring. According to the literature, the purpose and philosophy of the NFE policies and the related programmes during this period was towards the fulfilment of political and economic gains of the colonial government.

### ***The 1961-1980s post-independence period***

After independence in 1961, Tanzania (by then Tanganyika) took control of education provision. Thus, there was an immediate need to repeal and replace the colonial education policies. At the time of independence, the majority of Tanzanians were illiterates. This problem was compounded by widespread abject poverty, disease and hunger, which were then classified as major enemies of development inherited from the colonial government. Subsequently, the government passed the Education Act of 1962 to regulate education provision in the country and address the enemies to development as well as abolish racial discrimination in education for a system based on egalitarian principles to evolve (URT, 1995a). In this period, NFE activities under the rubric of *community education* such as self-help projects were organised by the Ministry of Community Development (Mushi, 2012). Despite the new policy measures, no remarkable changes were experienced in all forms of education. In this regard, Mushi (2012) argues that the NFE activities under implementation could not have adequate impact on socio-economic development in the absence of a viable policy. Indeed, there was up to 1969 no proper national policy that could govern the organisation and provision of AE/NFE across various institutions (URT, 1995a; Mushi, 2012).

In the fight against poverty, ignorance, and disease as the main enemies of development as President Nyerere called, Tanzania embarked on the *First Five-Year Development Plan (1964-1969)*. In this plan, the role of the adult population was considered to be one of transforming the existing socio-economic conditions. Thus, the plan underscored the need to equip adults with knowledge and skills for immediate impact to be realised and this was supposed to go parallel with long-term plans of educating children (Mushi, 2012). In this regard, civic education was provided to familiarise people with the objectives and content of the plan. The literacy skills were integrated into the economic and social activities of the people as a strategy towards achieving the goals of this five-year development plan.



Due to several shortfalls in the colonial education which could not serve the country's education purposes and interests, as well as the insignificant impact evidenced from the earliest education efforts after independence, the country was compelled to adopt the philosophy of *Education for Self-Reliance (ESR)* which was introduced in 1967 as a new education policy directive. The ESR policy was designed to guide the planning and practices of education in the country under the new socialist ideology – “*ujamaa*”<sup>11</sup> adopted in the same year under Arusha Declaration (AD). The ideology was based on egalitarian principles. The ideology of socialism and the ESR policy influenced the objectives of adult education in the country, with the emphasis being placed on mass education and functional literacy as a means for understanding and attaining the principles and objectives of “*ujamaa*” (Bwatwa, 1982; Lema et al., 2004; Mushi, 2012). Another notable policy implication was the introduction of workers' education, distance education, and post-literacy programmes to provide knowledge and skills that could alleviate socio-economic constraints inherited from the colonial government.

AE/NFE practices gained a great turning point in the 1970s following the introduction of the *Second Five-Year Development Plan (1969-1974)* which underlined the empowering potential of adult education in promoting social, political and economic change (Mushi, 2012), and the pronouncement of *Adult Education Year – 1970* (Mnjagila, 2011), aimed at eradicating ignorance. The plans introduced new strategies such as making all primary schools adult and community education centres to take care of the educational needs of out-of-school youth and adults in a parallel way. Also, correspondence institutions were established to serve the literate ones from remote areas, accompanied by rural libraries to provide further education that could fill the gaps left by the existing education programmes (Mushi, 2012).

In all the policies adopted up to this stage, one key feature that characterised efforts in the provision of AE/NFE was lack a specific custodian and its management and coordination oscillated among different authorities. To ensure that the post-independence AE/NFE policy and practice initiatives were expanded and sustained, the Tanzania government enacted the *Parliament Act No. 12 of 1975* which placed all AE/NFE practices in the country under the Institute of Adult Education (URT, 1975;

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<sup>11</sup> This is a Kiswahili term for an African brand of *socialism* based on traditional communal values as a strategy for development and a means for eliminating poverty, diseases, ignorance and miserable living conditions.



IAE, 2006a). In the framework of this Act, the IAE is charged with multiple roles and functions, *inter alia*, to establish AE/NFE centres, develop AE/NFE programmes, curriculum and syllabi, coordinate and supervise all stakeholders and other agencies engaged in providing literacy, adult, non-formal and continuing education for quality assurance and control (see URT, 1975). Since then, the IAE has been carrying out various AE/NFE activities in a range of modalities covering mass education, ODL and full-time programmes (IAE, 2006a, 2006b). Refer also Table 2.1.

Literature reveals that following the economic crises of the 1970s to the 1980s, the provision of education in all forms was affected and the gross primary enrollment rates slumped, thus increasing illiteracy rates that had significantly dropped (Macpherson, 2007). Before these economic crises, the AE/NFE policy initiatives since independence up to the early 1980s had registered significant and commendable achievements in most of the literacy programmes as the government managed to reduce illiteracy from 85 percent to 21 percent (Mushi, 2012), a remarkable achievement in Africa. A thorough examination of the policies, however, shows that much more attention was paid to the literacy campaign as it was a critical problem by then, and less attention to other NFE programmes and non-formal secondary education received even far less concern.

### ***The 1980s - 1990 period***

This period came into being when the liberalisation of the economy and globalisation were introduced. Due to the success of AE policies and literacy programmes of the 1970s, AE/NFE activities such as literacy programmes and functional literacy were still on with varied subsequent success until the mid-1980s (Mushi, 2009). However, literature provides little information on new AE/NFE policies and reforms in this period due to the economic crises that started from the mid-1970s (Mushi, 2012). Due to the socio-economic constraints and conditionalities from the IMF and the WB under the so-called Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), budget cuts were a key feature which severely affected the provision of AE/NFE. As a result, up to the end of the 1980s, public enthusiasm and government support to AE/NFE had waned and even the existing programmes were unsustainable as the approach used in planning and implementing the AE/NFE programmes was much centralised (*ibid.*). Together with over-dependency on donor funding in the programmes, most of the AE/NFE programmes particularly that aimed at eradicating illiteracy remained elusive.

### ***The 1990 to-date period***

At the beginning of this period, liberalisation of the economy had gained momentum. By then there was also political liberalisation by the mid-1990s. During this period, liberalisation of education and cost-sharing in education were outcomes of the austerity measures in place then (see, for example, URT, 1995a). Socialism and its egalitarian principles were no longer the leading philosophy although it still inexplicably appeared in the constitution contrary to events on the ground. It is during this period that a range of global and national policies and reforms pertaining to education were initiated and adopted. The 1990 Jomtien World Conference on EFA, the Dakar World Education Forum of 2000 on EFA, the MGDs of 2000, the CONFINTEA resolutions, and most recently SDGs of 2015 are some of the international agreements and declarations addressing AE/NFE to which Tanzania is also committed following its ratification of these international instruments. In this context, AE/NFE policies and practices in Tanzania have also been affected as they have been shaped by these international agreements.

At the national level, the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995 was the first comprehensive education policy which addressed NFE by making a specific reference to it. The policy was a product of recommendations of a national team (task force) detailed with reviewing the country's education system so as to cope with the challenges of the twenty-first century (Mushi, 2012). The intention of the policy was to expand the provision of education through liberalisation and promoting all forms of education—formal, non-formal (distance and out-of-school) education programmes through partnerships (URT, 1995a). The policy reflects a clear shift from the earlier policies where the government controlled the economy and the public sector (cf. Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002; Mushi, 2012). Thus, as far as AE/NFE is concerned, the specific roles of the government articulated in the ETP of 1995 were promoting, strengthening, coordinating and integrating AE/NFE with formal education.

To implement the ETP of 1995, various education plans and programmes have come into being, including the Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP) launched in 1997 and its subsequent revisions. The ESDP, as an educational master plan (strategy), has a main focus of transforming the education sector including AE/NFE into an efficient, effective, outcome-based system, and facilitate the achievement of the educational goals

stipulated in the NDV-2025 (URT, 2011b). The ESDP pays specific attention to AE/NFE with specific objectives aimed to:

- i.* Ensure out-of-school children and adults access basic learning opportunities;
- ii.* Ensure the youth, adults, out-of-school children and vulnerable groups (both men and women) access folk and vocational skills;
- iii.* Ensure adherence to policy, laws, regulations, norms and standards in the provision of quality education at all levels; and
- iv.* Ensure quality assurance in the entire system of administration, supervision, governance and management of education (URT, 2011b, pp. xii-xiii).

To achieve these specific AE/NFE objectives under the ESDP, various programmes such as the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) and Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) were introduced. With the primary aim of ensuring universal primary education provision, the PEDP targeted to ensure that all disadvantaged groups such as out-of-primary-school girls and boys benefited from the NFE system and later on integrated into the formal system (URT, 2001, 2012a). This was made even more possible under a special NFE programme known as Complimentary Basic Education in Tanzania (CoBET), which significantly increased primary education access for out-of-primary-school children and youth (URT, 2010b, 2011b). The SEDP, on the other hand, embraced the Open and Distance Learning (ODL) as a strategy to provide access to out-of-secondary-schools youth and adults promoted in parallel with formal secondary school (URT, 2004, 2010c).

Nevertheless, a thorough look at the countrywide AE/NFE policies, plans and programmes reveals that much focus was fixed on non-formal primary education, literacy, and functional literacy programmes whereas non-formal secondary education remained severely limited (cf. URT, 2006, p. 5, & 2010b, p. 1). This might have negative implications when it comes to guiding and implementing NFSE provision. Thus, the question might be: To what extent are the ESDP objectives comprehensive and effective enough in cutting across youth and adults by offering them opportunities in lifelong learning process, and how AE/NFE plans and implementation strategies are well linked to the set objectives during implementation to guarantee sustainable NFSE provision.

### **3.5.3 Current NFSE policy and legal context**

Regarding the inadequacies of the formal secondary education provision as stated in chapter one, NFSE has emerged to be one of the potential NFE programmes, designed

to cater for the needs of the out-of-secondary-school youth and adults who have had no opportunity to join secondary schools. This is one of the educational strategies in realising education as a fundamental human right as stipulated by the United Nations universal declaration of human rights of 1948, Article 26 (see UN, 1949, p. 6). To achieve such a fundamental human right at the global level, various international declarations such as the Jomtien and Dakar EFA frameworks, as well as the MDGs and SDGs are also overarching international policies in meeting the noble task of providing education for all, within which the NFSE initiative is also prompted, guided and drawn (see, for example, UNESCO, 1990; 2000; UN, 2001). These global goals provide essential international policy and development frameworks against which education progress is measured and compared across national, regional and global levels.

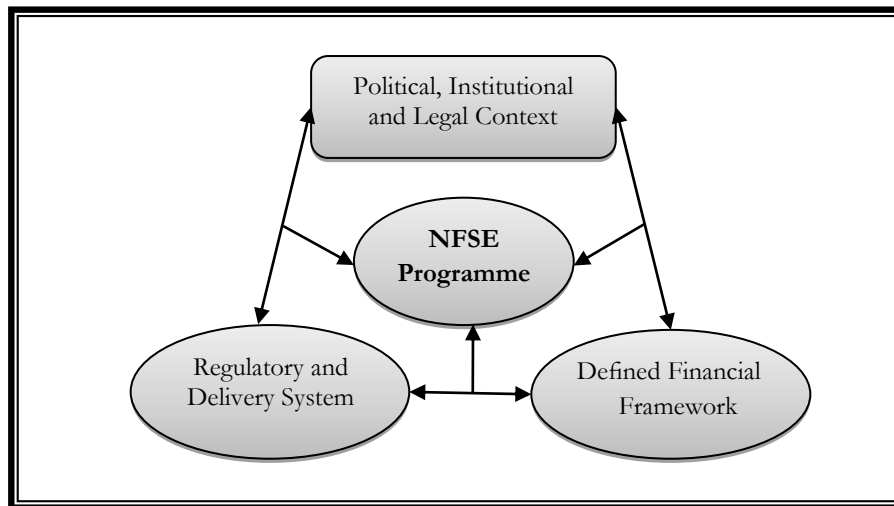
Apart from the international policies which are agreed upon by several countries including Tanzania, the NFSE as a means of secondary education provision is also engrained in the country's constitution as a universal right for all citizens (see URT, 1998, p. 19). Furthermore, the NFSE provision is shaped by national development plans (macro development policies) such as the NDV-2025 and NSGRP, which emphasise on education as a means for socio-economic development (URT, 1999, 2005). Within such a broad policy framework, there are a more specific Education and Training Policy of 1995 and its revised version of 2014, and the subsequent education sector development plan (ESDP) as a strategy for policy implementation. These countrywide educational policies and strategy guide the provision of NFSE as part of AE/NFE in the country.

At the operational level, there are also AE/NFE implementation plans that guide the implementation of several AE/NFE programmes including NFSE. The AE/NFE development plan (ANFEDP, 2012/13–2016/17), and the AE/NFE sub-sector medium term strategy (2010/11–2014/15), for instance, are the current AE/NFE implementation plans guiding the provision and management of NFSE. These policy documents underscore the fact that secondary education in the ODL mode will be recognised, promoted, strengthened, coordinated and integrated into the formal education and training system as stipulated in the ETPs, as well as in the Adult Education Act of 1975 (URT, 2010c, 2012a, cf. URT, 1975, 1995a, 2001, 2008a).

In particular, the ETPs and their implementation plans provide room for the creation of a viable partnership between the state and other education providers by encouraging the establishment and management of schools and adult education centres. However, the management and administration of the NFE sub-sector remain a responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) through its department of AE/NFE, in collaboration with the IAE as its semi-autonomous institution and other government agencies (URT, 1995a, 2006, 2012a). Thus, the broad NFE policy context discussed guides and regulates the provision of NFSE which has been offered by the IAE as a public institution, and several other private institutions and individuals. The policies and their implementation strategies and plans for NFE programmes, therefore, ought to be relevant and effective in guiding the provision of NFSE, which is the current subject of this inquiry.

#### **3.5.4 NFSE programme as a central policy element**

Since the current study focuses on the sustainability of NFSE provision, it requires a more comprehensive understanding of different issues embodied in the policy that guide its proper execution. As discussed in sub-section 3.1.2, policy is a programme of actions (Bell & Stevenson, 2006). Molle (2007) contends that specification of the actions to be accomplished and their associated resources are the main ingredients that make policy effective. In essence, these actions/activities are the ones that form programmes and projects. Thus, a policy by its nature comprises a number of programmes. A programme can then be conceived as “a set of organised but often varied activities ...directed towards the achievement of specific policy objectives with a clear commitment to devote specified financial resources to it that may be mobilised from several sources” (Molle, 2007, p. 128). In this view, an NFSE programme becomes a central element of education policy with activities planned and carried out towards achieving the set educational policy goals. The whole idea can well be understood from the perspective of policy analysis and programme sustainability by Molle (2007). The framework views policy in its broader context which determines the success of a programme in terms of relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact and sustainability as illustrated in figure 3.1:



**Figure 3.1: NFSE programme as a central policy element**

**Source:** Researcher's Own Development as Informed by Molle (2007).

As figure 3.1 suggests, the framework tries to show and describe in much detail the complementarity of the policy and programme in their operation. On this basis, a programme such as NFSE is, therefore, effective and sustainable when its wider policy context mentioned as the political, institutional and legal context, the defined financial package, and the regulatory and delivery systems are supportive enough for the set activities to run (Molle, 2007, cf. Birkland, 2001; Hawkins & Winter, as cited in Smith, 2002; Knoepfel et al., 2007). Likewise, for the policy to be effective and its objectives to be achieved, the activities of its targeted programmes should be well-planned and organised towards policy objectives (Molle, 2007). From the perspective of this framework, therefore, policy and programme are interwoven in nature, and the programme is a central element of the policy.

This model is relevant in observing and analysing policy and programme issues from a wider panorama, by looking at the regulatory context and delivery system which are crucial in the NFSE provision and sustainability (cf. Knoepfel et al., 2007, p. 18). Within that process, it is possible to examine the role and relevance of the policy in guiding such provision since it paints a picture of how policy and NFSE programme activities complement and influence each other. In other words, the provision of NFSE is, in essence, putting the policies into effect, and at that stage is when governance of the programme and other management issues become the next point of concern, which are thus framed as central elements of this study. This complexity gives a wider room in

understanding the policy essentials, as well as their role, relevance and effectiveness in guiding the provision and management of the NFSE programme.

### **3.5.5 Typology and roles of NFE policies**

The current study analyses the policy content of the adopted policy support mechanisms in a bid to examine their role and relevance in guiding the provision of NFSE (refer to section 4.2). To gain insights into the features of different types of policies from an analytical perspective, Birkland (2001) suggests thinking about policy in different ways as delineated in groups. In spite of many typologies that exist, the most commonly used is the one which classifies policies as substantive and procedural. Anderson (2003) and Torjman (2005) describe this clustering of policies as the most useful in understanding the limits of policy functions and their level of operation, hence well-suited in delineating the adopted NFE policies for analysis purpose in this undertaking.

#### ***Substantive NFE policy and its role***

A substantive policy simply refers to what the government does (Birkland, 2001). It involves what the government is going to do at the national level, such as the provision of education service, and thus directly estimates and allocates advantages and disadvantages, as well as benefits and costs to the people (Anderson, 2003). In the same vein, Torjman (2005) asserts that a substantive policy is a broad policy largely concerned with the legislation, programmes and practices of the entire country that govern the substantive aspects of community practices. In education, for instance, “a national education policy establishes the main goals and priorities pursued by the government in matters of education—at the sector and sub-sector levels” (UNESCO, 2013, p. 6). In this orientation, substantive policy documents are interpreted as the mega administrative documents, articulating and describing the statements of actions as political and administrative decisions aimed at solving real educational problems in different programmes and across a range of sub-sectors in the country (cf. Knoepfel et al., 2007).

As such, it is evident that a substantive policy is a country’s broad policy passed by a parliament which concentrates on the substantive elements of the problems that require a solution, and contain general goals to be attained (O’Gara et al., 2008). In the context of the current study, the education and training policies (ETPs) exemplify the



substantive nature of educational policies in Tanzania, at least from the point of articulation. They are countrywide policies which cut across different education sub-sectors including formal education and training; NFE and training; tertiary and higher education and training; and vocational education and training as stipulated in the education sector policy (cf. URT, 1995a, 2014a). As substantive policies contain general statements and goals on how services such as education provision should be rendered, they should be translated into a more operational way which forms the next type of policy.

### ***Procedural NFE policy and its role***

As opposed to the substantive policy, the procedural policy pertains to how the government is going to do what is contained in the substantive policy and the responsible parties for taking actions (Birkland, 2001; Anderson, 2003). This type of policy is also termed by Torjman (2005) as an administrative policy which focuses largely on administrative procedures at the operational level. Torjman's argument is consistent with Van der Walt et al.'s (2001) postulation that as an administrative policy, it is the most specific aimed at achieving particular institutional objectives. In this case, substantive consequences in implementing policies are determined by this type of policy.

Since procedural policies are crucial in translating the substantive policies and guiding the actual practices on the ground, their documents are referred to as strategic policy documents, instruments of the substantive education policies which emphasise on specific institutional rules with the object of promoting and transforming specific institutional units or programmes (Knoepfel et al., 2007; UNESCO, 2013). They provide the conditions for the accomplishment of broad-based functions and, thus, are applicable to the operationalisation of the concrete substantive educational policies. In essence, they are important at the operational level in establishing procedures and standards (Birkland, 2001). On the other hand, procedural policies contain operational elements of both substantive education policies and legislations by determining in a more specific way, the roles and relative powers of policy actors in their horizontal and/or vertical interactions in all implementation processes (Knoepfel et al., 2007, p. 163). In this regard, the education sector development plan (ESDP) as the country's education strategy or master plan, the AE/NFE development plan (ANFEDP) and the



AE/NFE sub-sector medium-term strategy as implementation plans all fall under this category, as operational policies that translate ETPs. In their operation, the country's education strategy sets direction towards achievement of the substantive policy goals and priorities, as well as clarifying the roles and responsibilities of the actors whereas the implementation plans set concrete actions, specific targets, and identify resources for achieving the goals and priorities (cf. UNESCO, 2013, p. 6). The strategies and plans, therefore, operationalise what is guided in the substantive policies for implementation.

### **3.5.6 Policy instruments as enforcement mechanisms**

Literature suggests that the effectiveness and sustainability of educational programmes depends on the policy in its wider contexts including regulatory systems and institutional and legal contexts that are supportive for the set activities to run (Molle, 2007; Birkland, 2001; Hawkins & Winter, as cited in Smith, 2002; Knoepfel et al., 2007). Since policies guide practices of institutions and programmes, they should function within the legal and regulatory framework as enforcement mechanisms (AISSA, 2006). This is equally supported by Cheng and Cheung (1995) who assert that the formulation of education policies and plans should be within the legal framework of the existing ordinances, regulations and rules that govern public administration and educational services in particular. Simonson (2007) insists that the statutes, procedures, rules and regulations are an integral part of the policy. Such a legal environment provides enforcement mechanisms for the policies and programmes. Knoepfel et al. (2007) clarify that law is one of the key policy resources as it provides "legal and regulatory bases" and legitimises all public actions. As such, one can conceive education policy as necessarily drawing from and surrounded by laws, decrees, ordinances, acts, regulations, directives in guiding the provision of education.

The discussion on the legal framework that guides institutional and actors' practices justifies what different policy research movements call "institutional rules" (see, for example, Knoepfel et al., 2007). These are the formal structures and rules, which are explicit and legal, and also, the implicit informal norms which are shared by members of an organisation. The empirical findings by the historical school of neo-institutionalism demonstrate that institutional rules establish structures and procedures that make it possible although sometimes they may limit the participation of individuals in their different roles (ibid, p. 95). Since public policies (either substantive or procedural) are

directly associated with laws, regulations, rules, decrees and directives in ensuring the concrete implementation of activities and framing of the interaction of policy actors, RSA (n.d.) provides factors that must be taken into account by any policy framework, within which all administrative teams and service providers should operate. These are the policy instruments, which are part of policy support mechanisms at different levels of the legal framework in governing educational institutions and programmes:

### ***Constitutional rules and their role in NFE***

According to IFAD (n.d.), all procedures used to establish and/or modify the collective rules within an institution are determined by the constitutional rules. Constitutional rules are, therefore, at the broad/country level which bind all players and their activities, and establish a basis for legislations (RSA, n.d.). It is within this constitutional context that the sector policies—both substantive and procedural—and their respective Acts are directed. The implication is that a countrywide NFE policy and its subsequent implementation plans should be determined in the constitution. The current Tanzanian constitution, for instance, establishes that education in all spheres should be a fundamental right to every citizen (URT, 1998, p. 19). It is from this constitutional right that the education sector policies such as ETPs, and Acts, for example, the Education Act of 1978 as amended in 1995, and the Adult Education Act of 1975 were directed and devised from, to guide the provision of education in all forms including NFE today.

### ***Legislation and its role in NFE***

As a product of constitutional rules, legislation is termed as institutional *meta*-rules which guide policies and predetermine the specific rules within a particular policy framework (Knoepfel et al., 2007). Apart from translating the major principles of a specific sector policy into a legislative framework, these *meta*-rules set abstract objectives, lay down the overarching procedures and provide enforcement mechanisms (RSA, n.d.). Education Acts such as the Education Act of 1978 as amended in 1995 and the Adult Education Act of 1975 which guide the provision of education and NFE in particular in the country are good examples of this category.

### ***Regulations and their role in NFE***

According to Knoepfel et al. (2007), regulations are specific rules associated with a specific policy but predetermined in the *meta*-rules (legislation) that influence the

practices of all actors. They are also referred to as working rules (IFAD, n.d.), which bring predictability in behaviour and conformity in practices (Molle, 2007). In contrast to the legislation whereby objectives are abstractly stated, more concrete objectives are well-defined at this level of regulatory acts (Knoepfel et al., 2007). These regulations determine the roles of all actors, direct service providers and other actors on how to act and interact as directed in a specific policy (RSA, n.d.; IFAD, n.d.). Particular regulations which were found to be in force include the Non-government School Board (Establishment) Order of 2002; the Education (Approval of Owners and Managers and Registration of Non-government Schools) Regulations of 2002; and the Education (Registration of Teachers) Regulation of 2002. Although they were found to be in operation, they were less concerned about the provision of NFE in the country (see URT, 2013a, pp. 17-19).

### ***Ministerial policy directives***

Since public policies should be linked to the laws, and decrees in ensuring concrete implementation of the associated activities (Knoepfel et al., 2007), a particular ministry is also in a position to issue directives from time to time, for consideration by the regulators and all service providers (RSA, n.d.). The keynote, however, is for these ministerial policy directives to be in line with the established overall policies and legislations (ibid.). Guidelines for the implementation of programmes such as the Guidelines for the Establishment and Registration of Open Schools (2013) and the Secondary Education through Open and Distance Learning (SE-ODL) Implementation Guidelines in Tanzania (2013) are good examples.

### ***Collective roles of policy instruments***

The levels of the legal framework (policy instruments) as policy support mechanisms in governing NFE institutional practices make education policy to be translated tactfully as legislative and administrative activities geared towards resolving real educational problems (cf. Knoepfel et al., 2007, p. 91). Thus, such levels need to be well-established and understood as “the legal framework, including the different sorts of laws, rules and regulations that are in place, as well as the processes by which these are established and enforced, plays a key role in establishing how events and processes within an action arena are played out” (IFAD, n.d., p. 3, cf. Keming, 2011, p. 169). Such legal basis is mandatory for the policy as it is the basis for the primary legitimacy. In lifelong learning

activities for instance, consideration and understanding the legal framework affects the policy while strengthening the governance and management of learning programmes (Keming, 2011; Yang, 2015). The promotion of adults' education access, as well as quality and outcomes of the programmes are also determined, while controlling informal practices. This is rightly upheld by Rao and Li (2007) who contends that as government regulations, they also have a strong influence on schooling quality.

Apart from the policy support mechanisms (policy instruments) at different levels of the legal framework in guiding NFE institutions and practices in Tanzania, little is known in the empirical findings about the extent to which they are specific and relevant to guiding all NFE programmes including NFSE, harmonised and linked to each other, particularly, in reflecting and/or addressing NFSE issues, the way particular rules are set, and their functionality in guiding a particular set of actions and relationships in terms of roles of different NFSE supporting institutions and actors. All these are policy issues subjected to examination in the current study to fill the knowledge gap identified.

### **3.5.7 Policy role in guiding the provision of NFSE**

Different policy theorists have discussed the role of policy in general. Generally, there is a consensus that policy determines and controls practices (Williams, 2008; Bell & Stevenson, 2006), and prompts proper implementation and management of plans among stakeholders (Knoepfel et al., 2007) towards resolving educational problems. In the educational field, for example, policy sets objectives and activities that translate the broad goals of the macro development plans (Moshia, 2006). Moreover at the practical level, Lasky et al. (2005) and UIL (2009) describe the role of educational policy in determining and modelling the key aspects of schooling such as governance structures, school operating modalities, reform strategies, funding mechanisms, and actors' processes and outcomes. Conceived as public policy, these policy aspects establish a legal framework that links all forms of education provision into a cohesive system.

The education field is, however, increasingly becoming diversified with different forms of education provision towards building a learning society as advanced under the lifelong and life-wide philosophy. On this basis, Codd (1988) argues that the overriding purpose of state policies should be towards providing an equitable means for the provision of education as a social good among competing groups on the basis of their

needs. Thus, the NFE policy within such diverse forms of education provision plays a quite crucial role of promoting adults' educational access and equality, guaranteeing minimum standards of quality, promoting outcomes, and eliminating the informal practices in the country (Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991; Alamprese, 2011). Moreover, NFE facilitates proper allocation and efficient use of the little available resources as well as addressing the future demands and provision of NFE (Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991; Perraton, 2005). In the AE/NFE policy arena, policy is believed to guide NFE practices in a country (Williams, 2008), and thus it increases the effectiveness of actions within the government, and between the government and stakeholders when coherently developed and well-coordinated on the ground (UIL, 2009). However, a question might be on how such effectiveness of actions can be achieved. This is the issue of equitability and relevance of the NFE policy, which is another concern of this study (refer to subsection 3.5.8). NFE policy literature contends that although a policy for an innovation helps to garner long-term support from the lasting institutional systems and structures, it should be particular and rightful (Hawkins & Winter, as cited in Smith, 2002; Molle, 2007; Aitchison, 2012).

### **3.5.8 Policy relevance in guiding the provision of NFSE**

NFSE practices are based on the question of policy relevance, which underlies the worthiness of any policy. However, policy relevance is described at different levels of abstraction. To realise the quality of policy relevance at a broad level, for instance, literature offers manifold factors that should be considered in an NFE policy framework for it to be relevant. Drawing experience from Bangladesh, Ahmed (2002, 2008) established that in a research study on a country's efforts towards creating a learning society, their NFE policy was somewhat relevant compared to those of many other developing countries as it contained the key traits of a relevant policy. From those NFE policy traits, it was concluded as synthesised here thusly:

- i.* Since NFE comprises several programmes, the scope of its policy should be equally wide as it should cover all NFE programmes, their objectives, criteria of their internal efficiency and external effectiveness.
- ii.* The NFE policy in this regard should further specify the target groups of learners by addressing issues of equity and gender equality.
- iii.* Organisational and management structures are also important and, hence, should be stipulated in the NFE policy by defining the functions of the

institutions involved at different levels, stipulating professional concerns and support mechanisms, as well as decentralisation and partnership arrangements.

- iv.* Quality concerns must be addressed in the NFE policy by setting criteria of quality and indicators of performance in each programme, as well as establishing mechanisms for enforcing quality.
- v.* To ensure sustainability and ownership of the NFE programmes, the viability of the programmes in terms of costs and financing, institutional arrangements, and continuing relevance of programmes to the targeted groups should also be explicitly stated in the NFE policy.

Along the same line of argument, O’Gara et al. (2008), who attempted to analyse the policy options for early childhood development (ECD), argue that policy statements usually become irrelevant when they lack “clear operational objectives, strategies, programmes, indicators, targets, and structures” (p. 32). Their experience on ECD reveals further that most policy statements are insufficient as they fail to stipulate structural and organisational relationships among the actors involved, financial arrangements, evaluation, monitoring, and accountability measures. The factors stipulated are considered to be important in laying the basis for implementing NFE programmes and enforcing regulations, hence considered key in determining the NFE policy relevance (cf. Hoppers, 2007). They also enhance policy feasibility and effectiveness (UNESCO, 2013). Although the relevance factors of policy as discussed are germane, they seem to reflect policy relevance in a holistic view and at a broad level. The following sub-sections offer more specific aspects of policy relevance:

### ***Policy objectives versus public problem question***

At a more specific level, the relevance of a policy is considered to be one of the criteria in examining policy effects and policy quality. Basing on this criterion, policy analysts have to examine the relationship that exists between the set policy objectives and the public/social problem to be solved (Knoepfel et al., 2007). It requires addressing important matters of what is on the current public agenda and their applicability to social issues. This is echoed by Vreuls (2005) who poses an evaluative question in policy: “To what extent are the objectives justified in relation to needs?” (p. 4, cf. Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 12). With regard to the NFE policy as a central debate issue in the educational arena today, concerns of policy relevance revolve around how the NFE

policy responds to the needs identified (the hypothetical part), and/or how the results of the policy and programmes address those needs (the real part) (see also, UNESCO, 2013). In the light of this knowledge, one would argue that a policy can be described as relevant when its objectives and conceptions contained in the substantive policies and consequently concretised in the operational policies adapt to the nature of the public problem that should be solved. Johnson et al. (2004) consider it to be an alignment between the innovation and the needs of the stakeholders. This may further imply a definition of units of measure or indicators concerning the effects of a particular programme such as NFSE in social reality (effectiveness) which makes policy objectives and attendant values concrete. Those concrete policy objectives and values are key in determining their own level of being realised as they guide the policy's beneficiaries in finding the best solutions to their problems (Knoepfel et al., 2007).

### ***Global versus local question***

One of the questions that might arise might be on the NFSE needs that should be addressed in the NFE policy and where they should be derived from. Literature suggests that regarding the diverse nature of NFE, its needs to be addressed in the policy are also diverse to include social, economic and cultural needs. In responding to these needs, the NFE policy is influenced by the global and regional education development agendas (UNESCO, 2013). Nevertheless, a policy that seeks relevance and usefulness in practice requires taking in, the practical considerations such as specific systems in which the policy is to be applied, and the target groups. In this regard, Ben-Peretz (2009) suggests that a relevant policy should recognise some of the potential tensions between global and local influences on NFE practices to heed the voice of local practices while emphasising global changes and trends. The NFE policy relevance, therefore, is a function of the global-local synergy. Lyabwene (2007) asserts that for a pre-primary educational policy to be relevant enough, it should envisage local needs and objectives while remaining sensitive to the global trends. In this endeavour what is central in identifying appropriate needs, professional knowledge in a particular field among the policy-makers, public consultation in the policy-making process, and research-based information ought to be taken into account (Lyabwene, 2007; UNESCO, 2013).



### ***Learning programme versus learners' needs question***

According to UNESCO (2013), policies and plans which reflect the learners' needs identified through their objectives and conceptions should also be translated into high-quality programmes that reflect those learners' needs. However, experience in most countries on the general provision of secondary education shows that the orientation of secondary education programmes has been towards preparing students for higher education (ibid.). NFSE as one of the secondary education programmes in an NFE system takes the same route in the education policies and plans in Tanzania. Although it is key to realigning this in the policy, global NFE policy discourses insist that "life skills and labour market skills can result in better outcomes for students in terms of school participation and finding employment" (ibid., p. 47). These are needs that ought to be addressed in the NFE policies and programmes and, thus, related in a way with the relevance of curriculum which should also be adapted and localised in terms of content. It is about the guides of competence to be offered, which should be spelt out in the AE/NFE policy to effect the expected change (Olson, 2005). The link between the relevance of curriculum and policy arises because through curriculum as a major component, the NFE policy is expressed in the practices of education (Ben-Perez, 2009). All these aspects are considered quite crucial since policy has the foremost influence on NFE practices, particularly classroom practices (cf. Wood, 2004). Relevance at that level, and more importantly in the NFE programmes such as NFSE entails reflecting the needs of the country while equipping learners with sufficient knowledge, life skills and practical skills for the labour market. This approach also has the socio-economic relevance of the programme which, in essence, is the actual meaning of NFE. More specifically, meeting the needs of a targeted population is a primary goal of ensuring continuation/sustainability of any innovation (Johnson et al., 2004).

### ***Policy generality versus policy specificity/explicit question***

Policy specificity makes policy become more relevant and effective. For the NFE problems to be resolved, objectives to be achieved, practices to be carried out and plan of actions to be executed, it is important to be specific in the policy to ensure its relevance and practicality on the ground. Otherwise, vague and ambiguous policies could attract inaction or impunity. Indeed, empirical evidence shows that when AE/NFE policies are broad and vague, they fail to constitute actual responses to the



contemporary needs and demands of the society (Walker, 2011). On the other hand, since policy guarantees standards of quality, promotes outcomes, and eliminates the informal practices as discussed in sub-section 3.5.7, it thus requires specificity in setting regulation, quality assurance mechanisms, and teachers' qualifications. Research evidence also underscores the value of other key issues such as curriculum position, nature of the study materials, target group of learners and clientele's involvement, service regulation, and quality assurance measures, which need to be specific in policy and relevant to the needs of the people (see Lyabwene, 2007). They are also crucial in reducing possibilities for misinterpretations and in avoiding practices antithetical to professionalism in adult education.

Generally, the absence of policy specificity in education has been identified in the policy studies as one of the weaknesses of education policies that have existed in Tanzania, particularly, in NFE and early childhood education (see, for example, Lyabwene, 2007; Shirima, 2010). The situation makes it almost impossible to gauge what is needed to be implemented in the policy document, hence reinforcing the policy glaring blurriness. Such openness to policy misinterpretation produces inappropriate practices (Wood, 2004).

### **3.6 Basis for NFE Institutional Arrangements and their Roles**

The dimension of institutional arrangements and their roles in managing NFE programmes appears to be vital for the development of NFE, particularly in implementing, maintaining, and collectively enhancing programmes such as NFSE. It is, indeed, essential for the coordination of all activities and for effective financial and professional support hence, having a profound effect on the provision of NFSE. A number of studies have found good institutional arrangements as a means of ensuring sustainability capacity of an innovation or system (see, for example, Akerlund, 2000; Johnson et al., 2004). The following sub-sections discuss the basis for NFE institutional arrangements and their roles in managing a programme as the basic attributes for the provision and sustainability of NFSE.

#### **3.6.1 Well-established NFE institutional/administrative structure**

A successful provision of NFSE as envisioned in the country's policies, strategies and plans (refer sub-section 3.5.3) depend in large measure on the establishment of administrative structures within the NFE institutional framework. Such an arrangement

is a critical policy option in planning for open and distance education that should be addressed at the national level (Perraton, 2005). Its rationale is associated with how the education system is structured and organised, which significantly affects the implementation of educational plans and programmes (Mosha, 2006). The institutional structure can, thus, be described as a pattern of relationships—many interwoven, simultaneous relationships through which people under the direction of managers, pursue the established common goals (Mullins, 2010). In educational institutions, this refers to the administrative network within an institution which involves positions and people who occupy them, the organs that make policies, and the procedures that guide operations (Mosha, 2006). In this regard, education institutions have administrative structures which are formal patterns of relationships between and among people and units. In principle, the administrative structure is an assignment of roles and responsibilities to agencies and institutions engaged in service delivery (cf. Corlett, 2000; Molle, 2007). It also embodies the formal description of roles, authority relationships and positions within an institution (O’Neills, 1994; Bush & Middlewood, 2005).

### ***Establishing the institutional structure***

The provision of NFE in general and NFSE, in particular, involves various institutions and actors from different institutions, with each actor who are responsible for different roles. In other words, a work cannot be done without their interaction which is largely possible under a well-established administrative structure. Thus, the NFE institutional framework requires being guided by certain rules for the structuring of the work for the purpose of achieving the set programme goals. In establishing such structure, however, different schools of thought in institutional management offer different perspectives. The classical approach (scientific management and bureaucracy) for example, emphasises on a pre-determined formal structure and hierarchy of responsibilities (Mullins, 2010, p. 43). In the perspective of the contingency approach, on the other hand, there appears to be no one best, universal form of organisation but rather a large number of situational factors that should be considered as they tend to influence organisational performance (ibid.). The adoption of any of the frameworks depends on the context where it is applied. Taking into account the nature of AE/NFE activities, for instance, in organising, executing and controlling the functions of NFSE may require a more flexible institutional structure that allows for permeability and interaction among different units (supporting institutions) to avoid conflicting, overlapping and

duplication of functions between and among different units in the system. Thus, it is vital to have a structure that defines the limits within which actors must act, and also enables people and groups carry out their organisational activities in achieving the set aims and objectives (Rosengren, 1967; Mullins, 2010). In this regard, establishing the structure is a core function of the NFE planners and policy-makers.

### ***Role of administrative structure in managing NFSE***

In the education system, a well-established administrative structure facilitates effective institutional and programme management, and eventually the teaching and learning process which is the ultimate goal and function of all educational institutions (Kiwia, 1994). A formal administrative structure with levels of responsibility, clear job description, and well-understood reporting system is a powerful tool for effective administration and a set up for direct work performance in the education system (Knezerich, 1962; Hall, 1977; Kiwia, 1994). Bhalalusesa (2006) stresses in this regard that the provision of quality AE/NFE cannot be achieved without a well-established management and administrative structure. In practice, however, empirical findings suggest that education administrative structure in Tanzania particularly that of AE/NFE has hitherto been a great challenge to the effective management of educational institutions and in facilitating easy delivery of education despite several attempts aimed at improving it (Kiwia, 1994; Shirima, 2010). Such lack of sound administrative structure has also been causing mismanagement and failure of the NFSE programme for so long. It has been difficult, for instance, to identify NFE actors, areas of located authorities, and responsibilities for accountability as the institutional structure is one of the prerequisites for such control mechanisms (see, for instance, Mushi, 1983; Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002; Shirima, 2010). This ineffective institutional arrangement has empirically been tested to affirm that it was one of the critical challenges in strengthening the managerial and institutional capabilities of the most education systems in most developing countries (Lockheed et al., 1991).

On the other hand, Cunliffe (2008) asserts that “an effective organisation[al] structure and design is one that optimises the performance of the organisation and its members by ensuring that tasks, work activities and people are organised in such a way that goals are achieved” (p. 25). This argument is echoed further by Mullins (1989, 2010) who stresses that a well-established structure provides means of improving organisational

performance, monitoring the activities of the organisation, accountability in the areas of work and coordination of different parts. In the economies of scale, such institutional arrangements in managing the provision of NFSE would facilitate the use of a reasonable amount and the most appropriate types of resources in running institutional/programme functions and achieve set goals. In essence, a sound administrative structure makes adult education institutions function efficiently and effectively. In fact, it builds on the infrastructure capacity of the innovation, hence, key for the sustainability of NFSE (cf. Johnson et al., 2004).

### **3.6.2 NFE Institutional linkages**

Understanding institutional arrangements in terms of governance structures and their roles, as well as interdependence between institutions or within and among entities and individuals in an educational institution requires examining their linkages. In fact, all systems comprise structures which are represented by entities and sub-units linked together in interrelationships or connections (Mosha, 2006; Pedamallu et al., 2010). Institutional linkage refers to a structure within the system that connects two or more sub-systems in their relationships. Since the NFE institutional framework within which NFSE falls is a policy system with a particular structure, its elements are conceived as interrelated, interconnected and interdependent (refer to sub-section 4.2.1). Open and distance education, in particular, is termed as a multifaceted system which requires more effective linkages between and within different sub-systems to ensure harmonious relationships thrive (Powar, 2005). Linkage involves entities, actors, resources, and practices which in their relationships ensure that core functions of the system are effectively done in each domain. Although institutional entities require managerial autonomy and flexibility in performing their roles, the central premise of institutional linkage is to facilitate efficient arrangements for an administrative system which would ensure proper procedures, control and accountability. For it to be functional, it has to take place across all levels but essentially should be initiated at the high level of the administrative structure (cf. Lasky et al., 2005). Institutional linkage particularly in open and distance education institutions that offer programmes like NFSE can be examined in different ways:

### ***Intra-institutional linkage***

This is a structural linkage which operates at the broad policy level, between the state and local authorities as the key policy domains in affecting and managing the provision of education, and in ensuring educational programmes are funded and accountability of each part is the norm rather than the departure (Lasky, 2004). Linkage here implies mutual relationship across the enduring policy domains from the central administration to its key divisions, regions, districts, and subsequently learning centres (schools), and among all key actors within the NFE system (cf. Lasky et al., 2005; Powar, 2005). This systemic view of institutional linkage is reinforced by Yasunaga (2014) as quite crucial since it “strengthens collaboration among different levels of the education systems – central government, decentralised authorities, schools and communities” (p. 7).

### ***Inter-institutional/inter-sectoral linkage***

Governance of NFE is increasingly becoming complex as NFE is by its nature diverse and multi-sectoral and, hence, is attended by different systems and governance structures. NFSE as one of the NFE programmes is in policy and practice managed by two ministries—the MoEVT and the Prime Minister’s Office - Regional Administration and Local Government (PMO-RALG). However, Yasunaga (2014) argues that it is within that mixed context where NFE draws its strength, provided that the linkage of such inter-sectoral approach is appropriately supported by the appropriate broad systems and governance structures. This linkage also involves inter-institutional collaboration described as a form of working together among institutions for some form or similar goals and mutual benefits (Meijers & Stead, 2004). Linkage which entails collaboration and commitment of different ministries within the government is seen as a key measure in governing the provision of NFE as it recognises distinct roles of multiple actors, which in turn ensure legitimacy and prospects for the success of the programmes (UIL, 2010).

### ***Practicality of NFE institutional linkage***

Institutional linkage in any education system’s management can be divided into horizontal and vertical linkage. Whereas the former is concerning about different departments at the same level of the management hierarchy, the latter links different levels of the institution. However, the functionality of the discussed dimensions and types of institutional linkages are subject to a well-established administrative structure

and policy integration which addresses the management of cross-cutting issues that transcend the limits of a single institution and correspond to the institutional responsibilities of different departments. Such mechanisms improve the management of educational programmes hence, a need for forging effective linkages within and between educational systems (Bhagia, Briggs, & Bhagia, 1990; Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002). Although the linkage/collaboration that involves different actors in managing the provision of AE/NFE and curbing issues of out-of-school youth has been repeatedly emphasised in the local policies in Tanzania (see, for instance, URT, 2003, 2008a, 2006, 2012a), it remains rather weak and partially realised among adult education institutions within the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (Bhalalusesa, 2006). On the other hand, a collaboration between the MoEVT and the PMO-RALG, as well as between the government and non-state providers has never been strongly established on the ground (Macpherson, 2007). As a matter of fact, empirical evidence suggests that even when a linkage is established in policies, it has been relatively ineffectual since it has never been adequately applied. The same situation has consequently been causing serious difficulties in implementing educational plans and programmes in most developing countries today as the components of their education systems have been haphazardly disjointed and poorly organised (Mosha, 2006). In Uganda, for example, the biggest challenge in AE has been a lack of linkage and collaboration among government ministries, departments and service providers (Ismail, 2008).

### ***Role of institutional linkage in managing NFE***

Sink and Smith Jr. (1994) contend that for a change to occur in implementing any interventions, linkage among entities as well as within and across levels of the organisation must be strengthened (cf. Mosha, 2006). Such linkages facilitate co-operation among organisational units that implement an innovation and eventually contribute to its sustainability (Foster-Fishman et al., 2001; Johnson et al., 2004). In education, it improves the management of educational programmes within and between the education systems (Bhagia, et al., 1990). As a bridge, it forms a connection between disconnected or independent units towards working on and achieving common institutional goals. In this regard, Lasky (2004) asserts that it is “an expression of existing capacity, while also being an aspect of capacity building” (p. 4). When the linkage is coherently established between the AE/NFE and its cognate policy domains, it enhances efficiency in education provision, facilitates coordination, and helps to make

best use of resources available. Such governance measures in Indonesia, for instance, have yielded positive results in directing budgets to different programmes, setting-up of key performance indicators in AE/NFE within the system, and establishing a stronger legitimacy and prospects for success for both government institutions and providers (UIL, 2010).

In addition, two different models of programme sustainability by Johnson et al. (2004) and Mancini and Marek (2004) collectively embrace effective linkage as an important element in fostering sustainability of an innovation. However, the establishment and strengthening of institutional linkages at the policy level bear practical realities and produce more beneficial outcomes mainly for the decentralised structures and functions (Vijayalakshmi & Vyasulu, 2002). The challenge might, however, be in understanding the linkages that should exist in institutional or system's structure, the entities that should be linked, and the implications of those linkages for the functioning of those entities which are of central concern in this study.

### **3.6.3 Coordinating NFE activities**

Linkage and collaboration in institutional management are sometimes mistakenly used to mean coordination. However, Vaughn (1994) clarifies that linkage and collaboration are at a high level, and particularly for on a mutually agreed-upon goal or task within or among the institutions, whereas coordination begins to evolve as the functions of the actors are established. Thus, the presence of a linkage does not guarantee that activities, resources and communication within and across institutional levels (policy domains) are coordinated in improving the provision of education and, more importantly, in teaching and learning (Lasky, 2004; Lasky et al., 2005). In the general field of management, coordination as one of the key managerial functions delineated by Henri Fayol is to "harmonise all the activities of a concern so as to facilitate its working and its success ....to accord things and actions their rightful proportions, and to adapt means to ends" (Lamond, 1998, p. 3). From the educational perspective, it is primarily like a thread that links different activities and responsibilities, as well as programmes, which should be recognised for successful implementation of the complex policies and plans (Mosha, 2006). Situating the term in AE/NFE entails proper order of relationship or harmonious interaction of functions towards solving challenges in adult education programmes (Bwatwa, 1982).



### ***Prerequisite for effective coordination***

From the systems point of view (refer to sub-section 4.2.1), an institution such as NFE is a system of consciously coordinated activities of two or more units or persons (cf. Barnard, 1938; Cornell & Jude, 2015). However, one cannot possibly and practically coordinate educational programmes and their activities unless they are well-planned along the country's policy. Furthermore, Lockheed et al. (1991) argue that when roles and responsibilities are unplanned and unclear, coordination is difficult which leads to general administrative weaknesses at different levels. On the policy basis, as discussed in sub-section 3.1.2, the stipulated constituent policy components such as administrative activities ( a group of actions) and selected goals which should be accomplished are the ones which set direction in the coordination process between and among the parties concerned (Knoepfel et al., 2007; Simonson, 2007). The established rules and guidelines within the policy are, therefore, the primary vehicles for coordinating the institutional work and practices of all actors (see also, Bush, 2006). On the other hand, coordinating activities of various departments and units towards common goals is largely determined by the organisation's structure (Cunliffe, 2008; Mosha, 2006). Within the organisational structure, roles and responsibilities of all elements of an institution or programme that require coordination are established and the patterns of their relationships are developed. Regardless of the institutional complexities, coordination is enabled by communication (Lockheed et al., 1991).

### ***Role of coordination in NFE programmes***

NFSE as one of the AE/NFE programmes operates in a multifaceted system which involves different institutions and providers with different activities and responsibilities that require effective coordination. In this case, coordination is one of the crucial components of management and a mandatory function of all managers at different institutional levels (Cunliffe, 2008). In education, it is upheld as crucial for the complementarity of efforts and activities among institutions responsible for education in overseeing the implementation of plans and programmes (Mosha, 2006). Coordinating activities of such integrated parts promotes efficiency and effectiveness of institutional performance (Cornell & Jude, 2015). In adult education, it brings about some order, harmony and efficiency by dividing up adult education activities into a routine and non-routine tasks (Mushi, 1983). From these perspectives, the function of coordination becomes instrumental in ensuring that each part of the organisation functions properly



for the set goals to be attained as NFE activities are diverse and cut across different levels.

### ***Practical experience in coordinating NFE activities***

Given the partnership between the government and private providers in the AE/NFE, effective coordination of all activities at the national, regional, district, and local levels becomes fundamental and necessary for effective implementation and good management of the programmes such as NFSE. The global report on adult learning and education published by UNESCO in 2013 acknowledges the increase of stakeholders' involvement and establishment of coordination mechanisms in developing and implementing AE/NFE policies and programmes among UNESCO member states (UIL, 2013). Nonetheless, the question on the coordination mechanisms for those programmes within the governments' structures remains. In Tanzania, AE/NFE is poorly organised because its activities are carried out without proper coordination (Mushi, 1983; Shirima, 2010). The provision of NFE is conducted by a range of NGOs in an uncoordinated manner, with little or no control from the government in all aspects of policy and practice (Macpherson, 2007). This fact is supported by empirical evidence which shows that, while the number of private NFSE providers is increasing significantly in Tanzania, there has been a lack of proper coordination of their activities by the government at different levels, and more haphazardly at the national level (Shirima, 2010; Kanukisya, 2012). As a result, there has been a lack of information on their operation and funding mechanisms (URT, 2008b). In comparison to other countries, three other studies (Ruto, 2004; Hoppers, 2007) similarly reveal that non-formal schools' activities and particularly NFSE in both Kenya and Uganda were operating in a vague and uncoordinated fashion within the education institutional framework. Such ineffective coordination translated into inefficiencies and parallel provision structures (UIL, 2010). Eventually, it affects the quality and sustainability of the programmes.

Several reports by UNESCO suggest that the ineffective coordination of AE/NFE policies and actions within governments and between governments and stakeholders is quite often and common in most developing countries (UIL, 2009, 2010). One of the reasons mentioned in many countries is a lack of inter-sectoral approaches to governance and policy in AE/NFE, and non-existent transparent accountability

measures (UIL, 2010, p. 12). Altogether these are consequences of lack of decentralisation to the regional and local levels which has always been more apparent than real (see, for example, UIL, 2009). This is rightly supported by the empirical evidence, which affirms that the kind of decentralisation adopted for NFSE in Tanzania largely meant sole autonomy and responsibility of private providers in offering NFSE at the local level (Kanukisya, 2012). In this regard, Hugkuntod and Tips (1987) termed such sham decentralisation and bureaucracy as the enemy of coordination, particularly, at the local level which constrains the effective programme implementation.

On the other hand, Hoppers (2007) established in his research findings on NFE programmes' integration in Uganda that lack of a national coordination unit to deal with NFE activities across ministries, as well as the absence of full-flagged and functional AE/NFE departments in the Ministry of Education adversely affected coordination and supervision of programmes and their activities. Other literature suggest that the challenges of inter-sectoral coordination can be attributed to the complex relationships and lines of accountability, which are difficult to manage (Meijers & Stead, 2004). For Tanzania, this problem arises due to limited capacity to coordinate AE/NFE activities at different levels (Mnjagila, 2011). All these difficulties of coordination of AE/NFE activities result from unfriendly administrative structures and broken lines of communication from the top to the local levels which have consequently caused unsatisfactory sustainability of the provision of NFE (Mushi, 1983; Shirima, 2010).

#### **3.6.4 Ensuring NFE quality through monitoring and evaluation**

Monitoring and evaluation of the manner in which NFE programmes and policies are put into practice is important to ensure and control quality in terms of relevance of the curriculum in use, quality of facilitators, quality of infrastructure and facilities, adherence to policies and regulations, and in measuring the qualitative and quantitative achievements of the programme (cf. Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002). Monitoring and evaluation, therefore, help to improve performance and achieve the desired results. Its overall purpose is to measure and assess performance to manage the expected outcomes and accomplish the plans more effectively. This should be periodically done depending on how it is conducted using recognised performance indicators (Powar, 2005). Thus, it is an important stage and a core function of all NFE institutions and managers in managing the provision of non-formal education.

### ***Monitoring NFSE programme***

Sustainability of NFSE as an education programme is linked to the established mechanism of tracking the implementation of its activities by using different ways, such as visits and inspection of the learning centres, classroom observation, and periodic reporting from the centre to the ministerial level. Mgulambwa (1998) asserts that learners, facilitators, managers and their roles should be monitored continuously to enable stakeholders adjust the practices and monitor the progress of each unit involved while establishing a system of constant reporting and feedback (cf. Powar, 2005). This is a key role the NFE supporting institutions play across levels in the NFE system for quality control and assurance. In Tanzania, the mandate is delegated to the IAE but coordinators at different NFE institutional levels, school inspectors and other practitioners are also involved in performing this task. According to Mushi and Bhalalusesa (2002), this system for NFE activities in Tanzania is unsystematic and has done little in providing reliable information on internal processes of NFE policy implementation. This situation is attributable to the fragmented policies which have also caused lack of legitimacy of AE/NFE (Shemweta et al., 2008; Mnjagila, 2011). As an internal function of education institutions, monitoring of a programme such as NFSE should be established and strengthened to emphasise standards geared to fostering performance indicators of efficiency, effectiveness and impact for its sustainable provision.

### ***NFSE programme evaluation***

Mosha (1980) argues that *evaluation* is the process of appraising, reviewing, regulating and controlling performance to conform to certain standards, to measure performance, watching deviations, and take corrective actions. The purpose of evaluation is to ascertain clearly how effective and efficient the programme has been in providing education to the special group of learners it caters for. Its application to NFSE is through assessing, regardless of whether the intended institutional and programme goals have been achieved.

There are two types of evaluations: internal or external evaluation. Internal evaluation involves an organisation or project serving as its mirror and assessing how it is doing to learn and improve practice whereas external evaluation is carried out by a team from outside the organisation (Shapiro, 2001). Evaluation of teaching and learning, as well as

students' progress, for instance, is an integral part of institutional/programme management. The process serves a number of purposes such as judging the extent to which constructive learning takes place (Bergevin *et al.*, 1966). Thus, information obtained can be used to make educational decisions on students, provide feedback to students on their progress, strengths and weaknesses, and judge instructional effectiveness.

Continuous evaluation should be designed to monitor the progress of the programme and identify problems, weaknesses and challenges. This should be done through monthly and quarterly reports from the learning centres upward to the ministerial level as advocated by Mushi and Bhalalusesa (2002). The process should, therefore, be participatory in nature as it should involve as many actors with a direct stake in the work as possible, continuously, systematically and objectively.

### **3.7 Array of Specific Empirical Studies on NFE**

Appropriate literature review in a scientific study requires being complemented by specific research-based information. Apart from empirical evidence used to support arguments in this thesis, this section presents findings of the previous empirical studies, specifically conducted in the similar area of study though in different contexts. The overarching aim of this review is to get specific insights from related researches that would shape and improve procedures for conducting the current study, help to establish the existing knowledge gap, and inform the current findings.

#### **3.7.1 Related empirical studies from developed world**

A number of empirical studies have researched on policy and institutional practices pertaining to the provision of AE/NFE in developed nations such as Australia, the US, and Lithuania. Mcpherson (2008) conducted a study on online secondary education to identify policy changes across institutional levels that impacted on online secondary students' success in Florida Virtual School (FLVS) in the US. Informed by the *institutional theory* and applying the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis of data, the study established that although there was a saturation point at which changes in policy and funding system (coercive policies) resulted in positive outcomes, their introduction impacted more directly on the organisation, and students' success increased due to the mimetic policies (competition and best practices) introduced.

Mcpherson concluded that educational institutions should consider adopting mimetic policies to implement the coercive policies that impact programmes and institutions.

On the other hand, Kuncaitis (2009) conducted a study in Lithuania on the factors that influenced accessibility to adult learning in the context of the European Union educational policy. Grounded in empiricism, pragmatism and social constructivism theories, the study found that strategic plans/policies for AE were in place, shaped by the EU policy guidelines and political objectives, and constantly rolled and improved from time to time to meet the expectations of modern life in Lithuania. The researcher concluded that political and socio-economic settings were the objective factors that shaped the demand and determined the supply of educational services through models of financing, which impacted directly on AE/NFE provision.

As far as programme sustainability is concerned, Graeme and Rosalind (2005) conducted a study in Victoria, looking at the factors that foster programme sustainability in two educational initiatives. The study strongly indicated that any education programme which had political support and was a priority of the government was likely to sustain and was more than a “one-off” intervention. Moreover, the study found that strong planning could support sustainability factors across the areas of the programme. These findings provide a general understanding that sustainability of educational programme is influenced by both the political will and policy context.

### **3.7.2 Related empirical studies from sub-Saharan Africa**

Hoppers (2007) conducted a policy case-study on NFE programmes that served as an alternative for the children and youth who could not access regular formal education in Uganda to explore how those programmes were integrated into the mainstream education system. It was established that education policy in Uganda treats NFE as complementary to the regular provision of formal schooling, whereas the efforts for mainstreaming were evident in the policy, according NFE an equal chance of being treated as basic education in the national budget. Such NFE policy characteristics stand out as goals to be pursued by many other countries as empirical evidence shows that they were unique and useful. Furthermore, Hoppers found that in spite of the involvement of different sector departments, CBOs and local NGOs, all NFE programmes were under the administrative control of the government (national and

local), with the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) agencies such as the National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC), the Education Standards Agency (ESA), and the Uganda National Examination Board (UNEB) involved in and working jointly at different points in the NFE implementation. To accomplish all that, however, it was noted that MoES recognised political will as a pivotal factor in achieving EFA.

Another study in the same region by Ruto (2004) investigated how alternative learning approaches, particularly of the Non-Formal Schools (NFSs), contributed to the provision of basic education in Kenya. Using an interactive research design—mixing the quantitative (institutional mapping survey) and the qualitative (case studies) paradigms—the study found that despite NFSs accorded a big role in EFA, no accompanying changes in policy and financing were introduced and its ability to provide an equitable learning experience was not fully examined, which altogether jeopardised the sustainability of the NFSs. The study also found the lack of policy and clarity on the place of NFS in the overall basic education plan. This situation resulted in lack of legal definition of NFSs, implying that NFSs were operating in a vague and uncoordinated manner, with systematic monitoring remaining elusive.

### **3.7.3 Related empirical studies in Tanzania**

Several studies have been conducted on NFE in Tanzania, but few have focused on NFSE. A more recent study on NFSE was a comparative study by Kanukisya (2012), who looked at the effects of globalisation on AE in developing countries using Tanzania and Uganda as twin case studies. The study employed the globalisation theory as a framework. The study established that, under globalisation, the increasing demand for secondary education was faster than the expansion of formal schools' capacity to absorb new entrants. The resultant void facilitated the emergence of, NFSE centres, which operated as shadow education as they were officially unmapped and they were unsystematically coordinated.

Another study on NFSE was conducted by Shirima (2010) on the management and sustainability of non-formal ordinary secondary education programme (NFOSEP) using a case study design to examine the extent to which management practices contributed to the sustainability of the programme. With its research dimensions of organisational structure, availability and mobilisation of resources, and monitoring and evaluation, the

findings reinforced the conclusion that sustainability of NFOSEP was not guaranteed because of the existing gaps among NFE stakeholders, which were triggered by the fragmented NFE guidelines and organisational structure, lack of monitoring, weak link and poor coordination within and between the NFE programmes, as well as between the key institutions responsible for education.

### **3.8 Synthesis and Research Knowledge Gap**

Many of the authors cited in this literature review addressed both policy and institutional management issues, which are instrumental in the provision and sustainability of NFE programmes, though not in their interplay. Even those who attempted to link both the policy and management facets (see, for example, Powar, 2005; Bell & Stevenson, 2006; Mosha, 2006; Molle, 2007) did not categorically mention how those facets influenced each other and let alone indicate the extent to which they may warrant sustainability of an innovation such as NFSE through building, supporting and strengthening sustainability capacity of such an innovation. This study bridges such a gap by addressing both the NFE policy and institutional dimensions in their interplay, and their impact on the sustainable provision of NFSE.

Furthermore, scholars both nationally and internationally have focused on AE/NFE in general. AE/NFE policy developments and practices, as well as institutional arrangements and governance practices both in developed and developing countries as captured in different UNESCO reports and other publications suggest that authors have drawn much attention to basic AE/NFE programmes whereas continuing programmes such as NFSE are largely ignored both in research and theoretical discourses. Besides, the practical experiences offered, that worked out well particularly in ensuring the sustainability of educational innovations are largely carried out in developed countries (see Graeme & Rosalind, 2005; Fullan, 2007; Mcpherson, 2008; Kuncaitis, 2009). Thus, there was a need to conduct a study that addresses the related issues in the Tanzanian context.

Although few studies by Ruto (2004), Shirima (2010) and Kanukisya (2012) addressed policy and management issues related to NFSs in the African context, they were not as comprehensive and as interdisciplinary as the theoretical background of the present study have intimated. In particular, they did not address those issues in their



complementarity and lacked a specific focus on the challenges imposed on the programme and its respective institutions in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE, and the extent to which they impinged on its sustainability.

Methodologically, a study by Mcpherson (2008) used a quantitative approach and was guided by positivistic assumptions whereas Ruto (2004) used a mixed approach (both quantitative and qualitative approaches) in data collection and analysis that could not sufficiently capture the feelings of the NFE policy-makers and institutional managers in their real contexts. Such information is best captured in a qualitative research, the perspective adopted in this study that favours the social construction of reality rather than positivism.

Regarding the knowledge gap that this study sought to fill, the major thrust of this thesis was on the established NFE policy and institutional arrangements and their roles in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE towards attaining its sustainability. To that end, different concepts about the role and relevance of the policies, administrative structure, formal linkages, roles and administrative functions were reviewed in the theoretical framework and studied in their interplay as they are key in building, supporting and strengthening infrastructural capacity of an innovation (sustainability capacity) to sustain NFSE as an innovation (cf. Huberman & Miles, 1984; Johnson et al., 2004). Furthermore, the challenges imposed by the NFE policy and institutional arrangements are also investigated in this thesis. In this case, this study broaches diverse facts in a wider scope in a bid to fill the knowledge gap. The following chapter presents the approaches to policy analysis and concrete theoretical underpinnings of the study.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **POLICY ANALYSIS FRAMEWORKS AND THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF THE STUDY**

“The function of theory, which I define as an integrated body of proposition, the derivation of which leads to explanation of some social phenomenon, is to give order and insight to research activities.” (Denzin, 2009, p. 5).

As clearly delineated in chapter one, this study addresses the policy and institutional dimensions pertaining to the provision and management of NFSE within the NFE institutional framework. However, educational institutions are complex characterised by weak ties between policy and administration. Basing on this fact, it was deemed difficult for a researcher to apply a single theory that could provide a broader lens and profoundly guide the description of the role and relevance of the adopted NFE policies, as well the institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the establishment and provision of NFSE in a sustainable way. It was, therefore, important to draw from diverse theoretical frameworks (perspectives and approaches to policy analysis, as well as theories and principles of institutional management) to inform the conduct of this study and its findings. By establishing this theoretical frame, it informs and determines the direction of this study, particularly, in applying concepts in analysing policies and examining the way NFE institutional framework was really functioning in managing the provision of NFSE. The adopted perspectives, approaches, and theories are thus, considered in their complementarity to inform this study, whereby related concepts were drawn to illuminate on observing, perceiving, analysing and describing the key aspects of the current topic. The next sections present the adopted theoretical frameworks:

#### **4.1 Theoretical Frameworks for Policy Analysis**

The task of educational policy analysis constitutes a crucial part in understanding the role, relevance and effectiveness of the policies adopted in guiding the provision of education. Policy theorists have described policy from diverse perspectives within which different types, purposes and criteria of analysis are construed. It is briefly viewed as a study of what governments do, why and to what effect (Bell & Stevenson, 2006; Fimyar, 2014). From Codd's (1988) perspective, policy analysis is a form of enquiry which offers either the informational base that helps in constructing policy or the critical examination

of the existing policies (p. 235). These two edges of policy analysis articulated by Codd are more detailed in Gordon et al. (1997, p. 5), who offer a clear distinction based on particular criteria. The former constitutes analysis *for* policy and the latter is analysis *of* policy (cf. Bell & Stevenson, 2006, p. 10; Fimyar, 2014, p. 7). Thissen and Walker (2013) point out that analysis *for* policy also called *ex-ante* policy analysis takes two further forms—*policy advocacy* which provides specific policy recommendations, and *information for policy* which provides policy-makers with necessary information for actual policy formulation (cf. Codd, 1988; Bell & Stevenson, 2006; Fimyar, 2014). Analysis *of* policy (*ex-post*), on the other hand, deals with the *analysis of policy determination and effect* which examines the inputs and processes during the construction of a policy and its effects on different groups. *Analysis of policy content* examines the contained values, constituent elements, assumptions and ideologies in policy (ibid.). In accordance with the requirements of this study's objectives, analysis of educational policies takes the direction of *analysis of policy content* involving the analysis of the content of various educational policy documents. Bell and Stevenson (2006) treat this type of policy analysis as one which focuses on “understanding the origin, intentions and operation of specific policies” (p. 11). The next sub-sections 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 present the theoretical frameworks adopted in analysing policies in this study.

#### **4.1.1 Textual deconstruction approach to policy documents analysis**

A *textual deconstruction approach* to policy content analysis by Codd (1988) was adopted in this study to guide the examination of the role and relevance of policy support mechanisms adopted to guide the provision of NFSE. Codd asserts that policy content analysis entails “...examining the values, assumptions and ideologies underpinning the policy process.” (p. 236). Thus, policy documents are regarded as texts which can be decoded through various methods and theories of textual analysis (ibid.). Similarly in other frameworks of policy analysis, policy content connotes policy text (see Taylor et al., 1997; Bell & Stevenson, 2006). With regard to policy as text, Bell and Stevenson pose key questions such as “How is the policy articulated and framed? What does the policy aim to do? What are the values contained within the policy? Are these explicit, or implicit? Does the policy require action, if so what and by whom?” (p. 12). These policy concerns are quite relevant and applicable in the course of examining the role and relevance of the NFE policies adopted that guide the NFSE provision.

Nevertheless, different educational policy researchers and analysts variously argue that policy analysis can be done by treating policy as a text or as a discourse (cf. Grundy, 1994; Ball, 1995; Grundy & Bonser, 1997; Ball, 1998). This is, however, due to the existence of various methods and theories of decoding policy texts. The traditional approach to policy analysis, for instance, interprets policy as proposed courses of action for political purposes by merely undergoing textual analysis, which largely considers the nature of the language used to transmit information, thoughts, and values (Codd, 1988). Unlike this traditional approach, which is based upon the idealist assumptions, the adopted *textual deconstruction approach* guides the examination of divergent meanings, contradictions, and structured omissions contained in the policy documents and, more importantly, their different effects in a bid to expose the ideological processes behind the production of the text (Codd, 1988, cf. Ball, 1995).

#### ***Application of textual deconstruction approach to the education policy***

Adoption of the *textual deconstruction approach* to policy content analysis in education is an alternative to analysing educational policy documents on the basis of the theories of discourse developed from the materialist conception of language (Codd, 1988). Depending upon the context in which educational policy documents were read and analysed in this study, the current policy analysis was construed more or less as textual deconstruction whereby policy statements in various educational policy documents were critically examined for their educational intentions and meanings for NFSE provision revealed in form of values and goals, assumptions, and strategies underpinning its provision, and their effects as suggested by Codd. In this regard, educational policy documents that guided the provision of NFSE were regarded as texts, inductively coded and subjected to content analysis (see section 5.8 for further details).

#### ***Relevance of textual deconstruction approach to this study***

Codd's approach was deemed useful and robust as it enabled the study to describe and interpret the content of the adopted policies, their conflicting assumptions and goals, and serenity of meanings of the messages contained in the texts. This approach was crucial in understanding how the given ends of NFSE provision were to be attained (Codd, 1988). It, thus, shed light on and guided this examination in describing and understanding the role, relevance, and effectiveness of the adopted policies and their impact on the provision of NFSE.

### ***Criticism to the textual deconstruction approach***

Despite the *textual deconstruction approach* being presented by Codd (1988) as objective in examining values contained, contradictions, coherence and relevance of the values and goals inscribed in the policy, other key policy issues such as policy appeal to the authority, as well as the factual and feasibility evidence which should be demonstrated in the policy for the successful implementation cannot be comprehensively examined within this framework. To overcome the constraints which textual deconstruction approach suffers from, and also to integrate insights essential in guiding policy content analysis in this study, a pragmatic framework for policy evaluation was considered.

#### **4.1.2 Pragmatic framework for evaluation of policy arguments**

To get into details on the role and relevance of the NFE policy content in guiding provision of NFSE, the adopted approach by Codd was also tied to the pragmatic framework for evaluation of policy arguments as proposed by Ball (1995). This is a policy evaluation framework inspired by a pragmatic philosophy which is based on the fact that a relevant policy argument should support its claims with facts and values (Ball, 1995). In this case, policy argument is conceived as a statement that promotes and justifies the decision for policy adoption. Drawing upon traditional pragmatists such as Dewey, Pierce and James, Ball insists on practicality and clear goal orientation in addressing particular problems as pragmatism demands.

#### ***Application of pragmatic framework to the education policy evaluation***

The pragmatic framework for evaluation of policy arguments guides educational researchers to look at the important values contained in the policy, their appropriateness, link between the statements of value and the specific policy claim and their implication, contradictions and coherence between the educational values, appeal to authority, the way the institutional values have been set, majority interests covered, as well as factual and feasibility evidence (Ball, 1995, pp. 17-21). It embraces practicality and clear goal orientation. This policy evaluation process, according to Ball, is quite crucial and practical since the strength of the factual and value statements, and the components of political feasibility (viable action) that support a policy claim, determine the value of policy arguments and qualify a particular educational policy as relevant and feasible.

### ***Relevance of pragmatic framework to this study***

In this study, the pragmatic approach adopted for the evaluation of policy arguments was deemed to be specific, comprehensive, relevant and important enough for adoption in the current study in examining the role, coherence and relevance of the adopted NFSE policy mechanisms. It provided a suitable and robust framework for this study in delineating the nature, purpose, appropriateness and implication of the policy arguments much more clearly than other approaches. Moreover, it enabled the researcher to deal with key elements of policy content in an integrated and reflective manner and provided visibility to the policy role and relevance in guiding the provision of NFSE as intended in this study.

## **4.2 Theoretical Underpinnings on Institutional Processes**

To find a proper way of viewing the establishment, provision and sustainability of the NFSE programme and describe the functioning of the NFSE institutional arrangements in managing all the NFSE practices, there was also a need to opt for integrating multiple theories that offered a myriad of lenses. In their complementarities, the following theories have been considered in this study:

### **4.2.1 Systems theory**

Literature shows that educational institutions are normally formed by interrelated, interconnected and interdependent elements as a larger system (Mosha, 2006). Regarding this system orientation adopted in the current study, data was also planned to be collected from different units and levels within the NFE institutional framework as a whole (refer to the methodological chapter). Thus, in ensuring proper examination of the NFE policy and institutional arrangements and their role and linkage in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE within the NFE system, the study was based on the *systems theory*.

### ***Background to the systems theory***

Systems contain parts or entities that interact with each other in a coherent whole and produce outputs (Johnson, Kast & Rosenzweig, 1964; Frick & Thompson, 2004; Mosha, 2006; Mele, et al., 2010; Pedamallu, Ozdamar, Ganesh, Weber & Kropat, 2010). In a more advanced meaning thus, *systems theory* is a theoretical perspective that analyses a phenomenon as a whole in a bid to understand sets of its objects, components,

functions, and their relationships, as well as their connectedness to the environment (Corlett, 2000; Mele et al., 2010; Cornell & Jude, 2015). As initially pioneered by Ludwig von Bertalanffy far back in the 1930s, the systems theory has been widely applied across fields of science, research, education, policy, industry, management and organisation to solve problems of a whole system by looking at the interactions of its parts (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972; Frick & Thompson, 2004; Jones & Bartlett Learning, 2010; Mele et al., 2010).

For systems such as NFE to function, Jones and Bartlett Learning (2010, p. 2) argues that they should have key components such as *elements* which comprise people, materials, facilities, and financial package; *interconnection* among the parts of the programme; *functions*; and *feedback* (cf. Hefler, 2012, p. 58). More specifically for education institutions, systems comprise supporting institutions such as curriculum development institutes, inspectorate units, examination councils and adult education institutions that support the service provided (Mosha, 2006). On that basis, the role of managing the provision of NFSE within the NFE institutional framework can be studied using the concepts of the systems theory as it provides a framework for envisioning and analysing both internal and external contextual factors and processes as an integrated whole (Johnson, Kast & Rosenzweig, 1964). In this study, systems refer to the NFE policy and institutional structure holistically studied to establish their role and linkage in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE.

### ***Strengths and application of the systems theory in education***

Under the systemic perspective, systems are normally considered in relation to supra-systems which are hierarchically ordered to influence the systems; and with sub-systems which are directed and managed by the systems (Mele et al., 2010). Such functioning of systems contributes to the system's finality. Empirically, a study conducted to examine the application of the systems theory in modern-day organisations in a private company in Nigerian, for example, revealed that the systems theory of management is relatively practical whereby the organisation under review had sub-systems that worked together as a whole, and consequently enhanced the organisational sustainability and effectiveness (Cornell & Jude, 2015). Since institutional systems share similar features, the revealed empirical findings have implications for educational institutions including NFE.

With regard to the educational field, a system as a concept and theory is helpful to educational managers in knowing their position as part of larger entities and their functional interactivity in a more encompassing whole (Porter & Córdoba, 2009). System thinking in educational institutions, for example, brings challenges together for better understanding of their impact and required actions across domains (Reason, 2007). For meaningful interventions to occur within an educational institution, Porter and Córdoba insist on conceiving educational institutions principally as a system. Thusly, the application of *systems theory* in the management of educational institutions and programmes such as NFSE helps in understanding “the complexity and tensions behind sustainability-related issues and provides frameworks and tools for developing and implementing solutions” (Porter & Córdoba, 2009, p. 324). Banathy and Jenlink (2004) in their seminal work on “systems inquiry and its application in education” assert that the systems view of education enables us to explore, understand and describe the following:

- i.* Characteristics of the “embeddedness” of educational systems operating at several interconnected levels (e.g., institutional, administrative, instructional, learning experience levels).
- ii.* Relationships, interactions, and mutual interdependencies of systems operating at those levels within educational systems.
- iii.* Relationships, interactions, and information/matter/energy exchanges between educational systems and their environments.
- iv.* Dynamics of interactions, relationships, and patterns of connectedness among the components of systems (Banathy & Jenlink, 2004, p. 47).

Although systems inquiry is revealed to be under-conceptualised and underutilised in education (Banathy & Jenlink, 2004), the few studies which have studied the application of systems theory in managing educational institutions have affirmed its potentiality and usefulness. Research by Oyebade (n.d.) for instance, studied the application of the systems theory in students’ conflict management in Nigeria’s tertiary institutions and found that the systems theory was relevant for managers in placing the institutional issues in a clearer perspective and also instrumental in searching for genuine and lasting solution to students’ conflicts. This approach may also be applied in figuring out solutions for the NFE policy and institutional challenges towards ensuring the proper and sustainable provision of NFSE. At a more administrative level, another study by Gibbs (1990) established that the systems theory was highly applicable to the educational administration as it is an effective method for everyday practical administrative decision making, effective evaluation and improved communication.



***Specific relevance of the systems theory to the current study***

In this particular undertaking, the systems theory has been adopted as the reality in an institution is far more complicated than the formal hierarchical structures which just divide up work and units and establish relationships, by requiring a much more sophisticated understanding of those relationships in managing institutions and programmes (cf. Corlett, 2000). Such interactions and relationships between parts in the system are in understanding an entity's organisation, its functioning and outcomes (Mele et al., 2010).

Nevertheless, the systems theory as an interdisciplinary theory that guides almost every system in nature has different approaches and, thus, there are conflicting elements from the diverse systems perspectives (Mele et al., 2010). To avoid such conflict in using the systems theory to examine and describe NFSE institutional processes, the study considered a specific perspective of *institutional systems* and borrowed only those concepts that suited the current research undertaking (cf. Mele et al., 2010, p. 127). To envision and analyse the functioning and roles of the institutional elements (supporting institutions) as a system, the following specific concepts/assumptions of the systems theory are particularly relevant to the current study as applied in the contemporary organisations and programmes:

*Interrelated subsystems:* This is a key tenet of the systems theory which relies on the principle that a system has functional identifiable parts that affect each other, with the whole remaining greater than the sum of its parts (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972; Ansari, 2004; Jones & Bartlett Learning, 2010). Focus thus should be on the relationship among the parts within the system rather than on reducing an entity into its parts (Cornell & Jude, 2015). In understanding the NFE system and its functioning as well as outcomes in this attempt, this concept provided insight on how interrelationships among NFE supporting institutions and units across levels, their linkages and coordination of their activities should be established. It also guided the identification of the NFE institutional parts within the system which could not work properly as the parts of an organisational activity influence and affect each other. The literature on institutional systems insists that this notion helps in viewing relations and interactions of individuals, groups, structures, and processes in an institution as a unified entity (Peterson, as cited in Cornell & Jude, 2015). On the whole, this approach guided the explaining of how



functional the entire NFE institutional framework was in performing its roles and achieving its goals of managing the provision of NFSE.

*Open-ended process:* Another tenet of the systems theory is the relationship between the institution and its external environment, viewed through the *open system approach* whereby the exchange of energy, matter, people, policy, information, etc. are important (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972; Negandhi, 1975; Mele et al., 2010). Such external environment has an impact on the internal functioning of an organisation or programme (Negandhi, 1975). As such, the systems that are open are necessary for interacting with the outside systems. Such interaction is possible because social, political and economic phenomena are always changing, affecting the surrounding institutions and necessitating adaptation for the survival of institutions (Cornell & Jude, 2015). The strength of this notion of open-ended process within the systems theory is its emphasis on the link between the internal practices of an institution or programme and the external environment. However, this does not necessarily happen solely to an institution as a whole rather, even between the components/units of the institution and the external environment. This contention offered a basis in viewing how the NFE institutional framework, its NFSE programme, the supporting institutions, their roles and practices, and policies and guidelines adopted to changes in ensuring the sustainable provision of NFSE. It sheds light on examining the NFE institutional framework as an interconnected and interdependent system with permeable boundaries within a wider context.

*Purpose:* This is another concept of the systems theory indicating that the system under review must have a set goal (Ansari, 2004), which is the rationale behind the existing programme or institution as a system (Jones & Bartlett Learning, 2010). As conflicting purposes between/among people or different departments involved in the system may occur, it is necessary for them to be considered during the institutional or programme design stage (ibid). In other words, supporting institutions that work together in managing a programme ought to have a common goal established within the policy and institutional frameworks cherished by all actors towards its achievement. Such a purpose provides the right direction in the functioning of an educational institution to enhance the sustainability of its practices.

*Hierarchy/structure:* Since a system is part of a supra-system and contains sub-systems of a lower order, a hierarchy of components is a basic concept in systems thinking (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972). This hierarchy forms a structure which is a key feature of all systems (Padamallu et al., 2010). A system's structure is represented by its parts in their linkages and interrelationships. Such hierarchical relationships between the sub-systems involved are crucial in managing and studying organisations (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972; Padamallu et al., 2010). Since this concept originates from the classical school of thought (organisational scientific management) as pioneered by Fredrick Taylor who views organisations as formal instrument in achieving specific organisational goals, its application has the advantage of ensuring that institutional functions are efficiently executed through the division of labour, specialisation, standardisation, formalisation, and the hierarchy of authority (Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Mullins, 2010). The systems theory was useful in analysing the structure of the NFE system and understanding interactions and linkages of its supporting institutions as sub-systems within that structure in managing the provision of NFSE. Furthermore, it provided a wide perspective in looking at the autonomy vested in each institution within the NFE structure and the possible consequences in managing the provision of NFSE in the country.

*Linkage:* Since the system has a structure, the entities of the system are normally linked within that system's structure (Padamallu et al., 2010). As such linkage may take different forms, studying an institution or programme requires understanding the linkages, the entities linked, and the implications of those linkages for the operation and functions of the entities within the system's structure. Under the institutional systems perspective, the integrated parts of an organisation, which are well-linked in their operation, increases the efficiency and effectiveness of programmes within the organisation, hence serving as a determinant for institutional survival (Cornell & Jude, 2015). This perspective provides us with awareness on the fact that educational institutions and their programmes need to be well-linked and working as a team for them to be sustainable. The use of a systems approach made it possible to identify interrelationships between NFE institutional elements and understand the patterns of their functions and operations. Furthermore, since linkages appear to be the most salient for stirring communication and resources across different policy domains of educational institutions as agreed in literature, systems theory offered a framework for

viewing the established linkage across those policy domains from the state, local authorities and NFSE centres (cf. Sink & Smith, Jr., 1994; Lasky et al., 2005).

From the analysis in sub-section 4.2.1, it emerges that the systems theory provides an analytical framework for analysing and discussing the complexity of the NFE institutional framework in a holistic way. In other words, it is useful in describing NFE institutional functions, linkages, coordination of activities across the supporting institutions, and their synergy in managing the provision of NFSE. In principle, viewing the provision of NFSE and its management as an institutional process within the NFE institutional framework as open systems facilitated understanding the role of the NFSE institutional arrangements and their relationships in managing the provision of NFSE.

#### ***Offsetting the limitations of systems theory***

Despite the strengths of the systems theory discussed in this section, it ignores the fact that individual elements of the same system can also play their independent roles and maintain their identity within that system (“distinctiveness”) (cf. Weick, 1976; Lingard et al., 2014). As NFSE is managed by sub-systems which are semi-autonomous within the ministry of education, a loose coupling theory was deemed important to shed light on that aspect and thus complement the systems theory (refer to sub-section 4.2.3).

On the other hand, the concept of open-ended process as applied to institutional management under the systems theory does not describe in detail how externally induced changes may affect the internal practices such as the organisational policies, rules, routines, goals, structures, practices and operating procedures (cf. DiMaggio & Powell, 2012). As they are key facets in this undertaking which draw from both the NFE policy and institutional framework, the *institutional theory* was found to be in a better position to address them more comprehensively and coherently. Thus, in complementing the systems theory, the institutional theory was adopted to offer a more specific lens on the influence of the external environment on the NFE policy and institutional practices in managing NFSE provision (see sub-section 4.2.2).

#### **4.2.2 Institutional theory**

The institutional theory has been widely employed to examine the systems and institutional processes ranging from micro to macro frameworks (Scott, 2004). It is

connected to diverse areas such as public education, health, training programmes in firms and agencies, and organisational structure and change (cf. Rowan, 1982; Morpew & Huisman, 2002; Scott, 2004; Gounko & Smale, 2007; McPherson, 2008; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, 2012), thus providing a framework upon which the NFE policy and institutional framework in this study can be examined and analysed. This study, therefore, specifically borrows the assumptions of institutional theory pioneered by DiMaggio and Powell (1983, 2012), which describe how institutions tend to change and become homogenous in practices and structure based on the concept of *isomorphism* (cf. Dacin et al., 2002; Mills et al., 2010, Hefler, 2012). For this study and as defined by DiMaggio and Powell, *isomorphism* is “a constraining process that forces one unit in a population to resemble other units that face the same set of environmental conditions” (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 149). More explicitly, it is “the convergence in policies and practices among organisations operating in a similar environment or competing for the same goods. ...they may be reflected in public policy designs or laws; and may be visible through the practices of ‘model’ organisations” (Burch, 2007, p. 85). The mechanisms through which isomorphic process takes place are expounded as *coercive*, *mimetic* and *normative* in the seminal works of DiMaggio and Powell (1983, 2012), and in other works of institutional sociologists such as Dacin et al. (2002) and Zucker (2012).

### ***Key assumptions of institutional theory***

*Coercive isomorphism:* This is a mechanism that happens when there are both formal and informal pressures on an organisation triggered by other organisations in the field or by cultural and political explanations (governmental control, laws and other requirements) of the broad society where the organisation operates (DiMaggio & Powell, 2012). For instance, pressure from overarching rationalisation and accompanying state elaborations impact on and give powers to institutions (Zucker, 2012). Such pressure is felt by institutions as forces, persuasion or invitation (DiMaggio & Powell, 2012). In such a political context, organisations need to change and comply with the government mandates and guidelines while guiding and managing institutional practices towards achieving the set plans and programme goals across different levels. In practice, conformity with those mandates establishes a common legal environment which, in turn, affects organisational behaviour, structure, goals, practices, policies, operating procedures, rules and routines inside the government arena (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, 2012). This implies that the highly formalised and changing structures, policies and

practices provide an opportunity for a programme to be well-established, well-implemented and sustained from micro to macro institutional levels. After all, institutionalisation (formalised organisational structures and processes) increases stability, creates routines and enhances organisational performance (DiMaggio & Powell, 2012).

*Mimetic isomorphism:* According to DiMaggio and Powell (2012), uncertainties such as ambiguous organisational goals, unachievable strategies and unclear solutions may pressure organisations to model/copy from other organisations. Thus, organisations struggle to imitate based on the best practices from other institutions of their social environments to compensate for their uncertainty, seek legitimacy and ensure their survival (Ogawa et al., 2008). There is consensus among institutional theorists that organisations are likely to adopt structures (regulations, policies, rules, divisions of labor), goals, and technology legitimated by the environment where similar organisations are perceived to be more successful (Ogawa et al., 2008, p. 89; DiMaggio & Powell, 2012, p. 58).

*Normative isomorphism:* This institutional assumption is described as a kind of organisational change resulting from the pressure of professionalisation. In education, for instance, “accreditation agencies, professional certification boards and training institutions reinforce normative expectations and impose standards, rules and values...” (Gounko & Smale, 2007, p. 534). Such pressure induces compliance with professional standards, conditions and methods of work to control service provision and establish legitimisation for occupational autonomy (DiMaggio & Powell, 2012).

Basing the assumptions of the institutional theory, organisations in the same field bear similarities in policies and practices under isomorphism. Such change and homogenisation of the institutional elements such as structure, roles, actions and goals increase the probability of survival and sustainability of institutions (Rowan, 1982; Zucker, 2012; DiMaggio & Powell, 2012). The analytical distinctions provided under institutional isomorphism and the related processes and outcomes as discussed are relevant and applicable in examining the NFE policy and institutional arrangements.

### ***Expediency of institutional theory in education***

Literature suggests that institutional theory has the full potential of providing a rich and complex view of organisations. In fact, it has been widely applied by institutional theorists in the analyses of a number of educational, services and voluntary organisations using the case study design as a dominant research methodology (see Scott, 2012). Burch (2007), for instance, asserts that whereas the early works used institutional theory to study education looked at education in a broader context of the world and as generalized case studies of broader organisational phenomena, current studies in education have borrowed from the early studies in examining the interactions between educational policies and institutional practices. The theory “considers the processes by which structures, including schemas, rules, norms and routines become established as authoritative guidelines for social behaviour” (Scott, 2004, p. 2) by inquiring the way these elements are created, adopted and adapted from time to time. Although the objectives of the institutional theory and educational research may vary, they are nevertheless similar in some contexts. Burch (2007) argues that recent theorising in both institutional theory and educational scholarship focuses on the following questions:

- i.* How do interactions between the public and private sectors mediate the design of social policy and the organisation and delivery of government services?
- ii.* How do innovations developed in the field and not necessarily reflecting the status quo gain legitimacy and diffuse outwards?
- iii.* How do reforms aimed at strengthening classroom teaching also contribute to shifts in the broader policy environment? (Burch, 2007, p. 85).

In practice, the institutional theory has been applied in the educational field to analyse educational policies and explain changes in the institutional diversity of secondary and higher education in an attempt to understand and explain changes in policy and administration (see, for instance, Rowan, 1982; Morphey & Huisman, 2002; Gounko & Smale, 2007; McPherson, 2008). Morphey and Huisman (2002), for instance, applied the institutional theory to study academic drift in higher education and revealed that education institutions change their policies and programmes to improve practices as per rules and regulations through *coercive isomorphism*; as per professional standards through *normative isomorphism*; and as per best existent practices through *mimetic isomorphism* (see Morphey, 2009). All these aspects were found to increase institutional survival and, thus, demonstrating that the theory could offer a useful lens in examining and

explaining change of structure and norms in educational institutions. Other research findings by Rowan (1982), who studied organisational structure and the institutional environment in public schools, revealed that educational institutions change policies and administrative structures and become isomorphic with the dominant norms, values and practices in the institutional environment. All these studies strongly suggest the use of the institutional theory as a guiding framework for conducting research on policies and programmes in educational institutions based on the mechanisms of isomorphism.

On the other hand, Seddon and Agnus (1999) researched on institutional restructuring in one of Australia's education institution and theorised the study using the institutional theory. The study found that education policies were dictated by the government. They played a key role in inducing educational change by prescribing educational practices. These findings reflect aspects embedded in the concept of *coercive isomorphism* and, hence, underscore the power of the institutional theory. The same study further established that "educational values and views of the nature and purpose of education" incorporated in those policies were normative-oriented and intended to shape envisaged change (p. 495). These findings provide substantial evidence to support the view that education institutional practices and survival are determined by the pressure of state elaborations, and the standards and values that embrace unified change in providing education service as described by the isomorphic concept.

### ***Relevance of institutional theory to the current study***

The empirical findings discussed in sub-section 4.2.2 are based on research in higher education in particular and the broad education field. Nevertheless, they still offer clear insights on the usefulness of the institutional theory in studying other educational institutions and thus constituting an accepted framework to guide the current research on the state of NFE policy and institutional arrangements in ensuring sustainable provision of NFSE. McPherson (2008) used institutional theory as a guiding framework to identify policy changes at different institutional levels that impacted students' success in the secondary online education environment. The findings established that both coercive and mimetic policies had a significant impact on students' success and the institution as identified under the isomorphic mechanisms. These specific findings on NFE online programme call for the application of the institutional theory as a functional framework upon which this study on NFSE was also guided. In this regard,



the institutional theory offered a useful lens in examining and explaining change of structure and norms in the NFE system, the resulting impact on the local institutional levels and programmes such as NFSE, as well as the sustainability of NFSE endeavours and survival of the entire NFE system.

On the other hand, the fundamental questions presented by Burch (2007) as presented in sub-section 4.2.2 reflected the objectives of both the institutional theory and educational research which provided a basis for mirroring the NFSE practices by focusing specifically on the role and relevance of the adopted policies in guiding the provision of NFSE, its linkage and coordination within the NFE institutional framework, as well as their effects on the sustainability of NFSE offered by different providers. According to Burch, the institutional theory brings about a significant level of understanding on how educational policies and practices interact with the institutional environments to shape policy outcomes. As such, institutional perspectives facilitated in exploring the NFE policies and institutional practices in their wider environments and their effects on NFSE programme across different institutional levels from the micro to macro level (cf. Scott, 2004).

### ***Offsetting the limitations of institutional theory***

Literature poses some critiques to the effect that the analyses of educational practices (technical core) in the sub-units of educational institutions are often at odds with an institutional perspective as they lose sight of the broader institutional context (Spillane & Burch, 2005). Conversely, it is also true that dealing with the entire institution poses a risk of paying scant attention to the practices (technical core) of the sub-units as a result of institutional determinism (ibid.). Considering this paradox, the current study examined the role of the NFE policy and institutional framework in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE as a whole in addition to adopting the systems theory to complement institutional perspectives (refer to sub-section 4.2.1). Furthermore, as NFSE is offered at the local level and managed across levels by different supporting institutions within the NFE institutional framework, the study deemed a loose coupling theory to be important in shedding light on their relationships and interactivity, thus complementing both the institutional theory and the systems theory. Sub-section 4.2.3 expounds further.

### 4.2.3 Loose coupling theory

The provision of NFSE is managed by different supporting institutions, some of which are semi-autonomous within the Ministry of Education. However, understanding how those supporting institutions function in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE within the NFE institutional framework requires a theoretical guide beyond the *systems theory* and the *institutional theory*. Literature reveals that although monocratic bureaucracy is common in educational institutions, the structural looseness of their systems makes them difficult to operate, particularly, in communicating directives and in controlling practices across all hierarchical levels (Weick, 1976; Gamoran & Dreeben, 1986). This is because the sub-units, groups, and persons in different functions hold different goals within institutions as systems (Gamoran & Dreeben, 1986). These components or sub-units of educational institutions are left to operate more or less independently of the directives and control from higher authorities. This complex work relationship and interactivity within the hierarchical levels and between the sub-units of the educational institutions forms what Weick (1976) characterised as “*loosely coupled systems*” in educational organisations.

The phrase “loose coupling” as it appears in literature, might seem to be synonymous with connection, link, or interdependence though a crucial nuance might be missing. Specifically, loose coupling is a situation whereby system elements can respond to the environmental changes (“responsiveness”) while playing their independent roles and maintaining their identity within the system (“distinctiveness”) (Weick, 1976, p. 3; Orton & Weick, 1990, p. 203; Lingard et al., 2014, p. 4). This theoretical perspective implies that different parts of an educational institution as a system are loosely related to one another in operation. In educational institutions, loose coupling as a process takes many forms. Orton and Weick (1990) argue that it is not a state but an ongoing activity that occurs mostly “among individuals, among sub-units, among organisations, between hierarchical levels, between organisations and environments, among ideas, between activities, and between intentions and actions” in an educational environment (p. 208). Practically, loose coupling ideas are normally thought of in an educational institution when there are a variety of situations such as:

...richly connected networks in which influence is slow to spread; a relative lack of coordination, slow coordination or coordination that is dampened as it moves through a system; a relative absence of regulations; ...infrequent inspection of activities within the system; decentralisation; delegation of discretion; the absence of linkages; the observation that an organisation’s structure is not

coterminous with its activity; ...curricula or courses in educational organisations for which there are few prerequisites (Weick, 1976, p. 5).

### ***Application of loose coupling theory in education***

In an attempt to establish loosely coupled systems in educational organisations, Weick asserts that activities carried out by the system's elements are not directly governed by the top system administrators through bureaucratic relations of the authority since each element in its own is some kind of task/subtask, role, goal or autonomy (cf. Gamoran & Dreeben, 1986). For Weick, loose coupling in education implies dynamics in institutional functions as a system in which linkages, networks, interactivity, imitations and influences among the components in the hierarchical structure of the system are less prevalent. From this perspective, an example of loose coupling in educational institutions is given where different policy domains within the education system including the central institutions, the local level units (regions, districts, schools, classrooms) and their staff, normally conduct their activities with substantial independence from one another (Gamoran & Dreeben, 1986). This observation affirms the view that under loosely coupled systems, the top institutional elements and administrators of the formal structure normally pay much attention to the general matters as they are basically disconnected from the technical core carried out and controlled at the local level.

The loose coupling theory has been applied to the studies of organisations in exploring interactions and relationships (Sharp, 2009; Lingard et al., 2014), but most frequently in educational environments (cf. Weick, 1976, Orton & Weick, 1990; Lingard et al., 2014). Lingard et al. (2014), for instance, used the loose coupling theory as a guide to exploring what they described as a paradox of tension between autonomy and interdependence in a Canadian teaching hospital. They observed that loose coupling was highly productive as team members used both autonomy and interdependence as resources to achieve complex goals of work in the institution.

### ***Relevance of loose coupling theory to this study***

As loose coupling theory seems to be concerned with both the “responsiveness” and “distinctiveness” of entities within the institutional framework, its insights provided a conceptual hook for understanding and examining the functioning of NFE institutions, their linkages and coordination of their activities, and their impact on NFSE programme

in the course of managing its provision in the country. However, caution was necessary here as institutional environments shape only particular practices of the system's components and not necessarily the entire institution as Spillane and Burch (2005) pointed out. Furthermore, the theory was deemed suitable in this study in examining and specifying the technical core (core functions related to the provision of NFSE within the NFE institutional framework), and empirically probing the functions or dysfunctions related to the institutional entities concerned (cf. Scheerens, 2015). The theory thus enabled looking at specific practices of each supporting institution without losing focus on the broader NFE institutional system (cf. Orton & Weick, 1990).

Furthermore, the theory offered a framework for exploring the multidisciplinary system of NFE policy and institutional management, on the one hand, and the multilevel interaction of the different NFE institutional levels and units, on the other hand, basing on their responsiveness and distinctiveness in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE in the country. The theory backed up the current study as it uses a case study which is currently adopted and also proposed as a proper methodology that can yield successfully such institutional process insights (cf. Orton & Weick, 1990; Lingard et al., 2014).

#### **4.2.4 Coordination theory**

Understanding the dependencies between the tasks carried out by different group members and the way they are coordinated within those groups is a key issue in the analysis of organisation functions (Crowston, Rubleske, & Howison, 2004). Coordination as one of the managerial functions has been a long-standing interest of organisational scholars, both drawing upon, and contributing to organisation theory and many other fields such as computer science, economics, computer science, sociology, social psychology, and management information systems (Malone, 1988; Malone & Crowston, 1990; Crowston et al., 2004). The coordination theory, as introduced in the initial publications of Malone (1988) and Malone and Crowston (1990), constitutes a body of principles on how activities of an organisation can be coordinated in terms of working together harmoniously. Such principles address questions on how the overall goals of an institution can be subdivided to actions, how these actions can be assigned to different sub-groups and actors, how those actors are supplied with the required resources, and lastly how information is shared among all the actors towards achieving

the set institutional goals (Malone & Crowston, 1990, p.4). These principles bring in the idea of interdependence, that is, in determining how organisations are structured, the interdependence of activities, actors, and units is quite crucial and thus nothing to coordinate in the absence of interdependence (cf. Malone & Crowston, 1990). It is, however, proven that coordination problems among actors in an organisation arise from dependencies between the assigned tasks rather than between individuals/units that eventually constrain the performance of tasks (Crowston et al., 2004).

### ***Relevance of the coordination theory to this study***

The coordination theory provides an actionable theory-driven path by offering insights on how the NFE institutional framework can manage dependencies between activities and units, and across different levels to create favourable conditions for the proper provision of NFSE in a sustainable way. Moreover, it provides awareness that coordination mechanisms also rely on other necessary group/institutional functions, particularly, decision-making, team work, communications, and development of shared understandings (cf. Crowston & Kammerer, 1998; Britton, Wright & Ball, 2000; Crowston et al., 2004). In this case, the theory helped in analysing how specific NFE structures pertaining to academic affairs and administration were brought together to support the accomplishment of NFSE activities.

### **4.3 Advantage of the Adopted Mixed Theoretical Frameworks**

Since this study is inductive (refer to sub-section 5.2.1), the central purpose of this chapter was to discuss the theoretical and practical aspects of the adopted frameworks in guiding and informing this study rather than testing a theory. Regarding the interdisciplinary orientation of this study, the use of diverse theoretical frameworks (perspectives and approaches to policy analysis, as well as theories and principles of institutional management) was inevitable. The combination of diverse theories offered a fundamental scheme and interrelated perspectives for the structure, analysis and discussion of this undertaking. A combination of different approaches to analysing educational policies, for instance, provided a wider panorama for assessing the state of the adopted policies, their role and relevance in guiding the provision of NFSE in the country. On the other hand, the combination of theories in examining how educational institutions operated and managed, provided a framework and an expanded lens for examining the NFE institutional structure, linkage and coordination in a wider context

from the macro to the local level. After this discussion on the theoretical inspiration for this study, the next chapter discusses the research design and methodological processes applied in fulfilling the study purpose and answering the set specific research questions.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGICAL PROCESSES

“Qualitative research asserts that a phenomenon is more than the sum of its parts, and must therefore, be studied in a holistic manner. As a result, the purpose of this paradigm is not to attempt to generalize data to the population but to explore individuals’ experiences and in some instances the development of new theory” (Ryan et al., 2007, p. 738).

The methodological question on how to go about examining a particular phenomenon requires a precise and clear-cut discussion to validate the conclusions derived and the theories developed. This chapter introduces the research design and describes the methodological processes used to address the research objectives and questions as outlined in chapter one. The chapter covers the philosophical perspectives underpinning the methodological strategies of the study, the research design adopted, the scope of the study, the participants’ composition and sampling procedures. The chapter also presents the data generation and collection methods, strategies for enhancing trustworthiness and credibility of the findings, data management and analysis plan, as well as ethical considerations in conducting the study.

#### 5.1 Philosophical Orientation of the Study

In scientific inquiries, every study has its own philosophical orientation due to a number of ontological assumptions about the nature of reality and a set of epistemological claims about the way in which the knowledge of that reality is generated, interpreted and communicated to others. Maxwell (2009) asserts that choosing a paradigm involves assessing varied paradigms to find the appropriate one that best gels with one’s assumptions and methodological preferences. Since philosophical assumptions guide the way of reasoning and undertaking research, this study has adopted ontological and epistemological assumptions that augur well with the research questions and objectives as discussed in the subsequent sub-section.

##### 5.1.1 Interpretivism worldview-cum-qualitative approach

The purpose of this study and the nature of the required knowledge about *what* constitutes the current state of the NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE and *how* they affect the establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE suggest for interpretivism philosophical



underpinnings (also referred to in education as *constructivism*) as the main methodological disposition to facilitate understanding of this inquiry. The researcher has embraced this framework as it fits appropriately this purely qualitative inquiry (see Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 21; Creswell, 2007, p. 20; Maxwell, 2009, p. 224; Lodico et al., 2010, p. 14; Suter, 2012, p. 344; Flick, 2015, p. 24). The use of interpretivism is intended to meet the requirements of this qualitative study and not to side with one of the alternatives. This orientation "...honours the understanding of a whole phenomenon via the perspective of those who actually live it and make sense of it" (Suter, 2012, p. 344). Its selection is aimed to establish a clear understanding of the way in which individuals create, modify and interpret the world in which they live through their actual statements and texts (cf. Cohen, et al., 2007; Suter, 2012). As opposed to the scientific realist assumptions whereby reality is of an objective nature, interpretivists see reality as subjective meanings of individual experiences directed towards certain objects (Sandberg, 2005; Yanow, 2006; Creswell, 2007; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Suter, 2012).

To understand how knowledge is constructed, the interpretivists who are in favour of qualitative approach argue that phenomena and events are understood through interpretations and descriptions of people's intentions, beliefs, values, reasons, meaning making and self-understanding, mainly influenced by the social contexts and not just the observable phenomena (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smith, 2004). Since meanings in that context are not clear and in the same way for all participants and the fact that the researcher's understanding of the case cannot be the same like that of the participants, Flick (2015) advocates for the researchers to analyse the concepts produced and used in the processes of exchanging the meanings. In this regard, meanings were produced and exchanged in an interpretative process. The qualitative approach also deals with examining concepts and meaningful patterns, particularly, in texts as a proxy of human experiences and ideas (ibid). So, multiple meanings were constructed through experiences and differing interpretations that created a social reality upon which interviewees acted. Thus, this orientation was appropriate in examining the statements by the policy-makers and managers, as well as the NFE policy documents as texts.

### **5.1.2 Rationale for employing the qualitative approach in this study**

The qualitative research approach was adopted due to its strength in understanding the process by which phenomena take place (Maxwell, 2009). In this regard, Suter (2012)

argues that “most mindful qualitative research questions are ‘How’ or ‘What’ questions (e.g., “How did this happen?” “What is going on here?”), and geared towards complex processes, exploration and discovery” (p. 346). Regarding the nature of the current research questions, both exploratory (what) and explanatory (how) questions were constructed and they facilitated the search for a deeper understanding of the case under review, hence a perfect fit for the selected case study design (refer to section 1.4 & figure 5.1). In fact, it enabled the researcher to study the provision and sustainability of NFSE by exploring individuals’ experiences and evaluating evidence provided in policy documents that helped in the development of new propositions. *Secondly*, it was possible to study the meanings and experiences of the participants in their real contexts with maximal social interactions, which allowed them to say what they thought, felt, aspired for and experienced about the NFE policy in guiding the provision of NFSE and the way NFSE was managed in different areas of jurisdiction. In this regard, Maxwell (2009) asserts that qualitative research allows the understanding of how events, actions and meanings are influenced by the unique circumstances in which they occur and the processes which take place. *Thirdly*, since the provision of the NFSE is a current and an ongoing innovation, the qualitative approach enabled the researcher to learn the current context of its policy and management practices within the NFE institutional framework – within which different NFSE actors are engaged. Yin (2011) alludes to the fact that institutional and environmental conditions within which people’s lives take place may strongly influence all the ongoing human events and qualitative research can address those conditions. *Fourthly*, the qualitative approach was deemed to be most appropriate because it is flexible in its research design, data collection and analysis (Maxwell, 2009; Yin, 2011). Its strength is in allowing for the use of flexible rather than fixed research design as presented in section 5.2 (see also figure 5.1).

## 5.2 Case Study Design

The study employed a case study research design which was deemed appropriate in guiding the collection of evidence that would answer the research questions to realise the study’s research objectives. Yin (2003) defines design as “...the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study’s initial research questions and, ultimately, to its conclusions” (p. 20). This definition, however, conceptualises research design as a linear process which does not allow for interactivity and redesigning of the study components. In a more specific and flawless way, Maxwell (2009) clarifies that qualitative research

requires a broader and less restrictive research design as a real entity, not simply a plan to enable researchers to modify design decisions during the study in response to new developments or changes in some aspects of the design. In this regard, the *case study design* was deemed well-suited to the current qualitative research because of its orientation towards developing an in-depth understanding of the NFSE provision within the NFE policy and institutional framework as a case (cf. Creswell, 2012).

### 5.2.1 What and how case study design

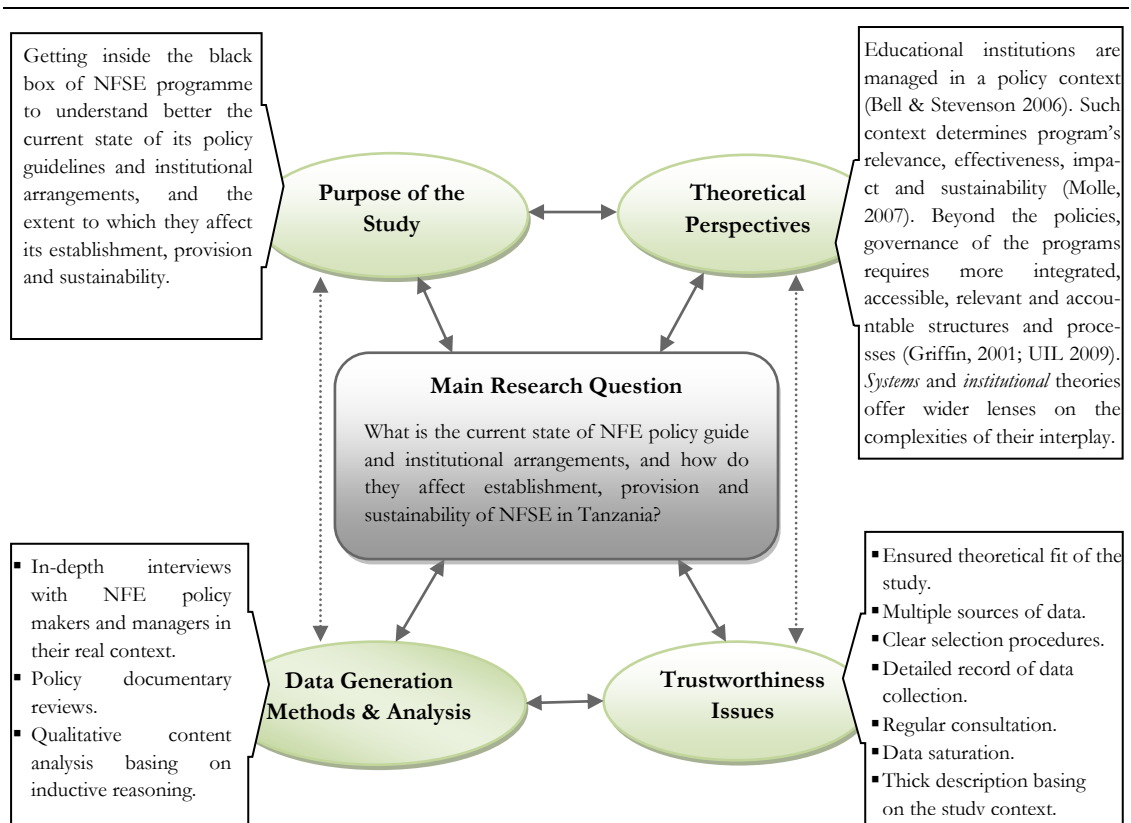
Various scientific inquiries across disciplines tend to employ case studies as their research design. However, these case studies tend to have different connotations across varied disciplines in guiding research due to different underlying philosophical assumptions used as well as the nature and purpose of the information needed. This makes defining a case study more problematic because too many different themes have been packed into it (Gerring, 2007; Mills et al., 2010). Nevertheless, in social studies and, particularly, in educational research, a case study has several common characteristics. It is defined as a type of design in qualitative research in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case, for example, could be a single programme or institution), or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time involving in-depth data collection from multiple sources of information and reports (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2007). Similarly, a case study is a research strategy whose characteristics include a focus on the real-life context of a specific entity such as an organisation, phenomenon or programme; collecting evidence from multiple sources; and analysing the relationship between contextual factors and the entity being studied to generate theory and/or contribute to extant theory (cf. Schell, 1992; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Mills et al., 2010).

This thesis adopted the case study design as a systematic way of looking holistically at the NFSE provision within the NFE institutional framework as an entity by gathering and analysing data from its different institutional levels and units (see, for instance, Cohen et al., 2007; Mills et al., 2010). The studied global nature of NFSE provision made the design to be a *holistic single-case* since the institutional units/levels were not treated as isolated cases (*units of analysis*)<sup>12</sup> but rather in providing data within the entity

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<sup>12</sup> Yin (2003) conceptualises a unit of analysis as the “case”, a topic chosen for study, or the central “phenomenon” being studied such as an individual person, an event or entity, programme, or organisation which qualifies to be a specific level of data collection (cf. Creswell, 2012; Balbach, 1999). In a different connotation, it is referred to as the content-analytical unit, essentially level of specificity or the basic unit of a text that can be examined and coded (coding unit) from the data (Hatch, 2002; Zhang &

(see Yin, 2003, p. 42; Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 550; Mills et al., 2010, p. 761). This approach augments the *complexity theory*—an emerging perspective in educational research which suggests that “phenomena must be looked at holistically” not atomising them into separate sub-units and restricted factors that may lead to missing the necessary interaction of several parts (Cohen et al., 2007, 33; Ryan, Coughlan & Cronin, 2007, p. 738). The goal was to cast a wide net in data collection within the NFE institutional framework, including covering all supporting institutions under the ministry, regional and municipal offices, and NFSE centres so as to analyse their complex interactions and linkages within a single case. To ensure coherence, congruence and thorough process in conducting this study, the selected *case study* was designed as an entity containing the main components of the study in a more interactive, integrated and reflexive way in every stage of the study. Figure 5.1 presents the key design components.



**Figure 5.1: Interaction of Key Components in the Study's Design**

**Source:** Researcher's Own Design Based on Maxwell (2009) and Yin (2003).

Wildemuth, 2005; Mayring, 2014). To establish a common understanding in the current study, the NFSE institutional units and levels (macro, meso, micro) were just used in collecting data whereas a point of reference in drawing conclusions (*unit of analysis*) was the NFSE provision as a programme. Meanwhile, *coding unit* or *content-analytical unit* in this study is referred to as a segment of text containing piece of relevant information to answer the research questions.

In this design, the activities of data collection and analysis, developing and modifying theory, restructuring the research questions, and addressing trustworthiness and credibility threats were done more or less concurrently and as an ongoing process and were based on the research purpose. Each component was influencing or was being influenced by the other. Practically, the purpose of this study was informed by the contemporary knowledge and theories on educational institutions linked to the main research question about NFE policy and institutional arrangements and their effect on the establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE. Such a broad question was conversely informed by what was already known in the literature about the NFE policy and institutional management, and other theoretical perspectives applied in this inquiry. Nevertheless, decisions about the relevance of the theoretical perspectives applied depended much on the study purpose and questions. Thus, the upper triangle of this design operates in a more integrated manner. As for the bottom triangle, it is also closely interlinked whereby in-depth interviews and documentary review were the methods deployed to answer the research questions, coupled with the inductive approach employed in analysing data which collectively addressed the trustworthiness issues. Trustworthiness threats in selection procedures, instrumentation and data interpretations were also addressed in accordance with the questions and methods chosen. Thus, the research questions were framed and reframed by considering the feasibility of the data collection methods. In all the instances, the main research question connected and informed all the other components of the research design. Thus, the adopted case study design as presented in figure 5.1 illuminates on the boundaries of what was and was not studied, as well as how in the scope of the current thesis.

### **5.2.2 Why the study employed a case study design**

Yin (2003) and Baxter and Jack (2008) contend that a case study should be considered when a researcher wants to cover contextual conditions depending on their relevance to the phenomenon under investigation. In this particular study, a case study was chosen to enable a thorough examination of NFSE provision within the NFE policy and institutional framework as a system, specifically in the Ministry of Education, its supporting institutions, and in the NFSE centres. The researcher was able to figure out the real picture of the NFSE provision and its sustainability by considering the contexts in which it takes place.

On the other hand, the case study design was considered to be important in this thesis because of the adopted theories—*systems theory* and *institutional theory*—underlying the current case (refer to sub-sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2). The theories are holistic/systemic in nature, and hence relevant and advantageous to work harmoniously with a single-case design. Similarly, the adoption of the case study design was influenced by the theoretical review (see chapter three) which underscored the value of the case study design as a dominant research methodology widely applied by institutional theorists to the analysis of a number of educational and service organisations (Scott, 2012). For instance, it is noted that “in educational research, the case study approach can be an effective and rigorous approach when monitoring policy, especially for teaching policy concerning children with unique needs, or classes and/or schools that have implemented a unique programme” (Mills et al., 2010, p. 100).

Furthermore, the application of the case study design by collecting data from different units and levels within the large case was deemed important due to its flexibility in analysing data across all the sub-units and levels as a whole (see, for example, Baxter & Jack, 2008). Thus, the design matches the assumptions of the adopted interpretivism philosophical orientation, which honours understanding of a whole phenomenon (Suter, 2012). It offered significant opportunities for extensive analysis and enhanced the insights into the case under study thus, illuminates better on the dynamics of NFSE provision within the NFE intuitional framework.

Finally, the selection of case study was also based on the aforementioned common features of this design which are: *bounded system* in which NFE institutional framework as an entity with distinct units was selected as the case under investigation; *multiple sources of information* whereby triangulation was used to collect data and deal with a full range of evidence; *relationship between the context and the entity being studied* whereby, in this case, the researcher explored the NFSE provision in its real setting to capture individual perspectives and the actual institutional roles; and *theory building* whereby the inductive approach was used to analyse data and draw conclusions while building propositions on the provision and sustainability of NFSE.

### **5.2.3 Offsetting predicaments of case study design in this study**

In spite of the good qualities of case study design, it has been challenged by some researchers who hold different concerns. One of the critical pitfalls identified is a possibility of the initial research questions to reflect different directions during the course of the study, thus shifting the nature of case study design (Yin, 2003). Nonetheless, the researcher conceived it as a methodological challenge rather than as a pitfall. This challenge was addressed through interactive and flexible research design (see figure 5.1), which allowed for redesigning and modifying the set questions during the course of the study. Maxwell (2009) contends that a qualitative researcher may need to reconsider any design decisions during the study. Moreover, in responding to such a challenge and maximising the accuracy of the questions, a thorough literature review was continuously done to inform the questions.

Furthermore, the case study design has been faulted for taking too long in collecting data. This is, however, challenged by Yin (2003) who attributes this criticism to confusion between a case study design and particular methods of data collection, particularly, when the case study is associated with ethnographic and participant observation data which requires more time. Since a case study is more than that, it is not necessary for each case study to take long. In this study, the researcher tried to set boundaries of the case under investigation (refer to figure 5.1) that also provided a point of focus. Moreover, the researcher employed multiple data collection methods such as interviews and documentary review that saved time as well.

Another concern is a criticism that as qualitative researchers favour case studies of a single unit—say an institution or programme which lacks representativeness of a larger population, it provides little basis for scientific generalisation because contexts of cases differ (Yin, 2003; Creswell, 2007; Suter, 2012). Conversely, Yin (2003; 2011) argues that the issue of a case and its study site do not represent the sample of a presumed population of sites to provide statistical generalisation; rather, the case study is generalisable to theoretical propositions (cf. Cohen, et al., 2007; Suter, 2012). As the current study is qualitative, it provided an account for the provision of NFSE within the NFE policy and institutional framework as a unique case which helped to build conceptual constructs and propositions that may implicate other programmes of the



same nature rather than generalise the findings basing on the relationship between the sample and its population.

### 5.3 Dealing with the Planned Research Questions of the Study

Having constructed the research design and its major components in their interface, the next step was to understand the kind of information needed and decide on the appropriate data collection methods (link to section 5.6) to answer the broad and concrete research questions. To address such a practical question, the researcher focused much on what was not well-understood about the policy context and institutional arrangements for NFSE provision to understand what was really going on, and how it was happening. To this end, operational questions were designed in connection with the purpose to be served, their implications for the theoretical and conceptual frameworks, as well as the data collection methods. A broader outlook of the process can be visualised in a matrix as summarised in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: A Matrix of Data Requirements and Methods Used in this Study**

Research Question	Data/Information Required	Source of Data	Methods*
<b>Category I: Policy and Regulatory Guide on NFSE Provision</b>			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ What are the adopted NFE policy support mechanisms in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Specific NFE policies addressing NFSE</li> <li>▪ Coherent education/NFE Acts</li> <li>▪ Introduced comprehensive NFE plans</li> <li>▪ Devised NFSE operational guidelines</li> <li>▪ Implementation regulations/directives</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ ETPs &amp; Educ. Acts</li> <li>▪ NFE regulations</li> <li>▪ NFE circulars</li> <li>▪ NFE policy makers and managers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Documentary review</li> <li>▪ Interviews</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ How relevant are the adopted NFE policy support mechanisms in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Explicit of the policy objectives on NFSE</li> <li>▪ Policy coherence</li> <li>▪ Policy authenticity</li> <li>▪ Specificity of the target activities</li> <li>▪ Established standards for NFSE</li> <li>▪ Consistence with other policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ ETPs, OS guidelines and Acts</li> <li>▪ NFE policy makers and managers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Documentary review</li> <li>▪ Interviews</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ What is the role of the adopted NFE policy support mechanisms in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Regulating provision of NFSE</li> <li>▪ Mapping criteria and procedures for establishment and provision of NFSE</li> <li>▪ Establishing NFSE quality standards</li> <li>▪ Setting policy required actions</li> <li>▪ Appealing for political support</li> <li>▪ Setting sustainability strategies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ ETPs</li> <li>▪ NFE policy makers and managers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Documentary review</li> <li>▪ Interviews</li> </ul>
<b>Category II: NFSE Institutional Arrangements</b>			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ What institutional arrangements are in place in managing the establishment and provision of NFSE?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Set of NFE institutional structure</li> <li>▪ Mention of all NFSE actors involved</li> <li>▪ Linkage within the NFE institutions</li> <li>▪ Identified roles of all actors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ ETPs, OS guidelines and Acts</li> <li>▪ NFE policy makers and managers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Documentary review</li> <li>▪ Interviews</li> </ul>

- |  |   |  |  |
|--|---|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ How are the supporting institutions interlinked within the NFE institutional framework to ensuring consistency and effectiveness of NFSE activities?</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Networking of the NFE supporting institutions and actors</li> <li>▪ Shared roles/responsibilities</li> <li>▪ Communication across institutions</li> <li>▪ Interactive reporting system</li> </ul>                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ NFE managers</li> <li>▪ OS guidelines, educational acts and circulars</li> </ul>                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Interviews</li> <li>▪ Documentary review</li> </ul> |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ What roles do supporting institutions within the NFE institutional framework ought to perform in managing the provision of NFSE?</li> </ul>                     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Guiding competence/content design</li> <li>▪ Coordination and reporting</li> <li>▪ Registration of NFSE providers</li> <li>▪ Monitoring and evaluation</li> <li>▪ Assessment</li> <li>▪ Certification</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ ETPs, OS guidelines, and Acts</li> <li>▪ NFSE programme coordinators</li> <li>▪ NFE managers</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Documentary review</li> <li>▪ Interviews</li> </ul> |

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**Category III: Policy and Institutional Challenges on NFSE Sustainability**

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- |   |  |   |  |
|---|--|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ What challenges are imposed on the NFSE and its institutional levels by the existing NFE policy and institutional arrangements?</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Development and supply of NFSE curriculum and study materials</li> <li>▪ Adoption of curriculum/study material</li> <li>▪ NFSE recognition &amp; legal operation</li> <li>▪ Monitoring &amp; evaluation procedures</li> <li>▪ Harmony of roles</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ NFSE programme coordinators</li> <li>▪ NFE managers</li> </ul>               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Interviews</li> </ul> |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ To what extent do these challenges impinge on the provision and sustainability of NFSE?</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Effects on accessibility and reaching more youth</li> <li>▪ Trust to the clientele</li> <li>▪ Conflict of roles</li> <li>▪ Achieving quality of the NFSE</li> <li>▪ Programme capacity to continue</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ NFSE programme coordinators</li> <li>▪ NFE institutional managers</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Interviews</li> </ul> |
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\* Data collection methods and how they were conducted are described in section 5.6.

#### 5.4 Area of the Study

The current study was conducted in Tanzania. The country is located in East Africa, and has a latitude and longitude reading of 6° 00' South and 35° 00' East. It is the United Republic of two sovereign states—Tanganyika and Zanzibar—which was forged in April 1964. Tanganyika (currently Tanzania Mainland) became a sovereign state in December 1961 whereas Zanzibar became independent in December 1963, followed by a revolution in January 1964. The country has 31 administrative regions. Appendix V shows the political/administrative map of Tanzania, its regions, and location of the study areas.

It is presumed by the researcher that the ideal NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the provision of education in any country operate by intersecting different institutional levels from the ministerial level where policies and programmes are initiated and planned, down to the supporting institutions and departments where policies are enforced and managerial functions are executed, and finally to the local level where several stakeholders are engaged in the

implementation of the programmes as per established guidelines (refer to figure 1.1). In this account, the study had to cut across all the three levels to capture the broadest range of information on the phenomenon under investigation. The study was, therefore, conducted in the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training by involving its departments and agencies responsible for AE/NFE, on the one hand, and other local supporting institutions in two administrative regions (Dar es Salaam and Arusha) where the NFSE was offered, on the other hand. Section 5.5 offers detailed information on the institutions under study and the reasons for their selection and inclusion in this study.

## **5.5 Sample and Sampling Procedures**

### **5.5.1 Sample of the Units**

In a quantitative research, sample size would refer to the number of units to be included in a study, normally drawn from the population whereby the larger numbers can better create greater confidence in study's findings than smaller numbers (Yin, 2011). On the other hand, qualitative researchers argue:

... no direct relationship exists between the number of participants and the quality of a study; questions of numbers are answered in reference to research questions and levels of analysis; contexts are carefully described so that readers can make their own judgments about applicability to their own contexts (Hatch, 2002, p. 48).

Thus, the concept of sample as applied in quantitative research is not likely to be relevant in a qualitative research since the essential consideration is to reflect the composition, not just the size of the larger group (Yin, 2011). The term sample is, therefore, referred to as *instance* which implies the number of units included in the study from different levels of data collection (broader and narrower) to reflect the composition not the size (ibid, p. 89). On this basis, with a small instance, "...the case study approach provides a logical means to complete in-depth research" (Mills et al., 2010, p. 100). In the current study, the instances were drawn from both the broader and narrower levels as presented in Table 5.2:

**Table 5.2: Interviewees' Composition, and Levels and Units of Data Collection**

<b>Level of Data Collection</b>			
<b>Broader Level</b>		<b>Narrower Level</b>	
<b>Institutions</b>	<b>No. of Units</b>	<b>*Individuals in the Institutions</b>	<b>No. of Units</b>
Ministry of Education	1	AE/NFE Policy-makers/Managers	2
Institute of Adult Education	1	ODL Coordinator/Policy Maker	1
Tanzania Institute of Education	1	Director of Curriculum Development	1
National Examination Council	1	Assessment and Evaluation Officer	1
IAE-Regional Offices	2	Regional Resident Tutors	2
Regional Education Offices	2	Regional AE/NFE Officers	2
Municipal Education Offices	2	Municipal AE/NFE Officers	2
NFSE Centres	4	NFSE Centre Coordinators	4
<b>Total Number of Respondents and Interviews Conducted</b>			<b>15</b>

**\* See Coding Scheme in Appendix I**

The establishment of boundaries of this study in section 5.3 indicates what was and was not studied, thus determining the selection of the instances (sample size as referred in quantitative). The units at their respective levels of data collection appropriately reflect the main topic about the NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE. Moreover, the units at the broader level also achieved a contextual function whereas the data for the topic was generated from the units at the narrower level (individuals in the NFE institutions). The selection of the participants was based on the argument that they should be suitable for informing research rather than merely a big sample as the researcher was not attempting to generalise the findings (Ryan et al., 2007). Thus, this study drew on a small sample of instances to generate an in-depth understanding of the NFSE practices, experiences and feelings lived by the respondents. The composition of the instances helped to offer an array of evidence since different respondents at different levels were involved in different roles. As such, their different views related to the current problem and reflecting the real situation on the ground were captured.

### **5.5.2 Sampling procedures**

Sampling is the selection of some parts of an aggregate or totality on the basis of which judgment about the aggregate or totality is made (Kothari, 2008). Qualitative researchers argue that most sampling in qualitative research is neither probability nor convenience sampling but rather a unique category known as purposive sampling (Cohen et al., 2007; Maxwell, 2009; Lodico et al., 2010; Yin, 2011; Creswell, 2014). Since this study is purely

qualitative, purposive sampling (non-probability) was largely used, and slightly supplemented by stratified random sampling (probability). Under non-probability selection, a member of population being selected cannot be calculated, whereas under probability selection chance factors determine the elements to be included in the sample from the population (Nkpa, 1997). These selection decisions considered the nature of the current study design as suggested by Maxwell (2009). The selected sampling procedures took into account the feasibility of data collection and analysis, the stated research purpose, the theoretical framework, and the trustworthiness issues as per study's design (refer to figure 5.1.).

### ***Purposive sampling***

Maxwell (2009, p. 235) defines purposive sampling as “a strategy in which particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices” (cf. Cohen et al., 2007; Lodico et al., 2010; Yin 2011). Since qualitative research seeks to reflect the composition not just the size of the population, purposeful sampling was systematically applied in selecting institutions and research participants involved in the study. The rationale was to ensure collection of the most relevant and plentiful data, and capture the broadest range of information on the topic (cf. Baxter & Jack, 2008). Thus, this strategy helped to ensure that the conclusions drawn and propositions made adequately represent a range of key institutions and actors involved, provided they were information-rich cases (cf. Maxwell, 2009; Creswell, 2014). At the institutional (broader level), therefore, the following institutions were purposively selected:

- i. *The MoEVT headquarters* was included since it is atop the country's hierarchy in managing the provision of education, which is mandated to formulate, monitor, evaluate and implement policies and programmes, as well as for inspection and registration of schools and education services. Of high priority at the MoEVT-HQs was the department of AE/NFE where NFE policy-makers, planners and managers who execute the managerial functions of policy-making, programme planning and coordination.
- ii. *Institute of Adult Education (IAE)* was selected as it is charged with the responsibility of establishing AE/NFE centres, developing programmes, developing curriculum and syllabi, coordinating and supervising all stakeholders

and agencies engaged in providing literacy, adult, non-formal and continuing education in the country.

- iii. *Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE)* was another institution included in the current study as it facilitates the provision of quality education by ensuring quality curricula at different education levels through curriculum design, development and monitoring. It was, thus, a potential institution where possible information about NFSE curriculum and the set standards could be obtained.
- iv. *National Examination Council (NECTA)* was also selected as an important institution because it is responsible for the administration of all the national examinations. NECTA helped to generate information on NFSE curriculum assessment and certification procedures for the NFSE learners.
- v. *Regional and Municipal AE/NFE Offices* were selected because they serve as a link between the local and central levels. Since regional/municipal AE/NFE offices were scattered all over the country, only two regions—one urban (Dar es Salaam) and one upcountry (Arusha) and their respective capital municipals were purposefully selected, aimed at getting a general picture about the establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE in different locations. This selection was influenced by the study design, and the fact that the selected regions had the relatively high population and experienced fast growing of NFSE centres thus, expected to have an adequate number of NFSE centres, management of which rested on the jurisdiction of various providers.

At the individual (narrower) level, different officials in charge of respective institutions mentioned were also purposively selected as follows:

- i. *AE/NFE policy-makers and managers* from the MoEVT-HQs were included since they were top officials in charge and responsible for setting up the programmes and making decisions – from the daily administrative decisions to the policy decisions in establishing and implementing NFE programmes in the country. By the virtue of their managerial positions, they had pertinent information on the NFE policy and institutional arrangements.
- ii. *Director of ODL at LAE* was selected by the virtue of his managerial roles of dealing with all the ODL programmes in the country in terms of their introduction, implementation and coordination. He was also a policy maker who worked closely with the NFE policy-makers/managers at the MoEVT-HQs

thus, expected to offer adequate information on the existed coordination as well as policy issues related to the establishment and provision of NFSE.

- iii. *Head of Department – Centre for Curriculum Training at TIE* was selected as a responsible person for quality curricula thus, expected to be informed about NFSE curriculum design, development and implementation. The department was also engaged in curriculum consultancy and monitoring.
- iv. *Registrar for Private Candidates – NECTA* was also involved as a key person who dealt with all the procedures of registering NFSE examination centres and their respective candidates thus, informed about the required regulations and procedures related to the assessment and certification of NFSE learners.
- v. *Regional Resident Tutors, and Regional and Municipal AE Officers* worked closely with and coordinated all the NFE centres at the micro level thus, expected to be adequately informed about NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing establishment and provision of NFSE, as well as the challenges affecting their areas of jurisdictions.
- vi. *NFSE Centre Coordinators* were directly engaged in coordinating provision of NFSE at the centre level hence, informed about the policy issues and institutional arrangements that affected established, provision and sustainability of NFSE. They had pertinent information on NFSE policy guidelines, institutional structure and the imposed challenges to their centres.

### ***Stratified random sampling***

Partly in complementing the purposive sampling applied to facilitate data collection in this study, stratified random sampling was also applied to select NFSE centres in each region. The population of the NFSE centres in each region was stratified into two strata on the basis of their ownership (public versus private), and from each of the two groups in a particular region, one NFSE centre was randomly selected. The serial number of each centre from each of the two groups in a particular region was written on a small card, shuffled together in a pool, while picking one sample randomly. As a result, a total of four NFSE centres – two from each region were obtained based on the criteria of one private and one public owned centre. The NFSE centres were deemed important and key units to be involved in the current study since they constitute the lowest institutional and administrative levels in the NFSE provision system and where the imposed challenges could be notably experienced.



## **5.6 Data Generation and Collection Methods**

The use of multiple data sources (triangulation) has been pointed out as a hallmark of case study research, particularly, in qualitative studies, a strategy which also enhances data credibility (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Lodico et al., 2010; Yin, 2011; Suter, 2012). However, not every data collection method is appropriate for qualitative studies. The potential data sources include many. For the purpose of the current study, the interview as the primary data source was complemented by the documentary review (secondary data), which helped to generate requisite information. The choice of these data collection methods was guided by the research topic (phenomenon under investigation) and its research questions, requirements of the selected design which guided the direction of the study, as well as the study context and feasibility concerns. More importantly, data from various sources was woven together into a convergent exploration and explanation of the case, and the data collection process was handled systematically and accurately to avoid biased results (cf. Lodico et al., 2010; Mills et al., 2010). The following sub-sections expound the process:

### **5.6.1 In-depth qualitative interview**

Interviews are commonly used in qualitative research to “uncover the meaning structures that participants use to organise their experiences and make sense of their worlds” (Hatch, 2002, p. 91). To bring these meanings to the surface, in-depth interviews were deemed imperative as they allow the study to gain insight into participant perspectives and experiences. Thus, interview method was the dominant data generating method in this study. In all, 15 interviews were held with different participants (see Table 5.2). Decisions of choosing in-depth interviews were based on the research aims, questions and issues of feasibility, and the fact that they were designed to delve profoundly into the understandings of the informants. In this regard, interview guides were used to reinforce the interviewer’s memory on the topic and ensure comparability of the interviews (Witzel, 2000; Flick, 2009).

#### ***Structure of interview questions***

Interviews in this study were semi-structured in the sense that the researcher led the interviews with focused guiding questions that defined issues, and the responses were left open as a way of soliciting information from the interviewees, with a flexibility of changing the order of questions, suspending others, and re-wording depending on what

happened in the interviews without losing the focus of the study purpose (cf. Flick, 2009; Lodico et al., 2010). The guiding questions addressed the study purpose on the NFE policy and institutional arrangements and their effects on the establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE. They depended further on the knowledge and experiences of the study informants across levels, and the situation about the phenomenon under investigation which was well-informed by the theoretical background (cf. Hatch, 2002). Aiming at capturing participants' perspectives, the interview questions were open-ended and designed to get informants to talk about their experiences and understandings. The interview questions were of different modalities for each category of the respondents although some themes cut across different categories. Generally, the interview questions included themes such as the role and relevance of the NFSE policy guidelines, the NFSE institutional structure, NFSE institutional linkages, the key managerial roles, as well as the policy and managerial challenges.

### ***Conducting interviews***

Interviews were conducted depending on the convenient schedules of the participants and their willingness to participate. The researcher had to build rapport with the interviewees and in the process ensured respect, interest, attention, good manners. The probing questions were posed by encouraging the informants to go more deeply into the topic in question, while making reference to the previous responses to generate more useful data. In this regard, different interviews were held with the NFE policy-makers and managers from the MoEVT-HQs, officials from supporting institutions under the MoEVT such as TIE, NECTA, IAE, regional AE/NFE officers and the NFSE centre coordinators. On the whole, the researcher carried out a series of intensive one-on-one interviews depending on the roles they played and their experiences in managing NFSE.

All the interviews were conducted by the researcher in the respondents' working environment with note-taking by hand. To better take the context of statements into account, audio recording (subject to interviewees' consent) was also used as suggested by Witzel (2000) and Flick (2009). Interviews were administered in *Kiswahili* (the common and official language) that gave participants' freedom of expression in the interviews. In spite of the guiding questions, general exploration and *ad-hoc* questions were also used to probe into new areas found to be pertinent to the study originally not

included in the structured interview schedules. With the supplementary questions of ‘*why*’, the interview facilitated the capturing of the more intangible aspects of the institutional practices, problems and challenges, as well as the respondents’ personal assumptions (Cohen et al., 2007).

### 5.6.2 Documentary review

Documents are the common sources of data favoured by qualitative research. These include several mainly official written communication and records of activities such as state curriculum guides, policy statements, codes of conduct, policy interpretations, memos of understanding available within an institution (Hatch, 2002; Ryan et al., 2007; Mills et al., 2010; Creswell, 2012). According to Hatch (2002), documents are powerful indicators of the value systems operating within institutions. Thus, the review of official documents in this study provided the researcher with a sense of history related to the contexts of the phenomenon under investigation and a way of looking behind-the-scenes in institutional processes. Hence, this method complimented interviews in providing sufficient information. In this study, the following policy documents were reviewed as texts:

- i.* The National Development Vision (NDV-2025).
- ii.* The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP).
- iii.* Education and Training Policies (ETPs – 1995 & 2014).
- iv.* Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP, 2008-2017).
- v.* The Education Act, No. 25 of 1978.
- vi.* The Education (Amendment) Act, No. 10 of 1995.
- vii.* Institute of Adult Education Act No. 12 of 1975.
- viii.* AE/NFE Development Plan (ANFEDP, 2012/13-2016/17).
- ix.* AE/NFE Sub-sector, Medium Term Strategy (2010/11- 2014/15).
- x.* Guidelines for the Establishment and Registration of Open Schools (2013).
- xi.* Secondary Education through ODL Implementation Guidelines (2013).

These policy documents reported the formal matters in Tanzania’s education system and particularly on NFE. Thus, they were examined to establish what they included and/or excluded in terms of NFSE provision and its management. From the selected documents, information was collected to address various categories in the themes such as the NFSE administrative structure, establishment and registration guidelines and

procedures, linkage and coordination mechanisms, as well as standards issues. The choice of these policy documents was informed by the research questions of the study.

Although documents are ready for analysis without the necessary transcription that is required in other sources such as interview data (Creswell, 2012), documentation also tends to be problematic as researchers may run a risk of not recognising flawed and biased information as well as unapparent meanings of the document, which might be rooted in their context (Cohen et al., 2007; Mills et al., 2010). Since the researcher was aware of these disadvantages, he ascertained the authenticity and credibility of the documents to ensure meaningful interpretation by assessing and reviewing the original documents created by the authorities responsible. The documents reviewed were collected by identifying the types of documents that could provide relevant information to answer the research questions of the study.

### **5.7 Strategies for Enhancing Trustworthiness**

A strong debate exists among recent research theorists on the appropriate criteria and terms to use in evaluating the adequacy and robustness of researches. Although the concepts of validity and reliability are appropriate criteria for use in quantitative studies (Ryan et al., 2007; Mills et al., 2010), their suitability in qualitative research remains contestable; they are also seen as not relevant. In fact, qualitative research proponents have redefined the terms “validity” and “reliability” and replaced them with alternative ones that fit in more appropriately with qualitative research such as *trustworthiness*, *credibility* and *dependability* which are now commonly criteria applied in evaluating qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2007; Ryan et al., 2007; Mills et al., 2010; Suter, 2012). Indeed, in naturalistic inquiries, trustworthiness and the related terms replace the conventional views of validity and reliability (Cohen et al., 2007). Thus, trustworthiness, which is also referred to as rigour, is the means of demonstrating the plausibility and credibility of the qualitative research process.

To achieve trustworthiness and authenticity in a qualitative research process, plausibility, credibility, dependability, and transferability components ought to be demonstrated as suggested by Cohen et al. (2007). Thus, the following guiding questions as posed by Suter were taken into consideration:

Can you trust the findings of a qualitative study? Do the concepts offered make sense, given the data collection, analysis, and interpretation? Are the arguments

compelling? Are they supported with sound reasoning and ample evidence? Is the whole process, from research question to implications, truly transparent and open to critical thinking by the reader? (Suter, 2012, p. 362).

These three questions suggest that the research results, interpretations and conclusions should be truthful, a notion of validity proffered by Baxter and Jack (2008). As such, the procedures for achieving such truthful interpretations and conclusions in the whole process (reliability) have been generally realised in this study through "...formulating the research question, selecting individuals to be studied, obtaining data from those individuals, analyzing the data obtained, and reporting the results" (Sandberg, 2005, p. 59). The next sub-sections describe in specific terms issues relating to establishing trustworthiness in this qualitative study:

### **5.7.1 Credibility**

According to Ryan et al. (2007) and Suter (2012), credibility as the most important criterion for judging a qualitative study refers to consistency between the participants' views and the interpretation of those views by the researcher to bring about faithfulness in describing the phenomenon in question and believability of the findings. Suter (2012) goes a step further by relating credibility with positivistic terms such as construct validity (that the construct being studied is the same one theory presumes to exist), and the idea of internal validity (that extraneous influences and artifacts that distort research findings need to be controlled). Having these cross-cutting definitions in mind and their essence in research, the researcher attempted to enhance the credibility of the current study in many ways. First was the convergence of multiple sources of evidence (see Yin, 2011; Suter, 2012) to capture wide information and, indeed, the views and perspectives of the respondents (see section 5.6). This was accompanied by a prolonged engagement in the study site (six months) conducting in-depth interviews (Ryan et al., 2007; Suter, 2012). Furthermore, the categorised data were shared with some of the key research participants for checking and discussion to establish whether the researcher had correctly included their thoughts and experiences to ensure their voices were retained during interpretation. This kind of participants' agreement is strongly recommended to maximise confidence in the believability of study conclusions (Suter, 2012). It helped to correct, broaden, and deepen the researcher's understanding of the participants' subjective experiences. Moreover, the research findings were also shared with the colleagues and supervisors for checks, criticism and evaluation of the conclusions drawn, hence leading to the refinement of the findings.

Furthermore, knowing that extraneous influences during proposal writing, data collection and analysis could affect the final conclusions, the researcher ensured there was a theoretical fit of the study basing on the relevant theoretical models (Suter, 2012), and the data collection tools were designed by addressing the key themes of the topic. In addition, all tools were checked and controlled by colleagues and supervisors. The researcher carefully collected data with open eyes and interpreted the results of the study by examining the findings according to their wider contexts within the delimitation of the study that allowed the data so collected to speak for themselves (see section 5.8). The essence of this process was to ensure that there was no weak link between and among the data quality, its analysis, and resultant conclusions that could threaten the usefulness of the study. All these precautions and checks ensured the study was based on the explicit set of evidence and the conclusions drawn accurately reflected and represented the real world under review.

### **5.7.2 Dependability**

Dependability is sometimes considered to be akin to the concept of reliability in quantitative research where the similar findings are expected to be obtained if the study is repeated (Schwartz-Shea, 2006; Cohen et al., 2007; Suter, 2012). From a different perspective, qualitative proponents suggest that given the ever-changing social world, events, daily practices and thinking shifts, any study becomes new albeit being repeated in the same context with the same respondents (Suter, 2012, p. 363). Nevertheless, dependability as an integral component of rigour in qualitative research still requires the researcher to provide sufficient information to enable another researcher to follow clearly the procedure used to arrive potentially at the same or comparable conclusions (Ryan et al., 2007). Towards this end, the researcher has already provided reasons and criteria for decisions made at each stage of this study regarding the theoretical and methodological concerns (refer to chapter three and four). Furthermore, the analysis procedures are also clearly spelt out in section 5.8. All these procedures offer transparency in the study thus convenient for the readers in reviewing and understanding all procedures and the conclusions drawn (cf. Auerbachand & Silverstein, 2003; Yin, 2011)

### 5.7.3 Transferability

Ryan et al. (2007) and Suter (2012) define transferability as evidence in research, supporting the generalisation of findings to other contexts which is also known as external validity in quantitative research (cf. Schwartz-Shea, 2006). Nevertheless, judgment about a “fit” of research findings to other contexts in qualitative research is determined by detailed descriptions (ibid.). Since this study adopted the case study as its design, thick information about policy and institutional arrangements that guide provision of NFSE was explored and the findings are generalised to ideas and theoretical propositions as stated elsewhere, thus deemed meaningful to different actors, and can also implicate other contexts with the same features.

## 5.8 Data Management and Analysis

As already pointed out, this thesis adopted the case study as a systematic way of looking holistically at the NFSE provision within the NFE institutional framework as an entity by gathering and analysing data from different related institutional units and levels (refer to section 5.2 and 5.5). Nevertheless, the analysis and interpretation of such data did not aim at analysing the differential impact on those diverse units and levels for comparative purposes as it is in multilevel analysis (see, for example, Creswell, 2009; Mills et al., 2010); rather, they were considered as data collection units in analysing the complex relationships, interactions and linkages within and across those levels as a whole (see Cohen et al., 2007). Through the lens of the adopted research design, data analysis is framed to inform the research questions and objectives on the basis of their established focus as illustrated in section 1.3 and 1.4. Basically, the analytic purpose is to, first, examine the NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE, and, then, to identify the emerging challenges that might affect the establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE in the country. The practical purpose of this thrust is to build a new theory and find solutions for the existing challenges.

Since the collection of evidence was guided by the qualitative approach, the interview transcripts collected and documentary records reviewed were subjected to *qualitative content analysis*, a model alluded to by qualitative researchers (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2005; Gläser & Laudel, 2011; Mayring, 2014). The model emphasises on *inductive reasoning*, most often used in



qualitative research whereby patterns, categories and themes crucial to understanding social reality are gleaned from the concrete data material (Hsieh & Shannon 2005; Kohlbacher, 2006; Creswell, 2014; Mayring, 2014). The next sections describe the data analysis stages followed in this study.

### 5.8.1 Preparing data for analysis

Since all the interviews were conducted in Kiswahili as an official and formal language for both the researcher and interviewees (refer to sub-section 5.6.1), the translation of the recorded interview transcripts into the English language was the primary function that preceded data analysis, which was simultaneously conducted with data transcription. In this process, the transfer of meanings helped to ensure that no meaning was lost as it is important in achieving the validity in this qualitative research (see Regmi, Naidoo & Pilkington, 2010). The audio clips were, therefore, attentively and repeatedly listened to word-to-word in an attempt to comprehend the meanings, sum up the main content, and take into account the context of the statements. The coherent texts representing the original words and meanings were then written down in English. This process complied with a *comprehensive protocol*—one of the interview data transcription systems whereby the researcher is interested only in the content from the material which is neither too ambiguous nor too open to interpretations (Mayring, 2014). The written documents (interview transcripts) in word-processed documents were then labeled and uploaded as inputs into MAXQDA software ready for inductive category development. Likewise, all the policy documents selected for analysis in the form of soft-copy were also uploaded into MAXQDA software. The policy documents in the hard-copy format were thoroughly read and the related sections were sorted out as per documentary review guide. The summarised data in the form of word-processed documents were uploaded into MAXQDA software as well in readiness for analysis.

Since the collected data were heterogeneous from different methods (in-depth interviews and documentary reviews), they were separately analysed. This was decided depending on how data collection instruments were initially structured and the research objectives aimed to be achieved. So, the analysis was structured in a way that the most important analysis was conducted first to allow the data to build on the other preceding data.

### 5.8.2 Analysis of policy documents

To address the research questions on the state, role and relevance of NFSE policy support mechanisms, policy arguments from different national and institutional policies on NFSE provision were analysed. Supported by MAXQDA software, the analysis process was guided by the central research question, whereby the *conventional approach* to content analysis was applied to ensure that the selected documents were thoroughly read and the emerging key concepts captured and sorted into categories directly and inductively from the documents taking into account their content relationship in terms of concurrence and consequences (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1279). These procedures are quite similar to what Mayring (2000, 2014) describes as the inductive category development (p. 3 and p. 79, respectively). Having made the specific categories of policy content from the policy documents reviewed, the categorised data was exported to a word file already for critical reflection, interpretation and presentation as per research questions. To consolidate the documentary evidence, however, analysis of the interview transcripts was the second level of policy analysis. The next section describes how the views and experiences of the NFSE actors from the interview transcripts were analysed before relating and merging their categories with those obtained from transcriptions of policy documents.

### 5.8.3 Analysis of interview responses

As analysis is a key step in most qualitative studies, the process of interview data analysis began partly during data collection by checking back and forth between the study variables and the data collection process which helped to make the subsequent interview data collection more focused (cf. Balbach, 1999; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2005; Suter, 2012; Creswell, 2014). Having finished interview data transcription as presented in subsection 5.8.1, the interview transcripts, as inputs, were uploaded into MAXQDA software. The researcher then reviewed the purpose of the study and identified all the key questions the analysis had to answer to refresh the focus of the study and ensure the analysis was framed to inform them. The study adopted a step-by-step model of inductive category development pioneered by Mayring (2000, p. 4 & 2014, p. 80). The model was not, however, treated as a standardised instrument that always remains the same; rather, it was adapted to suit the purpose and material in question (cf. Mayring, 2014). The advantage of this approach was its economic value of working with big data amounts with the generated knowledge being based on the interviewees' perspectives

grounded in the actual data and interpreted within its context (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Mayring, 2014).

Informed by this inductive category development as suggested by Hsieh & Shannon (2005) and Mayring (2010; 2014), the researcher planned in the first place to consider only the content relevant to the research questions by focusing on the clear semantic parts in the text (*coding unit*)<sup>13</sup> as a selection rule in building categories. Informed by the theoretical background, the research questions, and the aims of this analysis, the study defined the critical NFE policy and institutional challenges and their threats to the provision and sustainability of NFSE in advance as *category definition*—a selection criterion in determining relevant material from the texts (cf. Mayring, 2014). Although this category definition being a deductive element established from the theoretical background, it is still strongly recommended by Mayring (2014) as an important criterion for the selection process in developing categories directly from the material (p. 81). Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) uphold the same approach as well, arguing that research concerns (what is to be known and why) constitute a blueprint in determining coding decisions (p. 44).

The interview data materials were, then, carefully read and linked to the research concerns (category definition) to capture the most fitting and relevant materials. With MAXQDA, the meaningful text segments fitting the category definition were coded directly from the data and sorted into the categories based on their interrelationship while subsuming the repeating ideas. Generally, this was a back-and-forth process that helped to exhaust the categories and examine their logic in the category system to achieve the level of abstraction adequate to the subject matter and aims of the analysis (see Mayring, 2014). MAXQDA helped further to create memos alongside the codes and categories that included the researcher's initial impressions and reflections for future use.

#### **5.8.4 Data interpretation and discussion**

Since the data collected from interviews and documentary review were separately analysed, the related categories from each side that addressed a similar research question

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<sup>13</sup> Coding unit in this study is conceived as a comprehensive segment of texts containing piece of relevant information that can be coded as a content-analytical unit and categorised to answer the attendant research questions.

were then merged basing on the research concerns/category definition in readiness for interpretation and discussion. In ensuring deep understanding and clear interpretation of the cases, the developed categories were also grouped into more comprehensive categories that were more useful for enhancing the level of abstraction and answering the research questions in a hierarchical structure (Mayring, 2000; Auerbachand & Silverstein, 2003; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Mayring, 2014).

Having organised data into exhaustive categories, meanings, patterns and connections were established within and between the categories and sub-categories that enabled the identification of consistencies and differences. At this point, the category system was then interpreted in the direction of the research questions examining the participants' experiences and in some cases quoting verbatim their statements, as well as quoting policy statements whenever deemed necessary. Such a systematic and comprehensive approach helped to form a coherent story to support the interpretation (giving meanings and making data understandable) and later linked to the abstract world of theory in the literature (Auerbachand & Silverstein, 2003; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Concurrently, there was a discussion of the findings whereby categories formed the main sections and sub-categories formed the sub-sections of the findings chapters.

## **5.9 Ethical Considerations**

Ethical issues are an integral part of the research (Cohen et al., 2007). In conducting research inquiries, therefore, one should think of the ethical implications in a bid to conform to professional practices. In the current study, ethical issues were taken into account and adhered to in different ways:

Firstly, the researcher secured a research clearance from the Research and Publication Bureau of the University of Dar es Salaam, which approved the authenticity of the study and enabled the researcher to introduce himself to and ask for data collection permission from all the authorities and institutions consulted in the study area (refer to sub-section 5.5.2, and appendices VIIIA to VIIIIf). This was a legal provision which assured all the respondents about the legality of this research undertaking and also granted the researcher freedom to conduct the study within the specified timeframe.

Secondly, informed consent was sought from all interviewees. Before obtaining informed consent, the interviewees were initially informed about the purpose of the study. It was only after obtaining their consent that any interview was carried out. Notably, participation in this study was on a voluntary basis. In other words, research respondents had the right and choice to participate in the study or opt out at any stage of the research process should they so wish (refer Appendix IV).

Thirdly, the right to privacy and confidentiality is also one of the key ethical guidelines that researchers must observe (Best & Khan, 1998). In this regard, the data collected in all forms such as interview notes and recorded audio clips were used only for academic purposes and all the responses were reported by respecting participants' right to privacy. The participants' identities remained unidentified in the report to ensure that none of the research participants was exposed to any undesirable consequences. The next three chapters present and discuss the empirical findings of the study.

**CHAPTER SIX**  
**POLICY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK FOR NFSE**  
**PROVISION IN TANZANIA**

“The success of projects and programmes (in terms of relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact and sustainability) depends largely on the broader context in which they take place. ...the political, institutional and legal context; the financial package; and the regulatory and delivery system.”  
(Molle, 2007, pp. 128-129).

Generally, innovation outlives the supporters when supported by the lasting systems and structures in terms of institutional and legal environments, political will, funding mechanisms, and regulatory systems. This chapter examines the existing policies, legislations and regulations at the governance level that support the provision of NFSE, in addressing the first research objective and its attendant sub-questions. The chapter seeks to establish the specific policy statements and statutes that guide the establishment and provision of NFSE. In particular, it focuses on examining the context within which the NFSE operates in a bid to establish the role and relevance of the policy mechanisms adopted in guiding the provision of NFSE across its institutional levels. In this regard, information was mainly obtained through documentary review complemented by information from in-depth interviews held with NFE policy-makers and managers.

**6.1 Category System on the State, Role and Relevance of Adopted Policies**

Since the research findings in this chapter provide answers to the first category of research questions on the state, role and relevance of the adopted policies towards guiding the provision of NFSE, an overview of the category system is captured to establish wider view and connectedness of the themes that emerged from resultant data analysis for easy reflection and exhaustive discussion. In this case, sequencing of the sections and sub-sections in this chapter is in consonance with the categories and sub-categories as visualised in figure 6.1, also guided by the research questions and the theoretical framework that provided the logical flow of arguments within and across all chapters. Figure 6.1 summarises the category system of this chapter as extracted from the coding process:

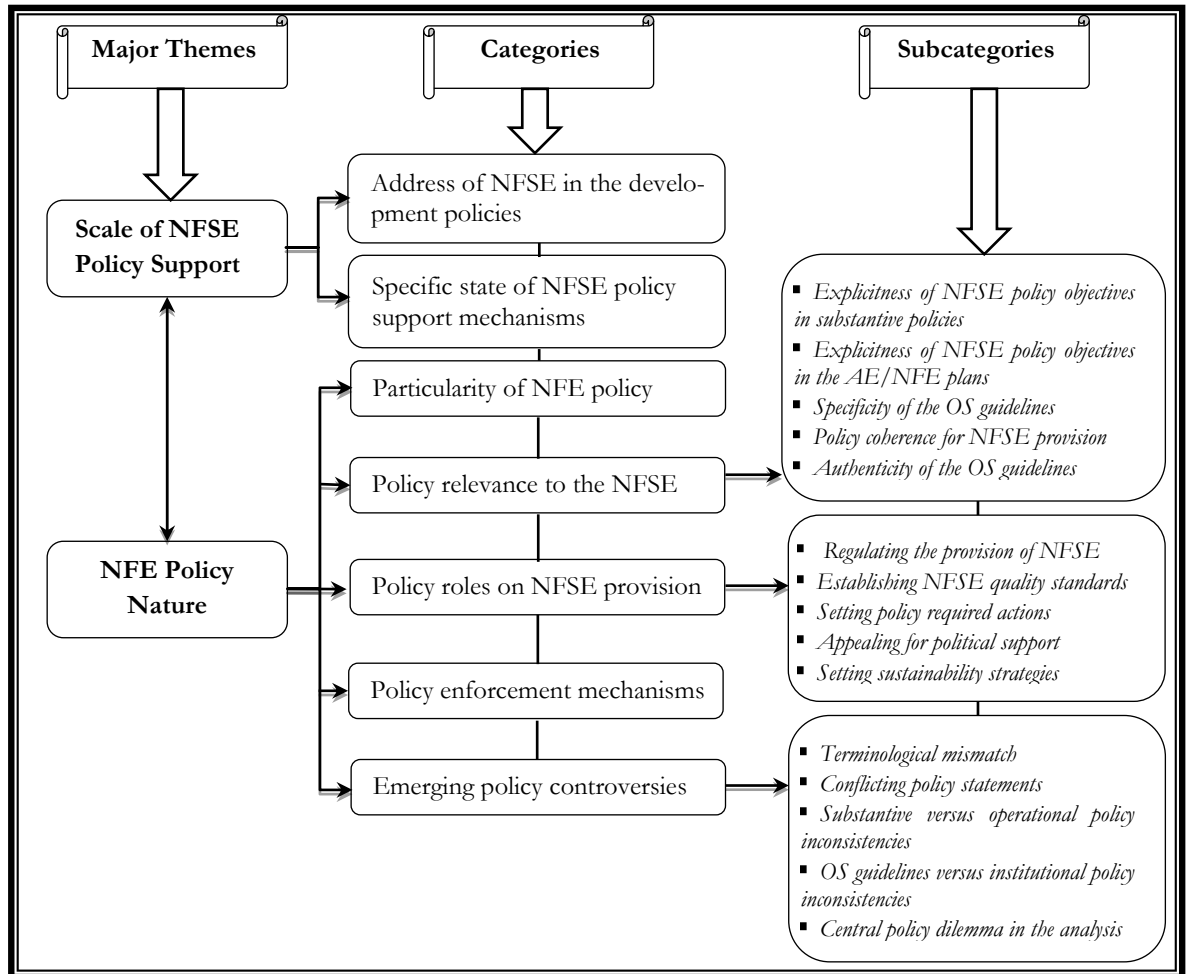


Figure 6.1: Visualisation of Category System on the State, Role and Relevance of the Adopted Policies for NFSE

## 6.2 Scale of NFSE Policy Support Evidence

Before embarking on examining the specific conceptions and objectives of NFSE, and other key issues reflected in various education policies and legislations, it is deemed important first to establish whether the NFE in which the NFSE belongs is adequately backed up, recognised and accorded the same value and treatment as the formal education in national development plans (macroeconomic policy frameworks). This view is fully supported in the policy theory, which asserts that educational policy objectives and activities need to be aligned with the broad goals in the macro-development plans and policies (Mosha, 2006; Molle, 2007; UNESCO, 2013). Moreover, the success and sustainability of any programme depend on the political, institutional and legal contexts which are central policy elements (Molle, 2007, cf. Knoepfel et al., 2007). Thus, a review of Tanzania's development plans was quite necessary.



### 6.2.1 Address of NFSE in national development policies

During the review of the national development plans (macro policies), it was noted that education in all forms and at all levels was cherished in the country's broad development plans as a strategic change agent in transforming people's lives. For instance, the National Development Vision (NDV-2025) stipulates:

Tanzania should be a nation with high quality of education at all levels; a nation which produces the quantity and quality of educated people sufficiently equipped with the requisite knowledge to solve the society's problems, meet the challenges of development and attain competitiveness at regional and global levels. ...The society should be encouraged to learn continuously in order to upgrade and improve its capacity to respond to threats and to exploit every opportunity for its own betterment and for the improvement of its quality of life (URT, 1999, p. 5, ...p. 18).

This broad policy statement considers education as a key agent in solving societal problems and addressing development challenges. Hence, priority is highly vested in continuous learning across and beyond the borders of conventional education. Similarly, based on the aspirations of the NDV-2025, the NSGRP also maintains the principle that sustainable development is only possible through the increased and improved level of education in all forms (URT, 2010a). These findings confirm that country's broad development plans adequately recognise and support AE/NFE and its respective programmes including the NFSE.

Addressing all forms of education including NFSE is crucial in attaining a well-educated and learning society (UNESCO, 2009). Such a political context of overarching and accompanying state elaborations as the general policy discourse for education empowers education institutions to adapt and comply with the macro-level requirements and government mandates in serving the interests of their target clientele at the micro level and, thus, reflect the estimated isomorphic assumptions in the institutional theory (cf. Zucker, 2012). Thus, apart from *education for all* being centripetal to the country's development plans, it implies further that specific and operational education policies and programmes are also essential to be established in the fulfilment of the desired achievements in the macro development policies. The general impression of the revealed policy context in this section thus suggests that NFSE as an education programme for upgrading and improving youth and adults' capacity, as well as solving societal problems would receive an equal attention in the education sector-wide policies as well as in specific NFE operational plans and guidelines for its thorough provision.

### 6.2.2 Specific state of policy and legal support mechanisms for NFSE

Building on the findings revealed in sub-section 6.2.1, the first research question that examined the state, role and relevance of policy support mechanisms adopted in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE was then addressed in more specific terms by analysing various education policy and legal-related documents. The main thrust was to map out the specific policy and legal contexts addressing NFSE and examine in particular the articulated policy statements, their objectives and principles upon which their role and relevance in guiding NFSE provision in the country could be established. This examination of the NFSE regulatory framework was prompted by the notion that adult learning is by nature also affected by the legal context (Preece, 2011).

During analysis, the education policy documents were found to contain distinct policy statements and statutes on AE/NFE. Some of the provisions addressed AE/NFE in general whilst others specifically articulated the procedures and mechanisms that guide the provision of NFSE. They were, thus, varying in their nature in terms of scope, level of operation, content, purposes, target groups, as well as level of specificity. In this case, they were clustered threefold: *substantive* education policy documents, *legislative/statutory* documents and *procedural/operational* policy documents as informed by the literature review (link to sub-sections 3.5.5 and 3.5.6). Table 6.1 summarises information generated from the review of policy and regulatory documents, and specifically dwells on the key statements or objectives that execute NFSE activities and their level of operation:

**Table 6.1: Policy and Legal Statements on NFSE Provision**

Policy Type	Name of the Policy/ Legislative Document	Key Policy Statements / Objectives Contained
1.Substantive	<p>i. Education and Training Policy (ETP-1995) – The national education policy governed education provision in the country.</p> <p>ii. Education &amp; Training Policy (ETP-2014)<sup>14</sup> – A newly-introduced</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ “Non-formal education and training shall be recognised, promoted, strengthened, coordinated and integrated with formal education and training system” (p.16).</li> <li>▪ The policy objectives concerning adult education are: “to eradicate illiteracy, sustain post-literacy and numeracy; to promote the acquisition and development of basic knowledge and functional skills relevant to personal development and life in the community; to lay foundation for lifelong education; to ensure the realization of the basic human rights of EFA; and complement formal education” (p. 83).</li> <li>▪ Sub-section 2.2.2 on specific objectives of the policy states among other things “To ensure availability of various</li> </ul>

<sup>14</sup> The policy was officially introduced in 2015 to replace the ETP-1995 though yet to be implemented fully. Its analysis was, thus, a supplement to the initial data for this study since data collection preceded its inauguration. The original document appears in Kiswahili language hence, the quotations are translated.

	<p>education policy.</p> <p>iii. Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP, 2008-2017) – A comprehensive plan for the whole education sector transformation, and indeed as strategy to translate the ETP-1995 into action.</p>	<p>education and training opportunities in the country and establish flexible system, structure and rules that enable Tanzanians develop their potentials in different forms of education provision.” (p. 20).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Sub-section 3.3.4 states: “The government shall arrange and establish an enabling environment to ensure education and training including adult education is efficiently provided at all levels in various ways, including open and distance learning.” (p. 44).</li> <li>▪ The main thrust of the plan on AE/NFE is to: “ensure out of school children, illiterate youth and adults access quality basic learning opportunities; ensure youth, adults, out of school, and vulnerable groups both men and women access knowledge and vocational skills” (p.4).</li> <li>▪ The broad policy objectives geared to address NFE are: “ensuring equitable access to quality education at all levels; ensuring skills development and universal literacy for all men and women; ensuring strategic enrolment expansion in areas relevant to the promotion of sound social economic growth and reduction of poverty (p. 5).</li> </ul>
<p>2.Legislative /Statutory</p>	<p>i. The Education (Amendment) Act, No. 10 of 1995 – read as one with the Education Act, No. 25 of 1978.</p> <p>ii. The Institute of Adult Education Act No. 12 of 1975.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Section 3 of Education Act 1995 read as one with section 2 of the principal Act defines: “Adult education means the training of persons in the art of reading, writing and arithmetic, and in other fields of learning, the training in which they could not obtain through the formal process of education.”</li> <li>▪ Section 14 of Act 1995 read as one with section 20 of Act 1978 reads: “Where adult education is provided at any school in addition to pre-primary, primary, secondary or teacher education, there shall be deemed to be a separate school in respect of the adult education provided at that school and that separate school shall be separately registered under section 19.”</li> <li>▪ Section 37 of Act 1995 read as one with section 59 of Act 1978 maintains: “Any person who establishes or maintains any <i>school</i><sup>15</sup> without having been approved by the Minister and or the Commissioner for education shall be guilty of an offence and shall be liable on conviction to a fine or imprisonment.”</li> </ul> <p>Section 4 addresses the objects and functions of the IAE, to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ formulate and execute programmes for the training of teachers and administrators of adult education;</li> <li>▪ assume responsibility for adult education within the United Republic of Tanzania and to make provision for places and, centres of learning;</li> <li>▪ cooperate with the government and people in the planned and orderly development of adult education service;</li> <li>▪ assist in the development of relevant curricula and appropriate syllabi for adult education programmes;</li> <li>▪ cooperate with, and endeavour to coordinate the activities of other institutions or organisations which are concerned with the promotion of adult education.</li> </ul>

<sup>15</sup> Section 3 of Education (Amendment) Act of 1995 defines school as “any assembly, institution, organisation or place, by whatever name called, which provides or where there is provided, for several or more persons whether or not at the same time, pre-primary, primary, secondary, teacher education or adult education...” (URT, 1995b, p. 4).

3.Operational /Procedural	<p>i. Adult and Non-Formal Education Development Plan (ANFEDP), 2012/13 – 2016/17</p> <p>ii. Adult and Non-Formal Education Sub-sector, Medium Term Strategy 2010/11 – 2014/15.</p> <p>iii. Guidelines for the Establishment and Registration of Open Schools (2013).</p> <p>iv. Secondary Education through Open and Distance Learning (SE-ODL) Implementation Guidelines in Tanzania (2013).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ ANFEDP focuses on the following critical AE/NFE issues: - advocacy and sensitisation, access and equity, quality enhancement, capacity enhancement and development, monitoring and evaluation, administration and coordination, financing and sustainability of the adult, non-formal and continuing education (p. 9).</li> <li>▪ ANFEDP aims to ensure that “out-of-school children, illiterate youth and adults will get quality education and create a lifelong learning society and improve people’s livelihood...” (p. 8)</li> <li>▪ Among the key strategies in this programme are to: ensure availability of facilities for ODL learners; initiate more ODL centres for advanced secondary education, use of ICT and multimedia in teaching and learning in the ODL; initiate learner support services in all ODL centres; and develop the national ODL policy and implementation guideline (p. 29).</li> <li>▪ The strategy is envisaged to reduce the backlogs of out-of-school children and youth with the core strategic priorities of increasing access and equity, quality enhancement, capacity enhancement and development in the post literacy and continuing education (p. 15).</li> <li>▪ Improve quality of secondary education through open and distance learning (ODL)<sup>16</sup></li> <li>▪ The Open Schools guidelines provide policy direction to facilitate coordinated system of <i>Open Schooling</i><sup>17</sup>; clarify procedures for the establishment, monitoring and evaluation; inform providers of the legal requirement; prescribe minimum standards; offer advice and guidance for owners and managers; and enhance transparency and accountability in all matters pertaining to the delivery of Open Schooling programmes throughout Tanzania (p. 8).</li> <li>▪ The SE-ODL implementation guidelines provide legal and practical working framework, quality assurance and quality control mechanisms, communication system among the NFSE service providers, procedures and requirements to register NFSE centres and learners as well as the internal assessment procedures.</li> </ul>
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**Source:** URT (1975, 1995a, 1995b, 2008a, 2010b, 2012a, 2013a, 2013b, 2014a).

Analysis of the education policies specified in Table 6.1 reveals that there are policy statements, objectives and principles that guide the AE/NFE in general. Their forms and directions are highly influenced by the themes and goals of the macro policies (both internal and external) such as the NDV-2025, NSGRP, EFA goals and MDGs initiatives

<sup>16</sup> Stands for *Open and Distance Learning*, a mode of providing education opportunities to youth/adults outside the conventional system, with a potential of promoting education access, equity and quality at minimum costs. The approach is used by the IAE to enable adults and out-of-school youth to pursue their secondary education.

<sup>17</sup> In the Tanzanian context, open schooling is defined as “a system of education and training that provides structured learning opportunities at pre-university level for those outside the conventional school system using alternative media intended to facilitate increased independence and self-direction in the learning process” (URT, 2013a, p. 2).

(cf. URT, 2008a, p. 2). They are also influenced by the shift of emphasis on liberalisation of education to cope with the specified current national and international policies under the pressure of globalisation (see also URT, 1995a, p. xi, & 2014a, p. viii). The former argument, for instance, is categorically supported in most of the education policies reviewed as the following statement illustrates:

[Although] ESDP was initiated in 1997 as an effort to translate the Education and Training Policy of 1995 into comprehensive and complementary sub-sector strategies, there was a need to reexamine how the programme may best act as a concrete policy mechanism for implementing Vision 2025 as well as the Education For All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) initiatives, each of which is of great concern to the Government of Tanzania and its development partners (DPs)” (URT, 2008a, p. 2).

These findings reflect the power of coercive policies—a tenet of *institutional theory* whereby external pressure (macro policies) influences organisations and their structures, policies and practices (Dacin et al., 2002; Mills et al., 2010; Zucker, 2012). The principal theme and focus in those macro policy documents has been improving education provision at different levels for the purpose of developing human capital capable of boosting economic growth and alleviating poverty (URT, 1999; Oxfam, 2010; UNESCO, 2000; URT, 2010a). Although this broad policy context is key, a concern arises on the extent to which such macro political motivations are fully reflected and practically translated and instigated in specific AE/NFE policies and their subsequent implementation plans, programmes and guidelines (refer also to Table 6.1) to ensure policy relevance and enable thorough and sustainable provision of NFSE. Such policy consistency is estimated to be crucial in avoiding conflicting priorities and duplications, and ensuring the implementation capacities in terms resources (UNESCO, 2013). In that light, the nature of the NFE policy, including the role and relevance of each policy guiding the provision of NFSE was also established and unveiled (see section 6.3).

### 6.3 Policy Nature

Policy nature is a comprehensive category in this analysis, labelled after establishing various policy arguments and statements from the policy documents reviewed as presented in Table 6.1, as well as from the policy-makers that offered adequate details on the nature of the NFE policy. The determination of this main category, which also enhances the level of abstraction in examining the role and relevance of policy in this thesis, was equally supported by the researcher’s assumption that relevant policy is an important input which plays a crucial role in guiding the provision and governance of

NFE and a factor for systematic NFSE practices (cf. Molle, 2007; Preece, 2011). In other words, the nature of policy is to a large extent predictive of the NFSE practices in the country. Thus, five related categories, namely the particularity of the NFE policy, policy relevance, policy role, policy enforcement mechanisms, and the emerging controversies and mismatches emerging from the policy analysis are captured under this section, each with several sub-categories in their relationships.

### **6.3.1 Particularity of NFE policy and the place of NFSE**

A thorough review of education policies as depicted in Table 6.1 reveals that Tanzania has no specific AE/NFE policy in its own right which would particularly address the provision of NFSE. The AE/NFE policy, which guides the provision of NFSE, was merely an appendage to the broad education policies and, thus, lacked a coherent policy vision and traits of being a complete, concrete and independent policy. Within that context, the NFE policy is articulated in general terms and its key components are mentioned in passing in the substantive policies such as the old ETP-1995 and its subsequent ESDP, as well as in the new ETP-2014 (refer URT, 1995a, p. 81, 2008a, p. 5, 2014a, p. 22). Whereas various initiatives towards the enactment of an independent AE/NFE policy were found to be underway, lack of comprehensiveness and particularity of NFE and NFSE concerns in the ETP-1995 and ESDP was reported by the top NFSE managers and policy-makers to be one of the biggest policy challenges that was expected to be rectified in the newly-introduced ETP-2014. The new direction was to delineate various AE/NFE policy aspects concerning the demands of youth and adults and address the challenges of NFE provision. In spite of the procrastination and dilly-dallying of such new education and training policy, it has still maintained the status quo of the past policies by providing similar and even more broad-based policy statements for NFE and NFSE in particular (refer to URT, 2014a, pp. 20&44). This state of partial address of the NFE policy within the substantive educational policies raised more concerns about the range of NFE programmes envisaged to be executed, the exact nature of NFE problems to be resolved, and even the specific NFE policy objectives to be achieved.

Despite the claims that ETPs are comprehensive enough to integrate both formal and non-formal education and training (see, for instance, URT, 1995a, p. xii, & 2014a, p. 20), the evaluation of their statements and conceptions reveal that NFE as a sub-sector was



not specifically targeted and addressed in particularity across its spectrum of programmes rather, prioritisation of just few basic NFE programmes (cf. Mnjagila, 2011, p. 140). This was similarly supported by the NFE policy-makers and managers at the macro and meso levels, who tended to be dissatisfied with the place of AE/NFE in the existing national education policies. Here are some of their remarks:

- i. *Currently, the NFE policy is just submerged in the ETP where it is not comprehensively addressed. That is why we proposed the guidelines for the establishment and provision of NFSE through ODL (MoEVT-AEO1).*
- ii. *We are fighting to have a national ODL policy in place that will single out all the NFE issues in their broad perspectives. Having NFE issues within the general education policy is not right. After all, NFE is just captured in the ETP in a snapshot, leaving out important components such as NFSE (IAEO1).*

These statements imply that, apart from the missing independent AE/NFE policy, its appendage to the general education policies was still incomprehensively captured and implicitly articulated. These findings correspond with and reflect what was revealed in the national and international literature that AE/NFE in many developing countries is rarely mainstreamed in development plans and comprehensive policy frameworks, and whenever recognised it is usually subsumed under the general education policies (Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991; UNESCO, 2009; Yang & Valdés-Cotera, 2011; Aitchison, 2012). Empirically, these findings on partial and inconsistent NFE policy are consistent with those of Aitchison (2012), who established that, despite the NFE policies being subsumed in other policies in Southern African countries, they were, indeed, not given the impetus they deserve.

Aitchison concluded that lack of comprehensive policies and plans in Southern Africa, specifically related to the youth's and adults' education, as well as the gaps in policy formulation means made it difficult for the AE/NFE sub-sector to meet adequately their current needs and demands, as well as that of the burgeoning out-of-school population (Aitchison, 2012). The relevance of this argument stems from the fact that the existence of a long-term and coherent NFE policy vision strengthens programmes, indicates recognition and guarantees explicit political commitment in the allocation of the required resources to execute the planned strategies for youth and adults though not necessarily complete (ibid; UNESCO, 2012).



### 6.3.2 Policy relevance to the NFSE provision

The category of policy relevance for the provision of NFSE is composed of five related sub-categories: explicitness of NFSE policy objectives in substantive policies, explicitness of the NFSE policy objectives in AE/NFE plans, specificity of the NFSE policy objectives at the operational level, policy coherence in guiding provision of NFSE, as well as the authenticity of the OS guidelines as they emerged from both policy documentary search and interview responses. The themes described the general level of policy relevance to guiding the provision and governance of NFSE in the country. Nevertheless, the issue of policy relevance cannot be exclusively described as it overlaps with the attributes of policy role. Thus, sub-section 6.3.3 on policy role complements this category by reflecting on some constituents of policy relevance.

#### *Explicitness of NFSE policy objectives in substantive policies*

Table 6.1 shows some basics for lifelong education as laid down by the substantive educational policies identified that would somewhat support the realisation of education as a basic human right. Nonetheless, a systematic examination of the statements and objectives related to AE/NFE in those substantive policies and legislations provided just a minimal, general and vague guidance for the provision of NFSE. The policy statements and objectives for AE/NFE were narrowly conceived and solely confined to the literacy and post-literacy and numeracy programmes. For example, the policy objectives concerning AE in which NFSE is embodied were articulated in the ETP-1995, as well as in the ESDP as consecutively illustrated in the following policy statements:

- i.* ...to eradicate illiteracy, sustain post-literacy and numeracy; to promote the acquisition and development of basic knowledge and functional skills relevant to personal development and life in the community; to lay foundation for lifelong education; to ensure the realization of the basic human rights of EFA; and complement formal education (URT, 1995a, p. 83).
- ii.* ...ensuring equitable access to quality education at all levels; ensuring skills development and universal literacy for all men and women; ensuring strategic enrolment expansion in areas relevant to the promotion of sound social economic growth and reduction of poverty (URT, 2008a, p. 5).

At the level of policy explicitness, these policy objectives and their contextual explanations that established them in the respective policy documents suggest that in the view of the ETP-1995 and ESDP, the objectives of AE/NFE are largely meant to promote universal literacy that builds basic knowledge and functional skills for personal

development with the more advanced levels of NFE such as NFSE not being given a similar push. These findings are similarly reflected and justified in the national report on development and state of the art of adult learning and education (ALE) in Tanzania, which underscores priority goals of adult learning and education thusly:

- i.* To eradicate illiteracy, sustain post-literacy and numeracy;
- ii.* To promote the acquisition and development of basic knowledge and functional skills relevant to personal development and life in the community;
- iii.* To lay the foundation for lifelong learning;
- iv.* To ensure the realisation of the basic human right to Education for All and to complement formal education; and
- v.* To provide education to the disadvantaged groups, including nomads, girls and women on cross-cutting issues such as HIV/AIDS, poverty reduction, environment and good governance (URT, 2008b, p. 12).

While seeking opinions from the NFE policy-makers and trying to compare the findings, it was established that the findings from the policy documents synchronised with the remarks by top NFE policy-makers at the MoEVT-HQs who challenged the explicitness and relevance of NFE policy objectives in the existing policies. One of them affirmed:

*It is true that the Education and Training Policy and ESDP objectives still focus on NFE programmes at low levels such as complementary basic education and literacy programmes. Although the education objectives and demands have changed, the policies are inflexible and the Acts that guide NFE are outdated. Indeed, these legal instruments are all obsolete. This situation calls for an ODL policy that can cater for various NFE programmes to capture the current and future needs and demands of youth and adults in their broad spectrum (MoEVT-AEO1).*

These findings signify that policy objectives in the substantive education policies generally lacked specific responsiveness to the broad range of NFE programmes as they were orientated towards fulfilling literacy and functional literacy needs. Top NFE policy makers and managers argued that such lack of clarity in policy objectives was one of the key reasons that culminated in the newly-introduced ETP-2014, as well as the OS guidelines (2013) in a bid to remedy the situation and fill the existing policy gaps. However, even after the enactment of the new ETP-2014 which was officially launched in 2015, its review confirms that AE/NFE objectives including NFSE were still generically presented. For instance, sub-section 3.3.4 of the policy, which specifically addresses AE/NFE, states:

The government shall arrange and establish an enabling environment to ensure education and training including adult education is efficiently provided at all levels in various ways, including open and distance learning (URT, 2014a, p. 44, translated from Kiswahili version).

In essence, this policy statement is so general that it is hard to figure out what it intends to achieve in so far as NFSE is concerned. Indeed, it lacks clear operational objectives for NFE and NFSE in particular, as it is the case in other education policies of other developing countries (cf. O’Gara et al., 2008, p. 32). Although this policy statement places almost equal weight on all forms of education and puts emphasis on both AE and distance learning, the background information and descriptions provided on page 43 of the same policy document, which reinforces the pronouncement of such policy statement, delineates the basic literacy and post-literacy programmes as the only prioritised areas. These findings suggest that the newly-introduced (revised) policy is a case of “old wine in a new bottle”. From the pragmatic perspective of policy analysis, Ball (1995) asserts that such general policy argument signifies a potential level of policy irrelevance, hence constituting an internal problem in many countries where education planners are either unformed about the range and variety of NFE programmes offered or it is conceived as playing a mere para-formal and subsidiary role (Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991; Spronk, 1999; Nnazor, 2005). It is apparent in Tanzania that the just stated policy objectives fail to accord education for out-of-secondary school youth and adults the same value and priority as that of those in the basic NFE and formal education programmes as revealed in sub-section 6.2.1.

Although the NFSE policy objectives in the substantive policies cannot be completely refuted as there were clauses on continuing education and open and distance learning as integral parts of the education system in all the ETPs (see, for instance, URT, 1995a, p. 86, 2014a, p. 44), such provisos were generally sketchy as continuing education and open and distance learning are basically broad concepts which embody various programmes across different educational levels and carried out in different contexts. In other words, NFSE as basic education lacked specific mention and impetus. The general state of NFE policy objectives and emphasis on the functional literacy may leave the good ideas of lifelong learning merely theoretical than practical (Nnazor, 2005). Furthermore, no enabling environment for other NFE programmes such as NFSE to operate smoothly was created (Nafukho et al., 2011). Commonly, the context of neglected key matters for NFSE in the broad policy objectives in relation to what is currently on the public agenda adversely compromises the relevance of respective policies (Sutton, 1983).

When tracing the root cause, the direction of education policies was found to be a perpetuation of the historical misconceptions and myth of AE/NFE, which has affected the NFE sub-sector in many ways (cf. Maoulidi, 2011; Mnjagila, 2011). Empirical findings by Bhalalusesa (2007), for instance, revealed that EFA in Tanzania is implicitly considered to be basic education even among key educational officials such as policy-makers. In this context, the contention by UNESCO that AE in sub-Saharan Africa region is mainly linked to literacy and basic education and is typically subsumed in general education policies still seems relevant and applicable even today (UIL, 2009, p. 29). Crucially, the vision of AE/NFE has been enlarging while the sub-sector has been growing beyond the literacy and adult basic education that have dominated the previous policy and practice, thus calling for change of its attendant policies (Torres, 2004; Walker, 2011).

Conclusively in all the cases discussed in this sub-section, the assumptions underpinning the substantive policies and what they aim to achieve are hardly justified in relation to the current needs and demands of NFSE. They hardly reflect the current NFSE challenges, needs and demands for youth and adults towards achieving their social, economic and even political fortunes. In other words, they are not fully applicable and effective in today's NFSE practices. Accordingly, one would argue that the objectives in the substantive education policies were neither concrete nor adequately formulated on the basis of all NFE problems that ought to be resolved. On the whole, NFSE suffers from its institutionalisation as the institutional logics of the formal education system remain in place (cf. Bock, 1976; Hefler, 2012). As the policies have implications in the process of NFE programme implementation, such policy objectives appear unrealistic and lacking adequate relevance and, thus, there is a need for a redefinition of the existing NFE public problems (Knoepfel et al., 2007).

#### ***Explicitness of NFSE policy objectives in AE/NFE plans***

A review of the AE/NFE implementation plans as operational policies categorised in Table 6.1 demonstrates some specific NFSE concerns (see, for instance, URT, 2010b, pp. 21-22, & 2012a, p. 29). However, their current state is still complicated by the ambiguities of their components regarding which particular NFE programmes and groups of youth and adults deserve support. The conceptions about AE/NFE and the related policy objectives revealed in the substantive policies in sub-section 6.3.2 were

similarly and consistently found to be narrowly applied in most of the AE/NFE plans despite their being designed for the general purpose of ensuring all out-of-school children, youth and adults get an education that would enable them to be knowledgeable and skilled enough for their social and economic betterment. The following are some of the exemplary sections from the current AE/NFE Development Plan (ANFEDP) and AE/NFE sub-sector medium-term strategy as key operational policy documents for the implementation of NFE programmes in the country:

- i.* ...to ensure that out-of-school children, illiterate youth and adults will get a quality education and create a lifelong learning society and improve people's livelihood. It is important to realise that basic and post-literacy for young people and adults as well as continuing education should be viewed as a lifelong process which builds a complete literate society and intends to realise the EFA goals and contribute to the improvement of people's livelihood. (URT, 2012a, p. 8).
- ii.* It is important to realise that adult literacy and continuing education should be viewed as a lifelong process which begins to build a complete literate society and it is intended to realise the EFA goals and much better-improved literacy levels by 2015. (URT, 2010b, p. 6).

Although continuing education under which NFSE falls is captured in the plans, it is however, only implicitly addressed as the focus is still fixed on the literacy and functional literacy programmes. These findings reaffirm what Shemwetta et al. (2008) established: AE/NFE policies and their objectives in Tanzania appear to be derived from the macro-political and socio-economic imperatives as theoretically described in this study, without necessarily reflecting the practical conditions at the local or programme level. As a matter of fact, the AE/NFE plans were products of the vague and obsolete substantive policies as obscured in sub-section 6.3.2, which may sufficiently justify the fact that their development was also overly controlled and constrained by such broad policy and legal environments that compelled them to follow their course of actions (see further discussion in sub-section 6.3.2).

The policy gap revealed has implications for resource allocation to other AE/NFE programmes such as NFSE as well as implementation commitments. This was reaffirmed by the top NFSE managers during interviews, who indicated that, apart from the general myth about AE/NFE, programmes such as the NFSE were not prioritised in the NFE programme implementation plans due to financial constraints that have been affecting the sub-sector for so long. In its broad view, therefore, the situation could be interpreted as the effect of lack of concrete policy objectives in substantive

education policies from which these NFE implementation plans have been drawn. Although macro development plans insist on all forms of education programmes as sub-section 6.2.1 reveals, the overall policy analysis in the current study so far shows the absence of adequate provisions in the AE/NFE plans as key operational policies, hence exposing a weak connection to the macro development plans as a study by Aitchison (2012) also established.

A review of the local literature and reports on AE/NFE suggests that the nature of the stated NFSE policy objectives in the NFE implementation plans can be associated with what the government estimates and expects from NFSE in terms of its outcomes and broad effects on the larger community. For instance, the country's education sector performance report of 2011/2012 underscores the fact that the basic and functional literacy programmes were considered to be more important than others for their immediate tangible returns to adults (URT, 2012b, p. 64). Similarly, the ESDP, as an educational master plan in the country insists on high investment in basic education programmes as a rate of return (both social and private) is higher in basic education than in secondary and higher education (URT, 2008a, p. 41). Nonetheless, these reasons in favour of literacy and functional literacy programmes at the expense of other NFE programmes such as NFSE, which have been lacking impetus and motivation for their implementation have only been slightly convincing. There is adequate evidence that the phenomenon of unemployed youth and adults is more critical to primary than to secondary school leavers as they have insufficient skills to generate income and fit in the contemporary global market (Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2004; UNESCO, 2008, 2012). Indeed, their livelihood is more affected; as such, strengthening their knowledge and skills through advanced levels of education such as secondary education is centripetal to addressing those challenges. Arguing from economic point of view, for instance, Lewin and Caillods (2001) point out that education attained at the lower levels is unsatisfactory for youth to obtain access to a modern job sector, and the only chance that remains is to enroll in secondary education though such opportunities are limited. Recent studies also show that both productivity and income of the self-employed people rise with their education level. A specific mention was made on secondary-school leavers who are more likely to work in the most modern part of the informal economic sector as a means to fight against poverty and contributing to the overall economic development,

as well as to HIV prevention and support of democracy (Birks et al., as cited in Lewin & Caillods, 2001; Lewin, 2008; UNESCO, 2008; Hussain & Haladu, 2013).

***Specificity of the NFSE policy objectives at the operational level***

Apart from what has been revealed from the more or less broad education policies in sub-section 6.3.2, the following operational policy documents have been quite specific for NFSE; “*Guidelines for the Establishment and Registration of Open Schools (2013)*” and “*Secondary Education through Open and Distance Learning (SE-ODL) Implementation Guidelines in Tanzania (2013)*” [from here onwards jointly referred to as OS guidelines]. Mainly targeting the ODL programmes such as NFSE, the OS guidelines are quite time after a long period of their absence. They are devised to:

...provide policy direction to facilitate coordinated planning and development of a national wide system of open schooling; clarify procedures for the establishment, monitoring and evaluation; inform providers of the legal requirement; prescribe minimum standards; offer advice and guidance for owners and managers; and enhance transparency and accountability in all matters pertaining to the delivery of open schooling programmes throughout Tanzania (URT, 2013a, p. 8).

This policy extract from the OS guidelines demonstrates specific address of key operational issues for NFSE in the country. Indeed, these objectives try to somewhat fill the neglected species of NFSE revealed to have been missing in the substantive education policies and their respective AE/NFE implementation plans by stating specific principles and procedures for regulating and managing NFSE provision in the country (refer also to sub-section 6.3.3). It was revealed during interviews that their specificity was estimated to guarantee quality, promote outcomes, and eliminate informal NFSE practices. The situation might demonstrate some level of policy relevance. Thus, one would argue that sustainability of NFSE provision would also be enhanced. Similar research findings concluded that such level of policy specificity is crucial in reducing possibilities of misinterpretations, and in avoiding practices antithetical to professionalism in education (Lyabwene, 2007).

Reflecting on the theoretical framework of the study, the findings on the specificity of the OS guidelines in guiding the provision of NFSE suggest that a normative policy has a significant impact on the sustainability of an education programme as the isomorphic mechanisms outlined in the institutional theory (refer to sub-section 4.2.2) have identified. Nevertheless, the literature available suggests further that a policy can be



specific but not necessarily adequately relevant in the absence of coherence with other policies, which is worse than having a general policy (Lyabwene, 2007). Thus, the coherence of the OS guidelines with their respective substantive policies and plans is paramount in ensuring their adequate relevance and practicality on the ground.

### ***Policy coherence in guiding provision of NFSE***

Comparative analysis of objectives in substantive education policies, legislations, NFE plans and OS guidelines, as well as their envisaged outcomes to be achieved largely suggests a state of distinctiveness without responsiveness. These findings contradict the key assumptions of loose coupling theory. Although the objectives in the OS guidelines were seemingly specific and somewhat relevant as sub-section 6.3.2 has demonstrated, they were not consistent and adequately linked/informed by their respective substantive education policies and NFE plans. Since the OS guidelines are merely NFSE operational directives, such incoherence raised concerns about their political and legal support during implementation, which should be fully drawn from the substantive policies, plans and legislations. In this case, sustainability of NFSE could also be threatened since the proper provision of NFE requires alignment to several sets of policies to enhance legitimacy and public acceptance (Shemwetta et al., 2008). In line with the perspectives of textual deconstruction in tandem with pragmatic policy evaluation frameworks, such lack of policy coherence between and among policy objectives affects their appeal to authority and feasibility evidence (Codd, 1988; Ball, 1995). In essence, the operational policies such as OS guidelines should provide the frame conditions for the accomplishment of the state functions and, therefore, applicable to the operationalisation of the concrete substantive policies (cf. Knoepfel et al., 2007, p.105). On the basis of this theoretical evidence, therefore, the relevance of the OS guidelines and their objectives was not determined by their linkage to the substantive policies at the macro level, which were also found to be inconclusive and incoherent. Thus, validation of the relevance of these guidelines was viewed further in terms of how they were developed (see sub-section 6.3.2). Furthermore, the extent to which these guidelines were practical in solving the existing challenges of uncoordinated NFSE learning centres, differing contents, methods, teachers, materials, and learning environment was also highly determined by the existing policy enforcement mechanism as rightly discussed in sub-section 6.3.4.

### ***Authenticity of the OS guidelines***

Since the OS guidelines were found to be specifically devised to guide the establishment and provision of NFSE and the related programmes in the country, their weak link with the substantive education policies prompted the researcher's interest to probe further on how they were developed. This was deemed important in establishing the degree of the substantive policy backup and legal context surrounding the guidelines, as well as the NFSE actors' involvement and ownership of the guidelines as the basic policy ingredients for their relevance and effectiveness. Literature supports the view that, in order to illuminate on the reality of the practices, analysis of a policy needs to shed light on the policy development process (Bell & Stevenson, 2006). All that would eventually determine policy relevance in guiding the provision and management of NFSE.

#### ***i) Influence of the broad education policies***

The policy documents containing the OS guidelines underscore the reality that distance education was merely mentioned in passing in the substantive education policies. In fact, the absence of an independent, explicit and comprehensive policy for ODL in the country has produced relatively uncoordinated and *ad hoc* developments of NFE to-date (URT, 2013a, p. 3). As the OS guidelines aim to harmonise the existing gaps in policies on the one hand, and to effect changes in the NFE sub-sector on the other hand, only few policy elements were found to be drawn from the existing substantive policies and NFE plans. The OS guidelines reflected and incorporated what was thought to be more ideal for a real AE/NFE policy. The following statement from one of the NFE policy-makers provides further information:

*The guidelines were partly drawn from the broad education policies in the country and also from our own experiences. In fact, we approved the guidelines with the hope that the forthcoming education policy which is currently in progress and the country's ODL policy which is our ultimate target will reflect their components (MoEVT-AEO2).*

This policymaker's statement endorses the fact that despite the OS guidelines being specific for NFSE, they were developed in a context where the substantive education policies and related legislations that superseded the OS guidelines were incoherent and inconclusive. Such lack of complete ties and the vacuum of relevant broad policies would adversely affect the feasibility of OS guidelines by compromising their authenticity and legitimacy, hence making implementation difficult. Moreover, issuing OS guidelines, as operational directives with a mere hope of legal backup from non-

existing policies, further exposes inadequacies in terms of relevance, effectiveness and feasibility of the guidelines.

***ii) External policy influence***

As deliberate efforts aimed at overcoming the challenges and filling the policy gaps that could be inherited from the substantive education policies and legislations, the NFE policy-makers confirmed to have borrowed some policy elements from the external policies in devising the OS guidelines as the following actual statements illustrate:

- i. As a member of SADC<sup>18</sup> countries, we were jointly involved in developing policies, guidelines and strategies on how to operate ODL programmes including NFSE in the region. So, in devising these guidelines, we adapted some key policy issues from the SADC-ODL protocol, plus our own experiences (MoEVT-AEO2).*
- ii. Since the AE/NFE policies need to align with the international policies, the guidelines were developed in line with the ODL policy framework for SADC countries (IAEO1).*

The adaption of external policies and change of NFE goals and practices to be more or less similar like in other SADC countries reflects what Ogawa et al. (2008) and DiMaggio and Powell (2012) present as the ultimate pressure of *coercive* and *mimetic* policies in the institutional theory that guides this study. Although the borrowed elements from SADC-ODL protocol could be significant in improving the effectiveness and relevance of the OS guidelines, this mix is even more complex. As a matter of fact, Tanzania as a member of SADC had no such ODL policy in place as per agreed upon protocol that could establish a countrywide legal context and consolidate all the ODL activities including NFSE. This leads to another dilemma in implementing the OS guidelines at the NFSE institutional level as other policies were either inadequately supportive or yet to be institutionalised. Despite the convergence of policies from different contexts being useful (Burch, 2007, p. 85), Ben-Peretz (2009) suggests that it is even more important to adapt policy statements and fit them into a specific local context before their operationalisation. Indeed, there are often direct and indirect effects of the adopted policies as they have unanticipated and often undesirable consequences to a different bounded field of adult education (Edwards, 1997, p. 90). In this particular case, therefore, the country's AE/NFE or ODL policy as an overarching policy that interprets the SADC-ODL protocol, and from which the OS guidelines should be

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<sup>18</sup> It is a short form for Southern African Development Community, a regional social economic integration for Southern African countries.

drawn, needs to be in place first. Although NFE policy-makers and managers claimed this was underway, the existing policy challenges remained unsolved. As such, policy controversies are more likely to arise in the course of their implementation (refer to chapter eight for further details).

### ***iii) Situational analysis***

The findings revealed further that the OS guidelines were also developed by adopting some scientific procedures. In this regard, the NFE policy-makers from the MoEVT and IAE, who were also the key players in developing the OS guidelines, insisted:

- i. We conducted a situational analysis and then, the LAE was mandated to develop a draft which was later approved by the MoEVT (MoEVT-AEO1).*
- ii. The OS guidelines originated from the situational analysis conducted by the LAE and involved several AE/NFE stakeholders. The findings suggested and informed the current OS guidelines (IAEO1).*

The interviewees' actual statements suggest that the OS guidelines might have achieved a reasonable level of effectiveness and relevance as their development was based on *situational analysis*—an analytical technique that addresses both the internal and external factors that might affect the success of the policy (Global M&E Initiative, n.d.). Nevertheless, the process of situational analysis in this particular case can be criticised. The notion of a policy reflecting the actual needs and demands of the youth and adults, as well as addressing the challenges facing the sub-sector entail adequate information and data relevance (cf. Keming, 2011). As an aspect of situational analysis, therefore, it provides a basis for discussion, identifying key participants, tailoring the intervention to the specific needs, justification for action, and setting priorities (UNESCO, 2004). The findings of this study demonstrate that the sub-sector was facing a critical challenge of data desert and the NFSE centres in the country were not mapped to ensure policy decisions were evidence-based in curbing the real problems and challenges on the ground (refer to sub-section 7.4.5, and cf. Macpherson, 2007; Kanukisya, 2012). This evidence suggests that the development of the OS guidelines lacked rigour analysis, which is purely a representation of the nature of policies formulated in Africa (Shellukindo, 1992). Such incomplete causal hypotheses in policy caused ineffectiveness and adverse effects on the established guidelines and, thus, worse than having a broad education policy (Knoepfel et al., 2007). These findings, therefore, indicate that despite the mentioning of OS guidelines as specific for NFSE, their credibility and feasibility were consequently at stake. Thus, specific situational analysis and factual description of

the state of NFSE was necessary for functional policy targets and policy effectiveness to materialise (Aitchison, 2012).

#### ***iv) NFSE Actors' involvement***

Contrary to what was stated by the policy-makers as stated in (iii) above, it was revealed that the key and potential NFSE actors at the local level were not involved in the course of OS guidelines development. A review of the OS guidelines, as well as interviews held with the NFSE actors, revealed that only a few stakeholders were involved in the process. The AE/NFE actors consulted in the process were confirmed to be representatives from the macro level including the MoEVT-HQs, IAE, NECTA, TIE, Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) and the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) (URT, 2013a, 2013b). However, the key actors (NFSE managers) at the meso and micro levels such as the RAEOs, RRTs, MAEOs, NFSE centre coordinators, and learners were not involved. As the applied approach has been a government tradition in developing the past education policies, it prompted a lot of concerns about the relevance, effectiveness and viability of the OS guidelines. In the first place, these findings suggest that the relevance and effectiveness of the OS guidelines were not adequately guaranteed since from the perspective of the institutional theory, policies are often influenced by appeals to mass interests and negotiation of competing interests (Taylor et al., 1997; Powar, 2005).

Another interpretation of these findings could be that the majority at the local level were excluded since policy-making is mostly conceived as a political process that involves a few elites at the top, with the majority at the grassroots remaining mere implementers (Ben-Peretz, 2009; Fullan, 2007). Such a *top-down approach* to education policy created two entirely different worlds of policy-makers and local practitioners in NFSE, which always leads to underestimation of the problems and processes of implementation (Fullan, 2007). To promote the policy agenda and its progress, different participants ought to be an integral part and should enforce their views in the process of policy-making (cf. Ben-Peretz, 2009). Indeed, stakeholders' involvement in the AE/NFE policy process is a key element for enhancing policy effectiveness, public ownership of the programmes, and accountability in their implementation (Smith, 2002; URT, 2008b). Thus, the involvement of all key actors and the parties concerned could help to figure out more appropriately the current needs, demands and challenges facing

the sub-sector hence correctly addressed in the guidelines. It would also bring about a sense of ownership of the guidelines among stakeholders and thus make them an integral part in their implementation. As it was not the case for the OS guidelines, their implementation consequently faced resistance from the NFSE providers as revealed above. These findings are supported by similar research findings on early childhood education policy on mainland China where such separation between policy-makers and implementers was found to be a major reason for the unsuccessful implementation of educational reforms (Yan & Xiaoxia, 2005).

### **6.3.3 Policy roles in guiding provision of NFSE**

The policy role in guiding the provision of NFSE is another dimension of policy nature in this study. When analysing data, several sub-categories emerged with concerns in the areas of regulating the provision of NFSE, establishing NFSE quality standards, setting policy required actions, appealing for political support, and developing sustainability strategies. The basis for all this information was the policy and legal documents such as the ETPs, the IAE Act of 1975, the Education Act of 1995 read alongside the Education Act of 1978, the OS guidelines of 2013 that governed the provision of NFSE in the country as documented in Table 6.1, as well as interviewees' responses. The policy concerns that emerged represent the general policy and legal role towards guiding the provision of NFSE in the country, on the one hand, and complementing policy relevance as discussed in sub-section 6.3.2, on the other hand.

#### ***Regulating the provision of NFSE***

Referring to the block-quotation of this chapter, a regulatory system is a key component that guides the provision of education and ensures success and sustainability of a programme (cf. Molle, 2007, p. 128). In this study, the establishment, registration and provision of NFSE were found to be somewhat regulated by different policy and legislative documents. However, such policy and legal environment was found lacking a systematic connection, clear definition, and consistent procedures as the documents were either addressing NFSE in general and indirectly or contradicting each other. The subsequent sub-sections discuss the analysis of those policy and legal documents at different policy levels.

***i) Establishment and registration of NFSE at the broad policy level***

A thorough review of the broad policy and regulatory documents revealed several clauses that regulated the establishment and operation of the NFSE centres. The Education Act, for instance, sets a legal condition that any person who establishes or maintains any school without being approved by the commissioner and/or the minister for education shall be guilty of an offence and shall be liable upon conviction to a fine or imprisonment (section 37 of the general provisions of the Education Act 1995, read as one with section 59 of the Education Act 1978). This legal definition of a school encompasses the places where AE is provided as reiterated in section 3 of the same Act (URT, 1995b, 1978). However, it was strongly contended by the NFSE managers, particularly the private NFSE centre coordinators that such a condition did not consider the nature and complexity of all AE/NFE programmes, as well as the array of providers involved. Practically, they argued that such a definition of a school (refer to footnote 15, p. 140) was an appropriate fit for the establishment of formal schools or rather, more or less applicable to the public NFSE centres, which were found to be affiliated to the formal school settings as favoured by the same Act, which allow them to operate within such an environment as separate entities. Section 14 of the Education Act 1995, considered alongside section 20 of the Education Act 1978 reads:

Where adult education is provided at any school in addition to pre-primary, primary, secondary or teacher education, there shall be deemed to be a separate school in respect of the adult education provided at that school and that separate school shall be separately registered under section 19 (URT, 1995b, p. 7).

This clause construes what was stipulated in the ETP-1995 as follows: “All education institutions in the country shall be designed centres of adult education” (URT, 1995a, p. 89). Altogether, the noted policy and legal statements provide special favour to the public NFSE centres affiliated to formal schools as such provision allows for sharing of facilities, personnel and infrastructure, which are the necessary requirements for particular NFSE centres to qualify for their establishment and legal operation. Thus, such established legal environment in the broad policies was revealed to be exclusively functional for only the public NFSE centres which were quite few in the sub-sector and all operated within the formal school settings unlike the majority of the private NFSE centres which were not granted the same opportunity.



Regarding the legal definition of a school that encompasses the NFSE centres, as well as the stated policy context that crafted a sort of unevenness between the public *vis-à-vis* private NFSE centres in using formal school settings, the private NFSE centres that dominated the sub-sector were mostly affected. In fact, the majority were not registered as they were found to be unqualified for recognition and largely operated in the black market. Moreover, they were operating in an unfavourable and unregulated environments due to unfulfilled requirements and conditions set by those stringent regulations, unlike the public NFSE centres (refer to Appendix VII). This was also clearly reflected in the numbers of registered NFSE centres in the study area (see Table 7.2). It was noted by the NFSE centre coordinators that NFSE was such a flexible system of learning characterised by mobile learners, part-time learning, serving array of different clientele, and flexible for entry-exit, re-entry-re-exit and thus requiring less strict and alternative regulations and conditions that would take into account all the traits and nature of the programme.

When consulted for clarification, the NFE policy-makers and managers at different levels argued that the AE/NFE programmes have been changing over time, in many aspects such as the targeted groups, purposes and delivery modes, thus resulting into a minimalistic relevance of the IAE Act, the Education Acts, and the ETPs in reflecting the current NFE context and regulating the provision of NFSE. Legal provisions for NFSE in the Acts and ETPs, for instance, were not clearly elucidated rather provided in general terms—covering the roles and sanctions granted to the institutions responsible for AE. Literature supports the view that, essentially the policies and Acts which are currently depended upon providing the legal basis for the establishment, registration and provision of NFSE were basically advanced to meet the needs and demands of basic literacy and post-literacy education as a strategy for expanding and sustaining the post-independence AE policy and practice initiatives whereby illiteracy was a critical problem (Mushi, 2012). Such a legal context for NFE in the country and its role in regulating NFSE as revealed in this analysis suggests further that, apart from the improvements needed in the policies and Acts, the emerging NFE demands and challenges compel for a need to enact new education regulations that can accommodate the new NFE interventions such as NFSE and the related.

***ii) Set criteria and procedures for establishment and registration of NFSE***

At the operational level in the contemporary policy context, the NFSE was also found to be regulated by the OS guidelines which offered conditions as a legal basis for establishment and operation of NFSE centres in accordance with a range of other statutes from different legal documents that spelt out the legal requirements to be adhered to by all NFSE providers. Apart from the broad education Acts mentioned in sub-section 6.3.2, other statutes which also shaped the direction of the current OS guidelines were the ministerial directives and regulations including the Non-government School Board (Establishment) Order of 2002; the Education (Approval of Owners and Managers and Registration of Non-government School) Regulations of 2002; and the Education (Registration of Teachers) Regulation of 2002 (URT, 2013a, pp. 17-19). The clauses in these directives and regulations allowed the OS guidelines to introduce minimum standards (criteria/requirements) for an NFSE centre to be recommended for registration, and several stages to be completed for approval (procedures for establishing and registering an NFSE centre). The guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013), for instance, set the standard criteria for establishment and registration of NFSE along the physical facilities, curricula and syllabi, teaching and learning resources, staffing, as well as funding and financial arrangements as the key areas of focus (URT, 2013a, p. 32).

Notwithstanding, a systematic analysis of the statutory requirements referred to (the ministerial directives) in shaping the direction of the OS guidelines and the minimum standards set by the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013) suggest that NFSE centres were largely subjected to the conventional legal procedures of formal schools' registration regardless of the flexibility and fragility of NFSE as noted in (i) above. According to the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013), for instance, the MoEVT-HQs was responsible for registering all NFSE centres in the country. Thus, the NFSE registration criteria and procedures fall under the conventional MoEVT orders and regulations. The following quote illustrates:

By law, the owner of an Open School must be approved by the Minister of Education and Vocational Training, and applications should be made on Form No. RS6. If the Minister is satisfied that a School Board has been properly constituted, that all of the basic physical infrastructure has been put in place and that sufficient funds have been made available by the owners to maintain an efficient open school, then notification of approval may be issued to the Open School owner. ...An application for the registration of an Open School

should be made by the owner or Manager on Form No. RS8. The application must be accompanied by evidence of inspection by the relevant authorities, including: the District Engineer, the District Health Officer and the District Chief Inspector of Schools. Recommendations must also be obtained from the District Committee on Education, the Regional Administrative Authority and the Zonal Chief Inspector of Schools (URT, 2013a, p. 20).

Implied in the above policy directive, it is within the MoEVT-HQs jurisdiction to register all NFSE centres whereby the NFSE providers were compelled to observe the stated conventional criteria and procedures. These underlying criteria and procedures were strongly condemned by the NFSE managers at the meso and micro levels who termed them as inflexible and irrelevant for NFE programmes like NFSE. They were criticised for being quite rigid and, indeed, not in line with the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013), which are also complementing policy directives in implementing NFE programmes such as NFSE. In this case, researcher wanted to find out further how exactly these criteria were translated into practice, taking into account the fragility of the NFSE programme. It was later revealed through interviews with NFSE managers at the meso and local levels that in spite of the existence of such criteria and procedures established in the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013), they were not in use rather, NFSE providers depended solely on the criteria and procedures stipulated in the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013). These discrepancies in the OS guidelines suggest a need to establish their point of departure by specifically identifying the adopted criteria and procedures for the establishment and registration of NFSE as covered in *(iii)*.

### ***iii) Adopted criteria and procedures for provision of NFSE***

Further analysis established that the OS guidelines were contradictory in terms of the organs responsible for registration of the NFSE centres, and the criteria and procedures for registration. The SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013), for instance, which translated the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013) set a more or less flexible and practical criteria and procedures for all NFSE centres. The following policy statement clarifies the issue:

For [an] open school to be registered, it has to follow the following procedures:- The organisations intending to run secondary education through ODL will fill in an application form and fee to be specified in the form; application form duly filled will be returned to the IAE regional centre; the form will be checked by RRT; RRT in collaboration with the DSI, DAEO shall

inspect the open school site to ascertain if the stated criteria<sup>19</sup> have been met and furnish inspection report to RRT; and upon receiving the original pay in slip of application and registration fee, the RRT will prepare the inspection report and submit to IAE for registration (URT, 2013b, p. 35).

The implication of this statement is that it was under the jurisdiction of the IAE and its legal mandates to undertake registration of NFSE centres. The controversies between the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013) and the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013) as interdependent policy documents might have originated from the power and responsibilities granted to the MoEVT as an autonomous institution, on the one hand, and those of the IAE as a semi-autonomous, on the other hand. Nevertheless, the IAE Act No. 12 of 1975 [section 4] spells out that the IAE was the sole institution in the country mandated to register all AE/NFE providers including the NFSE, unlike what the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013) state (refer to URT, 1975, p. 4).

Furthermore, what was not common in the two complementary policy documents, the criteria in the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013) were more formal, rigid and complex as they involved bureaucratic processes similar to the establishment of formal schools, whereas the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013) reflected realistically the nature of the NFSE programme in terms of its fragility and dynamics by setting flexible criteria and procedures, yet legal and practical. Although such differences might pose challenges in their implementation, the findings suggest further that the OS guidelines, in general, were not well-linked, consistent and adequately focused in addressing the NFSE challenges that have been in place for so long. The situation can be interpreted as the effect of inadequacies in their development process (refer to sub-section 6.3.2) on the one hand, and the consequences of AE/NFE policy vacuum, on the other hand. Indeed, if the stipulated criteria and procedures in the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013) would prevail as in formal schools, most of the NFSE centres would be closed down because they were far from meeting even half of the stated requirements (see Appendix VII).

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<sup>19</sup> “In order for open school to be recommended for registration by the IAE, it should fulfil the following criteria: be registered by legal and recognised authority as a taxpayer with Taxpayer Identification Number (TIN); have conducive teaching and learning environment such as good classrooms with ventilation, desks, blackboard and teaching aids for face to face sessions; have adequate, qualified and competent facilitators who are diploma holders and above; have a well-established administrative structure; have a first aid kit and fire extinguisher; have a mini-library; have a well-established office and storage room; and have toilets adhering to the MoEVT set standards” (URT, 2013b, p. 34).

Nevertheless, the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013) were found to be already in operation and strongly reinforced by the NFSE managers at all levels. They were fairly good, flexible and realistic, reflecting the nature of the NFSE programme in terms of different qualifications of learners served, entry and re-entry flexibility, teaching and learning modalities, and cost issues. NFSE managers were also optimistic that their effective implementation would ensure proper management and supervision of the NFSE centres, as well as proper curriculum use and uniformity of the practices. It is, however, learned from the international experiences that having policy regulatory framework in place is just one side of the coin, with the second part being on the enforcement mechanisms (UNESCO, 2005). In this case, the viability of the OS guidelines and other policies is subject to the established enforcement mechanism which is a specific matter of concern discussed in sub-section 6.3.4.

#### ***Establishing NFSE quality standards***

Guaranteeing quality emerged as one of the policy features and roles in controlling and ensuring a systematic conduct of NFSE activities, as well as realising the best of those activities as per set requirements. Review of the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013) revealed that the NFSE quality standards were clearly prescribed in ensuring the programme produces quality learners in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes that would enable graduates to continue with further learning, and compete in the labour market (see URT, 2013b, p. 21). The document sets an exhaustive range of criteria for maintaining the quality of NFSE provision in accordance with the ODL standards and principles of quality assurance and control. The areas of focus are:

- i.* Scrutiny of learners' profile for placement purposes which, in turn, helps in planning, course design and development of materials;
- ii.* Use of NFSE integrated curriculum, syllabi and study materials;
- iii.* Assessment modalities and the parties responsible;
- iv.* Learners' guidance and counselling on personal and learning difficulties that affect their learning;
- v.* Qualifications of facilitators;
- vi.* Means of supervision and monitoring and;
- vii.* Course/subjects evaluation.

These quality aspects are considered by the researcher as central to the effective and sustainable provision of NFSE. However, they also seem to be somewhat elusive/impractical because they are guided by a non-existent ODL vision, which is supposed to be drawn from a country's ODL policy framework, but was found missing (refer to subsection 6.3.2). Literature posits that the objective of the established rules/regulations is to preserve the effectiveness of the main policy (Molle, 2007). Although such policy gap might affect the actual interpretation of the set standards in their operation, the extent to which these quality issues are practical is discussed in chapter seven; however, some aspects remain beyond the scope of the current study. Still, substantive education policies were failing to address comprehensively these issues in the same tone, with the OS guidelines lacking a legal basis for their enforcement. Under such a setup, there was only a slim chance that those quality issues would be exercised adequately.

#### ***Setting policy required actions***

In the analytical frame of policies, the groups of action established in the policy are key in translating the stated political and administrative decisions within the policy (Knoepfel et al., 2007). In fact, analysis of the policy statements in various policy documents reviewed showed that policy required actions (what to do and by whom) of both the government and other actors concerned in providing and managing NFSE were both generally and specifically articulated. Since the substantive education policies are designed to describe the statements of actions as political and administrative decisions across different programmes (see *ibid.*; Molle, 2007), the ETPs and ESDP addressed in general terms the government roles and commitments, as well as those of other actors in the NFSE sub-sector. In the operational policy documents, actors' activities and their boundaries were somewhat specifically established.

The analysis of the operational policy documents also revealed that policy required actions for NFSE were correctly and consistently delineated by stating their general strategic objectives, their targeted/achievable goals, and specific actions for their implementation within the specified period (see URT, 2010b, 2012a, 2013a, 2013b). The key areas of foci were on the enrolment of out-of-school youth and adults in the ODL centres, review and adaption of the existing teaching/learning and training materials, the provision of in-service training to teachers, review of curricula for continuing education and training of teachers for AE/NFE and continuing education. Other areas include the

development of modalities for accreditation, assessment, mainstreaming and certification of AE/NFE and continuing education. Although the activities of each actor are more categorically detailed in chapter seven of this study, the stated strategic objectives, targets, and actions for implementation within the operational policy documents could be interpreted in the first place as concrete and relevant, that they specifically focused on meeting both the immediate and long-term needs of youth and adults, and reflected the macro plans such as EFA and MDG within the framework of lifelong learning. Nonetheless, the attainment of the set policy actions remains a matter in question since there are implications for their financing arrangements (refer to sub-sections 6.3.2 and 6.3.3 for further discussion).

### ***Appealing for political support***

A political context is elucidated clearly in the block-quotation atop this chapter as crucial in the success of a programme and its general sustainability (Molle, 2007). Thus, full support and commitment, particularly, in allocating resources for implementing the strategies for AE/NFE and NFSE, in particular, depends much on how political support is apprehended in the policy (cf. Aitchison, 2012; UNESCO, 2012; UIS, 2015). Findings in this study show that policy objectives and conceptions in most of the education policy documents reviewed appealed adequately for political support in providing NFSE as they were largely aligned with and reflected the macro development plans/policies (both local and international). Objectives for NFSE in the policy documents were drawn from the national development plans such as the NDV-2025 and NSGRP (see, URT, 2008a, p. 2, 2010b, p. 7, 2012a, p. 9, 2013a, p. 9, 2013b, p. iv, 2014a, p. 6), as well as from the broad international agreements such as the EFA goals, MDGs and SDGs which Tanzania signed and hence affirmed commitment to work towards their being achieved (see UNESCO, 2000, p. 16, 2009, p. 2; URT, 1995a, p. 5, 2010a, p. 27). Collectively, these macro development plans are aimed at meeting the learning needs of all young people and adults in a bid to address the key challenge of poverty and attaining sustainable development.

Although such wider policy context guiding provision of NFSE is a policy credibility issue that would call for a full political support on the ground, it did not guarantee adequate commitment to the full implementation of NFSE in the country. A review of the ETP-1995 conducted by the MoEVT in 2008, for instance, underscored the



existence of critical implementation gaps of the policy whereby political will was found to be missing in establishing concrete structures and system of AE/NFE, in strengthening the establishment of the centres, facilitators and facilities, as well as in integrating continuing education into the education system of the country (URT, 2008c, pp. 28-29). Practically, such a gap in political support for AE/NFE consequently affected the direction of its policies and programme objectives and strategies, constrained the allocation of resources, and paralysed state accountability in the provision of NFSE as rightly reckoned by Lasky et al. (2005) and Aitchison (2012).

Similarly, interview findings, which complemented documentary evidence, revealed that political will and government support for NFSE had been continuously insignificant in the areas of budget, facilitators, teaching and learning environment and coordination regardless of the featured AE/NFE objectives in several policy documents. The following testimonies illustrate the case:

- i. The government has its focus on basic and formal education, while the system is not flexible enough to consider those in marginalised circumstances. You know, learning is not meant to be only through the formal system (MoEVT-AEO1).*
- ii. You know, anything gets on the move if there is political support, particularly, from the key stakeholders in politics. This is what is missing to the NFSE programme (IAEO1).*
- iii. Surely, the NFSE programme has no adequate support from the government. It is just conceived as a subsidiary thing (RRT2).*
- iv. NFSE has no enough support. Everything is left to the providers. Even during our visits for monitoring, we are not assured of transport and the related necessary support (MAEO1).*
- v. Government support is not visible. Imagine, we are required to pay even the costs for coordination and monitoring and yet, they rarely reach us. So, we feel like being exploited than supported (Pu-CC2).*

These interviewees' actual statements offer mixed accounts and experiences from different cadres of NFSE actors across the NFSE institutional levels which suggest that policies and plans found in place for NFSE activities were not practical on the ground regardless of their level of objectivity in appealing for government support. The political fragility revealed in NFE practices is a typical feature of a country with low Education for All Development Index (UIL, 2009). In the context of educational change perspective, change in the NFSE programme is not likely to occur in the first place and on any scale, or rather will be un-sustained when it does, since the innovation was operating in a less than helpful top authority (cf. Fullan, 2007). Thus, the missing

systematic government support as manifested in this discussion demonstrates a continuous deterioration in the sustainability of the NFSE despite its viable contribution to the socio-economic development of the country. Similar research findings from the Southern Africa countries convinced Aitchison (2012) to draw the same conclusion that lack of AE/NFE policy in a country is not the only factor affecting programmes' implementation but rather the main stumbling block is a lack of a political will. To sustain AE/NFE programmes, a well-established political setting is revealed in empirical studies on AE in developed countries as it directly impacts upon AE/NFE provision (Graeme & Rosalind, 2005; Kuncaitis, 2009).

### ***Setting sustainability strategies***

The theme on setting sustainability strategies as a key role of AE/NFE policies emerged from both the interview findings and examination of the policy documents. The concerns that emerged revolved around the conditions and contingencies that affect the institutionalisation of NFSE into the existing education structures. The analysis of the policy documents revealed that in spite of the generic approach used in addressing the NFSE in most of the policy documents reviewed, reasonable initiatives were also made to ensure that NFSE was somewhat embedded in the education structures. Though the issue of addressing NFSE within the substantive education policies and their subsequent NFE implementation plans was revealed to be incomprehensive, it can still be interpreted that its impetus is at least towards its legal recognition and support from both the government and other stakeholders. The following is a discussion of other dimensions related to the envisaged strategies within the policies for the NFSE sustainability:

#### ***i) Improvisation of NFSE institutional structure***

Huberman and Miles (1984) accentuate on organisational structure and procedures as critical factors in transcending sustainability by building an innovation into the system. At the policy level, it was learned from the ANFEDP, AE/NFE medium term strategy, and OS guidelines as operational policies in the country that there was a setup of NFE institutional structure that included most of the key players in providing and managing NFSE from the ministerial to the NFSE centre level. This might be considered a key sustainability strategy that would ensure the existence of administrators and facilitators involved in the change process albeit with their governance skills and commitments

remaining a pending question for further examination. At the practical level, however, the functionality of such an established NFE institutional structure and the roles of each level/actors are well-described in chapter seven.

***ii) Formalisation of the provision of NFSE***

Though the NFSE sub-sector is non-formal in nature, its sustainability is revealed to be more secured under the systematic arrangement of its activities to regulate providers, curriculum, syllabi, modes of delivery and approaches of assessment that would ensure quality NFSE, and restore confidence among its potential clientele (URT, 2013a). It is established from the OS guidelines that, apart from the established institutional structure, NFSE centres were mandatorily required to register for their operations. Regardless of the conflicting accounts about the criteria and procedures for the establishment and registration of NFSE as discussed in sub-section 6.3.3, such a policy initiative is essential in establishing easy communication, inspection, coordination, monitoring and evaluation that would also ensure sustainability. The findings conform to the features of the institutional theory that guides this study whereby its *coercive isomorphic mechanism* sheds light on formalisation as a means of increasing stability, creating routines and enhancing organisational performance (DiMaggio & Powell, 2012). Huberman and Miles (1984), on the other hand, insist on formal procedures in shaping all the actors and mainstreaming the innovation into the system, thus critical in transcending sustainability. Nevertheless, the extent to which such a system was operational and effective is an independent topic covered in chapter seven.

***iii) Plan of activities and financial arrangements for NFSE***

The plan of AE/NFE activities, in general, was found to be delineated in the policy as discussed in sub-section 6.3.3, which can be interpreted as a policy strategy for ensuring the accomplishment of the programme objectives that also guarantees sustainability. However, a clear plan for funding is of critical importance as Taylor et al. (1997) have affirmed: it is a key factor for thorough policy implementation. Also, it makes the initiatives more sustainable (Muñoz, Redecker, Vuorikari, & Punie, 2013). It was found at the policy level that financing of AE/NFE and continuing education was generally stated as one of the strategic objectives and priority areas for the sustainability of NFE in general (URT, 2010b, p. 23, 2012a, p. 11). Mechanisms for financial resource mobilisation such as from the government, development partners, CSOs, FBOs and

private sector were stipulated. Although the planned mechanisms might be a key means of fostering sustainability, they do not, however, guarantee the actual practices. Their attainment is a matter in question since the generated implications for finance within that framework of actions was not adequately linked to the sustainable sources of funding but rather a mere use of the macro approach for financial demand. This kind of AE/NFE financing arrangement is categorised by Lewin (2007) as *lite planning*, which is limited in value in the sense that it:

- i.* Assumes current cost structures are appropriate when they may be inefficient and inequitable;
- ii.* Takes no account of systemic reforms that may be necessary and desirable and cannot model these in any detail;
- iii.* Does not recognise the non-financial constraints on growth—e.g. teacher supply, infrastructure capacity—or the need for quality improving interventions coupled with expansion;
- iv.* Does not recognise demand side constraints on participation (e.g. affordability of direct and indirect costs of attendance amongst poor households);
- v.* Does not address development costs; and
- vi.* Indicates financial requirements independent of likely budget/MTEF and other envelopes determined by political and economic processes outside its view (Lewin, 2007, p. 23).

In the light of these perspectives, the stated strategic objectives, targets, and implementation strategies for programmes, including NFSE in the AE/NFE plans, are more ambitious, and largely depend on the probabilistic budget allocations, which have been always slim and extremely dependable on resources from external funders, hence not sustainable (cf. Macpherson, 2007; UIL, 2009; Mnjagila, 2011). These findings reflect lack of a clear link between the policies and funding mechanisms. In this regard, Aitchison's (2012) study has revealed it to be a common policy problem in most African countries threatening the sustainability of NFSE provision. Molle (2007) posit that “a policy can only be made effective by specifying further the actions to be undertaken and the resources to be put in place” (p. 128).

To compare the anticipated resources versus the projected policy actions and desired outcomes and arrive at financial sustainable strategies for the programme development, Lewin (2007) insists on a model of setting activities that captures the disaggregated costs in the policy (such as teachers' salaries, pupil-teacher ratios, non-teaching salaries, learning materials) and their changes with the specified policy interventions (p. 24). This systematic projection, which also reflects the budget, entails the use of scientific data which this study found to be unavailable in the sub-sector. It is on the basis of such

evidence that one would conclude that the stated policy actions were magniloquent, hence improbable in their attainment.

***iv) Public-private-partnership (PPP) in the provision of NFSE***

According to the URT (2010b), sustainable implementation of an education programme requires coherent partnership for it to be secured and enhanced. As a strategy of ensuring programme sustainability, PPP allows potential beneficiaries to be reached by optimising both public and private resources (OECD, 2003). The review of both the ETP 1995 and 2014 revealed that the partnership between the state and other AE/NFE providers was well-articulated in the policies, particularly, in the establishment and management of AE/NFE programmes and institutions (URT, 1995a, 2014a). Although such policies helped to widen the range of NFSE providers by improving the visibility and increasing the role of the private sector, NFSE private providers were still largely isolated, operated in an environment where political support was extremely limited, with coordination mechanisms and linkages among ministries, supporting institutions and providers not strongly established. Such a context induces fragmented provision of learning opportunities. OECD (2003) posits that, although partnership is a useful tool for rationalising the scarce resources of the actors involved, coordinating their activities is even more critical (chapter seven expounds further).

On the other hand, although the AE/NFE implementation plans underscored the need for mobilising resources from all partners such as the government, development partners, CSOs, FBOs and private sector (URT, 2010b, 2012a), there was also a mismatch in the policy statements as the funding mechanisms established in the OS guidelines as operational policies contradicted the idea of partnership funding by insisting on NFSE centres' own capability for funding their activities (URT, 2013a, p. 40). This controversy of policy statement in the OS guidelines did not only contradict other policy statements by narrowing the actual meaning of PPP which embraces collective pooling human, financial and material resources, but also correspondingly constrained the actual practices on the ground as NFSE was entirely excluded from the budget. Ironically, the government insisted on the PPP while detaching itself from its mandatory commitment to serving both youth and adults. All the practical evidences provided suggest that a coherent partnership for NFSE was inadequately acknowledged and valued in policy and practice. These findings appear to be outcomes of the absence

of relevant policy framework, hence leading to elusive AE programmes (Shemwetta et al., 2008). Sustainability of provision of NFSE was, thus, doomed.

**v) Decentralisation of NFSE activities**

The Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP) embraces increasing both public and private participation in education provision, as well as streamlining and transferring autonomy to the local levels (see, for instance, URT, 1995a, 2013a, 2014a). These policy aims were found consolidated in both the substantive and operational policies. They were also underscored by NFE policy-makers and managers during interviews, who insisted that decentralisation was one of the deliberate strategies in ensuring the sustainability of NFE programmes such as NFSE. One said:

*In devising OS guidelines, we deliberately and systematically instituted the decentralisation of NFSE in the aspects of administrative functions and finance by devolving powers and creating multi-functional organs at the local level. That is in line with the broad education policies and we hope its full implementation will foster development in the sub-sector (MoEVT-AEO1).*

As the statement illustrates, the decentralisation of NFSE is addressed by focusing on the administrative and financing areas as proposed by Rondinelli et al. (1989) in a bid to ensure that a large number of local institutions are more involved. This was equally confirmed in the AE/NFE plans and OS guidelines, which stipulate all the key elements of decentralisation. The policy provisos seem to be strategically placed to enhance the sustainability of the AE/NFE programmes. Such clear provision on decentralisation of NFSE at the policy level aimed at improving service delivery by increasing administrative and fiscal autonomy to the local authorities notwithstanding, the complexity of such decentralisation might still rear its ugly head at the practical level because NFSE involves both private and public providers. Empirical evidence on the same area of study by Kanukisya (2012) reveals that the decentralisation of AE/NFE referred to just one or a few aspect(s) or programme(s) that were decentralised in Tanzania. In this regard, the researcher concluded that it was difficult to declare NFSE as decentralised. The situation also suggests significant differences in the way the provision of NFSE is conducted, managed and financed. Linking these findings to those of financial arrangements and public-private partnership discussed above, practicalities of NFSE decentralisation may pose more questions that are beyond the aims of this undertaking.

### 6.3.4 Policy enforcement mechanisms

According to OFMDFM (2003), dealing with a problem and considering how to solve it requires policy-makers to understand adequately the context in which the policy will operate. This context includes the established enforcement mechanisms in terms of the set criteria, procedures and rules on a sufficient legislative basis for the policy solutions (ibid; Molle, 2007). A review of the policy documents, as also discussed elsewhere in this study, revealed that the Education Act 1978 (amended in 1995), the IAE Act 1975, and the ETPs were major legislative documents regulating the provision of NFSE. Apart from the different concerns raised on their relevance in the current context of NFSE provision (refer to sub-section 6.3.2), it was also established that the Acts and policies had no specific regulations and directives to steer them into action by consistently specifying and operationalising the legal requirements for all the NFE actors and practices. Even the ministerial orders and regulations such as the Non-Government School Board (Establishment) Order of 2002; the Education (Approval of Owners and Managers and Registration of Non-government School) Regulations of 2002; and the Education (Registration of teachers) Regulation of 2002, which were also used in shaping the direction of the OS guidelines, claimed to underlay the wealth of policies and plans for education and training sector, were more related to and functional for formal education. The following policy statements from policy-makers substantiate the case:

- i. *The available ministerial orders and regulations were developed to cope with the emerging demands and challenges in the formal education sector, which were not foreseen in the education Act, and also try to translate what is in the ETP-1995. However, I have yet to see such regulations for the NFE programmes (MoEVT-AEO2).*
- ii. *The LAE Act of 1975 is there but no regulations have been in place since then, to interpret it and put things clear for implementation. In fact, it needs some amendments to accommodate the current AE/NFE demands before issuing circulars as it is already too outdated (IAEO1).*
- iii. *Circulars to safeguard and enforce implementation of the recently introduced OS guidelines were expected to be enacted immediately after the pronouncement of the new education and training policy. Nevertheless, that has not come into reality yet (MoEVT-AEO1).*

These statements by the NFE policy-makers suggest that despite the required pressing changes in the existing Education Acts and policies, as suggested elsewhere, the policy documents also lacked enforcement mechanisms in terms of clear regulations, directives or orders for their operationalisation and proper implementation of NFE programmes



including NFSE. Also, the use of the conventional regulations and orders for formal education to guide NFSE was not consistent with the purposes and intents of the principal Acts, particularly, the IAE Act as required by law thus the uncertainty (GSA, 2009). In this case, even the interpretation and execution of the relevant provisos for NFE stipulated in those Acts and policies would also be jeopardised. This proposition stems from the argument that “what is achieved by the Act depends on the interpretation of the provisions” (ibid., p. 4). Since the Acts contain just the general provisions that give effect to a particular policy, these findings show that the country could have established stringent rules in the Acts and policies, but which were hardly implementable as they lacked specific and/or relevant operational mechanisms (specific regulations and directives). Such lack of legal backing may pose difficulties and such a situation is actually worse than having no policies since policies and Acts concretise when they are fully adopted, implemented and enforced (Dye, 2002).

### **6.3.5 Emerging controversies and mismatches from the policy analysis**

A textual deconstruction approach to policy content analysis by Codd (1988) and pragmatic framework for the evaluation of policy arguments by Ball (1995) were used in an attempt to grasp the NFE policy statements, their conceptions, goals and appropriateness in guiding the provision of NFSE. Different themes that emerged from the findings as discussed in this chapter show that the centre of arguments seem to revolve around key issues of absence of specific, independent and coherent AE/NFE policy, inadequate role and relevance of the existing policies in guiding the provision of NFSE, as well as lack of a clear enforcement mechanism for the existing education policies and Acts. Within that context, several conflicting policy statements and controversies emerged concurrently, as key threats to the sustainability of NFSE as specifically delineated below:

#### ***Terminological mismatch***

Discussion of the findings in this study revealed terminological mismatches, distinctively and nebulously used from one policy document to another (see Table 6.1). For instance, the terms *ODL* and *Open Schooling*, which are particularly applied in the OS guidelines seem to be of recent times, lacking specific mention/reference in previous substantive policies such as ETP-1995 and the related Acts such as the IAE Act 1975 and Education Act 1978 (as amended in 1995). On the other hand, the ETP-1995 and

ESDP addressed NFE as the learning activities organised outside the established formal education system (including NFSE) (URT, 1995a, p. 81), whereas AE was described as part of NFE and naively conceived as primarily concerned with literacy programmes (see URT, 1995a, 1995b). NFE was not referred to in any way in both the IAE Act and Education Act. What prevailed was the AE. Though the NFE is well covered in the newly-introduced ETP-2014, it is conceptualised contrary to the previous policies when AE and NFE were jointly used; now each carries its independent meaning but AE receives greater value and comprehensive meaning than the NFE (refer to URT, 2014a, section 3.3.4, p. 44). Continuing Education, on the other hand, was also separately defined as a kind of education “pursued by those who for various reasons have had no opportunity to continue with formal education” (URT, 1995a, p. 85), without receiving any or adequate attention in the education Acts and the newly introduced ETP-2014.

These cases help illustrate that the use of different terms could be linked to the time and generation gap, change of the nature of AE/NFE programmes offered, as well as the emergence of new forms of AE/NFE delivery. Literature also offers concrete evidence related to the shift of education demands and objectives as an impact of worldwide social and economic developments. In consequence, the terms are becoming part of the international discourses on education, prompting policy debates across borders (see, for example, Smith, 2001b). Nevertheless, lack of comprehensive, adequate, specific and consistent theoretical conceptualisation of terms also lacks the formality of the AE/NFE sub-sector and the use of formal education as their prop (Romi & Schmida, 2011). Conclusively, the terminological mismatches and their conceptual gaps within, between and among the AE/NFE policy and regulatory documents might also signal the existence of unsynchronised policy environment, which may lead to different policy interpretations among key actors and other policy users, thus posing a risk of contradictions, inconsistencies and improper implementation/enforcement of the policies and Acts. The casualty of all these anomalies could be the sustainability of the NFSE programme in the long run.

### ***Conflicting policy statements***

The findings in this chapter reveal several conflicting policy statements within and among the policy documents examined. In regulating NFSE, for instance, the analysis of the policies raised a lot of concerns on the institutions responsible for establishing

standards, issuing guidelines, disseminating and registering NFSE centres. Whereas the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013) specifically stipulate those roles to be of the IAE (URT, 2013b, pp. 9&22), section 2.3.1 of the same policy document mentions the MoEVT-HQs as the authority responsible for the same functions (p. 6). On the other hand, the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013) similarly assign the responsibility of issuing NFSE guidelines and registering NFSE centres to the MoEVT-HQs (see further discussion in chapter seven). Contrarily, the IAE Act No. 12 of 1975 [section 4]) categorically delineated the IAE as a mandated and semi-autonomous institution to assume responsibility for all AE practices in the country and to manage all the affairs of all AE institutions—the interests of which are vested in, transferred to or acquired by the IAE. In this regard, it is the sole institution for formulating sub-policies and registering NFSE providers (URT, 1975, p. 4). Since the IAE Act overrides the OS guidelines in their operation, these conflicting policy statements imply that the operational policies guiding the NFSE were fragmented and lacked coherence with the broad policies and Acts as sub-section 6.3.2 has also revealed. This might signify a real vacuum in making AE policies in developing countries (cf. UIL, 2009). Although these findings might suggest backlogs in the implementation of OS guidelines as were nebulously interpreted by NFSE actors, the sustainability of NFSE provision was also potentially compromised. These findings in their totality confirm the perspectives of textual deconstruction to policy analysis by Codd (1988) to the effect that conflicting assumptions and meanings in a policy lead to unachievable ends in practice.

Furthermore, although the OS guidelines were intended to establish explicit criteria and standards for ensuring quality in NFSE provision, other critical conflicting statements emerged regarding the right curriculum, syllabi and study materials to be used by NFSE providers, on the one hand, and the institution responsible for their development, on the other hand. Both the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools (2013) and the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013) assigned the IAE to develop curricula and syllabi for out-of-school learners and prepare ODL secondary education study materials (URT, 2013a, p. 26, & 2013b, pp. 8&14). All at once, they assigned the TIE to develop and design an integrated curriculum, syllabi and study materials suitable for out-of-school learners studying secondary education through ODL (URT, 2013b, p. 11). Whereas these conflicting statements were expected to be

harmonised in substantive policies, further review discovered a similar controversy concealed in the ETP-1995, AE/NFE plans and IAE Act. The IAE Act, for instance, provided a mandate to the IAE to develop curriculum and prepare syllabi/programmes and study materials for AE (URT, 1975, p. 4), as equally reiterated in the ANFEDP-2012/17 (URT, 2012a, p. 50). Meanwhile, it is stated in the ETP-1995 that continuing education programmes under which NFSE falls should use curricula designed and developed by TIE as a relevant institution for designing, developing, reviewing, updating and monitoring the implementation of secondary education curriculum (URT, 1995a, pp. 56&87). All these contradictory policies, which lack coherence and mutual consistency in guiding provision of NFSE, resulted in a sporadic management of the sub-sector, thus threatening the sustainability of NFSE provision.

### ***Inconsistency between substantive and operational policies***

According to Knoepfel et al. (2007), policies are created with a given direction, assuming that the decisions and actions to be taken are connected. Findings in the current study suggest that there was a state of loose coupling between the operational and substantive policies. Although the OS guidelines were termed as more specific and practical for guiding the provision of NFSE at the operational level, their connection to and concurrence with the substantive policies and legislations was weak (refer to sub-section 6.3.2). The following remarks from some of the research respondents affirm further:

- i. You know, the OS guidelines are the micro policies that translate the macro policies. Of course, there is some sort of alignment but to a large extent they do not reflect the ETP-1995 and the IAE Act. They were developed based on the current demands rather than on what was stated in the substantive policies which are currently considered as obsolete (RRT2).*
- ii. The current OS guidelines are good but have a lot of loopholes which may be taken for granted. They are not well linked to the broad policies and Acts. Yet, the new ETP and ODL policy which are expected to harmonise NFSE issues are not in place. After all, there is no regulation to legitimatise the guidelines for their operation (MoEVT-AEO2).*

These statements indicate that OS guidelines were devised with an insufficient legal basis, lacked connection to the broad education policies and operated under inadequate legality, hence raising uncertainties on their practicality towards guiding the provision of NFSE. Logically, however, the OS guidelines could not entirely reflect the existing substantive education policies and Acts primarily because those substantive policies and Acts had significant pitfalls that caused uncertainty about their relevance and

functionality as well (refer also to sub-section 6.3.2). All that could, in turn, jeopardise the direction and relevance of the OS guidelines in guiding the provision of NFSE in the current context. The gap of weak ties between the policy documents established, coupled with lack of independent and coherent AE/NFE policy that could harmonise all NFE practices, as well as the use of formal education regulations to guide provision of NFSE as discussed in sub-section 6.2.4 suggest that policy incoherence in guiding the provision of NFSE was real. These findings can be interpreted from a pragmatic view of policy evaluation that guided this study as a result of less relevant and infeasible policies (Ball, 1995).

Knoepfel et al. (2007) posit that such policy incoherence normally produces inconsistencies and coincidences of measures among the same NFSE actors as the policies lack clear connection and conflict with the planned intentions. Similarly, if the broad policy does not contain particular measures stated in the operational guidelines due to the absence of intentional coherence as in this case, the measures in the operational guidelines may not be considered as a policy means (Knoepfel *et al.*, 2007). Altogether these aspects make the field difficult to be rationally managed (Edwards, 1997). Consequently, the policy gaps revealed were taken for granted as the OS guidelines were rejected by the majority providers of NFSE. It affected not only their implementation but also the provision of NFSE was still unsystematically regulated, coordinated and controlled, hence the uncertain sustainability of the entire programme.

### ***Inconsistency between OS guidelines and institutional policies***

Unmatched policies and regulations among the supporting institutions under the MoEVT emerged as another challenge in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE in the country. The study findings show that besides the general education policies and Acts, and the newly-introduced OS guidelines which were regulating NFSE practices both at the operational and administrative levels in different institutions, each supporting institution under the MoEVT was also guided by a different parliamentary Act which set regulations for their internal functions and practices. In executing those institutional regulations, therefore, mismatches and conflicts raised at some points between the OS guidelines and the institutional policies which also affected the NFSE practices. For instance, the OS guidelines instruct the NECTA to:

...conduct examination and grant certificates to out-of-school learners who are eligible by completing their studies in the recognised open schools which

operate and fulfil the required directives including the use of the recognised curriculum and study materials prepared by the IAE (URT, 2013b, p. 10).

Though these directives are considered good and constitute a strategy aimed at establishing equal standards and ensuring quality NFSE, it was, however, revealed by the NECTA officials during interviews that their institution was not guided by the OS guidelines in dealing with NFSE matters (those related to examination and certification) but rather by their own absolute institutional policy and regulations. The following statement provides some useful insights:

*We have our own regulations in administering examinations to the NFSE candidates. If the LAE has its own curriculum, we never use it in setting exams. The ETP and our regulations strictly require us to rely on the conventional secondary education curriculum developed by the TIE. Furthermore, regardless of where the NFSE candidates were trained, they are examined as private candidates provided they have met the prerequisite criteria for private examination and they are awarded certificates based on their academic merits achieved (NECTAO).*

On the other hand, while the OS guidelines also assigned the TIE to partner with the IAE in developing an integrated curriculum, syllabi and study materials suitable for NFSE learners (URT, 2013b, p. 11), one of the TIE officials confirmed that role to be out of their core functions stipulated in the TIE parliamentary Act. A further review of the ETP-1995 confirmed the explanations provided by both NECTA and TIE officials that private candidates (NFSE learners for that matter) were supposed to be examined and certified on the basis of the results of the final written examination under the conventional curriculum developed by TIE (URT, 1995a, pp. 56&60).

These findings denote that there was no harmony between the OS guidelines and the institutional policies among the supporting institutions involved in managing the provision of NFSE in the country, an anomaly that complicated and eroded the provision and sustainability of NFSE (cf. Edwards, 1997). Furthermore, it is apparent that multiple and untied policies and regulations across different supporting institutions within the MoEVT adversely affected the NFSE matters across those institutions, particularly, when it came to the issues of the curricula and examinations. This is an aspect of policy coherence which needs to be addressed at different institutions (McNay, as cited in Edwards, 1997). The findings also imply that the OS guidelines lacked a legal authority to override institutional policies of the supporting institutions, thus making the roles assigned to those institutions a mere rhetoric. Such unsurpassed

policies would only be harmonised once the MoEVT supporting institutions reformulated and reviewed their policies and regulations to fit in or accommodate the requirements of the OS guidelines. The reality, however, is that in the context of the current findings the country had no national visionary AE/NFE policy, let alone the National Qualification Framework (NQF), which could harmonise some of the mismatches. The NFSE conceptions were also not adequately, comprehensively and particularly addressed in both the old and new ETPs.

### ***Central policy dilemma in the analysis***

The overall analysis of different education policies and Acts in this study reveals that the newly-introduced ETP-2014 prompted a critical policy dilemma in achieving the NFSE policy objectives stipulated in the ESDP at the broader level and in the AE/NFE plans and OS guidelines at the operational level. This was due to considerable discrepancies between the newly-introduced policy directives and objectives. The new ETP-2014, for instance, declares efficient provision for AE at all levels and in various ways, including the ODL [section 3.3.4] in addition to recognising knowledge and skills gained outside the school system to expand opportunities for continuing education [section 3.3.7] (URT, 2014a, pp. 44-45). Nevertheless, these policy declarations are quite new and entail radical changes to supersede what was stated in the old ETP-1995 and its subsequent ESDP as a strategic plan for education provision.

In the view of the new policy statements noted from the ETP-2014 and other general education reforms announced in the same new policy, the current and on-going education sector development programme (ESDP, 2008-2017)—as a master plan for the whole education sector transformation—remains useless, or at odds with the new policy in their operation at the very least. After all, the ESDP was designed to translate the repealed ETP-1995 and not necessarily in response to the ETP-2014. It is stipulated in the ESDP that:

...ESDP was initiated in 1997 as an effort to translate the Education and Training Policy of 1995 into comprehensive and complementary sub-sector strategies ... (URT, 2008a, p. 2).

This statement implies that the introduction of ETP-2014 undermines the ESDP and, thus, calls for a new education sector development programme in sync with the current policy, which so far remains conspicuously absent. Consequently, and in far-reaching



effects, the AE/NFE plans such as ANFEDP (2012/13–2016/17) and AE/NFE Education Sub-sector Medium-Term Strategy (2010/11– 2014/15), as well as the OS guidelines, which are all operational policy documents when it comes to translating both the ESDP and ETP-1995 are also automatically constrained. In other words, there is a need for change or their replacement for them to be in tandem with the new policy guidelines and objectives. Furthermore, leave alone the time lapse and relevance of the Education (Amendment) Act, No. 10 of 1995 and the IAE Act No. 12 of 1975, which have been challenged in this chapter, these legal support mechanisms are also envisaged to be in conflict with the new ETP-2014 in the course of their enforcement. This scenario calls for their being revised to accommodate the new policy requirements or be repealed altogether and replaced to comply with the current policy directives.

On top of that, it is however unrealistic to reckon that the newly-introduced policy and the envisaged policy changes, particularly those related to NFSE would be quickly and easily realised since they are mere policy intentions than actual happenings, which need to be accompanied by new and relevant Acts and plans, political will, actors' commitment and co-operation, as well as human and financial resources. In the context of the study findings, it can be argued that currently there is a critical policy vacuum and dilemma in interpreting and implementing the NFE plans and programmes like NFSE. This situation poses serious challenges to the effective and efficient provision and management of the NFSE in the country and threatens its sustainability. The more detailed policy challenges posed to the NFSE institutional levels are thoroughly presented and discussed in chapter eight. The next chapter presents the empirical findings on the NFSE institutional arrangements, their roles and governance issues.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### NFSE INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS, ROLES AND GOVERNANCE ISSUES

“Lifelong learning governance rises above established educational policy-making by demanding more integrated, more accessible, more relevant and more accountable structures and processes” (UIL, 2009, p. 41).

The block-quotation of the chapter sums up, to a larger extent, what this chapter covers. Generally, well-established institutional arrangements and appropriately planned roles and responsibilities of every actor within the institutional framework are quite crucial in ensuring well-coordinated activities at different levels of decision-making and implementation, as well as for efficient and effective provision and management of any education programme. The relatively complex nature of managing AE/NFE system is polycentric with a number of subsystems—each having disparate functions and requirements. Thus it is worth exploring the institutional arrangements of the NFSE in terms of the organisational structure and the institutional linkages established. Also, the study analysed the specified roles of each supporting institution and actors across levels, coordination of their various activities, and other governance issues. This chapter thus analyses, presents and discusses findings generated through the use of interviews and documentary reviews. The chapter meets the requirements of the second research objective and answers its attendant research sub-questions that guided this study as presented in section 1.4 of chapter one.

#### **7.1 Category System on NFSE Institutional Arrangements and Roles**

A thorough discussion of the research findings on NFSE institutional arrangements and their governance roles in this chapter requires visualisation of all the categories in their relationships. Figure 7.1 illustrates the category system as it emerged from the coding process that also forms the sections and sub-sections of this chapter.

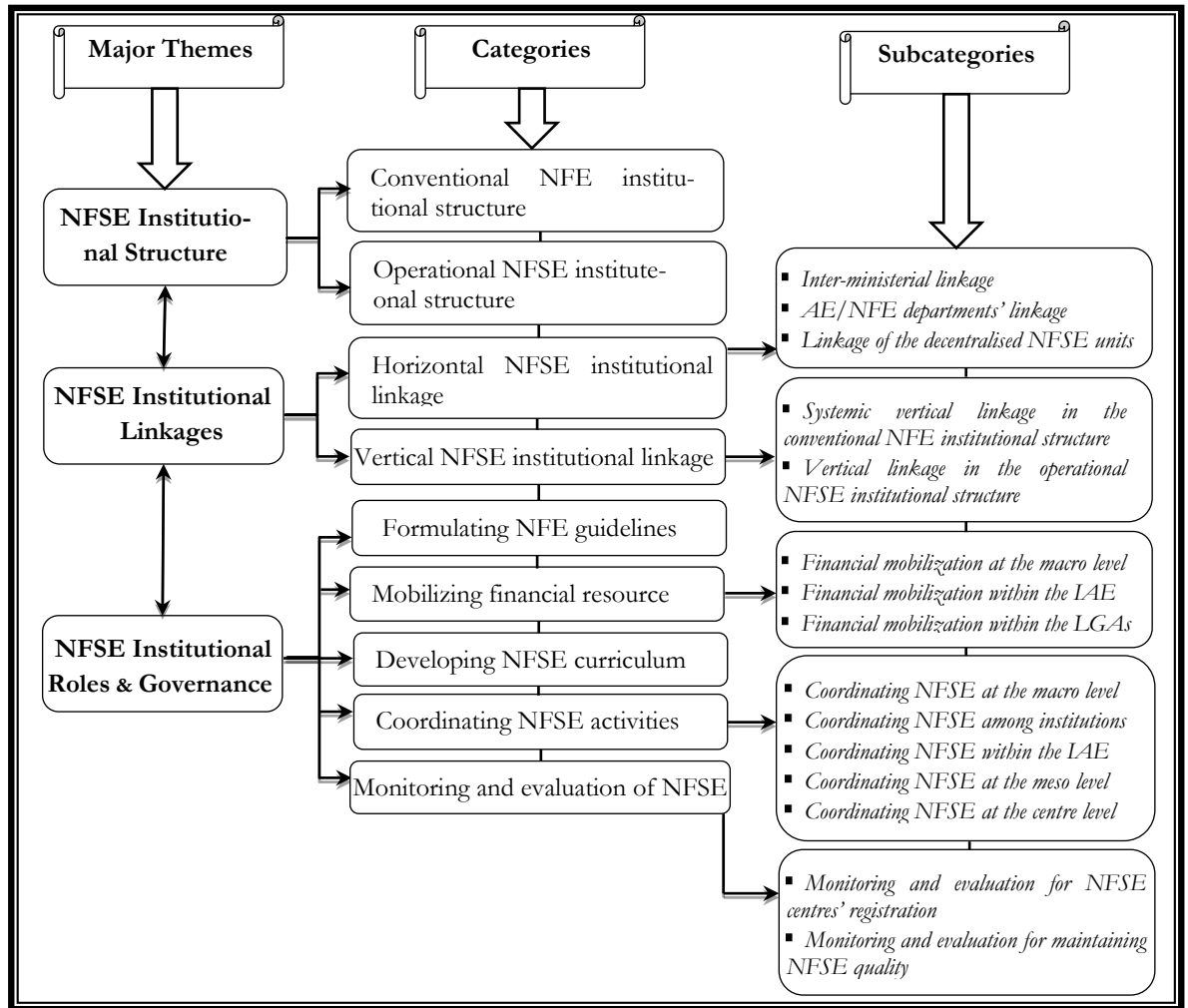


Figure 7.1: Visualisation of Category System on NFSE Institutional Arrangements and their Governance Roles

## 7.2 NFSE Institutional Structure

The provision of NFSE in the country was found involving different actors and to be managed by different institutions across different administrative levels and units. Documentary data shows that for the period between 1983 and 2002, NFSE was solely provided by the IAE to the youth and adults as out-of-school education through evening classes based in government school premises using the same formal secondary education curriculum, and later consolidated under its ODL programme (cf. URT, 2013a, IAE website). Following the education reforms of the 1990s which accommodated the private sector as a partner in the provision of education, NFSE became a multi-faceted provision, criss-crossing both the private providers and the IAE as a public organ (URT, 1995a). These changes in the role of NFSE provision necessitated the improvisation of the recent OS guidelines and the inclusion of the programme in the AE/NFE development plans and the related implementation

strategies as discussed in chapter six in addition to widening the scope of its administration since the structure that was earlier put in place mainly involved the IAE (URT, 2013a). The study findings indicate that the management of NFSE provision across levels was then conventionally structured to involve the MoEVT and its supporting institutions viz. the IAE, the National Examinations Council, and the Tanzania Institute of Education, on the one hand, while intersecting with the PMO-RALG through its regional and local authorities, on the other hand. Nonetheless, the assortment of the institutions involved, the nature of their roles and autonomies, as well as nature of NFSE provision at the local level were found to have much influence on shaping the kind of structure needed or considered to be practical in governing the NFSE. Thus, varying structures were depicted as operating concurrently as presented in the next sub-sections.

### **7.2.1 Conventional NFE institutional structure**

In the first instance, the various policy documents reviewed and interview responses ruled out the management of NFSE falling under the conventional NFE institutional/administrative structure in the country. Figure 7.2 provides the general overview of the NFE administrative structure extracted from the data, which was conceived as conventional for governing all AE/NFE programmes in the country:

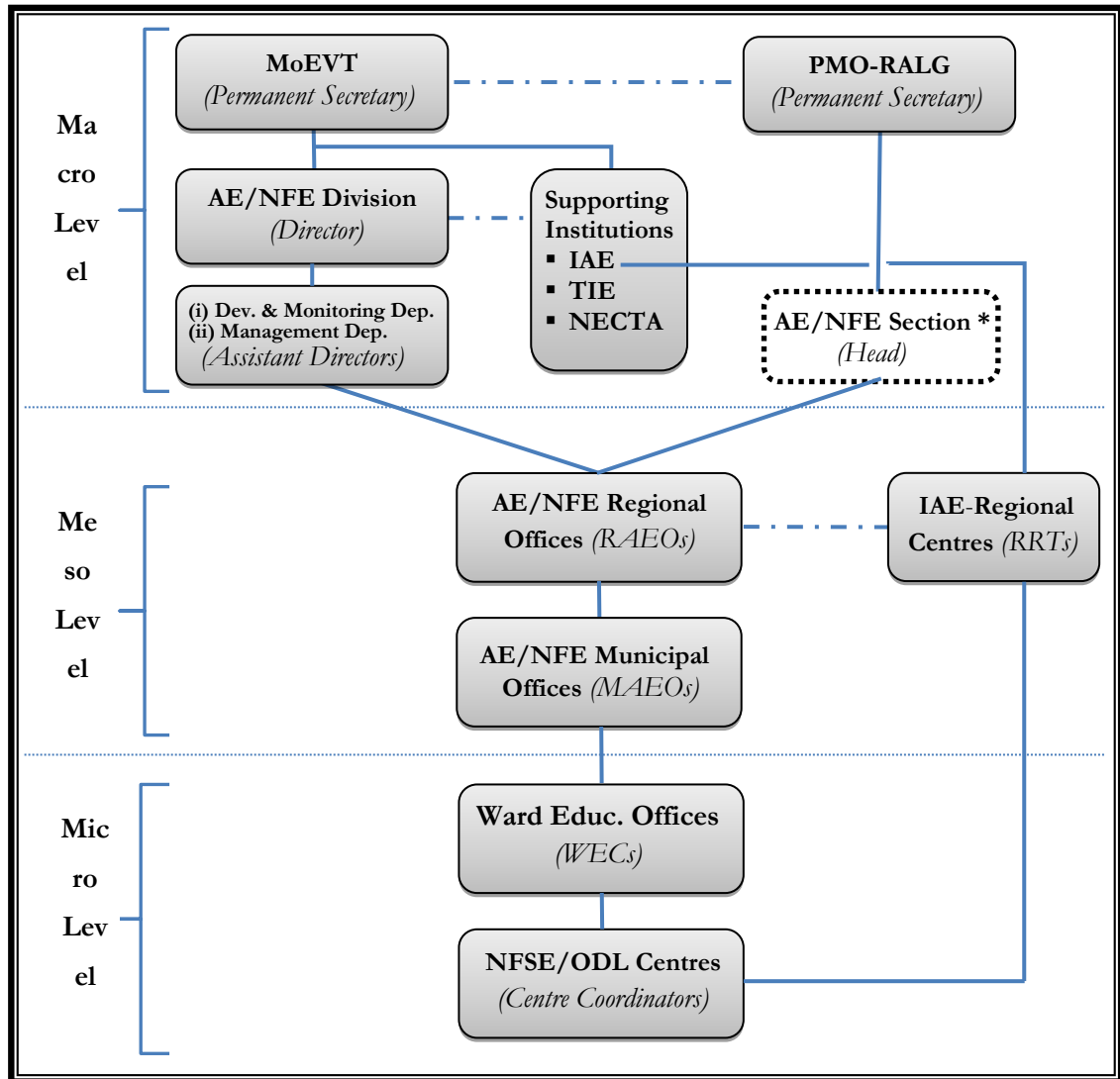


Figure 7.2: Conventional NFE Institutional Structure

Source: Developed from URT (2010b, 2012a, 2013a, 2013b, 2014a), and interview data.

Note : - - - - - The same level of autonomy and/or weak link.

⋯⋯⋯ \* Proposed but a non-existent unit.

The structure presented in figure 7.2 was figured out from various NFE policy documents such as the ANFEDP (2012/13–2016/17), AE/NFE medium-term strategy (2010/11–2014/15), and the OS guidelines as operational policies. The structure was consistently presented as an ideal for the management of all NFE programmes on the basis that it takes cognisance of all the institutions concerned in relation to their defined roles and responsibilities (see URT, 2010b, 2012a, 2013a, 2013b, 2014a). Top NFE managers at the MoEVT-HQs similarly affirmed that the structure was comprehensive and suitable for managing all AE/NFE programmes in the country. Despite the structure being assumed to be compartmental in serving different programmes, it was

found to be inflexible in accommodating all the AE/NFE programmes equally when it came to their actual governance. Indeed, it did not smoothly serve the specific functions and purposes of the NFSE programme. In fact, the situation was somewhat chaotic in the provision of NFSE, which might also explain why there was insufficient development of the adult learning at large (cf. Kuncaitis, 2009).

Furthermore, as the key roles of the MoEVT were found to be solely confined to policy-making and planning as other management issues for the NFE programmes were shifted to the PMO-RALG (see URT, 2012a, 2013b, 2014a), the entire NFE administrative structure could also be described as complicated since the governance of NFE in general was then ostensibly in the hands of two different ministries as depicted in figure 7.2. Besides, since the NFSE has been established in chapter six to be inadequately addressed in most of the education policies, its governance was also considered as a recent phenomenon and, thus, its institutional arrangement was still taking shape and, indeed, quasi-planned within the conventional NFE institutional structure. The structure in figure 7.2 also incorporates the functions of NFSE as mere appendages that could not fit well in it and link to all the parties concerned from the grassroots level. These findings explain the insufficient incorporation of the NFSE into the country's institutional systems and structures of education. Being an unfulfilled aspect of management of change as discussed in the literature, this would equally affect the successfulness and sustainability of the NFSE programme (Smith, 2002).

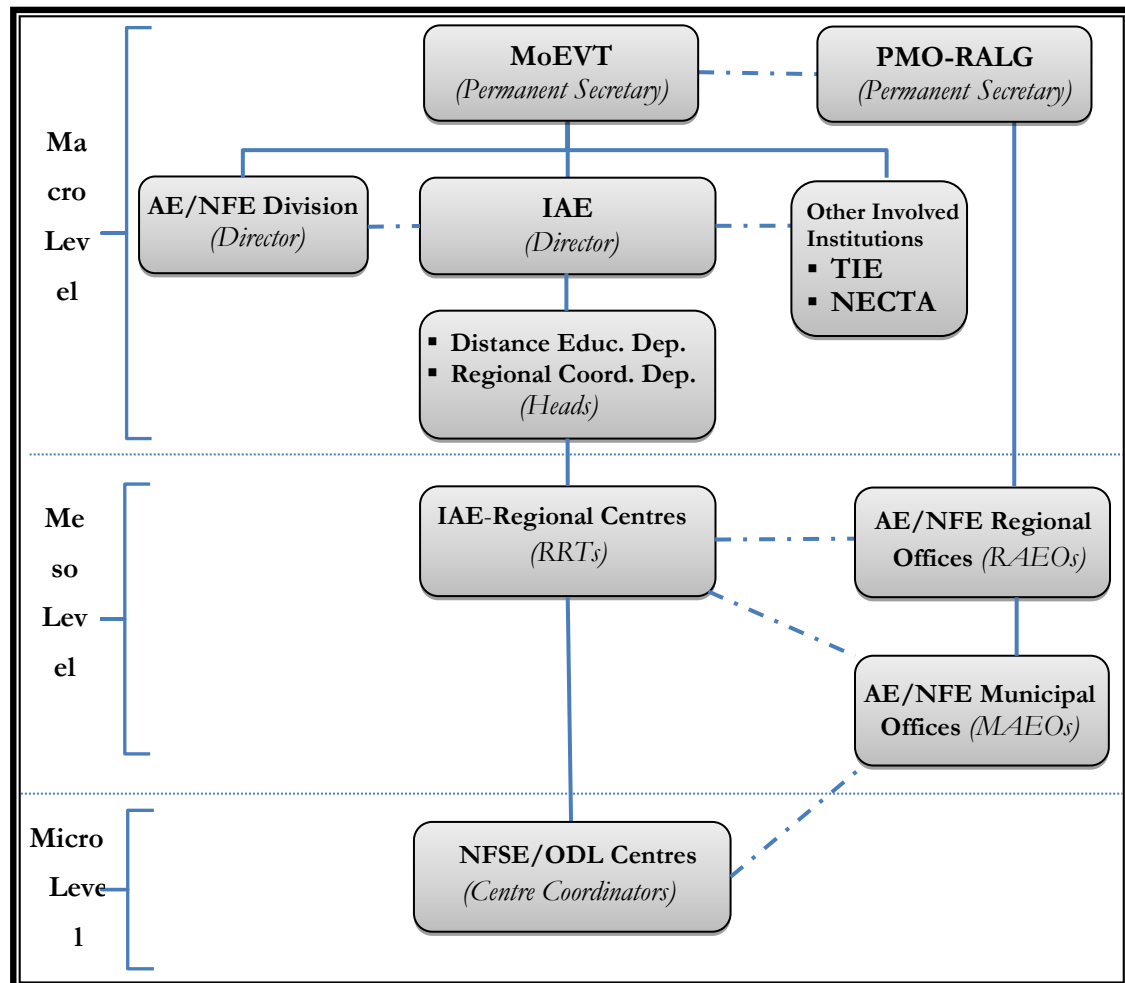
In all the cases discussed and taking into account the operating nature of NFSE, it was collectively emphasised at different times by the IAE officials, RRTs, RAEOs, MAEOs and NFSE centre coordinators that the conventional NFE institutional structure presented in figure 7.2 was not functional for NFSE. They insisted that the structure was just too general for other NFE programmes organised under the jurisdiction of the MoEVT-HQs such as Complementary Basic Education (CoBET), Integrated Post Primary Education (IPPE), and Integrated Community Based Adult Education (ICBAE). In these programmes, the IAE was just partly involved in their implementation compared to the NFSE, which was fully organised by the IAE as one of its ODL programmes, ventured by an array of private providers under its jurisdiction. The argument is that an effective organisational structure should optimise the performance of the entire institution and all the members involved through proper

organisation of tasks, work activities and people (Cunliffe, 2008). In the context of the findings presented, therefore, it appears that there was no single, comprehensive and practical administrative structure in terms of coverage that bounded all the NFE programmes and the involved parties in providing and managing NFE including NFSE in the country. Thus, the conventional NFE institutional structure presented in figure 7.2 was generally found to be dysfunctional and ineffective for NFSE as it failed to ensure that all NFSE actors carried out their organisational activities to achieve the set aims and objectives (cf. Rosengren, 1967; Mullins, 2010). Nevertheless, a more specific and operational NFSE institutional structure was found to be in operation as an alternative as presented in sub-section 7.2.2.

### **7.2.2 Operational NFSE institutional structure**

In a bid to establish the practical and operational structure for managing NFSE across its institutional levels, it was revealed by the adult education officials from the IAE, RRTs, and later confirmed in the policy documents that, although the IAE was under the MoEVT, it was a semi-autonomous institution established under the IAE Act No. 12 of 1975 [Cap. 139, section 4], mandated to design, institute and manage innovative NFE programmes in the country (URT, 1975, p. 4). As such, the management of ODL programmes including NFSE in the country fell under its organisational structure. Thus, the practical NFSE institutional structure that was found in operation countrywide was as depicted in figure 7.3:





**Figure 7.3: Operational NFSE Institutional Structure**

**Source:** Developed from URT (1975, 2013b), IAE website, and interview data.

**Note :** - - - - Horizontal linkage and/or existence of a weak link.

Figure 7.3, which was extracted from both the policy documents and NFSE actors' experiences and actual practices, shows that NFSE was mainly governed by the IAE as a semi-autonomous institution under the MoEVT. This structure in operation was more flexible and directly connected to all the NFSE institutions and actors involved at different levels. Though there are also two different administrative channels involved—MoEVT and PMO-RALG—and their supporting institutions as depicted in figure 7.3, their linkages and interactions for the case of NFSE governance was more simplified whereas the reporting system and administrative positions across levels were more straightforward and well-linked both horizontally and vertically compared to the conventional structure presented in figure 7.2. The extent to which the two channels were integrated is an issue of concern discussed in detail in section 7.3 on the institutional linkages and sub-section 8.3.1 on structural complexities.

### 7.3 NFSE Institutional Linkages

Comprehensiveness in setting up the administrative structure is not the only factor for effective management of education provision; rather, in tandem with vivacious interaction among all the supporting institutions, it constitutes a crucial means for working together in an effective and efficient way (Aspin, 2001; Torres, 2009). Thus, in examining how NFSE as an educational programme operated in the organisational structures depicted, it was pertinent to have a special focus on institutional linkages. This was based on the fact that in today's education reforms, linkages appear to be the most salient in stirring communication and resources across policy domains such as the state, local authorities and the schools, hence making an intervention change in performance (Sink & Smith, Jr., 1994; Lasky et al., 2005). This section, therefore, focuses on both horizontal and vertical linkages that emerged in the course of establishing the level of interactivity among the NFSE actors involved.

#### 7.3.1 Horizontal NFSE institutional linkage

##### *Inter-ministerial linkage*

Figures 7.2 and 7.3 suggest that the linkage at the macro level between the MoEVT and the PMO-RALG was more horizontal and, indeed, weak, fragmented and unsynchronised (see representation by dotted arrows). This was revealed in the policy documents and later confirmed during interviews with NFSE managers at macro and meso levels that the working relationship (linkage) between the two ministries did not take cognisance of the complexity of the defined AE/NFE roles and responsibilities within and between them (see their roles in section 7.4). In this regard, one of the RAEOs affirmed:

*There are a vacuum, unclear responsibilities and lack of demarcations between the MoEVT and PMO-RALG in implementing and managing NFSE. Their relationship is too horizontal and fragmented as each one stands independently. The mention of PMO-RALG is too symbolic as it is not practically concerned with the NFSE. Simply, there is no strong bond between the two (RAEO1).*

The RAEO's argument was further consolidated by one of the NFE policy documents, which acknowledges that the implementation of AE/NFE programmes, particularly continuing education has continuously been constrained by a number of shortcomings in the institutional and administrative procedures at all levels, mainly in terms of inter-ministerial linkage (URT, 2012a, p. 42). This fact was also alluded to in the AE/NFE sub-sector medium term strategy as another policy document for the implementation of

AE/NFE programmes, which opines that one of the critical challenges to implementing and achieving the objectives of AE/NFE programmes was lack of mutual understanding and clear communication between the MoEVT and the PMO-RALG on their roles and responsibilities (URT, 2010b, p. 14). Such a weak linkage did not only affect the execution of NFSE activities at the macro level but also widened the gap with the lower managerial levels, making them symbolic and/or dysfunctional for NFSE activities as discussed further in sub-section 7.3.5. All these can be interpretively related to the complexity of the conventional NFE administrative structure as depicted in Figure 7.2. However, it was established that the operational NFSE structure under the IAE as presented in figure 7.3 was less affected by such linkage breakups since the NFSE activities were all organised under the jurisdiction of the IAE as a semi-autonomous institution of MoEVT, thus mainly operating within only one administrative channel.

#### ***Linkage of the key AE/NFE departments at the macro level***

Interview findings reveal further that even the key departments responsible for NFSE within the MoEVT as depicted in both figures 7.2 and 7.3 were not strongly linked and neither worked collectively in a horizontal manner towards ensuring sustainable provision of NFSE and achievement of EFA goals. The following observations were offered:

- i. At the macro level, the IAE Director and the AE-Director at the MoEVT-HQs have almost equal titles. Though we work together, it is more horizontally, and we have just a professional relationship. Our administrative linkage needs to be more strengthened in managing NFSE (MoEVT-AEO1).*
- ii. There is no good linkage between the AE/NFE Division at the MoEVT-HQs and the IAE. It happens that the AE/NFE Division performs the functions of the IAE. This is exactly the effect of poor linkage among the two key departments at the macro level (RRT2).*

These statements clarify that the IAE Director and the AE Director (MoEVT-HQs) had a fragmented horizontal linkage. Although the roles and responsibilities of the two parties were well-defined in the OS guidelines and other related policy documents, the overlapping roles of one institution over the other mentioned reveal a lack of strong linkage among the two supporting institutions under the MoEVT. Mostly, their linkage was found to be on expertise sharing in developing NFE policies and programmes rather than administratively. Furthermore, it was established that such a poor linkage and communication system was affected by the structural drawbacks and autonomies vested in each part whereby both the AE Director (HQs) and the IAE Director worked

almost at the same rank though in different capacities, while reporting separately to the permanent secretary of the MoEVT to whom they were both answerable. This linkage gap affected not only their day-to-day administrative operations but also the operations of their subordinates at the meso and micro levels. These findings are supported by Lockheed et al. (1991), who argue that when the lines of communication are blocked at the central level of education system, administrative weaknesses generally arise and implicate the lower levels. These institutional effects prompted other institutional management theorists such as Sink and Smith Jr. (1994) to strongly affirm that for a change to occur in any intervention, linkage among entities, within levels and between levels of an organisation must be established.

### ***Linkage of other parties concerned at the macro level***

The linkage between and among the other semi-autonomous institutions at the macro level was even more fragmented. As figures 7.2 and 7.3 illustrate, both administrative structures lacked a strong and direct horizontal linkage to other key supporting institutions within the MoEVT, including the IAE, TIE and NECTA which were directly involved in managing the provision of NFSE (refer also section 7.4 on their roles that require them to interact horizontally depending on the autonomy granted to each institution). Their linkage and working relationship were ironically mentioned in the SE-ODL implementation guidelines (2013) as close and interactive (see URT, 2013b, p. 32). In practice, however, all the respondents involved in this study reported that the linkage among the mentioned institutions was extremely weak which, consequently, affected proper supervision of NFSE provision in the country in addition to undermining its sustainability. Here are some of their remarks:

- i. There is a linkage problem among the TIE, NECTA and LAE, particularly, on the issues of curriculum, assessment procedures and examination regulations ... (MoEVT-AEO1).*
- ii. In the matters of exams, there is no link between LAE and NECTA. We rely on the TIE curriculum and we don't which curriculum is adopted by LAE for NFSE (NECTAO).*
- iii. TIE has no link with the LAE, particularly, in developing the NFSE curriculum. They just modify our syllabi but we are not involved. In fact, there should be a tied link between TIE as a curriculum developer, LAE as a coordinator of all NFE programmes and NECTA as an evaluator but, this is what is missing. It is politically propagated that there is a very good relationship among us but in actual practice, it is not (TIEO).*

These statements from the myriad cadre of NFSE actors expose the existence of an

ineffective communication and vague linkage among the key supporting institutions, which in turn limited their interactivity and exchange of expertise in organising, managing and evaluating NFSE in the country. It was generally noted that the existing linkage gap between and among the supporting institutions resulted into critical challenges and complaints in the areas of curriculum/syllabi and study materials used, examination requirements, as well as assessment and certification procedures, which determined both the qualitative and quantitative achievements of the learners at the end of the programme (refer to sub-section 8.2.7). In consequence, the sustainability of the programme suffered. These findings are contrary to the findings revealed in a similar context in Uganda where all education agencies within the ministry of education were found to be working jointly at different points in implementing NFE programmes (Hoppers, 2007). Conclusively, one would rule out the possibility that such linkage gap was basically an outcome of the improper institutional arrangement of the roles played by each institution and their interactivity. In a broader context, it is also supported in the literature that the NFE sub-sector in the country has been treated as a separate entity from the main education structure (Mushi, 2009). This is considered to be a contributory factor to the prevailing poor linkage. In fact, the situation does not only polarise the NFE provision but also affects the roles of all the agencies and actors involved due to their poor coordination (ibid.).

#### ***Linkage of the decentralised NFSE units at the meso level***

As both figure 7.2 and 7.3 illustrate, the RAEOs and RRTs worked at the same level of management with almost similar managerial functions at their capacity (refer to section 7.4 for further discussion). Their administrative linkage was, thus, identified to be more linear and, indeed, informal with weak ties (see dotted lines). These are some of their testimonies:

- i. The linkage between RRT and RAEO is there though not formal and in some cases depends on our willingness. Individual tendencies cannot be avoided either. But what I can generally say, our interaction is too horizontal and informal (RRT1).*
- ii. Since the RAEO and the RRT work at the same level, with almost the same functions though responsible to different authorities, our linkage depends much on such horizontal working relationship. In most cases, however, we do not work towards the same goals (RAEO2).*

The statements imply that the two NFSE institutional levels were parallel and horizontally less interactive. The reason for such poor linkage could be the influence of

the setup of administrative structures (see both figures 7.2 and 7.3) and the managerial roles and autonomy vested in the hands of each actor (see Table 7.1), which established different administrative channels of operation, forcing them working at the same level despite being responsive to different higher authorities. As a result, the sustainability of the NFSE was not guaranteed. Literature suggests that working towards achieving a set of programme/policy objectives is a matter of shared responsibility, at different levels of public authority, and more importantly between/among them (Molle, 2007).

### **7.3.2 Vertical NFSE institutional linkage**

#### ***Systemic vertical linkage in the conventional NFE institutional structure***

Although the policy documents claimed that the conventional NFE institutional structure (see figure 7.2) was comprehensive, cut across various levels, and involved all the key actors, it did not work out thoroughly to reach and affect the local levels effectively. Both visible and invisible vertical disconnections between and among the supporting institutions in the structure were learned. It was revealed from interviews with different NFSE managers that linkage and communication from the two ministries (MoEVT and PMO-RALG) to the local levels and vice-versa were not in favour of effective provision and supervision of NFSE as envisaged in NFE policies. As per policy directives, for instance, the IAE and its regional representatives (RRTs) were the key players mandated to propel all NFSE activities. However, their working relationship and vertical linkage to the MoEVT and PMO-RALG as well as to their related lower levels/units as depicted in figure 7.2 were either indirect or non-existent. Furthermore, even the AE Department at PMO-RALG (as shown in a dotted box in figure 7.2), which would otherwise act as a bridge between the ministry and the lower levels was not in place, thus affecting the vertical flow of communication to and from both the ministerial and local levels. It was rightly confirmed by the NFSE managers at the meso and micro levels that such vertical linkage from both the MoEVT and the PMO-RALG to the regional and municipal levels was too indirect, disconnected and contradictory due to the structural complexity of two different, untied and disjointed channels of communication.

Likewise, due to indirect engagement of the IAE in that vertical linkage as depicted in figure 7.2, the existing linkage from the MoEVT and PMO-RALG to the regional and municipal levels was more on matters related to other NFE programmes organised by

the MoEVT than NFSE which was fully organised by the IAE. On the other hand, despite the existing direct vertical connection from the regional to the municipal and NFSE centre levels as shown in figure 7.2, it was established that the NFSE centres were practically less linked and answerable to the WECs, MAEOs and RAEOs. In this regard, the officials mentioned were claimed to have had no direct mandate to the NFSE centres despite their being mentioned in the conventional NFE structure as a bridge between the micro and macro levels.

Thus, the system of vertical linkage for NFSE activities as presented in figure 7.2 was complicated and relatively fragmented. Arguably, all the established vertical linkage gaps can be associated with the nature and complexity of the adopted institutional structures, whereby the conventional NFE structure presented in figure 7.2 was more applicable to other NFE programmes other than to the NFSE. Such poor establishment of vertical linkage to the local levels adversely affected the implementation of NFSE and, thus, broadly stood as a major disturbing challenge to its sustainability and other AE/NFE programmes (cf. URT, 2010b, p. 14; URT, 2012a, p. 54). The main effects were noted in the areas of communication, decision-making and resource-sharing across policy domains as also presumed by Lasky et al. (2005). Consequently, contradictions of actions of the various involved layers within the conventional institutional structure were common instead of supporting each other towards achieving the harmonised institutional goals (Molle, 2007).

From a different perspective, the findings may also suggest that such poor linkage was triggered by lack of a policy system which determines the functions of different policy domains in the NFE institutional system and their interactivity (see, for instance, Lasky et al., 2005). Thus, the NFSE institutional linkage gap revealed in this section reflects the state of the incoherent NFE policy system which is also addressed in chapter six. Though the SE-ODL Implementation Guidelines (2013) attempt to fill that gap by establishing a linkage among the supporting institutions, Lasky et al. (2005) terms such linkage as ineffectual since it was found to be unused and more politically propagated (refer to sub-section 7.3.1). Generally, the NFSE as a new intervention most likely lacked any change in performance within the conventional NFE institutional structure (cf. Sink & Smith, Jr., 1994). Thus, the conventional NFE structure in figure 7.2 remained symbolic and dysfunctional for NFSE. It is affirmed that in improving the



management of educational programmes requires forging effective linkages within and between the education systems (Bhagia et al., 1990; Lockheed et al., 1991).

### ***Vertical linkage in the operational NFSE institutional structure***

Vertical linkage in the NFSE structure under the IAE as depicted in figure 7.3 was revealed to be straightforward and interactive from the IAE where the NFSE programme was basically organised to the MoEVT-HQs, on the one hand, and direct to the RRTs and NFSE centre coordinators at meso and micro levels, on the other hand. Thus, it made the structure more efficient and practical for easy provision and management of NFSE practices. Despite its practicality as established in figure 7.3, it was likewise found to have some vertical linkage break-ups from the RRTs to the MAEOs who were key agents and a link between the NFSE centres in their localities and the upper authorities at the regional level. The vertical linkage displayed by the dotted lines from the RRTs to MAEOs and later to the NFSE centre coordinators in figure 7.3 suggests that their linkage was somewhat fragmented and existed when the need arose. This was noted as a critical challenge to the RRTs in reaching out to the NFSE centres which were scattered in the region. The following note from one of the RRTs explains this worrisome setup:

*RT has no direct link to the MAEOs at the local level. This is a very big challenge indeed. When I want to instruct the MAEOs, I should first consult the regional administrative secretary (RAS), who should also write to the municipal executive directors (MEDs), and then down to the municipal education officers (MEOs) and MAEOs. This is simply because the MAEOs are not responsible to the LAE and thus, never report to the RRT as a representative of the LAE. So, everything gets into stuck if one in that chain is not willing to cooperate (RRT2).*

Apart from the normal institutional hierarchies mentioned in both figures 7.2 and 7.3, the statement above shows that the vertical interaction between and among the RRTs, MAEOs and NFSE centre coordinators was even more complicated as other authorities were also indirectly involved, yet key in facilitating the operation of NFSE activities in the region. The statement further indicates that the vertical linkage break-up between RRTs and MAEOs generated a bureaucratic system of communication, hence making the execution of their managerial functions illusive. Inevitably, there were delays in serving and solving the unfolding challenges at the NFSE centre level. The direct link to the MAEOs as key agents working at the municipal/district level was considered pertinent in outreaching remote areas within the region and bridging the gaps that might exist in terms of accessibility between and among the RRTs, NFSE providers at the

centre level and the upper authorities. On the whole, the effect of the structural complexity whereby all MAEOs were working in a different administrative structure translated into less accountability to the RRTs. In line with the assumptions of the systems theory, the sustainability of NFSE could not be guaranteed as the interconnection of the sub-systems is key to practical institutional management (cf. Jones & Bartlett Learning, 2010; Mele et al., 2010).

#### 7.4 NFSE Institutional Roles and Governance

It is apparent that any programme has its main actors and their roles to play. Through interviews with education officials from NECTA, TIE and more specifically with AE managers from the MoEVT-HQs and IAE, as well as with the RRTs, RAEOs, MAEOs and NFSE centre coordinators, it was established that several actors from different supporting institutions under the MoEVT were engaged in managing the provision of NFSE. This section analyses the roles of every institution/actor and the way they were engaging in accomplishing the set NFSE roles. Table 7.1 summarises the key roles performed by every institution/actor in the programme.

**Table 7.1: An Illustrative Matrix of the Practical NFSE Institutional Roles**

S/N	Institution	Major Institutional Roles Performed
1.	MoEVT-HQs (AE/NFE Department)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Formulated the countrywide NFE policies and plans</li> <li>▪ Conducted evaluation of the NFSE demands in the country</li> <li>▪ Authorised the proposed OS guidelines</li> <li>▪ Established national minimum standards for NFSE</li> </ul>
2.	IAE-HQs i. (Distance Education Department)  ii. (Regional Coordination Department)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Oversaw establishment and registration of NFSE centres</li> <li>▪ Developed plans for NFSE through ODL and organised implementation</li> <li>▪ Engaged in the evaluation of NFSE that brought about the OS guidelines</li> <li>▪ Partnered with MoEVT-HQs in devising OS guidelines</li> <li>▪ Improvised an integrated NFSE curriculum and syllabi</li> <li>▪ Prepared, produced and supplied NFSE study materials</li> <li>▪ Coordinated all NFSE activities undertaken in the regions</li> <li>▪ Conducted monitoring and promoted NFSE to reach the target groups</li> <li>▪ Conducted formative learning evaluation and granted leaving certificates</li> <li>▪ Solicited funds from NFSE providers</li> </ul>
3.	TIE (Curriculum Development & Review Dep.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Developed and designed the conventional secondary education curriculum and syllabi</li> </ul>
4.	NECTA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Registered NFSE learners as private candidates in the national examination</li> <li>▪ Examined and certified NFSE learners</li> </ul>
5.	IAE–Regional Centres	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Organised establishment of new NFSE centres</li> <li>▪ Mobilised people to join NFSE</li> <li>▪ Coordinated registration of NFSE centres in the region</li> <li>▪ Coordinated delivery of study materials</li> </ul>

6.	Regional Offices	AE/NFE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Provided academic support to the NFSE providers, facilitators and learners</li> <li>▪ Monitored NFSE quality through follow-ups (facilitators' qualifications and learning and teaching environment)</li> <li>▪ Linked the NFSE centres to the IAE</li> <li>▪ Coordinated internal examinations at the regional level</li> <li>▪ Mobilised and managed funds (fees from NFSE providers and learners)</li> <li>▪ Reported progress of the NFSE activities to the IAE</li> <li>▪ Monitored and supervised NFSE quality through follow-ups (quality of facilitators and learning and teaching environment)</li> <li>▪ Played a role of policy interpretation and advice to the regional education officer and regional administrative secretary</li> <li>▪ Reported the progress of the NFE programmes to the ministries</li> </ul>
7.	Municipal/District AE/NFE Offices		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Coordinated and linked the NFSE centres with the formal schools in the use and sharing of the available learning facilities</li> <li>▪ Mobilised people to join NFSE within the municipal</li> <li>▪ Monitored NFSE activities</li> <li>▪ Prepared and submitted NFSE progress reports to the RAEO</li> </ul>
8.	NFSE Centres		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Disseminated entry requirements and other info to the clients</li> <li>▪ Enrolled learners according to their course requirements</li> <li>▪ Supervised facilitators and coordinated all learning activities at the centre</li> <li>▪ Guided learners on their academic matters</li> <li>▪ Received and distributed study materials to the learners</li> <li>▪ Reported progress of the NFSE centres to the RRT</li> </ul>

**Source:** Synthesised Field Data.

Table 7.1 denotes at a practical level the key functions of different supporting institutions under the MoEVT and actors involved in the provision and management of NFSE in the country. It was, however, noted from the policy documents that more roles of those institutions were stipulated though hardly found to be so in practice. Some of the roles were overlapping across levels and institutions depending on the nature of the adopted administrative structure and its interactivity whereas other roles were conflicting as a result of poor linkage. The subsequent sections expound in much detail on these roles.

#### 7.4.1 Formulating policies and the related guidelines

It was revealed that in decentralising education provision as part of education reforms policy introduced in the 1990s, the MoEVT devolved most of its administrative responsibilities and remained with a few, the core being education policy formulation (cf. URT, 1995a, p. 26). The current AE/NFE development plan, for instance, states categorically: "...the specific roles and functions of the MoEVT in relation to the implementation of ANFEDP shall be to: develop adult, non-formal and continuing education policies in consistent with national aspirations and targets" (URT, 2012a, p.

48). This connotation is firmly reaffirmed in the recently launched education and training policy of 2014, which goes an extra mile to cover other functions of standards setting as well as monitoring and evaluation (URT, 2014a, p. 62).

The documentary data, when coupled with interview responses from the policy-makers and NFSE managers, affirmed that the MoEVT partly managed to advocate on NFSE policy concerns in the existing NFE policies as noted in chapter six. Specifically, the MoEVT in collaboration with the IAE formulated and issued policy guidelines for the establishment and registration of NFSE centres, on the one hand, and included the NFSE in the national AE/NFE development plans and implementation programmes, on the other hand (refer URT, 2010b, 2012a, 2013a). These policy advancements were, however, inadequate as revealed in chapter six thus, a manifestation of the failure of the MoEVT to execute fully its role of enacting an independent AE/NFE sub-sector policy within the framework of lifelong learning as assigned in the URT (2013b), whereby the NFSE would occupy a particular coverage for its provision and support. Furthermore, even the specific NFE regulations and orders that enforce the OS guidelines introduced and other related policy provisions were also not in place as chapter six has illustrated, despite being one of the MoEVT's key roles of regulating education provision (see URT, 2012a, 2013b, 2014a). Largely, the situation was far reaching in terms of the NFE targets pointed out in the AE/NFE long-term development plans whereby the establishment of NFE policies, guidelines and standards was one of the key MoEVT's *'to do'* functions (URT, 2012a). As a result, inconsistencies in the NFE policies and regulations in the sub-sector were commonly experienced, which in turn affected the provision of NFSE.

In exploring the reasons for the unfulfilled role of formulating independent NFE policy and regulations for NFSE, interviews with the NFE policy-makers revealed that, despite being one of their core functions, the entire process of carrying out such role was disrupted by several drawbacks, mainly the political process which was also complicated by the bureaucratic nature of the system. It was also noted that despite the Department of AE/NFE at the MoEVT-HQs being directly involved, the policy process required impetus from the higher authorities such as the commissioner of education, the PS and the minister for education before endorsement by the cabinet and later approval by the legislation house. In this regard, one of the NFE policy-makers remarked:

*Most of the time, we delay implementing the planned NFE programmes and strategies, waiting for policies to be endorsed. Whenever a required policy draft is submitted for approval, it takes too long and/or eventually is nullified on political grounds. It takes up to five years waiting for a new policy to be passed in order to implement NFE programmes. It is, therefore, usually that policy process is an obstacle for NFE development because it hinders the implementation process (MoEVT-AEO1).*

From the statement, it is evident that, apart from delays mainly caused by the political and bureaucratic processes, objectivity in approving the suggested policies did not prevail as the process was at some point compromised by political prejudice. On that basis, inadequate political will and support for NFSE are as revealed in chapter six (refer to sub-section 6.3.3), and as equally affirmed in the education sector SWOT analysis report that shows that the NFE lacked political will for its institutionalisation (URT, 2008a). The entire situation affected the functions of the NFE policy-makers, hindered the development of the NFE sub-sector at large, and in managing the provision of the NFSE in particular.

#### **7.4.2 Mobilising financial resource for NFSE**

At the policy level, as discussed in chapter six, financing of the NFSE was a collective responsibility that involves the central government, local government authorities, NFSE providers, NFSE learners, community and other development partners (URT, 2008a, 2010b, 2012a, 2013a, 2013b, 2014a). However, the key issue in question was the commitment of every actor in accomplishing their respective roles and sustaining the mechanisms for financing the programme. Since the ownership of the NFSE centres was both public and private, financing arrangements were also found to be somewhat different.

##### ***Financial mobilisation at the macro level***

Also, different policy documents revealed that the government through the MoEVT and PMO-RALG had the dual role of funding the open and distance learning through SEDP funding arrangements, and strengthening mechanisms for soliciting and mobilising financial resource from other sources (URT, 1995a, p. 89, 2012a, p. 41). When finding out how those roles were accomplished at the macro level, it was revealed through interviews with different NFSE actors that such a government commitment was ironically stated in the policy documents but was not real in actuality. The following statements made by NFE policy-makers and managers express further:

- i. *The government is not doing its part. Lack of government funding has always been the main threat for the NFE programmes' sustainability (MoEVT-AEO2).*
- ii. *A slim budget for NFE is really a long time problem. I am the one who organises and pushes the budget for the AE/NFE at the HQs, but we cannot finance NFSE because the NFE sub-sector gets very small budget compared to other sub-sectors" (MoEVT-AEO1).*
- iii. *The government provides different NFE targets to meet and objective to accomplish at our level without any significant support in terms financial resource. How can NFE programmes sustain? The government is simply not doing its job" (IAEO1).*
- iv. *NFE sector is not adequately capacitated in terms of budget and NFSE is completely excluded. The situation hinders the implementation of our roles at the regional and district levels (RRT2).*
- v. *In spite of being a public NFSE centre, we don't have any financial support from the government. We depend on our learners' fees in running our centre (Pu-CC2).*

The analysis of these statements from different NFSE actors discloses that the government, particularly at the macro level, did not adequately play its role of financing NFSE despite being well stated in the policy. It was revealed—and also supported in similar empirical findings—that the budget was not specifically earmarked for the NFE sub-sector rather in a pool of all education sub-sectors within the ministry, of which its allocation depended much on the priority areas and in most cases meant to be for basic and formal education (cf. Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002; Macpherson, 2007). Thus, the NFE sub-sector was justified by the NFE managers at the macro level to have been neglected in budget for so long, hence undergoing critical financial constraints whilst the NFSE was severely affected and unable to accomplish its mission as it was completely excluded from all financial arrangements and considerations (cf. URT, 2012a). These findings explain that the government failed to accomplish its financing role due to improper patterns of financing AE/NFE and lack of realistic budget envelopes (cf. OECD, 2003; Lewin, 2008).

Such a situation of the unfulfilled role of the government tend to reduce access to NFSE as the increase of access to secondary education depends largely on the proper identification of sustainable financial patterns within realistic budget envelopes as a key role of policy-makers (OECD, 2003; Lewin, 2008). Furthermore, the situation compromised other related roles of both the MoEVT and PMO-RALG as directed in the policy, such as monitoring and evaluation of the NFSE activities, as well as the

operation of the NFSE activities at the local level (detailed discussion in chapter eight). In sum, these findings demonstrate that the financial arrangements for NFSE within the entire system was non-existent, which is the main reason behind the failure of any change to occur in the first place, at any scale, and un-sustained if it does (Fullan, 2007). Crosby (1996) asserts that the inability of the government to fulfil its role of redistributing resources to the new priorities is frequently the cause of programme shutdowns.

### ***Financial mobilisation within the IAE***

Since the financing role at the ministerial level was not adequately fulfilled as discussed in sub-section 7.4.2, the IAE and its regional offices consequently encountered financial constraints in providing and managing the provision of NFSE in the country. Thus, the IAE countered the situation by soliciting funds from the NFSE providers and learners through different ways such as centres' registration fee, centres' coordination fee, learners' registration fees, and learning materials' cost. This role of the IAE on financial mobilisation was stipulated in section 11, p. 7 of the IAE Act, though the mentioned sources of funding were categorised as merely other sources vested in or accrued to the institute (URT, 1975). However, the costs charged affected the NFSE private providers and their respective clienteles who also incurred operational costs at the centre level. On the other hand, despite the waiver of fees for the public NFSE centres' registration and coordination, they still incurred costs for tuition, as well as teaching and learning materials which were not covered by the government as demanded by the policy. Therefore, both private and public providers reported that the role of the IAE and of supporting NFSE programme had been shifted to the providers and consumers who felt to be more exploited than supported. Arguably, emerges here reinforces and consolidates what has been revealed in sub-section 7.4.2, as well as what was rhetorically stated in the policy about PPP (refer to sub-section 6.3.3), whereas the government detached from its commitment of financing NFSE as its mandatory role (see also URT, 2013a, p. 40). Since the public and private resources for NFSE were not optimised and the partnership was not coherent as suggested by OECD (2003) and URT (2010b), it was even harder to reach significantly the potential NFSE beneficiaries in the country.



### 7.4.3 Developing NFSE curriculum, syllabi and study materials

Curriculum, syllabi and study materials development is a key role in maintaining the quality of NFSE. At the policy level, NFSE curriculum was centralised (see, URT, 1995a, 2013a, 2013b, 2014a). However, there was a mismatch between policy and practice on how and which supporting institutions were responsible for carrying out such a crucial role. The SE-ODL Implementation Guidelines (2013), for instance, offered the following explanation:

The IAE shares the expertise in curriculum designing and development with TIE. This sharing process has contributed to the design of integrated ODL curriculum which has led to the development of syllabi and learners study modules. The IAE works closely with NECTA as the authority responsible for examinations and certification (URT, 2013b, p. 32).

At the practical level, the contrary emerged. Through interviews, it was revealed that the IAE alone played the role of improvising an integrated curriculum, syllabi and study materials which were to be adopted by all NFSE providers in the country. These instruments were tailored from the conventional/formal secondary education curriculum and syllabi developed by TIE by redesigning, integrating and modifying the content coverage to meet the requirements of NFSE programme and its course design of two instead of four years for lower secondary, and one instead of two years for upper secondary. In performing such role, IAE did not, however, consult the TIE as an institution responsible for curriculum development. This was revealed in one of the statements by a TIE official:

*IAE adapts our curriculum and modifies our syllabi for NFSE. This key role requires our expertise although we are not involved. As a result, it has created a lot of problems during examinations as a matter of fact that NECTA set examinations basing on our curriculum, not that of IAE (TIEO).*

In other words, the development of the NFSE curriculum and syllabi is on the surface a joint venture role involving the IAE and TIE. However, a comparative analysis of the two pieces of evidence reveals conflicting and contradictory accounts between policy and practice. Reflectively when one links these findings to other dimensions discussed in this chapter, one realises that difference between policy and practice was basically triggered by lack of a strong linkage between and among the MoEVT supporting institutions as revealed in sub-section 7.3.1. It also results from the conflicting policy statements as revealed in sub-section 6.3.5 which also show that the IAE and TIE replicated to some extent the similar mandates.

Nevertheless, leaving a professional role of curriculum development solely in the hands of the IAE raised concerns about its expertise in curriculum development and the possible effects of using non-professionals in modifying the curriculum. Such practice contradicts the institutional theory assumptions guiding this study, whose *normative isomorphic* mechanism advocates for compliance with professional standards, conditions and methods of work to control service provision and ensure quality (DiMaggio & Powell, 2012). Consequently, it was established that such practices caused multiple complexities in the execution of other supporting institutional roles. For instance, the NECTA officials and RRTs reported that the IAE's tailor-made curriculum for the NFSE was ignored by the NECTA when setting examinations as the formal TIE secondary education curriculum was treated as a universal. In turn, those inconsistencies resulted into chaos and dilemma among the NFSE providers in adopting the existing curriculum, syllabi and study materials which eventually affected the learners' academic achievements (see chapter eight on the emerging challenges). It is apparent that the institutional roles were not adequately harmonised among the supporting institutions under the MoEVT. They further explained that the communication system was ineffective and teamwork insufficient among the supporting institutions when it came to organising and managing their NFSE-related roles. These findings, seen through the lens of institutional theory, imply that the NFSE institutional arrangements, as well as the policies, rules and routines, were not developed enough to bring about order and minimise uncertainties in the provision of NFSE (DiMaggio & Powell, 2012).

#### **7.4.4 Coordinating NFSE activities**

##### ***Coordinating NFSE at the macro level***

At the policy level, the MoEVT was obligated for sector-wide coordination of adult, non-formal and continuing education implementation, whereas the PMO-RALG was also obligated for the same function but to be more responsible for the activities carried out under the aegis of local government authorities (district, town, municipal or city councils) (refer to URT, 2008b, pp. 18-19, 2012a, pp. 47-48, 2013b, p. 7, & 2010b, p. 28). Furthermore, the IAE Act No. 12 of 1975 mentions the IAE as a statutory body for coordinating the development of the AE/NFE activities in the country, as similarly reaffirmed in OS guidelines (see URT, 1975, 2013a, 2013b). Thus, a question emerged on the demarcations and point of interplay in coordination between the two ministries, as well as their connection to and impact on the local level coordination units.

The policy documents reviewed offered mixed narratives to the concerns connected with overlapping roles of the two ministerial bodies, which also tended to amount to a duplication of roles. Nonetheless, it was generally understood that the department of AE/NFE in the MoEVT was more responsible for coordinating AE/NFE action-oriented researches that would inform policy decisions in the entire AE/NFE sub-sector, coordinating providers, as well as activities that cut across different ministries (see also URT, 2012a, p. 49). Meanwhile, the AE section at PMO-RALG was tasked with the responsibility of coordinating AE/NFE plans, budgets and their implementation at the regional and district levels though such docket had yet to be instituted (*ibid.*, p. 47, see also figure 7.2). Such arrangements could be described to amount to mere job descriptions for the two ministries, or blanket doctrine for all NFE practices regardless of the overall nature of particular programmes such as NFSE. It was established from interviews with NFE managers at the macro level that coordination of NFSE activities between the two ministries was vague because there was no inter-ministerial coordination agency that could help oversee all the NFE activities across the ministries and their lower levels of administration to ensure better utilisation of the little resources and harmonise actors' roles. Furthermore, when the AE section—as a coordination unit at the PMO-RALG—was also not in operation, then there was a breakup in the coordination of NFSE activities at the local levels, a common feature in the present set-up. The linked lower authorities, for instance, were found to work in an unsatisfactory coordinated manner (see the subsequent sub-sections). These findings may lead one to conclude that the ineffective coordination of NFSE activities between the MoEVT and PMO-RALG threatened the sustainability of NFSE provision.

### ***Coordinating NFSE activities among supporting institutions***

Within the MoEVT where a myriad NFE functions were performed by several supporting institutions, there was also a lack of close coordination of NFSE activities. Experiences from different officials in those supporting institutions were noted during interviews:

- i. NFSE centres have been mushrooming rapidly and some of them operate like formal schools but coordinated by none. The MoEVT is not aware of their existence. TIE and LAE are not informed either, yet they use our curriculum. Funny enough, NECTA certifies them. I think there is a coordination problem in our activities related to NFSE (TIEO).*
- ii. We need to have a very strong coordination mechanism among the parties responsible such as the MoEVT, LAE, TIE and NECTA that will*

*harmonise issues in executing our roles while setting demarcations (IAEO2).*

- iii. *NFSE activities are not well-coordinated between us as NECTA and the LAE. There have been challenges and complaints emerging from our NFSE stakeholders on how we handle their matters but it is basically due to poor coordination of our activities and differing policy directives. I would call for a means of strengthening coordination among us, including curriculum developers for harmonious activities (NECTAO).*

These statements allude to the fairly insufficient measures by the MoEVT in establishing a strong coordination mechanism for NFSE activities among its supporting institutions, a situation that led to fragmented NFSE activities—randomly and separately handled by individual institutions. This was strongly supported by the NFSE managers at the meso and micro levels who asserted that MoEVT-HQs, IAE, TIE and NECTA in parallel worked as independent entities despite falling under the same parent ministry and playing related roles in overseeing NFSE activities. One of them insisted:

*Coordination of NFSE activities needs to be reconsidered among the TIE as curriculum developers, LAE as NFSE programme organisers and NECTA as evaluators. In my opinion, I think you cannot examine students without knowing where they were trained and the content they covered in the curriculum. This is a problem of poor coordination that affects us at the local level (RRT1).*

The NFSE actors' statements reveal a coordination gap between and among the supporting institutions under the MoEVT, which appear to originate from the current state of NFE policy in the country which has several conflicting statements related to the provision and management of NFSE as discussed in chapter six, on the one hand, and the structural complexities as presented in figures 7.2 and 7.3, on the other hand. These findings comply with those of Hugkuntod and Tips (1987) who found in their study on NFE in Thailand that ambiguous policies, complicated administrative systems, ambiguity of roles and responsibilities among NFE organisations concerned, and lack of or poor communication between organisations were the important factors that contributed to coordination problems. Inevitably, there was jumbled coordination of NFSE activities at the local level. Other studies on AE/NFE in Africa have concluded that lack of close coordination and co-operation among different government agencies poses a great challenge that affected AE/NFE programmes (Ruto, 2004; Shirima, 2010; Aitchison, 2012; Kanukisya, 2012). The effects of this common phenomenon in many developing countries have been notable in terms of misunderstandings engendered within the government, its supporting institutions involved, and the NFE providers in

accomplishing, supporting and facilitating their roles. Apparently, the sustainability of the NFSE provision has been severely strained.

### ***Coordinating NFSE activities within the IAE***

At the narrower level of operation, the IAE was found to be more concerned with the countrywide coordination of NFSE activities. With the vision of establishing a well-coordinated system for the provision of AE/NFE, its department of Regional Centres' Coordination was coordinating all academic matters and administrative activities undertaken in the regions. In collaboration with the department of ODL and through their regional resident coordinators, they coordinated all AE/NFE centres in the country including overseeing their daily activities such as teaching and learning, assessment and evaluation, marking of assignments, distribution of study materials and dissemination of information. The coordination of these activities was found to be rightly mandated to the IAE as a statutory body responsible for coordinating the development of open schools by Act No. 12 of 1975 and also insisted upon in the OS guidelines (URT, 1975, 2013a, 2013b).

Nevertheless, it was established that due to the absence of operational guidelines for the establishment and management of open schools in the past, coordination of NFSE activities under the IAE was not fully and appropriately conducted to cover all providers, particularly the private NFSE centres. The following comment illuminates further on this issue:

*It is true that the NFSE has been operating without proper coordination. We have been coordinating our ODL centres that provide secondary education but yet unsystematically. The key challenge was the missing guidelines. As we now have the OS guidelines on the ground, it is our plan to strengthen countrywide coordination by covering both our centres and those of the private providers, to foster their sustainability. In the meantime, the NFSE centre mapping is underway at the regional level as a step towards achieving that goal (IAEO2).*

This statement by one of the NFSE managers reveals that, although the private NFSE centres were more affected by the poor coordination system, coordination of the whole programme was not well-established within the IAE primarily because of a policy vacuum. Even at the administrative level, concern was raised by one of the public NFSE centre coordinators under the IAE that "...the IAE is not doing enough in coordinating our activities. For instance, there is no mechanism to coordinate registration of our learners in the national examinations. So, what are they really coordinating?" Although

coordination of such activities was considered to be one of the key roles of the IAE as part of learner support services necessary for every ODL learner, it was left to the devices of individual learners regardless of the difficulties of their learning environments. Inevitably, there was untold suffering and even chaos. Conversely, one would argue that to a greater or lesser extent, poor coordination was not only triggered by the policy gap but rather by a couple of other factors such as poor planning and unsystematic execution of the managerial roles of the supporting institutions concerned, which, in a way, could adversely affect the sustainability of the NFSE programme. However, the policy gap appears to be the root-cause of this multifaceted problem.

Other factors such as the increase in the number of private NFSE centres operating in the black market and lack of uniform standards among providers were also mentioned to have made it difficult for the IAE to coordinate properly all the NFSE activities. These findings in their totality suggest that due to the improper coordination of NFSE activities, sustainability of the programme was at stake. Also, the emerging challenges attest to the need to strengthen and streamline coordination of NFSE activities within the IAE (cf. URT, 2013b, p. vii). As proper coordination also requires data/information base, strengthening coordination appears to remain at the level of rhetoric, hence with hardly any tangible results as it was disclosed during interviews. Indeed, the interviewees said that, despite the IAE being responsible for coordinating all AE/NFE activities, it had no authentic data of the NFSE providers, beneficiaries and the burgeoning clientele in the country, which made the coordination role even more untenable (refer also to sub-section 7.4.5).

### ***Coordinating NFSE activities at the meso level***

According to the policy directives, the implementation of AE/NFE at the regional and district/municipal levels was supposed to be coordinated by the RAEOs and MAEOs, which are tasked with the responsibility of coordinating and monitoring activities of the local government authorities (LGAs) in the delivery of all AE/NFE programmes (URT, 2012a, p. 46). Since such role of coordination falls under the conventional NFE administrative structure as presented in figure 7.2, it was found to be relatively unachievable for NFSE activities because the NFSE programme more or less exclusively operated under the IAE jurisdiction. However, the AE/NFE at the regional level lacked a strong link to the PMO-RALG where the AE section responsible for

coordinating the lower levels was also non-existent, leading to disconnected interactions and unsystematic coordination across those levels. Thus, the study findings revealed that RAEOs and MAEOs were more concerned with coordination of activities of other basic AE/NFE programmes under the MoEVT, with the coordination of NFSE being considered to be for RRTs under the IAE as it appears in figure 7.3 although, at some point, they used to work together.

The findings from both public and private NFSE centre coordinators revealed categorically that the RRTs at the meso level were more responsible for the NFSE programme coordination and the NFSE centres were basically and formally liable to the RRTs rather than to the MAEOs and RAEOs. Working under the IAE and directly connected to the NFSE centres as per IAE Act No. 12 of 1975, the RRTs were found to be playing a key role of coordinating various NFSE activities at the regional level. The activities the RRTs coordinated include the following:

- i.* availability and sharing of school infrastructures, particularly for public centres;
- ii.* registration of all NFSE centres;
- iii.* establishment of new NFSE centres;
- iv.* mobilisation of financial resources;
- v.* supply of teaching/learning materials; and
- vi.* internal NFSE examinations within the region.

Despite the coordination of NFSE activities found to be carried out by the RRTs at the regional level, it was established that there were many irregularities, delays and improper information provision to the NFSE centres and learners during their registration for the national examinations, which led to the cancellations and nullifications of their applications. Both public and private centres had their concerns about the absence of proper coordination mechanism for their examination matters, which were expected to be coordinated by the IAE through their regional representatives but not necessarily so in reality.

These findings imply that the failure of the IAE to coordinate NFSE examinations matters as revealed in sub-section 7.4.4 led to improper coordination at the regional level, an indicator of improper coordination between the IAE, RRTs and the NFSE centres. Since the effects were imposed on the NFSE centres at the local level, they



were all dissatisfied with the coordination done by the RRTs as they paid coordination fees to the IAE. Literature comments that coordination of NFE activities between agencies can best be realised through incremental networking within the institution (Carron & Carr-Hill, 1991).

### ***Coordinating NFSE activities at the centre level***

Coordination of NFSE at the centre level was found to be done mainly by the centre coordinators who coordinated all the day-to-day activities in their respective centres. Since the NFSE centres were both public and private, their coordination modalities at the centre level differed between the two. Although the public NFSE centres were somewhat directly coordinated from the IAE through RRTs, private centres were more autonomous in coordinating all their daily activities. During interviews, it emerged that the public centre coordinators had the major role of coordinating teaching and learning activities at the centre, keeping records and communicating to the IAE where other centre activities such as collection of fees and their use, employment and deployment of facilitators, and allocation of learning materials were centrally coordinated. Furthermore, private centre coordinators had additional roles of coordinating the availability of teachers, teaching and learning materials and other facilities at the centre. The difference in coordination between the public and private centres was mainly influenced by the nature of NFSE centres' ownership and related administrative arrangements.

Notwithstanding, coordination at the centre level was constrained by several challenges. Although the MoEVT and the PMO-RALG were obligated to ensure every education institution has a professional coordinator of AE/NFE and continuing education programmes (URT, 2012a, p. 39), public NFSE centres were mostly coordinated by normal teachers who worked on the basis of their experience rather than professional qualifications in AE/NFE. The situation in private centres was even worse as the majority of the centre coordinators were not even teachers by profession. It was reported by one of the MoEVT officials during interview thusly:

*Coordination of the NFSE centres and its mechanism is not very well planned at the local level. Management teams at that level are not very well established and strengthened. In effect, coordination of their activities is also doomed (MoEVT-AEO1).*

This statement by this MoEVT official provides a clue on the nature of NFSE coordination problem as a systemic problem. Moreover, it affirms further by public

NFSE centre coordinators that the challenges in coordination at the centre level were mainly attributed to poor coordination at the top level. Such complexity of coordination of NFSE activities across levels threatens the sustainability of the entire programme in the country.

### ***Summing up on NFSE coordination***

The findings and discussion in sub-section 7.4.4 on the role of coordinating NFSE activities demonstrate that coordination of NFSE activities was unsystematically and inadequately done by different NFSE actors at different levels, and the coordination gaps were systemic and affected different levels in the management of NFSE. In this regard, Sink and Smith Jr. (1994) argue that effective coordination requires a system-wide coordination versus local level coordination. On that basis, the study findings demonstrate that the failure of coordination at the macro level affected the lower levels, hence the resulting ineffectiveness of the entire system. Empirical findings and reports on AE/NFE in Tanzania show that the country has been suffering from the absence of a proper coordination system of AE/NFE, hence the ineffective implementation of its programmes at different levels and lack of records of the programmes at the macro level (see for instance, Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002; Macpherson, 2007, p. 1; URT, 2008b, p. 15; UIL, 2009, p. 30). Although these reports somewhat belong to the past, the findings in the current study provide similar evidence, which affirms that coordination of NFSE activities in the country was not properly planned and impacted on lower levels. One indicator of such unplanned coordination, particularly at the macro level was the difficulty inherent in establishing an authentic information/data on the number of NFSE providers (both public and private), as well as clientele served by the NFSE centres (refer to Table 7.2). This lack of a coherent and accessible data on NFSE further hampered future efforts aimed at fostering coordination and planning (Aitchison, 2012). These findings imply that the ineffective coordination at the macro level and their possible implications on lower levels (refer also to chapter eight) adversely impact on the status of NFSE provision, the quality of such NFSE provision and its sustainability. In this regard, both top-down and bottom-up developed coordination and lines of communication are essential in ensuring the success of any programme (Smith, 2002).

#### 7.4.5 Monitoring and evaluation of NFSE

It emerged from the data analysis that NFSE managers at different levels made follow-ups, appraised standards, regulated and controlled quality in the provision of NFSE. This role of monitoring and evaluation was found to be important and necessary as means for identifying problems, adjusting deviations, controlling quality and maintaining standards geared towards establishing performance indicators of efficiency, effectiveness and impact. Such monitoring and evaluation role in the AE/NFE sub-sector was evident in the policy documents in which it was stipulated as a joint venture arrangement between the MoEVT and the PMO-RALG (see, for instance, URT, 2010b, pp. 22&28, 2012a, p. 39, 2013b, pp. 6&7). During interviews with different NFE policy makers and managers, it emerged that the MoEVT was the only ministry undertaking monitoring of NFE. This mismatch between policy and practice is, arguably, the consequence of the ongoing education reforms in the name of decentralisation of education whereby the shift of AE/NFE programme implementation functions and mandates from the MoEVT to the PMO-RALG were still underway, thus forming a transition period for responsibilities and power transactions.

Nonetheless, since the NFSE was centrally organised by the IAE as disclosed elsewhere in this thesis, the IAE was mainly concerned with monitoring at a closer range, the day-to-day practices of all NFSE providers. IAE officials and RRTs revealed during interviews that the monitoring and evaluation of the NFSE programme was normally planned at the IAE under the department of distance education and carried out by the RRTs in collaboration with other education officials such as the RAEOs, MAEOs and school inspectors (cf. IAE, 2007, p. 15; URT, 2013b, p. 14). Thus, the RRTs were the key players in monitoring all NFSE activities at the local level within the region, mainly conducted through visits to centres, inspecting and observing their compliance with the set standards. However, it was established that since the guidelines for the establishment and implementation of NFSE were quite new in place whereas the NFSE centres have been in operation for quite a long time, monitoring and evaluating their activities were conducted by the IAE through the RRTs basically to serve two different purposes:

##### ***Monitoring and evaluation for NFSE centres' registration***

It was noted during interviews that the RRTs in collaboration with school inspectors and MAEOs visited the NFSE centres and ascertained their compliance with the stated

criteria and standards for the establishment and operation of NFSE centres before an evaluation report was filed and elevated to the IAE for endorsement and registration of qualified NFSE centres. The role of monitoring and evaluation in this dimension focused on:

- i.* teaching and learning materials and the adopted syllabi;
- ii.* teaching and learning environment such as classrooms, desks, and teaching aids;
- iii.* other infrastructure such as offices and toilets;
- iv.* NFSE centre administrative premises; and
- v.* number of facilitators and their qualifications.

Although the execution of the role of monitoring and evaluation for registration purpose was found to be in progress, the broad aim was to scrutinise all the NFSE centres in the country and accredit the ones that met the set standards. Achieving such goal was, however, largely illusive because it was difficult to reach all NFSE centres – the majority of which were operating in the black market following the lack of clear policy enforcement mechanism (stringent regulations and orders for NFE programmes) (refer to sub-section 7.4), and the absence of nationwide data of the NFSE providers/centres. Furthermore, since the NFSE centres were supposed to pay a fixed amount of cash set by the IAE for such a purpose, the practice was then confined to just few centres which volunteered to pay. The system of monitoring and evaluating for the NFSE centres' registration as a free choice and depending on the fees paid by the NFSE providers as a prerequisite condition, did not only create loopholes for the majority NFSE centres to evade such formal process, but also made it difficult to reach out to a reasonable number of NFSE centres targeted for inspection and registration. All that led to the failure in achieving the goal of registering and formalising the NFSE centres in the country. Statistically, only few NFSE centres benefited from monitoring and evaluation and later registered under such modality (refer to Table 7.2).

#### ***Registered NFSE centres during monitoring and evaluation***

As per above research findings, it was revealed that the role of registering NFSE centres was concurrently done with monitoring and evaluation of NFSE provision. In fact, the monitoring and evaluation report was the basis for the IAE to register qualified NFSE centres for their operation in the country. However, the nationwide data was not readily available despite its importance in determining the effectiveness of the MoEVT and

IAE in accomplishing such managerial role. This shortfall can be interpreted as a failure to fulfil the role of monitoring or lack of a well-established monitoring and evaluation system. The limited data obtained from one region (Dar es Salaam as part of the study area) provides a tentative picture as presented in Table 7.2:

**Table 7.2: Registered NFSE Centres in Dar es Salaam Region**

	NFSE Centres' Status Description	Public	Private	Total
1.	Estimated NFSE Centres in the Region	24	221	245
2.	Informed Centres for Registration	24	51	75
3.	Inspected Centres by April 2014	24	46	70
4.	Qualified and Registered Centres by April 2014	24	8	32

**Source:** Field Data (RRTs' Office – Dar es Salaam, 2014).

As Table 7.2 illustrates, out of the estimated 245 NFSE centres to be visited for inspection during monitoring and evaluation exercise in Dar es Salam region, only 70 centres (28.5%) were actually reached. Of these, only 32 (13%) were registered and did qualify for NFSE provision. Despite the NFSE centre mapping initiative in Dar es Salaam region unlike other regions, the data presented still portrays a picture of poor and unsystematic monitoring and evaluation of NFSE. Apart from being mere estimates, 70 out of 245 estimated centres can be fairly termed as insignificant as many more centres out of that estimated total were still operating in the black market (shadow education). Moreover, the outcomes of monitoring and evaluation that led to registration of only eight out of the estimated 221 private centres as projected in Table 7.2 gives an impression that the exercise was non-mandatory, poorly planned and its implementation lacked proper enforcement.

These findings suggest that other parts of the country where data was not even available might have even more critical challenges requiring urgent attention. Apart from the NFSE data desert revealed, the NFSE providers were multiplying and the private centres overwhelmed the few public centres. They lacked proper monitoring and evaluation, as well as a workable registration mechanism. Therefore, lack of data in the country and even improper use of the available data in planning for effective NFSE monitoring and evaluation impeded not only the reaching of the potential NFSE providers, but also the identification of learners' needs, projection of their enrolment,

proposing their basic requirements, and preparation of effective action plans and programme progress reports. Basically, it is difficult to get evidence based on insights without well-established data. The evidence revealed may, therefore, support the conclusion that the role of monitoring and evaluation was not appropriately accomplished and its entire system not well-planned by the IAE as a responsible institution for it to achieve its intended goals despite being in place.

### ***Monitoring and evaluation for maintaining NFSE quality***

During interviews, it emerged that, apart from the NFSE centres fulfilling registration requirements and being accredited upon registration, monitoring and evaluation was continuously done. This key role of monitoring and evaluation for the purpose of maintaining the quality of NFSE in the respective centres was mainly organised and supervised by the RRTs, supported by school inspectors, RAEOs and MAEOs. The areas of foci during this process were as stated by the RRTs:

- i. We have a monitoring system whereby all registered NFSE centres are regularly visited. This is an ongoing activity of controlling the quality of teaching and learning and share experience with stakeholders. We also monitor registration of students and quality of the teachers, as well as the availability and utilisation of learning resources (RRT1).*
- ii. Monitoring and evaluation is continuously done to the registered NFSE centres, particularly, in the areas of syllabi, study materials, learning environment, learners' qualifications and performance and livelihood of the centres in general (RRT2).*

As several actors were involved in ensuring quality in the established NFSE centres, their professionalism in AE/NFE was fundamental to ensuring there was also sound professional high-quality provision of NFSE. As per respondents' profile, RRTs, RAEOs and MAEOs, who were the key actors, were professionally qualified and, hence, capable of accomplishing their respective roles. To crosscheck and validate the information provided through interviews and establish how systematic the process was, the monitoring and evaluation tool helped to determine that the role was very well organised and systematically executed by the RRTs. A specific monitoring and evaluation tool was found to be used in assessing the teaching and learning progress in NFSE centres in Dar es Salaam region. Table 7.3 shows:

**Table 7.3: Monitoring and Evaluation Tool for NFSE Centres**

INSTITUTE OF ADULT EDUCATION – DAR ES SALAAM LEARNING PROGRESS INSPECTION CHECKLIST (DATE .....							
NAME OF THE CENTRE .....		WARD .....		MUNICIPAL .....			
CLASS/STAGE .....		STREAM .....		No. OF STUDENTS PER STREAM .....			
RATES FOR ASSESSMENT (1 = Very poor, 2 = Weak, 3 = Satisfactory, 4 = Good, 5 = Excellent)							
RESPONDENTS	VARIABLES TO BE OBSERVED	1	2	3	4	5	SCORE
STUDENTS	General Students' Discipline						
	Possessing and Utilizing Exercise Books						
	Punctuality to School ( <i>Keeping Time In and Out</i> )						
	Ratio of Books/Modules per Student						
	Students' Attendance and Retention						
	Students Preparedness for Learning						
	General Personal Hygiene (Dressing/Body Care)						
FACILITATORS (TEACHERS)	Ratio of Teachers Per Subject						
	Attending Classroom Sessions						
	Leading Participatory Methods						
	Providing Outdoor Assignments						
	Providing Timed Tests And Quizzes						
	Providing Feedback to Students						
	Punctuality to School ( <i>Keeping Time In and Out</i> )						
	Office Records Keeping						
	Using Modules & References in Learning						
LEARNING ENVIRONMENT	Utilising Class Journal and/or Log Book						
	Cleanliness Inside the Classroom						
	Cleanliness - Outside Environment						
	Sanitation Inside and Around the Toilets						
	<b>TOTAL</b>						
EVALUATION	<b>Remarks</b>						
	Centre Scores Summation						
	Centre Mean						
	Centre Rank Out of 24 Centres						
Inspector's recommendations to areas that require urgent amendment/improvement/change:							
Name of Inspector .....				Occupation .....			
Workplace/Office.....				Signature .....		Phone.....	

**Source:** IAE-RRTs' Office – Dar es Salaam (2014).

This monitoring and evaluation tool for Dar es Salaam region could represent what was also happening in other parts of the country as a similar tool was also found in use in Arusha region. In fact, the interviewees' actual statements and the tool in Table 7.3 indicate that monitoring and evaluation for NFSE focused on the quality of teaching and learning, learners' performance and qualifications of teachers, study materials, learning environment, and the livelihood of the centres. The components in the tool were useful in generating information essential in judging the quality, effectiveness and sustainability of a particular centre, as well as in pinpointing areas for improvement. Nevertheless, the findings also suggested that monitoring and evaluation for the purpose of maintaining NFSE quality still faced a number of challenges as outlined below:



***i) Limited scope***

The study found that monitoring and evaluation were still confined to the few registered NFSE centres, hence leaving the majority of unregistered centres without any monitoring despite co-existing with registered centres. In effect, the NFSE within the unmonitored centres was randomly offered in an environment that could not guarantee the achievement of learning objectives and the sustainability of the programme (Appendix VII provides a general picture of the NFSE learning environment in the unmonitored and unregistered centres). Since the role of monitoring and evaluation is the key dimension in quality assurance and control, its improper arrangement could, in turn, raise issues of uncertainty and discouragement to clientele who were supposed to be motivated by the standardised services in the sub-sector. The situation, therefore, called for improvement and strengthening of monitoring and evaluation in all centres.

***ii) Irregular attendance***

Furthermore, the study found that even registered NFSE centres, which were basically qualified for undergoing continuous monitoring and evaluation, and paid fees for that purpose, were not regularly and systematically attended to. In fact, private NFSE centre coordinators reported to be dissatisfied with the entire process, arguing that it lacked specific schedules, were sparingly and randomly done, and were more informally compared to their counterpart public NFSE centres. Their claims can be supported by a note from the tool presented in Table 7.3 which shows that only 24 public NFSE centres in Dar es Salaam region were ranked in the benchmark of NFSE centres involved in the process. The practice could impede adversely the provision of constructive remarks for adjustment and improvement in the private NFSE centres, in preparing the progress reports of the entire programme, as well as in determining the achievement of the objectives of monitoring and evaluation in the whole programme.

***iii) Lack of useful feedback***

On the other hand, it was established that despite the somewhat good arrangements for monitoring and evaluation in the public centres, it was revealed by centre coordinators that it was difficult to achieve significant improvements in their centres as an outcome of that process. The NFSE coordinators from public centres further affirmed that there was no useful feedback provided to the centres, either as a conclusive monitoring and evaluation report or as a summary of their areas of weakness, with constructive

comments for improvement. They were merely involved in an oral discussion of few matters during the visits. This traditional method of feedback delivery was considered by the NFSE centre coordinators as unhelpful, used to bring about temporary changes. On their side, the RRTs reported that, I was the the role of the department of distance education at the IAE-HQs to provide a monitoring and evaluation report on an annual basis, which was however, presently impossible for centre coordinators at the local level to access. More significantly, the researcher failed to find any report on monitoring and evaluation of the NFSE at the IAE. The next chapter presents empirical findings on the challenges imposed on the NFSE programme by the NFE policy and institutional arrangements.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT**

### **CHALLENGES IMPOSED ON NFSE UNDER THE CURRENT NFE POLICY AND INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS**

The third research objective of the study and its related research sub-questions aimed at analysing the challenges imposed on the NFSE programme by the adopted NFE policy and institutional arrangements, and the extent to which they impinged on its provision and sustainability in the country. The challenges were envisaged to be experienced by NFSE managers at different NFSE institutional levels where implementation was taking place and, thus, impinged on the NFSE provision and sustainability when not well-addressed. This chapter, therefore, is informed by the findings and discussion presented in chapter six and seven on the state of NFE policy and institutional arrangements, on the one hand, and the analysis of further interview findings from different NFSE actors involved in the programme, on the other hand. The challenges presented in this chapter are twofold: those imposed by the existing NFE policy and regulatory framework, and those stemming from the NFE institutional arrangements and practices.

#### **8.1 Category System on Policy and Institutional Challenges Imposed on NFSE**

Before embarking on a detailed discussion of the findings on the policy and institutional challenges imposed on the provision of NFSE emerging from this study, this segment begins by providing an overview of the category system to provide the sequence and coherence of the themes in this chapter as extracted from the coding system. Figure 8.1 illustrates the category system as it emerged from the coding process:

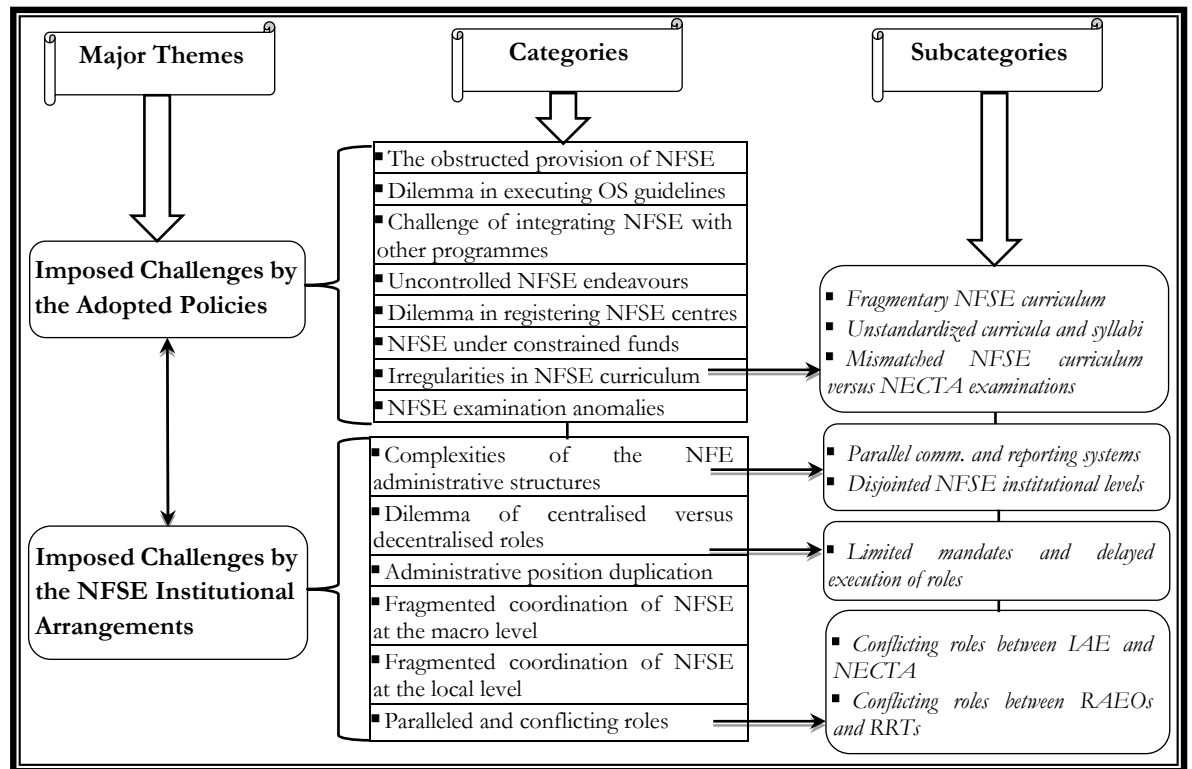


Figure 8.1: Visualisation of Category System on Policy and Institutional Challenges Imposed on the NFSE Programme

## 8.2 Challenges Imposed by the Policy and Regulatory Framework

Research findings obtained through analysis of several education policies, particularly those related to AE/NFE, and interview responses from different AE/NFE policy makers and managers across different institutional levels revealed a number of challenges imposed by the policy and regulatory framework in place on the NFSE programme. The challenges impinged on the proper establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE in different ways. The following sub-sections analyse the challenges imposed by the policy and regulatory framework and their real impact on the NFSE provision and the general programme’s sustainability.

### 8.2.1 Constrained NFE plans and the obstructed provision of NFSE

The policy shortfalls discovered in the substantive education policies as chapter six has established also constrained the NFE development plans and programmes introduced. These were planned to be implemented at the local level. It was established, for instance, that the NFE policy-makers and programme planners at the macro level were compelled to develop NFE plans, programmes and operational guidelines that based on substantive policies despite their apparent shortcomings. A good example was

explicated in the AE/NFE's long-term development plans and their subsequent medium-term implementation strategies which were found to be constrained in different ways. They were developed with a specific target of addressing a few basic AE/NFE programmes as it was the case in the substantive policies. Strategic objectives, goals and implementation strategies for continuing education programmes such as the NFSE were not explicitly and adequately addressed compared to the basic AE/NFE programmes. This situation resulted into policy inconsistencies and coincidence of measures in providing NFSE which, in turn, obstructed a thorough establishment and provision of NFSE in the country.

The AE/NFE sub-sector's medium-term strategy (2010/11–2014/15) strongly affirmed that lack of a comprehensible and coherent AE/NFE sub-sector policy was a major challenge to the effective and efficient implementation of the key roles of the sub-sector (URT, 2010b, p. 14). Apparently, the complexity of the resultant outcomes in providing NFSE, as also conceived by the NFSE practitioners, was the effect of the vague policies which the findings of this study have established as incoherent and inadequately relevant in the current era of education for all. Similarly, the NFE policy theorists report that lack of a national NFE coherent policy framework obstructs the proper implementation of the programmes and accountability of the actors as the policy determines the structures and guidelines for integration of all programmes and their coordination (O'Gara et al., 2008). It is in this line of reasoning that Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga (2005) call for governments in Africa to play a proactive role of reviewing their educational policies and restructuring their education systems to recognise fully and embrace lifelong learning and its multifaceted potential roles.

On the other hand, even the few NFSE activities and other elements of concern addressed in the AE/NFE development plans and implementation strategies were obstructed in their implementation since there was also a generated implication for finance within the general NFE framework of actions. It was reported, for instance, that the policy gaps revealed had adverse implication for the resource allocation to the NFSE programme, its coordination, integration with other programmes, and the provision commitments by the political administrative authorities as revealed elsewhere. The analysis of those NFE development plans shows that the NFSE programme was not

linked to any reliable and sustainable source of funding and, thus, its provision and sustainability remained questionable.

### 8.2.2 Dilemma in executing OS guidelines and the obstructed NFSE operation

The study findings also show that there was an unsystematic NFE policy enforcement mechanism as chapter six has illustrated, which has also left a lot more to be desired. Focusing on the operational level, the study floated a probe question on how such a situation affected the implementation of the adopted OS guidelines that steered and regulated the provision of NFSE, particularly, at the local level. The analysis of all policies specified in Table 6.1, as well as the NFE policy-makers' statements, revealed that such sporadic legal backup created loopholes in the execution of the respective OS guidelines at the operational level. The absence of clear regulations for interpretation and enforcement of the NFE policies resulted into differing interpretations among NFSE providers. It also led to a failure to abide by the principles, procedures and standards established in those policies among NFSE providers. Consequently, those policy guidelines had little impact on their operationalisation and, indeed, were hardly implementable at the local level. Citing specific examples regarding the recent OS guidelines, which were specifically devised for the open schools including NFSE, the NFE policy-makers and managers across different NFSE institutional levels expounded on the issue further as follows:

- i. The recently introduced OS guidelines are very good but hardly to be implemented as they lack regulations for their successful implementation. Unfortunately, regulations cannot be introduced because they should be derived from the relevant and coherent policies and Acts which are not yet in place. The situation affects implementation of both the guidelines and NFSE programme (MoEVT-AEO1).*
- ii. The OS guidelines have no legal power because of the absence of the required regulations for their enforcement. In effect, NFSE is equally implicated (MoEVT-AEO2).*
- iii. There are no clear regulations to legitimatise the OS guidelines for their operation. They are just directives that can be opted or not. Consequently, NFSE is still haphazardly offered (IAE1).*
- iv. The existing NFE policies have no strong legal basis to hold providers accountable. They are hardly implementable, that is why most of the private providers resist registering their centres (RRT2).*

Contemplation on the NFSE actors' explanations above might lead one to figure out the following issues:

- i.* The existing substantive policies (broad policies and Acts) were not current enough to provide relevant and adequate legal backup for the enforcement of the operational policy guidelines that guided the provision of NFSE.
- ii.* Since the NFE regulatory mechanisms were either inadequately relevant or not well-established, the OS guidelines had an insufficient legal basis, lacked sufficient legal backup and contained loopholes in their execution which, in turn, hampered the provision of NFSE.
- iii.* Due to lack of sufficient legal backup and loopholes in the execution of the OS guidelines, it was difficult for the NFSE providers to be held accountable for their processes and outcomes.
- iv.* Practices of resistance and rejection of the OS guidelines resulted from lack of specific and feasible legal statutes in supporting their operation.
- v.* To a greater degree, the implementation of the OS guidelines was optional and lacked objectivity due to the prevailing regulatory loopholes. Thus the role of NFSE managers was even more difficult when it came to controlling NFSE at different institutional levels.
- vi.* Consequently, the NFSE programme was affected in many ways, particularly, on issues of its quality as providers were also failed to abide by the established principles, procedures and standards.

Furthermore, it has been established in chapter six that the basis for the establishment of the OS guidelines was partly built on what was revealed to be incoherent policies and legislations, on the one hand, and the non-existent AE/NFE policies (imaginary ODL policies), on the other hand. Such incomplete ties of policies adversely affected the feasibility of the OS guidelines by compromising their authenticity and legitimacy. The situation created loopholes and brought about the dilemma in implementing the OS guidelines at the NFSE institutional levels since the accompanying policies were either inadequately supportive or had yet to be institutionalised. Consequently, the establishment and provision of NFSE were insufficiently regulated with its sustainability at stake.

Further analysis of both the OS guidelines as specific policy guidelines for NFSE, as well as the policy-makers' statements revealed that the gaps on legal backup in implementing the OS guidelines identified instigated the conflicting policy directives



within the OS guidelines (between the guidelines for the establishment and registration of open schools [URT, 2013a], and the SE-ODL implementation guidelines [URT, 2013b]) as discussed in sub-section 6.3.5). The situation also caused lack of mutual consistency and overlaps between the OS guidelines and the related institutional policies and directives of the supporting institutions under the MoEVT as also discussed in sub-section 6.3.5. Thus, from this discussion it can be drawn that lack of clear regulations and directives necessary for backing up the NFE policies greatly affected the implementation of the set policies, particularly, at the operational level, a critical challenge that resulted in a minimum effect on their operation and, indeed, in achieving the goals of NFSE provision. Such a situation in its entirety suggests a great risk in the sustainability of NFSE provision.

### **8.2.3 Difficult in integrating NFSE with other programmes**

The study findings revealed the absence of an integrated policy framework developed to explicitly address AE/NFE in its broad range of programmes (refer to chapter six). In this case, only a few AE/NFE programmes such as literacy and functional literacy programmes were found to be specifically prioritised while continuing education programmes such as the NFSE received little attention. As a result of such policy inadequacy, real comprehensive and practical plans of action for all AE/NFE programmes were also lacking as the existing ones and their subsequent implementation strategies favoured the few prioritised programmes in the substantive policy. This situation was found to have had caused challenges in integrating different education programmes for their interdependence during implementation. In this regard, the NFSE actors argued that, despite having affirmative programmes such as SEDP and the allied initiatives such as the Big Results Now (BRN), which were established to foster development of secondary education in the country, the NFSE was inadvertently excluded in terms of financial allocation, monitoring and evaluation arrangements, supply of teaching and learning facilities, and facilitators. Thus, it was difficult for NFSE to draw from other programmes in terms of resources. On the other hand, it was also difficult for the supporting institutions involved in providing and governing NFSE at different levels to coordinate and integrate appropriately and adequately NFSE activities with other education programmes during implementation. One of the NFSE managers at the macro level said:

*Provision of NFSE is not adequately featured with other programmes in education policy and practice. It is, thus, difficult to have a holistic plan of action for*

*implementing all education programmes. In implementing SEDP and BRN for instance, all government efforts are vested on the formal secondary education programme. Obviously, implementation of NFSE cannot draw from other programmes hence, constraining its sustainability (IAEO).*

These findings suggest that the NFSE programme lacked the support of the key stakeholders from the government. In the meantime, the inadequate integration with other programmes in their implementation increased unnecessary costs to the programme. Under the coordination theory, these findings suggest the absence of proper policies and coordination of NFE activities in the country (Malome, 1988; Malome & Crowston, 1990). Previous empirical findings confirm that lack of full integrative educational programmes limits the chances of those programmes drawing upon each other's resources that could help in the planning of their developments at a minimum cost (Shirima, 2010). On this basis, Nnazor (2005) asserts that it is chiefly due to policy insufficiencies that AE/NFE programmes fail to be integrated into and draw from each other. All these challenges were imposed on the NFSE programme and hindered the efforts of several actors' involvement in providing NFSE in the country.

In totality, the findings indicate that the development of the NFSE programme was definitely at stake and its sustainability questionable. Under this setup, the provision of NFSE in the country was far from reaching the global set goals of education for all. In the literature, it has been established that proper integration of programmes during implementation should be clearly and adequately determined and structured within a coherent national education policy framework (O'Gara et al., 2008). Indeed, failure to achieve proper integration of the AE/NFE programme activities ought to be rectified in the policy. In this regard, the current study found that this aspect was not seriously and adequately streamlined. All these complexities tend to affect policy outcomes (Sutton, 1999, p. 23). Therefore, one would conclude that addressing the challenges imposed on the NFSE programme is dependent upon having strongly established policy guidelines, on the one hand, and having administrative processes in place aimed at achieving the set policy actions, on the other hand.

#### **8.2.4 Uncontrolled NFSE endeavours**

Interviews with different NFSE managers revealed that lack of specific, coherent and visionary policy for NFE in the country, the existence of policy shortfalls in the education policies adopted, as well as the absence of clear regulations and directives for

policy enforcement created conditions for NFSE provision that made it difficult to control NFSE providers and systematically coordinate their activities (being at the macro, meso or micro level) for their standardisation to make the programme sustainable, acceptable and recognised by all stakeholders. The state of the current NFE policy as a mere appendage to the general education policies, for instance, was faulted by the majority of respondents to have created a vacuum of clear principles and straightforward procedures in guiding the provision of NFSE in the country. This void accounts for the emerging uncontrolled NFSE endeavours in the black market. For example, many NFSE centres, particularly those under the private sector, were found to be running in an uncoordinated manner, each with its own content, methods, teachers, learners, materials, time, and learning environment exclusively and unilaterally decided upon by the providers themselves (refer also to sub-sections 7.4.4 and 8.3.5). These findings tally with other research findings in the same area of the study conducted in Tanzania that found NFE programmes, including NFSE, to be randomly organised due to such sporadic NFE policy discourse (see, for instance, Mushi & Bhalalusesa, 2002; Shirima, 2010; Kanukisya, 2012).

In an attempt to address the resulting state of uncontrolled establishment and operation of NFSE endeavours in the country, different NFE policy-makers and managers at the macro level reported that the newly-introduced OS guidelines were a deliberate strategy aimed at rectifying the situation. In this regard, the following narratives were provided:

- i. If the OS guidelines will be effectively implemented, there will be proper management and supervision of the NFSE centres. There will also be a proper curriculum and uniformity of the practices, as well as proper training of teachers (MoEVT-AEO1).*
- ii. We are optimistic that the NFSE centres are now going to be properly controlled as we already have the OS guidelines on the ground that regulate their activities (MoEVT-AEO2)*
- iii. NFSE centres have been operating in the black market for so long. That was due to the absence of clear policies. With the OS guidelines, we can now inspect, monitor and register them to ensure their sustainability (IAEO1).*

These statements suggest that the introduction of the OS guidelines was considered to be a panacea to the challenge of uncontrolled NFSE endeavours in the country. However, there were counter-narratives from other NFE actors. For example, most of the NFSE managers at both the meso and micro levels contended that the OS guidelines notwithstanding, their implementation was not given ample push from the

top authorities and, hence, remained only on paper. In fact, many of them were not even aware of those guidelines as they were not disseminated to them despite being issued two years back. Ideally, NFE education officers and NFSE providers were supposed to be conversant enough with all the matters relating to NFE policy documents enacted and operated at all levels to play an active role in their implementation for the policy objectives to be achieved. Policy theorists emphasise that any policy becomes public owned when it is well known, adopted and implemented by all the parties (Dye, 2002). Such a situation was even more complicated in the current case in the absence of clear regulations for their enforcement, as well as the lack of coherence and close ties with other education policies and Acts in the country.

Generally, the majority of the NFSE managers confirmed that the challenge of uncontrolled NFSE centres had yet to be resolved as most of them were still unmapped, unregistered, and unmonitored. From a broader perspective, these findings may also suggest that the existence of uncontrolled environment for the NFSE provision might lead further to the scaling up of unregistered and unsystematic operation of the NFSE centres, difficulties in ensuring and controlling quality, and in managing the sub-sector in general at different levels, which in their totality may cause conflicts with education authorities and raise uncertainty as well as discouragement among stakeholders. In light of these findings, the discourse of lifelong learning as advocated by UNESCO is partially and inconsistently evident in local policies and practices in Tanzania. Consequently, the root-causes of marginalisation in education remained largely unaddressed in a comprehensive way. Thus, the discussion of scenarios in this section calls for an introduction of a more coherent and visionary AE/NFE policy framework, accompanied by clear regulations for their implementation to ensure the smooth running of the centres and quality secondary education through the non-form education system.

### **8.2.5 Dilemma in registering NFSE centres**

Though there was no conclusive data available on the registered versus non-registered NFSE centres in the country, registration of the NFSE centres was generally revealed to be insignificant with most of the centres offering education in the black market. Apart from other factors that might have led to such a situation as discussed elsewhere in this study, it was also revealed that conflicting criteria and procedures in establishing and

registering NFSE centres was one of the main reasons. The criteria and procedures established were conflicting even within the newly-introduced OS guidelines (refer to sub-sections 6.3.3 and 6.3.5, cf. URT, 2013a, 2013b). Since they all offered conditions as a legal basis for the establishment, registration and operation of NFSE in the country, NFSE providers were often left in a state of limbo because of the largely differing directives. In the first place, it was not commonly established about the institution responsible for registering NFSE centres whereby the “Guidelines for the Establishment and Registration of Open Schools” (2013) offered directives for the MoEVT-HQs, whereas the “Secondary Education through Open and Distance Learning (SE-ODL) Implementation Guidelines in Tanzania” (2013) had directives for the IAE.

Furthermore, since the set conditions and procedures to be adhered to by NFSE providers were at odds in the two policy documents (refer to sub-section 6.3.3), the minority of the NFSE providers opted for the soft conditions offered by the IAE unlike those of the MoEVT-HQs, which tended to be stringent and only applicable for formal schools. As a result, the majority of the NFSE providers opted to adhere to none of the stipulated conditions due to such lack of consistency within the two interdependent and complimentary policy directives (OS guidelines). They operated underground on the black market to avoid such stringent measures and confusing directives they were unable to fulfil. In such a context, it was found to be more challenging for the NFSE managers at the meso level in enforcing those guidelines and supervising the registration of NFSE centres.

Linking these findings to the other related contexts within this study, it can be argued that the inconsistencies of criteria and procedures for establishing, registering and operating NFSE centres revealed in this study were mutually linked to the absence of independent, coherent and comprehensive AE/NFE policy as well as lack of national qualification framework, on the one hand, and the procedures adopted in developing those operational guidelines (OS guidelines), on the other hand. For instance, the policy shortfalls in the substantive policies also constrained their subsequent operational policies. Also, the OS guidelines were found to have been developed based on insufficient analysis and inadequate involvement of various stakeholders (refer to sub-section 6.3.2). On the whole, the situation created an environment in which NFSE

centres were informally established and operated without being registered, which in turn threatened the quality of NFE offered and the sustainability of the programme at large.

### 8.2.6 Managing NFSE provision in a context of constrained funds

It emerged from data analysis that one of the challenges imposed on the NFSE and its institutional levels by the existing NFE policy system was managing the NFSE in the context of inadequate political and financial support. Interviews with the NFE policy-makers and NFSE managers at all levels established that the absence of an independent and specific AE/NFE policy contributed to inadequate political support to the sub-sector. As a result, the entire sub-sector had to contend with highly constrained resource allocation. It was established from the policy analysis (both substantive and operational) that the situation was even more adverse for continuing education programmes such as the NFSE, which lacked adequate coverage in the existing policies and plans as compared to the other formal education and basic AE/NFE programmes such as literacy and functional literacy. Although some NFE objectives feature in the policy documents reviewed, political will and government support for continuing education programmes were found wanting and insignificant in the budget, facilitators, teaching and learning resources, and programme coordination. All these shortcomings consequently created difficulties for NFSE managers at different NFSE institutional levels when implementing and managing the NFSE activities in the country (see also, URT, 2010b, p. 14). Although of the situation affected both public and private NFSE centres, it was found to be more critical in public NFSE centres. The following statements serve as a candid illustration:

- i. *Due to the policy bottlenecks, the NFE has no adequate government support in terms of grants (specific budget) for its programmes. The situation hinders the playing of our roles at the regional and district levels (RAEO2).*
- ii. *There is no political will in supporting the NFSE programme. For example, the new BRN initiative requires setting performance objectives to be achieved in each sub-sector and at different institutional levels. However, the efforts of government officials and resources are solely directed towards formal education. NFE has no funds to implement its set objectives and plans. How can NFSE activities be implemented? In this context, sustainability is obviously jeopardised (RRT2).*

Categorically, all the interviewees' responses suggest that the little support from the government also manifested in the policies contributed to the skewed financial allocations for NFSE and related programmes. Consequently, NFSE managers at

different levels failed to execute efficiently and effectively their managerial roles in their respective localities. The following areas of their key functions were found to be affected during programme implementation:

- i.* Preparation, production and supply of NFSE teaching and learning materials
- ii.* Evaluation of NFSE demands in the country
- iii.* Inspection and registration of NFSE centres
- iv.* Coordination of all NFSE activities undertaken in the region
- v.* Provision of capacity-building among NFSE managers at local levels
- vi.* Establishment of new NFSE centres
- vii.* Payment of facilitators' allowances
- viii.* Purchase of study materials at the centre level

Generally, these findings show that the little political support resulted in constrained allocation of resources to the NFSE mainly due to the policy biases, which led to different education programmes not being equally treated and integrated within the broad education policies and their subsequent implementation plans as revealed elsewhere in this chapter. In the context just described above, it was difficult to achieve the set institutional performance objectives for NFSE due to imbalances in resource allocation for different programmes. Inevitably, the sustainability of the NFSE was ostensibly limited.

### **8.2.7 Irregularities in NFSE curriculum**

Conflicting policy statements within and among NFE policy documents about the right curriculum, syllabi and study materials to be used by the NFSE providers, and the institution responsible for their development were found to constitute a critical challenge to the development of NFSE programme (see a detailed discussion in sub-section 6.3.5). Such a policy environment was coupled with a lack of a strong linkage between and among the TIE, IAE and NECTA as key supporting institutions concerned in one way or another for the NFE curriculum as discussed in sub-section 7.3.1. Collectively, this situation created conditions under which NFSE curriculum irregularities, which were common and critical in several areas, emerged. Consequently, this has implications for the provision and sustainability of NFSE as follows:



### ***Fragmentary NFSE curriculum***

It was revealed during interviews that the NFSE curriculum, syllabi and study materials were solely developed by the IAE as stipulated under the IAE Act (URT, 1975). In some other policy documents it was presented as a joint role of both the IAE and TIE (see, for instance, URT, 1995a, 2013b). As such, the gap between the IAE and TIE in performing the key role of developing the NFSE curriculum had its genesis in the existing policies and Acts, thus producing negative consequences in the NFSE curriculum content and its implementation. Although the NFSE curriculum, syllabi and study materials adopted were tailored from the existing conventional/ formal secondary education curriculum and syllabi developed by TIE, they were considered to be insufficient to offer the expected knowledge and skills to NFSE learners for their necessary competencies to be tested in the country's system of assessment and certification. After all, the redesigning, integrating and modifying of the content to meet the requirements of NFSE programme and its course design was rather cosmetic and superficial and not necessarily designed to meet the specific needs of the NFSE learners. In fact, key NFSE actors at the micro and meso levels questioned the level of curriculum expertise possessed by the IAE, on the one hand, and failure of the IAE to partner with TIE as curriculum experts, on the other hand.

The lack of consensus among key parties involved in NFSE curriculum led to the adoption of fragmentary NFSE curriculum content. Such curriculum, together with its syllabi and study materials popularly known as “modules” were found to be inconclusive when it came to what was the expected outcome of what was offered. Thus, the learning achievements of the NFSE learners (both qualitatively and quantitatively) were compromised, casting doubt on the NFSE providers and other stakeholders. Although a couple of other interrelated factors would account for this situation, the quick effect of such partial NFSE curriculum content was explicated in the NFSE learners' academic performance in their national examinations, which appeared to be worse than their counterpart from formal schools.

### ***Unstandardised curricula, syllabi and study materials***

Since the NFSE curriculum, syllabi and study materials improvised by the IAE were seemingly compromising the learning achievements as already discussed in this section, the situation compelled private NFSE providers to opt for not using them despite

following similar course designs of two years for lower secondary education and one year for upper secondary education as structured by the IAE. In what was interpreted as a way of bridging the existing gaps in curriculum, it was learned that the NFSE private centres adopted a different and informal approach to designing curriculum contents and study materials for their courses that suited their learners' needs and context, unlike their counterpart public NFSE centres which solely depended on the curriculum and study materials (modules) devised by the IAE. It was a blended curriculum content, largely derived from the formal secondary education curriculum developed by TIE and partly from other sources. The NFSE private providers argued that due to the flexibility of the NFSE programme, learners were accommodated from different academic backgrounds, and dynamically entered and exited at different times and, thus, the providers were compelled to structure and restructure courses to cope with the emerging challenges. These facts show that the same NFSE centres (private versus public) used different curricula, syllabi and study materials. In spite of the inefficiency of the proposed curriculum under the IAE, the adoption of un-standardised curriculum appeared unprofessional and posed challenges that likely to further erode the quality of NFSE provided.

Lack of NFE policy coherence and stringent policy enforcement mechanisms that could establish strong institutional linkages and systematic organisation of NFSE practices was found to have had imposed such looseness on curriculum development and adoption. This situation degenerated into the absence of uniformity in curriculum, syllabi and study materials as these were haphazardly sourced by individual providers. The implications are also far-reaching for curriculum delivery modalities and assessment procedures which differed greatly among NFSE centres. All the consequences, in general, led to the unsatisfactory quality of education provided and eventually poor academic performance in final national examinations as well as the emergence of conflicts between the NFSE providers and education authorities. This situation also further eroded public confidence in NFSE centres, which comprise an alternative and cost-effective means of providing universal secondary education. Thus, one would argue that these key quality issues need to be more clearly addressed in policy and closely monitored and enforced in respective NFSE centres to enhance the quality of the NFSE provided, restore the confidence of the clientele and ensure the sustainability of the programme.

### 8.2.8 Mismatched NFSE curriculum versus NECTA examinations

Drawing from the discussion presented in sub-section 8.2.7, the emerged challenges of incoherent NFE policy, absence of the NQF that could harmonise all the curriculum and examination issues in all forms of education, as well as the missing proper partnership and linkage between the responsible institutions for NFSE curriculum, resulted in the adoption of fragmentary NFSE curriculum, as well as un-standardised curricula, syllabi and study materials. Consequently, the adopted IAE integrated curriculum for NFSE, for instance, was not taken into consideration by the authority responsible for administering national examinations and certification (NECTA) in setting examinations, as this examining board depended solely on the formal secondary education curriculum developed by TIE, which was also authorised in policy documents (refer URT, 1995a, pp. 56&60). Apart from the IAE's integrated curriculum being drawn from the formal curriculum developed by TIE, it was also difficult for NECTA to rely on it to set national examinations for NFSE learners as it was found to be insufficient in content as discussed in sub-section 8.2.7. Moreover, it was informally developed without adequate expertise and consultation from TIE. Such inconsistencies between the curriculum adopted *vis-à-vis* the examinations administered were found to be problematic and reported to have had subsequently affected the NFSE learners' general academic performance.

In dealing with such a situation, however, no tangible measures were found to be taken though NFSE actors appealed for the re-examination of the existing policies that guided the provision of education in general and NFSE as a new endeavour in particular, while strengthening the linkage and coordination between and among the parties concerned within the MoEVT. On the basis of these findings, NFE policy-makers endorsed the need for an ODL policy which is in line with the SADC protocol, on the one hand, and the NQF which would broadly address all qualification issues across all forms of education in the country, on the other hand. The latter argument is quite crucial as it has been experienced in other countries such as South Africa where a national qualifications framework helps to deal with issues of access, curriculum, mobility, certification, quality and programme development in AE/NFE activities and lifelong learning in general in an integrated manner (Yang & Valdés-Cotera, 2011). Nonetheless, an effective functioning of such mechanism largely depends on adequate arrangements for coordination, communication and co-operation among key stakeholders (*ibid.*).

### 8.2.9 NFSE examination anomalies

Apart from the mismatch between the adopted NFSE curriculum and the administered examinations as revealed in sub-section 8.2.8, NFSE actors, particularly at the micro and meso levels, still raised further concerns on examination procedures undertaken by NECTA as a result of policy shortfalls, which consequently affected the learners' performance in their examinations. Their arguments mainly revolved around the issue of the absence of a well-established and clearly known examination standards for private candidates (NFSE learners). It was established that there was no standard measure for the examinations administered by the NECTA to the NFSE learners as their pass marks/grades were not predetermined and the entire grading system was unclear compared to their counterpart learners in the formal school examinations. A serious examination irregularity was found to be experienced in the QT examinations administered to the NFSE learners, whereby candidates were forcefully required to sit for their national examination by attempting all papers (at least seven combined subjects) in a single sitting—programmed to be done within three consecutive hours with their results claimed to be unranked. This anomaly was unlike similar examination administered to formal students in the formal system, who sat for an independent paper for each subject and within the extended period. Their results were well graded and ranked. All these challenges raised concerns among NFSE managers and providers that those differences affected the performance of the NFSE learners in their national examinations as they had no continuous assessment that could add value to their final grades.

As stated elsewhere, one of the prompting factors for the mentioned examination irregularities was found to be the missing practical NQF that could play a major role of overseeing and regulating all education qualifications in the country, harmonising standard issues across different levels and indicate the rules governing the awards of the qualifications as suggested by SAQA (2012). As a matter of fact, one of the top NFSE managers at the MoEVT observed:

*NFSE curriculum, assessment procedures and examination regulations, as well as mainstreaming of the NFSE learners to the formal system are still disturbing challenges. The NQF would regulate all the issues of curriculum, assessment and certification of the achieved knowledge and skills at different levels, quality of the teachers and learning materials, as well as learners' entry-exit, re-entry-re-exit and mainstreaming. Currently, regulations and procedures for NFSE qualifications are informally agreed upon thus, lacking consistency in their interpretations and*

*implementation. We need to formalise things. We have been reminding on that but the framework is yet to be in place (MoEVT-AEO1).*

This interviewee's statement identifies the complexities and inflexibilities of the current education qualification system in the country and its multiple effects imposed on the provision and sustainability of NFSE as far as standards, qualifications, certification issues and assessment processes are concerned. In essence, the findings show that the lack of practical NQF has consequently affected the realisation of what was set as the quality standards in the SE-ODL implementation guidelines and other related policy documents (refer, for instance, to URT, 2013b). According to the OECD (2004), the situation could not favour the accessibility to the NFSE as it undermined the confidence of the NFSE clientele. Although the NFSE learners' qualifications and certificates were publically recognised, as well as in the labour market, the challenge was on the examination and certification procedures, which were found to be inconsistent. As a multiplier effect, those examination inconsistencies did not only affect the learners' academic performance but also illuminated on the kind of curricula, syllabi and study materials adopted among NFSE providers, hence the differing standards in the same programme (refer also to sub-section 8.2.4).

Since regulations and procedures for handling NFSE activities among the supporting institutions were informally agreed upon that led to inconsistencies in their interpretations described above, the practices of a regular change of curriculum and examination formats were also found to be a critical challenge since learners were sometimes examined in what they were not prepared for. The NFSE centre coordinators in this regard claimed that there was no timeframe for curriculum change, which also affected the national examinations with the stakeholders not being informed beforehand. The situation led to the learners' failure in their examinations.

At the policy level, it was established during interviews that NFE managers at the macro level lobbied to have a more functional NQF in place as a way of dealing with the emerging challenges on curriculum and examination standards. Nevertheless, since policy enactment was a bureaucratic and political process *per se* that required much of the influence from different contestants, as well as the political will, while the entire NFE sub-sector was treated as the second best, it was even more difficult to timely have the required policies on the ground and address the emerging challenges. Generally, in

the view of these findings, and from the lens of the *institutional theory*, an impression comes out that the NFE policies, rules and routines that would bring order and minimise uncertainties in the implementation of NFSE were not clearly developed (DiMaggio & Powell, 2012).

### **8.3 Challenges Imposed by the NFSE Institutional Arrangements**

Chapter seven presented and discussed institutional arrangements for the provision of NFSE in terms of organisational structure, established institutional linkages, specified roles of each supporting institution and actors across levels, and other governance issues. In that analysis, together with other findings obtained through interviews as well as actual experiences of the NFSE actors involved across different institutional levels, several challenges imposed by the NFSE institutional arrangements were identified. The following sections discuss these challenges and their real impact on the provision and sustainability of NFSE.

#### **8.3.1 Complexities and limitations of the NFSE administrative structures**

A review of the adopted NFE administrative structures as extracted from the policy documents and at the practical level revealed multiple complexities that emerged from within and between the structures (refer to figures 7.2 and 7.3). Consequently, those complexities resulted into several difficulties in the provision and management of NFSE across different institutional levels in the country as follows:

##### ***Parallel and differing institutional structures***

Basing on the evidence collected for this study, figures 7.2 and 7.3 suggest that NFSE as one of the NFE programmes was nebulously managed and controlled within two different and parallel administrative structures that also involved two different ministries in the country. This complexity further suggests that the implementation and management of NFSE activities would also be affected depending on the nature of each structure's functionality and interactivity, on the one hand, and harmonisation of their roles, on the other hand. The majority of NFSE actors claimed that such structural complexity created an unfavourable environment in executing their day-to-day activities of managing NFSE. The following actors' experiences explain the magnitude and effects of the structural complexity in managing the provision of NFSE:

- i. The structure in managing NFE programmes is a bit confusing. We have two different systems. The first one involves the MoEVT and PMO-RALG down*

to the RAEO and MAEO, while the second one starts from the LAE down to the RRTs and NFSE centres. In both structures, the RAEO and RRT work at the same level with the same functions but responsive to different authorities. This makes things even more fragmented in managing this programme (RAEO2).

- ii. The NFSE structure is very complicated. There is the AE/NFE Department at the MoEVT - HQs (at policy development level), connected vertically to the RAEOs and MAEOs who are at the same time responsible to the PMO-RALG. Meanwhile, there is another stream from the LAE (at implementation level) which is a semi-autonomous institution under MoEVT with its representatives at the regional level. The two systems rarely function harmoniously (RRT2).
- iii. If you look at the NFSE centres from different angles, their operation and management, in general, is very complicated. The structure itself is problematic. We have two different authorities in dealing with this programme. So, most of the time, we are in a dilemma in executing our functions as we receive different directives (MAEO1).

These statements, as well as shown in figures 7.2 and 7.3 demonstrate that managing NFSE was complicated by two different and parallel administrative structures, which could not thoroughly connect all the parties involved (the NFSE institutional levels and actors) for proper provision and management of NFSE in the country. Lockheed et al. (1991) criticise these different administrative structures operating within the same institutional framework as ineffective and a major problem that severely weakened the managerial and institutional capacity of education systems in developing countries. In a coherent view of institutional capacity, the situation weakens the ability to perform functions, solve problems, and set and achieve objectives among the institutions involved (Willems & Baumert, 2003). Practically, the situation led to the duplication of functions and conflicting of roles and directives among NFSE managers at different levels. Lack of common goals shared in performing institutional roles at different levels was also evident and altogether caused a fragmented system in managing the NFSE programme. Such a complex nature of the existing administrative structures and the related gaps in managing the provision of NFSE adversely affected the NFSE centres under private sector as they lacked government interest and commitment in their operation, coordination, monitoring and evaluation (refer to chapter seven). To streamline the administrative practices within one structure and eliminating the emerging inconsistencies, lifelong learning theorists strongly suggest for governance that demands more integrated, more accessible, more relevant and more accountable structures and processes (Griffin, 2001; UIL, 2009).



In totality, from an administrative point of view, there was a lack of a thorough system of regular institutional monitoring and evaluation to identify the structural impediments to effective provision of the NFSE. This might be attributed to the prevalence of the business-as-usual (the rule of thumb) that treated all formal education and non-formal programmes as similar when it came to operationalisation without paying attention to the contexts and fundamental demands that might be unique to each programme (see, for instance, Griffin, 2001). Eventually, the operation of the NFSE activities at the local and meso levels were at stake that also jeopardised programme's sustainability.

### ***Parallel communication and reporting systems***

Apart from the existing parallel and differing NFE administrative structures as depicted in figures 7.2 and 7.3, and as discussed in sub-section 8.3.1, more structural complexities were evident in each structure. A closer look at figure 7.2, for instance, reveals two parallel and competing channels of communication, chains of command and reporting systems within one structure that made the implementation and management of the NFE programmes, including NFSE even more complicated in terms of giving orders, reporting and more importantly in teaming up towards addressing the existing NFSE challenges. The actual interviewees' statements affirmed the multifaceted nature of the conventional structure presented in figure 7.2, which also involved several bureaucratic authorities that never worked together towards the same NFSE goals. In this regard, the NFSE managers at the meso and micro levels made the following comments:

- i. Even the conventional NFE institutional structure [referring to figure 7.2] has parallel channels, one originating from the MoEVT down to the local levels, and another one from the PMO-RALG. So, even within that single structure, we are responsible to two different authorities that provide different and contradicting directives (MAEO1).*
- ii. It is somehow complicated to report to more than one ministry. The MoEVT and the PMO-RALG always provide different directives and plans of work while demanding different reports. It is like two different entities working separately within one structure and not as stated in the policy documents (RAEO2).*

From the interviewees' statements, it is evident that the involvement of two different ministries with parallel communication and reporting systems was interpreted by the NFSE managers at the meso and micro levels as unnecessary bureaucracy and, indeed, a recipe for ineffectiveness and inefficiency in attending to NFSE matters. In fact, this anomaly reportedly caused a lot of communication difficulties across levels, conflicting directives from the higher authorities, and delays in rendering the required services.

Although the crux of engaging two different ministries within one structure was aimed at partnering and devolving the NFE functions and resources to the local levels (cf. URT, 2012a, 2013a, 2013b, 2014a), the actual practices in the current case of the established two channels of communication and command working independently within one structure failed to yield the intended outcomes. In fact, what the PMO-RALG was expected to implement was essentially developed by a different ministry of education without adequate collaboration, and later to be communicated to the lower levels by both ministries through different channels which may cause contradictory directives within and across levels. In this regard, Cunliffe (2008) posits that an effective organisation structure ensures work and activities are most effectively structured and coordinated, and minimises conflict between departments and their functions towards achieving common goals.

This discussion shows that the NFE challenges originated from the established conventional NFE administrative structure in managing NFE programmes, definition of roles of the parties concerned within that structure, and their connectedness towards achieving the set institutional goals. In practice, the challenges had affected much the RAEOs and MAEOs, who fall under such structure and responsive to both MoEVT and PMO-RALG unlike the RRTs who only worked under the IAE structure that linked them directly to the IAE at the macro level, and to the NFSE centres at the local level. Though the operational NFSE structure depicted in figure 7.3 also shows two different channels of communication, the reporting system for the NFSE was mainly in the main stream under the IAE whereas the link to the other channel under the PMO-RALG (see dotted lines of the linkage in figure 7.3) was broken and just by means of consultation, and operated more or less for other NFE programmes than NFSE.

### ***Disjointed NFSE institutional levels***

During interviews with NFSE managers at the meso and micro levels, it was established that in the administrative structures as depicted in figures 7.2 and 7.3 power and control in guiding the provision of NFSE in all structures were concentrated at the top while the shop floor units merely received directives. Such a top-down model of NFSE governance created clear-cut lines between and among *the central ministry level* where responsibilities such as planning, policy and countrywide coordination were determined, *the intermediate level* where the plans, programmes and policies were conveyed into

practice through implementation, supervision and coordination at the local levels and, finally *the local (NFSE centre) level* where NFSE provision was carried out and reported to the higher authorities. As a result, the intermediate and local NFSE institutional levels were highly constrained and powerless, despite all levels also being less interactive in performing their roles, hence compromising the entire NFSE institutional cohesion. According to Chapman (2008), such a pyramid model of NFE management with steep hierarchies is common in many parts of the developing world with key features of educational functions operating in isolated silos, instructions flowing down and reports flowing up. Operating in such governance model was so chaotic that it was quite inflexible in operation and caused tension among local authorities and NFSE providers because the local diversity of the NFSE provision was so characteristic (cf. UIL, 2009). Empirical findings on a similar case by Hoppers (2007) in Uganda suggest that the enhancement of NFE programmes' success entails working jointly by eliminating such institutional silos.

With specific reference to the operational NFSE institutional structure under the IAE as depicted in figure 7.3, it was also found to be structured and operating in a way that adopted a *centre-out* model of running and managing NFSE centres despite being termed as operational and more practical structure for NFSE. Furthermore, the implementation of the NFSE activities was largely controlled from the IAE-HQs through inflexible hierarchies to the local level, thus making coordination of its activities even more complex at the meso and micro levels (refer to sub-section 8.3.2 for further discussion). The situation could be interpreted as the effect of a too fixed and one-way pyramid structure in the MoEVT under which the IAE falls. On the other hand, it could be interpreted as the rigidity of the IAE in adopting new ways of doing things since its structure operated against the norms of what was provided as programmes' implementation directives in the operational manual for regional centres that required the management of the IAE to work closely with low levels by doing away with the existing top-down model (see IAE, 2007). This implies the separation of the top management with the low levels as substantiated by Chapman (2008). Such a separation was evidenced in several aspects such as the exclusion of the local levels in planning and deciding on their programme activities and developments of the sub-sector in general. The situation did not also favour the local levels in terms of resource mobilisation and spending, as well as their daily operations in a decentralised form and, thus, not

promising for effective management and sustainability of the programme. Therefore, the model of managing the provision of NFSE in the IAE was not adequately grounded at the local level. In literature, it is argued that a balanced interaction between top-down and bottom-up approaches—in which government defines structures and procedures whereas the local actors provide feedback on the problems they face and innovative solutions—is a quite key ingredient to a coordinated policy (OECD, 2003).

Whatever the disadvantages of the top-down model of managing NFSE found to be common in all the adopted NFSE institutional structures, it limits *ad hocism* in the implementation process (Torres, 2009). Nonetheless, with specific reference to the NFE, the nature of its programmes still requires a less rigid and more integrated, accessible, relevant and accountable structure with more meaningful actors' participation that makes it more functional as opposed to the contingency theory (Griffin, 2001, cf. Mullins, 2010). To strike a balance and address the prevailing structural challenges, Torres calls for making changes from within the administrative structures and depending on the dynamics of the education system as a model of education governance reflects the country's idiosyncrasies. One of those country's idiosyncrasies in NFE, according to Torres, is evident in the decentralisation by devolution (D by D) process of the NFE sub-sector, which also appeared to be rhetoric on papers and naught in implementation (see sub-section 8.3.2).

### **8.3.2 Dilemma of centralised versus decentralised roles**

When analysing the challenges imposed on the NFSE institutional levels, a dilemma of centralisation versus decentralisation of NFSE activities emerged. Although the full implementation of decentralisation by devolution (D by D) as advocated in the policies reviewed could change the management of NFE programmes and do away with the existing traditional top-down approach, the nature of decentralisation of NFSE was found to be limiting the mandates and resources to the local levels and, hence, delaying the execution of roles. In this regard, the NFSE managers asserted that D by D was nebulously organised at the macro level by involving two different ministries and several other supporting institutions, which were generally found to be working inharmoniously. In particular, the decentralisation of NFSE was meant to involve administrative arrangements and description of the roles of NFSE actors at different levels rather than on financial empowerment and autonomy in making decisions,

planning and executing their daily functions at their localities. The following sub-sections discuss in detail these issues:

***Limited mandates and delayed execution of roles (i)***

With specific reference to the conventional NFE institutional structure as represented in figure 7.2, it was established that the situation of limited mandates and resources, as well as delayed execution of roles at the local level was occasioned by improper implementation of D by D. NFE actors at the macro level revealed the main causes to be the misconception of D by D and the subsequent irrational administrative decisions made at the macro level, on the one hand, and the complexity of the existing structure and bureaucratic processes, on the other hand. They pointed out that the whole idea of D by D was misconceived by the higher authority at the MoEVT-HQs as a transfer of powers and resources to a co-working ministry of PMO-RALG instead of directing the resources to the local authorities. At the policy level, however, such practice contradicted what was stipulated in some of the education policy documents such as the URT (2010c) and URT (2013a) reviewed, which embraced D by D in terms of authority and responsibilities to the lower levels of management to increase the efficiency and responsiveness in the operation of secondary education. In essence, the policy directives here were aimed at giving ownership mandates and ensuring close and prompt supervision of service delivery. Contrary to what was described in the mentioned policy documents, the executed practices of D by D for NFE were found to have caused a serious lack of autonomy and resources committed to the local levels, as well as delays and red-tape in implementing NFE programmes in general and the provision of NFSE in particular.

Consequently at the macro level, the autonomy of the AE/NFE department at the MoEVT-HQs was shifted to the PMO-RALG in terms of financial and human resources control. This shift affected the capacity of the department in executing its core functions of formulating AE/NFE policies and plans, coordinating all AE/NFE programmes, and conducting monitoring and evaluation of the AE/NFE programmes in the country. Such administrative decisions at the ministry level, which were somewhat contradicting the policy directives, also threatened the stability of the department in terms of operating as a fully-fledged department and reduced it to a mere symbolic unit which in turn affected the development of AE/NFE programmes including NFSE at all

levels in the country. In fact, when managers at the central level lack the authority and resources in performing their roles effectively, administrative weaknesses result, which also affects the lower levels more adversely (Lockheed et al., 1991). Evidently, the RAEOs and MAEOs at the regional and municipal levels could not manage to carry out their stipulated functions of coordinating and monitoring NFSE activities in their areas of jurisdiction due to the emerged complexities in implementing D by D, whereby financial resources were lacking coupled with bureaucratic procedures. These findings reflect what is asserted by management theorists as excessive centralisation or improper decentralisation, which precludes local autonomy and produces inefficiency (Lockheed et al., 1991). Their autonomy and flexibility in managing the provision of NFSE as decentralised units of both the MoEVT and PMO-RALG was, thus, inadequate. As a result, this affected the achievement of the intended plans at their level in addition to constraining the sustainability of the NFSE programme.

***Limited mandates and delayed execution of roles (ii)***

Regarding the provision of NFSE within the operational NFSE institutional structure (refer to figure 7.3) under the IAE, D by D was also found to be intricate. The programme was largely centrally managed within the IAE despite having regional offices (resident tutors' offices) as its decentralised units. There were also a lot of bureaucracies in running the NFSE centres and delays in offering the required services. The following interviewees' actual statements offer further insights:

- i. Bureaucracy is a big problem since almost everything is centralised at the LAE-HQs. We are very much challenged by delays in the supply of teaching and learning materials from the LAE, as well as in paying teachers allowances although students pay fees in cash to the LAE on their arrival. Administrative-wise, it is very problematic since there are a lot of delays and lack of power to plan for our own activities (Pu-CC1).*
- ii. It is actually a serious challenge in executing our daily functions within the entire region as we depend on our own efforts in mobilising financial resource which, however, should be remitted to the LAE-HQs. They later pay us back a small percentage of all the collections as our commission for administrative purposes. So, the structure does not give us the power to plan and execute different NFE activities at the regional level. We, thus, delay and/or fail to serve our clients (RRT2).*

In other words, the sustainability of the NFSE programme was highly at stake due to the centralised and rigid system of managing NFSE within the IAE. Moreover, the autonomy of the local levels (regional offices and NFSE centres) in managing their own

resources, making decisions, planning and implementing their activities was not adequately mandated even as financial support was lacking. More surprisingly, even the spending of their own-mobilised funds at the local level was also controlled at the headquarters but later paid back in fractions. In effect, it was established during data collection by August 2014 that the NFSE centres under the IAE had yet to be supplied with study materials for which learners in the respective NFSE learners paid at the beginning of the year. This was because the NFSE centres had no power to purchase study materials and the related facilities, as they were centrally supplied by the IAE. These findings are consistent with what the UNESCO reported. UNESCO reported that the decentralisation of AE/NFE to the regional and local levels in most developing countries was more cosmetic than real, with the responsibilities being delegated more than the decision-making powers (UIL, 2009). From the perspective of the loose coupling theory, these findings on lack of power at the local levels reveal a slow spread of influence due to the long-chain of work, which also has a potential of causing dampened coordination of all NFSE activities (cf. Weick, 1976).

Conclusively, these findings show that the ‘command and control’ model of institutionalisation and governance of the NFE programmes and NFSE, in particular, was dominant in the country. Indeed, it undermined the local autonomy and flexibility in the daily operations of the regional AE/NFE offices and NFSE centres – where thorough and efficient management of resources and activities could be carried out in a much more convincing fashion (cf. URT, 2010c, 2013a). The execution of the NFSE functions at the local level was also constrained and subsequently led to delays and poor programme implementation. The literature on education institutional arrangements underscores the fact that excessive centralisation precludes local levels’ autonomy and produces tremendous inefficiency (Lockheed et al., 1991). Generally, what was found and meant to be decentralisation of NFSE was relatively ineffective and was rather cosmetic than real. These findings also feature in international reports on AE/NFE to account for specific features of policy that adversely affect the governance and provision of AE/NFE (UIL, 2009).

### **8.3.3 Administrative position duplication**

Research findings elsewhere in this chapter show that due to the structural complexities and poor NFE institutional arrangements, multiple challenges were imposed on the



NFSE institutional levels, which also affected the management of the provision of NFSE. The existence of parallel administrative structures in managing NFE programmes, for example, (refer to figures 7.2 and 7.3) created a duplication of administrative positions, functions, and efforts at the same level of NFE institutional hierarchy. Such duplication of administrative positions was specifically found to exist at the following institutional levels:

- i.* At the macro level, it was revealed that there was the department of AE/NFE at the MoEVT-HQs, the IAE as a semi-autonomous institution within the MoEVT, and the AE Division in the ministry of PMO-RALG, all of which worked at the same macro institutional level (refer to figure 7.2).
- ii.* Similarly, at the meso level, in the policies and at the practical level it was revealed during interviews that there was also duplication of administrative positions of the RRTs and RAEOs at the regional level. They both worked exactly at the same level of administration, essentially in the same capacity, with almost similar functions though in different administrative structures (refer to figure 7.3).

The parties involved confirmed that since no one was answerable to the other in performing their roles at a particular institutional level, one's assigned roles were independently performed despite informally meeting and partnering at some point. Such an arrangement was not cost-ineffective and also produced conflicting and parallel roles among the parties involved (further discussion in sub-section 8.3.6), misunderstanding in giving orders to the local levels, as well as in reporting to the higher authorities. Furthermore, the NFSE managers, particularly those at the meso and micro levels, argued that such duplication of administrative positions created unnecessary bureaucracy, and communication difficulties during the implementation of the programmes (refer also to sub-section 8.3.1). This situation resulted in the existence of parallel administrative structures in managing AE/NFE programmes in general and NFSE in particular as figures 7.2 and 7.3 illustrate. Eventually, this put the provision of NFSE and management of its activities at the crossroads, thereby affecting its entire sustainability.

The literature on institutional management suggests that the complexities of duplication of positions are typical characteristics of poorly established inter-institutional linkages

which, in turn, also produce duplication of efforts and inefficient use of resources (Gray, as cited in Kramer, 1990). The Republic of Kenya (2006), on the other hand, suggests that the duplication of services, which also affects the utilisation of resources, results from the lack of sufficient coordination among partners involved in a programme. The assertions by Gray and Republic of Kenya rightly affirm what has also been revealed in sub-sections 7.3.1, 7.3.2, and 7.4.4 of this study on the poor linkage of the NFSE institutions and coordination of NFSE activities. As such, it appears the challenge of duplication of administrative positions was systemic in nature and resulted from the weak institutional arrangements in providing and managing NFSE in the country. Consequently, this challenge threatened the sustainability of the NFSE programme.

#### **8.3.4 Fragmented coordination of NFSE activities at the macro level**

NFSE activities were found both in policy and practice to be multi-sectoral in nature, criss-crossing two different ministries within the government (MoEVT and PMO-RALG), and involving multiple administrative structures, institutions and providers (both public and private). Administratively, however, there was a limited capacity to coordinate those activities within and among the institutions and institutional levels. There was also a lack of an inter-ministerial coordination agency at the macro level, which could otherwise oversee all the NFSE activities across the ministries. Such a gap in the conventional NFE administrative structure was found to have caused difficulties in establishing a common and integrated plan of action for the two parties. Consequently, the promotion of NFSE and coordination of its activities to the lower levels were hampered as they were simply carried out separately and fragmentally. A practical example cited by the interviewees was the coordination of NFSE activities, which was carried out on the limited scale by the MoEVT under the IAE despite the PMO-RALG being a co-partner in implementing all educational programmes through the decentralisation process as part of the ongoing education reforms in the country.

Furthermore, due to the linkage gap between the IAE and the AE Department at the MoEVT-HQs as identified in sub-section 7.3.1, coordination of NFSE activities was so adversely affected that even the existing NFSE challenges were not timely identified, shared and consolidated at their level before being communicated to the higher authorities. Thus, they appeared difficult to solve at the beginning of their occurrence.

On the other hand, the AE/NFE coordination unit in the ministry of PMO-RALG did not exist (refer to figure 7.2). As a result, other linked lower authorities for implementation of those activities were also greatly affected and operated in an uncoordinated environment. Indeed, their activities were carried out in an uncoordinated manner as well (link with sub-section 8.3.5). Inevitably, these developments impacted on the establishment and provision of NFSE. Generally, *ad hoc* developments of NFSE centres were commonly experienced.

### **8.3.5 Fragmented coordination of NFSE activities at the local level**

Reflecting back on the findings presented in sub-section 7.4.4, one realises that the challenge of unsystematic coordination of NFSE activities in the country also implicated the lower levels. Although the RRTs were more responsible for coordinating only the registered NFSE centres that met the set standards and criteria, a substantial number of unregistered NFSE centres were also in operation. Some were inspected and failed to meet the required standards whereas the majority were unmapped. A good example was found in Dar es Salaam region where only 32 (13%) out of the estimated 245 NFSE centres were registered and coordinated by the IAE (refer to sub-section 7.4.5). The unreached centres and much more were still unmapped, unregistered, and operated in the black market, and coordinated by no one. Such random operation of NFSE centres and provision of NFSE made it difficult for RRTs to conduct a thorough coordination of their activities within the region. This challenge, however, can be interpreted as a broad impact of lack of proper coordination of NFSE at the national level as discussed in sub-section 7.4.4, on the one hand, and loopholes in policy enforcement mechanisms to hold providers accountable for their practices as discussed in sub-section 6.3.4 and 8.2.2, on the other hand. In this case, the solution to such a challenge requires a more comprehensive and systemic approach both at the policy and governance level.

### **8.3.6 Parallel and conflicting roles**

Research findings in chapter seven expose a weak link and unsystematic coordination of NFSE activities within, between and among key supporting institutions across levels. This was coupled by a duplication of administrative positions and functions caused by differing administrative structures, as well as incoherent policies and incomparable institutional directives as chapter six has revealed. NFSE managers reported that such a situation resulted into critical parallel, conflicting and overlapping roles. Interviews with

the NFE managers and the review of the NFE institutional structures as depicted in figures 7.2 and 7.3 revealed the following:

### ***Conflicting roles between IAE and NECTA***

Although the NFSE centres were required to be coordinated and registered for their daily operation in providing NFSE by the IAE through its regional offices, some of the NFSE centres were also separately registered by the National Examinations Council (NECTA), though others were not registered at all. It was established that some of the NFSE centres, which were denied registration of operation by the IAE due to unfulfilled requirements as stipulated in the SE-ODL Implementation Guidelines (2013), were at the same time legally recognised, accepted and registered by NECTA as centres for national examinations (QT, CSEE and ACSEE). NECTA treated candidates from the NFSE centres as private candidates, a category which included all candidates who were not in the formal secondary schools but wanted to sit for the national secondary education examinations, regardless of the context of where they were trained. Such conflicting role of identifying, recognising and registering NFSE centres between the IAE and NECTA partly resulted from their poor linkage in operation as sub-section 7.4.1 has revealed, on the one hand, and the inconsistencies between the OS guidelines and institutional policies in the supporting institutions under the MoEVT as sub-section 6.3.5 has established, on the other hand. Consequently, ensuing conflicts among them, as well as between the conceived unregistered providers and those education authorities were experienced regarding the quality of education services provided and arrangement procedures for examinations, which created double standards and wreaked havoc.

### ***Conflicting roles between RAEOs and RRTs***

There was also a serious conflict of roles between the RAEOs and RRTs at the regional level. It emerged from the interview data that both RAEOs and RRTs were engaged directly and differently in coordinating NFSE activities in the region, inspecting the centres for registration, monitoring the programme and ensuring its quality, establishing new NFSE centres, linking the NFSE centres to higher authorities, mobilising and managing funds, and reporting the progress of the programme to the higher authorities (refer to Table 7.1). At some point, these roles were implemented in parallel at the same level of administration, and by the NFE managers of the same rank, though they worked in different administrative structures. In executing their roles, therefore, there

were overlaps and conflicts as evidenced by the parties concerned through the following narratives:

- i. *RRT is there performing the same functions I do, and no one is responsible to the other. RRT assumes his responsibilities as that of a semi-autonomous institution, whereas the RAEO is the overall in-charge for all AE/NFE matters in the region. We, however, report to different authorities. So, in the coordination process, our activities collide every now and then (RAEO2).*
- ii. *It is true that my roles as an RRT sometimes contradict with those of the RAEO. For instance, coordinating NFSE activities in the region, everyone does it independently and report to a different higher authority (RRT2).*

These statements illustrate that since no one was answerable to the other at that level, RAEOs and RRTs independently performed their roles although they could meet and partner at some point when necessary. In practice, however, there was no common ground and shared plan of action and collective goals to achieve. This led to the haphazard implementation of their roles, which were confirmed to be regularly conflicting. These parallel and conflicting roles, particularly, in coordinating NFSE activities at the regional level were mainly caused by the existing parallel and independent administrative structures in managing AE/NFE programmes in the country, which were also found to be complex in operation as postulated in sub-section 8.3.1, as well as the effect of the resulting duplication of managerial positions as sub-section 8.3.3 has illustrated. Ultimately, the local levels (AE/NFE municipal offices and NFSE centres) were also adversely affected when it came to accomplishing their roles as these were linked to both the RAEOs and RRTs and received conflicting directives.

Although the RRTs and RAEOs were found to be quite aware of their roles, they were also had been working without knowing the demarcations of their responsibilities, on the one hand, and their areas of co-operation and partnership in executing those roles, on the other hand. These findings highlight the consequences of lack of a strong linkage in the implementation of NFSE activities. Otherwise, they could have been established and addressed in the NFE policy and administrative frameworks. Subsequently, the sustainability of the NFSE programme was limited.

Scientifically, it is proven in line with the current findings presented in sub-section 8.3.6 as a whole and particularly, in the education policy studies, that lack of sufficient linkage and coordination among actors implementing a particular programme constitutes a challenge that normally results in duplication of activities, conflicts and improper

utilisation of resources (Republic of Kenya, 2006). In this regard, Hugkuntod and Tips (1987), who assessed the planning and implementation of NFE in rural Thailand, established that lack of understanding of the roles and duties of the staff and conflicting functions were the main factors behind the failure of the implementation of rural NFE programmes.

## CHAPTER NINE

### THESIS SUMMARY AND OUTLOOK

This chapter brings together various strands of this thesis and draws conclusions from the insights that have been generated. In particular, the chapter summarises the study, intersperses the findings and their implications, and presents conclusive accounts of the new knowledge the study contributes to the repertoire of knowledge about AE/NFE policy and institutional management. The chapter ends by offering practical recommendations, limitations of the study, and new avenues for further research.

#### 9.1 Summary of the Study

The aim of this research was to examine the current state of Non-Formal Education (NFE) policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the establishment and provision of Non-Formal Secondary Education (NFSE) in Tanzania. Principally, this study endeavoured to answer the overarching research question: *What is the current state of NFE policy and institutional arrangements, and how do they affect establishment, provision and sustainability of NFSE in Tanzania?* To answer this overarching question in relation to the set research objectives, the study examined the role and relevance of the policy mechanisms in place, the roles and linkages of the NFSE institutional arrangements, and their collective subsequent challenges imposed on the NFSE provision in the country likely to affect its sustainability.

The motive and rationale for carrying out this study was to:

- Establish the extent to which the current NFE policy and institutional arrangements affect the provision and sustainability of NFSE to bring into light both the intended outcomes and unintended deviations in running the programme so as to inform the development and/or improvement of the NFE policy and practice.
- Generate knowledge that provides a basis for better understanding of the NFE policy and management practices in providing NFSE from a developing country perspective.
- Suggest the necessary conditions for enabling a sustainable provision of NFSE as an inspiration and foundation for educational policy-makers, planners, researchers and other NFE practitioners.
- Form a basis and open new avenues for further debates and research.



To inform and guide the entire research process, an intensive and extensive literature review on policy, management, and sustainability of NFE programmes was conducted as well captured in chapter three. Mixed theoretical frameworks (perspectives and approaches of policy analysis, as well as theories and principles of institutional management) were also adopted to inform the conduct of this study and its findings. In particular, the textual deconstruction approach to policy documents analysis as proffered by Codd (1988) and the pragmatic framework for the evaluation of policy arguments by Ball (1995) provided a framework for analysing education policy contents to understand specifically their origin, intentions, roles and relevance in guiding the provision of NFSE. Since the study was interdisciplinary, institutional management theories such as the systems theory, institutional theory, loose coupling theory and coordination theory in their interplay were also adopted. Their adoption was based on the fact that they have largely been developed in education settings and they embrace key practices of setting rules and procedures, structuring and governing institutions, establishing institutional linkages and coordination, and shaping all the organisational forms and practices in general. Collectively, the frameworks provided a wider lens and profoundly guided the study in observing, perceiving, analysing and describing the key aspects of the study such as the role and relevance of the adopted NFE policies in guiding establishment and provision of NFSE, as well as the role and linkage of the NFSE institutional arrangements in managing the establishment and provision of NFSE.

In achieving all the stated research aims and processes of this undertaking, the study embraced the interpretivist worldview as its philosophical base, coupled with the qualitative research approach. This standpoint helped to recognise my own position within the research process, and guided in understanding the nature of reality, as well as in generating, interpreting and communicating knowledge of that reality in this study. Through its exploratory nature, it enabled the researcher to gain information about NFSE programme from which little was known. Thus, it contributed to the analysis of the policy mechanisms for the provision of NFSE, and its entire institutional arrangements and practices at different institutional levels. In general, the study was framed within this orientation to understand the whole phenomenon under investigation via the perspectives and experiences of those who actually lived and experienced it through their actual statements and texts.

To comprehend adequately issues, and address the set research questions in a comprehensive manner, the NFSE provision within the NFE institutional framework was studied as a case, whereby a sample of 15 most key informants (NFSE managers and policy-makers) from the NFSE centres (local level) to the ministerial (macro level) were engaged in interviews aimed at establishing the key issues and the way various roles were being carried out on the ground. Data collection was diversified by triangulating in-depth interviews with documentary reviews in a bid to ensure maximum credibility of the expected findings. Theory building and conclusions were later arrived at through inductive reasoning as data finally subjected to qualitative content analysis.

## **9.2 Key Research Findings**

Three specific research objectives were set in this study and several related operational questions were addressed. Accordingly, the summary of the findings in this section is organised in relation to those research objectives and questions as set out in chapter one and in consonance with their respective chapters of empirical findings.

### **9.2.1 State, role and relevance of the adopted policy mechanisms**

Research sub-questions towards realising the first research objective examined the state of the contemporary AE/NFE policies and their role and relevance in guiding the provision of NFSE. The researcher assumed that the existence of relevant and coherent NFE policies would bring together all the institutions and actors concerned, provide operational guidelines and modalities for NFSE provision, and offer a means for coordinating NFSE activities, hence derive a clearly-defined framework for NFSE activities. This policy context could also guarantee the sustainability of NFSE. In this regard, key research findings as presented and discussed in chapter six were revealed:

The first observation was that the country has no specific AE/NFE policy in its own right that could address the provision of NFSE in particularity. What was termed as AE/NFE policy which guided the provision of NFSE was merely an appendage to the substantive/broad education policies with ambitious targets on NFE, which lacked coherent policy vision and traits of being a complete, concrete and independent policy. Even most of the substantive policies and Acts that addressed AE/NFE were found to be outdated. In essence, they equally constrained the components of their subsequent plans, programmes, and operational guidelines, which were overly controlled and, hence,

followed their course of actions in terms of content and objectives. Developments of new innovations such as NFSE and its sustainability were thus at stake.

Regarding the policy relevance, the findings indicate that although some aspects of NFE policy that guided the provision of NFSE within the substantive policies, statutes, and plans were somewhat laudable, the NFE policy itself lacked explicitness of content as it was merely an appendage to those substantive policies. Its statements and objectives provided just a minimal, general and vague guidance for and responsiveness to the provision of NFSE as it largely promoted the universal literacy programmes, which are limited to basic knowledge and functional skills. Indeed, the real NFSE problems to be resolved and specific objectives to be achieved were insufficiently addressed.

Nevertheless, there were operational policy documents (OS guidelines) which were addressing some key operational issues for NFSE but they lacked concrete ties (coherence) with their respective substantive education policies and plans, which impeded their legitimacy and public acceptance. Besides, although the objectives in the OS guidelines were seemingly specific in addressing NFSE, their relevance in terms of authenticity, effectiveness and feasibility was not guaranteed as they lacked rigour situational analysis, and involvement of the potential NFSE actors in their development.

On the role of the adopted policies in guiding the provision of NFSE, the findings show that the guiding policy and legislative documents attempted to somewhat regulate the establishment, registration and provision of NFSE although such policy and legal environment was lacking a systematic connection, clear definitions, and consistent procedures as the documents either addressed NFSE generally and indirectly or contradicted each other. Whereas such sporadic policy environment posed considerable challenges in their full functionality and adoption, the findings confirmed further that the majority NFSE providers were not registered and, indeed, operated in the black market.

More at the operational level, the OS guidelines were found to have achieved the role of setting an exhaustive range of criteria for maintaining the quality of NFSE provision in accordance with the ODL standards and principles of quality assurance. However, the country's ODL policy framework was non-existent. Also, they correctly and consistently delineated policy required actions for NFSE, their general strategic objectives, goals, and

specified period though their financial implications were not satisfactorily analysed. In such paradoxes, achieving sustainable provision of NFSE was uncertain.

On the other hand, although most of the policies reviewed largely played the key role of appealing for political support by translating the broad development plans, they were not translated into practice. They missed government support in their implementation, particularly in addressing NFSE practices as the programme was financially constrained and administratively abandoned to the uncoordinated private providers. Even the few good policy components that guided the provision of NFSE were generally unachievable as the Acts and policies had no specific regulations/directives (enforcement mechanisms) that could otherwise interpret them into action by consistently specifying and operationalising the legal requirements for all NFSE practices.

There was also a repeal and replacement of the substantive education policy, which nevertheless failed to take into account the necessary changes required in subsequent operational policies, strategies, plans and guidelines. This situation led to the critical policy dilemma as it created a period of policy vacuum at the operational level and/or incomparable policy directives and objectives, which consequently implicated for NFSE practices.

The NFE policy context for NFSE provision in its holistic view was, thus, unsynchronised, demonstrated inconsistencies between substantive and operational policies, as well as conflicting policy statements and directives within and among policy documents which also led to inconsistencies in guiding the provision of NFSE. Consequently, there was a sporadic management of the sub-sector, which in turn threatened the sustainability of NFSE.

### **9.2.2 NFE institutional arrangements on the provision of NFSE**

The second category of research sub-questions was aimed at analysing the NFE institutional arrangements and their roles in managing the provision of NFSE to establish how such mechanisms brought about a sense of direction and consistency in the provision and management of NFSE, as well as in addressing the emerging shortcomings in administrative challenges. Several findings as discussed in chapter seven emerged in the course of the study.

It was noted that the provision of NFSE in the country involved different actors and was ostensibly managed by different institutions across different NFE institutional levels. Its management was complicated, structured to involve the MoEVT and several of its supporting institutions while intersecting with the PMO-RALG through its regional authorities. Thus, such multi-sectoral nature, involvement of multiple institutions and providers, and the nature of their roles and autonomies, also produced multiple administrative structures, concurrently operated in managing NFE activities and NFSE for that matter. Such NFE institutional arrangement was somewhat chaotic in managing the provision of NFSE, hence making it difficult to yield the intended results because of the parallel plans and goals, unnecessary bureaucracy, duplication of positions and conflicting roles. These reasons accounted for the insufficient developments and unsystematic governance of NFSE.

The findings also established weak, fragmented and unsynchronised horizontal linkage between the ministries of MoEVT and PMO-RALG as their working relationship did not take adequate cognisance of the complexity of their roles and responsibilities particularly related to NFSE. Even the key departments and semi-autonomous institutions responsible for managing NFSE within the MoEVT were not strongly linked let alone collectively working horizontally towards ensuring the proper management NFSE provision. In consequence, there was a lack of a mutual understanding and communication on their roles and responsibilities, which was a critical challenge to implementing and achieving the NFSE targets. This situation also widened the gap between them and made some of them less responsible for NFSE activities. Similarly, vertical linkage and communication from the two ministries to the regional and local levels and vice-versa undermined effective NFSE provision and supervision as envisaged in the NFE policies. The vertical working relationship from the top to the lower levels/units in the conventional NFE administrative structure was either disconnected or non-existent. It was relatively fragmented unlike in the operational NFSE administrative structure, which was somewhat straightforward and interactive across levels for a more efficient and practical for easy provision and management of NFSE practices. However, the latter was exclusively confined to within the IAE.

Regarding the roles of different actors involved in managing the provision of NFSE, the findings established that several functions were either jointly or separately performed between and/or among them. The operation of their roles was, however, largely determined by the existing policy framework, political will, and the established institutional structures and linkages as follows:

- Firstly, the principal role of the MoEVT in advancing AE/NFE policies and guidelines was inadequately accomplished as they revealed several policy gaps and inconsistencies which led to the unsystematic provision of NFSE.
- Secondly, in spite of the role of financing NFSE being a collective responsibility, the government's commitment remained ironically stated in the policy documents as the NFSE provision was solely privately-financed. As a result, developments of NFSE were *ad hoc* and the sustainability of its provision remained uncertain.
- Thirdly, the role of improvising an integrated curriculum, syllabi and study materials for NFSE was played by the IAE alone, although TIE was also supposed to be part of the process. Such lack of co-operation was reported to be triggered by the lack of strong linkage between and among the MoEVT supporting institutions which resulted in challenges related to the credibility of the curriculum/syllabi/study-materials in use and resultant inconsistencies in the procedures of assessment and evaluation (final examinations).
- Fourthly, the role of coordinating NFSE activities between the MoEVT and PMO-RALG was vague due to lack of an inter-ministerial coordination agency that could otherwise oversee all the NFE activities across the ministries and their lower levels of administration to achieve better utilisation of the little resources. Consequently, the situation led to break-ups and unsystematic coordination at the local level, as the NFSE activities were either uncoordinated or partly coordinated by the IAE. Even among the MoEVT supporting institutions, where a myriad NFE activities were organised, there was also a lack of close coordination, a situation that led to fragmented NFSE activities—randomly and separately handled by individual institutions, which worked parallel as independent entities.
- Fifthly, the role of monitoring and evaluating the NFSE was conducted by the IAE, and was aimed at registering qualified NFSE centres for their legal operation, and also for ensuring quality. However, this endeavour was

unsystematic as data for NFSE activities was unavailable. In fact, most of the NFSE centres were unmapped and unregistered despite their multiplying from time to time. This lack of data resulted into improper planning, impeded the reaching of the potential NFSE providers, as well as the identification of learners' needs, projection of their enrolment, proposing their basic requirements, and preparing effective NFSE action plans.

### **9.2.3 Policy and institutional challenges on the provision of NFSE**

The third research objective and its allied research sub-questions were aimed to analyse the challenges imposed on the NFSE programme by the adopted NFE policy and institutional arrangements, and the extent to which they impinged on the provision and sustainability of NFSE. The findings revealed several challenges:

- AE/NFE policy inconsistencies and inadequacies of specific address of NFSE resulted into coincidental measures of providing NFSE and also, obstructed a thorough establishment and provision of NFSE in the country.
- Inadequate addressing of NFSE in the policy had adverse implication for the resource allocation as NFSE was not linked to any reliable and sustainable source of funding, and also on its provision commitment by the political administrative authorities. Thus, its provision and sustainability remained probabilistic.
- The unsystematic NFE policy enforcement mechanism revealed created loopholes in the execution of their respective OS guidelines at the operational level, caused differing interpretations among NFSE providers, and led to the failure in abiding to the established principles, procedures and standards.
- It was somewhat difficult to integrate adequately the provision of NFSE with other education programmes for their full interdependence in terms of resources, facilities and coordination due to the absence of well-integrated policy framework developed to address explicitly NFE in its broad range of programmes.
- Lack of specific, coherent and visionary policy for NFE, shortfalls in the adopted policies, and the absence of clear regulations for policy enforcement formed an environment which made it difficult to control NFSE providers and systematically coordinate their activities. NFSE centres' registration was even difficult due to conflicting criteria and procedures for their registration.
- Conflicting policy statements about the right curriculum, syllabi and study materials, and lack of a strong coordination between the MoEVT supporting



institutions induced NFSE curriculum irregularities which consequently affected the NFSE provision and learners' academic performance.

- Since managing NFSE was complicated by two different and parallel administrative structures, it was difficult to connect thoroughly all the NFSE institutional levels and actors. This resulted into unnecessary bureaucracy, parallel communication and reporting systems, which severely weakened the institutional capacity for managing a coherent provision of NFSE.
- A top-down model of NFSE governance created clear-cut lines between and among the central, intermediate and local level institutions. The intermediate and local levels were highly constrained and powerless, with the entire system being less interactive in operation, hence compromised the NFSE institutional cohesion.
- The parallel administrative structures in managing NFSE revealed created a duplication of administrative positions, and efforts at the same level of the NFE institutional hierarchy. This was cost-ineffective and produced conflicting and parallel roles among the parties involved, and created misunderstandings in giving orders and reporting, a situation which affected the sustainability of NFSE provision.
- As NFSE activities were multi-sectoral and involved multiple administrative structures, institutions and providers, they also led to limited capacity and fragmentary coordination of NFSE activities within and among them.

### **9.3 General Reflection, Conclusions and Contribution to Knowledge**

In an attempt to relate the findings to the assumptions of the textual deconstruction approach to policy content analysis in tandem with the pragmatic framework for the evaluation of policy arguments as respectively proposed by Codd (1988) and Ball (1995), the policy analysis of this study suggests that the end result (sustainability of NFSE provision) is attained only on the basis of what is projected in the policy content in terms of values and goals, assumptions, and strategies underpinning the provision of NFSE, as well as the incorporation of the programme in the education system. These findings, therefore, contribute to the education policy literature on the appropriate policy values and goals, link between policy statements, as well as policy coherence as key variables creating a relevant, realistic and feasible policy.

Reflecting on other theoretical frameworks adopted in this study, the findings also revealed similar isomorphic conditions as postulated in the institutional theory that ambiguity in institutional practices, particularly, in providing and managing the provision of NFSE is likely to occur in the absence of specific, coherent and visionary policy context. In the absence of independent, explicit and coherent AE/NFE policy, developments of the NFSE programme to-date have been relatively *ad hoc* and uncoordinated, hence resulting into the vague sustainability of its provision. It is, therefore, concluded that clear rules, guidelines, and routines are crucial in bringing order and minimising uncertainties, as well as in guiding institutional arrangements and their roles in the provision of NFSE. As such, the study contributes to the literature on NFE policy and institutional governance in general and NFSE in particular.

Moreover, the assumptions of the systems theory also complemented other theories in informing and guiding this study. The theory is built on the core tenet that any institution as a system is made up of sub-systems which should work together harmoniously to achieve institutional goals, plans and programmes. In this study, poor institutional linkages, unsystematic coordination of activities, and even conflicting roles in managing the provision of NFSE were found to be real, and to impede the sustainability of the programme. These findings confirm the practicality of the conditions of the systems theory, thus leading the researcher to conclude that NFSE institutions and their key actors in providing and managing NFSE provision in the country require good linkage, and should operate together as a system to achieve the set NFSE targets for the out-of-secondary-education youths and adults in a sustainable way.

The findings provided clear evidence that lack of inter-ministerial coordination agency for AE/NFE activities, as well as weak institutional linkages among key NFE actors, has led to the improper governance of the NFSE activities in the country and thus, prompted to haphazard falling and rising of the NFSE centres. This scenario together with the overall halting of establishing a fully independent, mandated, and capacitated NFE sub-sector with its own relevant policies undermine the credibility of the sub-sector and the sustainability of its programmes, particularly NFSE. Thus, the harmonisation of the NFE activities and entire institutional arrangements becomes quite important in providing a conducive, stable and consistent operational environment for NFSE provision.

Overall, this study on NFSE is unique in the sense that it is a less studied area, and the approach of conducting this programme is unique in few developing countries. The findings, therefore, generate knowledge that provides a basis for understanding better the NFE policy and management practices in providing NFSE from a developing country perspective. Nevertheless, research findings in this study should be considered less as instruments of application and more as a means for helping NFE practitioners, policy-makers, and managers make sense of proper policy and planning, setting education provision strategies, coordination, monitoring and evaluation of particular education programmes.

#### **9.4 Recommendations for Improvement**

As a matter of fact, most of the policies—substantive and operational—reviewed had principally a minimalistic view on AE/NFE provision in the country as they largely focused on promoting basic levels of knowledge and skills. As such, policy and governance for the entire AE/NFE system (policy and practice) must generally be revisited and predicated on the compartmental approach to address different purposes and interests of different target groups in all programmes including NFSE. Indeed, the AE/NFE is globally growing and its roles and goals are shifting from addressing adult basic education to the preparation of youth and adults with the necessary knowledge and skills for employment and further education.

Moreover, the diversity of NFSE provision and its management at different institutional levels requires being characterised by rather a single interactive institutional structure with intact linkages and regulation processes in an attempt to bring together all actors as well as bridge the gap between the grassroots realities and formal procedures and bureaucracies. Such a set-up would preclude duplication and conflicting roles that undermine the fostering and sustainability of NFE as presently is the case in the Tanzanian context. In particular, a bottom-up approach to NFE programmes' management should be fully realised. Also, to avoid conflicting roles among various NFSE actors, there is a need to re-identify the managerial functions of every key actor at various institutional levels, establish teamwork, and coordinate their activities under one inter-ministerial coordination agency.

Data gaps were particularly prominent in relation to the provision of NFSE as the NFSE centres were unmapped, with monitoring and evaluation unsystematic. Under these circumstances, it is difficult to have evidence-based insights in guiding, planning, financing, coordinating, monitoring and evaluating NFSE provision without a well-established information base. Thus, dedicated efforts are needed to strengthen *AE/NFE-Management Information System*.

In all the NFSE institutional/administrative structures, management of NFSE centres from the macro to micro levels was not adequately decentralised. This situation affected the communication flow, mandates and accountability of the actors, and availability of teaching and learning resources. It is, therefore, recommended that more mandates and resources need to be delegated to the local levels for effective and efficient execution of their roles.

Also, the NFE policy and institutional arrangement challenges imposed on the NFSE that also hindered its sustainable provision were contingent upon each other and more systemic in nature. Thus, they affected all the NFE institutional levels and consequently on the provision and governance of NFSE in particular. Their address, therefore, should take the same route of dealing with them holistically and systemically rather than merely focusing on NFSE at the local level.

Lastly, this thesis potentially triggers questions about the dynamics and paradoxes of NFE policies and practices in the Tanzanian context and developing countries at large. Thus, there is a need to continue problematising this issue to gain a full understanding of other challenges and all the possible consequences, to be in a better position to provide further scientific solutions.

## **9.5 Limitations of the Study**

Carrying out a research endeavour of this kind in any discipline, particularly, when it is somewhat interdisciplinary and conducted within a broader system of education provision is not as easy as might be underestimated. To generate reasonable findings about the phenomenon under scrutiny, there were inevitable study limitations, challenges and inconveniences which were endured, but dealt with accordingly. A

number of theoretical, methodological and practical challenges were encountered and addressed as follows:

Firstly, regarding the theoretical underpinning of the study, it was difficult to find a single and comprehensive theory that could cut across the NFE policy and institutional management as a system since the orientation of the study was in a way interdisciplinary. The researcher had to draw from diverse theoretical frameworks (perspectives and approaches of policy analysis, as well as theories and principles of institutional management) to inform the conduct of this study and its findings. Although the approach helped to guide the study and in considering the results from different perspectives, it might also expose the study to the risk of being diverse, which might be an issue of criticism.

Secondly, only a few empirical studies on the provision and management of out-of-school youth education were available, and none existed in an interdisciplinary way to include the NFE policy and institutional dimensions in guiding and managing such provision. Methodologically thus, there was a lack of adequate examples of methods used in examining studies of this nature. To counter this challenge, insights from broader discourses of policy and institutional management, as well as experiences drawn from both developed and developing countries enabled the researcher to improvise a suitable approach that guided data collection and presentation of the findings in an interactive way (refer to the methodology chapter and its link to the theoretical background).

Thirdly, the findings of this study might also be methodologically constrained by the composition of the research participants. For deliberate reasons of feasibility, the study involved only fifteen key interviewees (NFE policy-makers and managers) from different NFSE institutional levels and units. In quantitative research, this sample size can be described as rather small which might also limit the ability of the findings to be generalised elsewhere. However, the sample was guided by the adopted case study design and thus judgment about the transferability of the research findings to other contexts was determined much by thick and detailed descriptions as suggested in qualitative research.

Fourthly, during data analysis, the data extracted from documentary reviews and interviews were separately managed and analysed, and categories were combined at a later stage (refer to sub-section 5.9.1). This methodological process was tricky, especially in merging the related categories that emerged from each side. As qualitative codes are multidimensional, they were revisited whenever necessary during the analysis, which allowed for the recognition of all the related insights and themes until data was well organised into exhaustive and related categories.

Fifthly, the time spacing between the phase of data collection and research report production was substantial. As such, some changes have had occurred, such as the introduction of new education policies and regulations. This lapse might pose a risk of narrow scope in capturing the most recent directives and practices, and other dynamics on the ground. To address this issue, the documentary review was a continuous process to ensure that nothing was left out of the context and essential changes were accommodated in the final report.

Finally, since data was mainly collected from the top NFE officials who by virtue of their managerial positions were occupied by official duties, it was too bureaucratic to access them and whenever accessed, they would prefer questionnaires to fill in rather than intensive and rigorous interviews. Thus the researcher had to be persistent, create rapport and re-schedule several times whenever necessary to meet the interviewees' schedules. Moreover, the researcher explicitly explained to them the nature and purpose of the required data. In consequence, the planned interviews were held and requisite data generated. Also, some policy documents were treated as "classified" although they were principally meant for public use. In this case, all the bureaucratic procedures were observed.

## **9.6 Direction for Further Research**

Despite some potentially valuable findings yielded in this undertaking, further inquiries in the same area of study in the context of Tanzania and other developing countries are still indispensable. Further researches can be considered to address the limitations that emerged from the methodological and theoretical processes of this study, or for widening the understanding of issues in the AE/NFE sub-sector as a potential area for

stimulating socio-economic development. Thus, the following research directions can be considered:

- The current study has yielded informative results about NFSE and some notable differences in operation between private and public NFSE providers. A comparative and more detailed study on how public and private NFSE centres are organised and managed, as well as a comparison of their triumphs, might be needed to establish a complete picture of their setup, roles and future prospect.
- Since the current research is a case study and confined to NFSE, a cross-sectional study replicating a similar study by involving all NFE programmes in the country can be considered. This cross-sectional study design would provide a much broader understanding of how NFE programmes are institutionalised in the education system to ensure their full potential contribution to the country's social, economic, cultural and political developments.
- Since a conclusion was drawn that there was a state of policy inconsistencies and vagueness in guiding the provision of NFSE, as well as existence of unmapped and uncoordinated NFSE providers in the country, there is an urgent need to conduct a study on the quality assurance and control measures in the programme and in the AE/NFE sub-sector at large, to establish the possible consequences on the final outcomes and suggest the corrective measures.
- This study has viewed sustainability of NFSE as an innovation that must be incorporated into the education system, and how its policy guidelines and institutional arrangements are established, strengthened and/or maintained in curbing the challenges and political/administrative obstacles during its provision. However, sustainability can be viewed further in terms of NFSE continuing relevance to the beneficiaries (alignment with the needs) and the degree to which it is successful in producing the desired results on the ground (effectiveness).

### **9.7 Future Perspective on the Development of NFSE**

Both empirical findings in this study and a wider literature review have suggested that AE/NFE is potentially a key sub-sector for stimulating socio-economic developments. It is globally recognised and continues to grow significantly under the general landscape of lifelong learning. The roles and goals of its programmes have been also advancing from addressing adult basic education to the preparation of youth and adults with necessary and requisite knowledge and skills for employment and further education.



With regarding to the state and roles of AE/NFE policy and institutional arrangements in guiding and managing the provision of NFSE in Tanzania the study has revealed, the immediate question might naturally be on the future prospects of NFSE in particular and AE/NFE in general in the coming decades.

The analysis of trends and gaps in AE/NFE developments in general and NFSE in particular has revealed a set of tensions in both policy and practice. Despite the preponderance of unclear AE/NFE policies, controversies and mismatches in policies, little attention has also been devoted to the sub-sector as focus has largely been fixed on literacy issues. And yet, lack of single and compartmental institutional structure and its proper linkages for all AE/NFE programmes including NFSE, lack of proper programme planning and coordination, and inadequacy of data on NFSE are main tensions empirical findings have established in Tanzania. These findings including the inadequate AE/NFE research, and weak/lack of connection between research findings and decision-making are also notable in many other developing countries, particularly in Africa, Arab states and Asia in general (see Nafukho et al., 2011; Aitchison, 2012; Muñoz et al., 2013; UNESCO, 2013; UIS, 2015). These tensions have marginalised AE/NFE activities including NFSE. Thus, there is a need for a well-problematized and seriously considered specific policy for any future agenda to be actualised in earnest.

From the current empirical findings and taking cognisance of the humanistic approach to education provision, the learning needs of all regardless their age still need to be met as a matter of urgency since the EFA goals were not fully realised by 2015 as planned (cf. UN, 2015). Thus, non-formal approaches as alternative learning modalities need greater recognition and commitment in Tanzania and other developing countries facing similar paradoxes to contribute significantly to the development process. As chapter two has demonstrated, population dynamics in Tanzania and other developing countries suggest a rapid increase in the number of people in need of specially instituted measures able to address any arising AE/NFE-related shortcoming. Thus, AE/NFE in general and NFSE in particular are important in fostering the socio-economic development of the next generation as an alternative for those who lack the opportunity to acquire formal schooling, an extension of formal schooling for those who need additional training, employment or self-employed, as a means for upgrading the skills of those already employed, and as a mechanism for providing greater opportunities to the larger proportions of the population at a lower cost.

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**Appendix I: Coding Scheme**

<b>CODE</b>	<b>LONG FORM</b>
MAEO	Municipal Adult Education Officer
MoEVT-AEO	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training-Adult Education Official
NECTAO	National Examination Council of Tanzania Official
Pu-CC	Public Centre Coordinator
RAEO	Regional Adult Education Officer
RRT	Regional Residence Tutor
TIEO	Tanzania Institute of Education Official

## Appendix II: Documentary Review Guide

### Key Issues for Policy Analysis

- 1) The place/coverage of NFSE in national development plans.
- 2) Specific education policies and regulations that address the provision of NFSE.
- 3) Specific policy objectives contained in the policies on NFSE provision.
- 4) Explicitness of those policy objectives and the way they are prioritised in addressing the current needs and challenges of the establishment and provision of NFSE.
- 5) Coherence between and among policies in addressing key issues of NFSE provision.
- 6) Evaluative statements on policy effects such as the extent of impact and relevance.
- 7) Established roles of policies in guiding the establishment and provision of NFSE.
- 8) Description of the roles of different NFSE institutional arrangements. Principals
- 9) Established policy enforcement mechanisms towards guiding the provision of NFSE.
- 10) Emerging policy controversies and mismatches that might hinder NFSE sustainability.

In line with the guideline above, the following key points guided data extraction from the policy documents:

#### Do the Adopted Policy Guidelines:

- i) Adequately and explicitly featured in the broad national development policies
- ii) Adequately guide the establishment and provision of the NFSE
- iii) Provide standard operating procedures for NFSE
- iv) Have relevant and realistic objectives for NFSE
- v) Address all the NFSE actors/target groups
- vi) Ensure proper governance of NFSE (including functions of units at different institutional levels, linkages, etc.)
- vii) Offer legal provision for NFSE provision/centre registration
- viii) Provide framework of actions and by whom
- ix) Guide competencies to be offered (curriculum, evaluation and certification)
- x) Ensure quality concerns (criteria of quality/standards)
- xi) Set specific strategies for sustainability of NFSE provision
- xii) Apprehend political support to ensure government commitment & resources supply
- xiii) Establish coordination and reporting channels



### Appendix III: Interview Guide for both NFE Policy Makers and Mangers

The interview questions set in this tool are aimed at extracting the required information from both the NFE policy-makers and managers at different institutional levels. Nevertheless, the same NFE policy-makers also appeared to be NFE managers. In this case, both NFSE policy-related question and the institutional arrangement-related questions were asked to the same respondents. Moreover, as various NFSE managers were involved at different institutional levels (from the NFSE centres to the ministry level), more or less the same questions were posed to all the respondents to compare and contrast their responses.

#### Section I: Getting respondents involved in the interviews

- i) Researcher's self-introduction.
- ii) Explaining the purpose of the study.
- iii) Soliciting informed consent.
- iv) Probing about the respondents' professional background and experience in dealing with NFE policies and practices.

#### Section II: Policy Related Questions

- i) What are the existing policy mechanisms that guide the establishment and the provision of NFSE?
- ii) How coherently are the existing NFSE policy guidelines reflected in the broad education policies and other development plans?
- iii) To what extent do those policy mechanisms specifically address NFSE practices?
- iv) What are the established NFSE policy objectives and standard operating procedures?
- v) What is the level of explicitness of the policy objectives for NFSE and how are they prioritised in addressing the current needs and challenges of the establishment and provision of NFSE?
- vi) How well do the NFSE policy objectives and standard operating procedures address the current needs and challenges of NFSE?
- vii) What legal provisions (enforcement mechanisms) are in place to enforce the existing NFE policies in guiding the provision of NFSE and how do they operate?
- viii) How the NFSE centres are legally defined and recognised in terms of registration criteria and procedures and how operational and feasible are they?
- ix) To what extent are NFSE policy guidelines and enforcement mechanisms well-understood and adhered to by the NFSE actors?
- x) What specific roles are played by the adopted NFSE policy guidelines in guiding NFSE practices?
- xi) What NFSE sustainability strategies have been established in the policy and how are they instigated in the political system to garner government support?
- xii) What would you describe as policy challenges in guiding the provision of NFSE and the impacts imposed to the programme?
- xiii) How might the policy challenges affect the provision and sustainability of NFSE?
- xiv) What measures are taken in dealing with those challenges?
- xv) What would you term as an ideal NFE policy and the role(s) it can play in addressing the current NFSE challenges?
- xvi) What are the policy issues to be resolved in ensuring the sustainability of NFSE?

### Section III: Institutional Arrangements Related Questions

- i) What is the institutional/administrative structure for NFSE, and how effectively does it operate?
- ii) What is the existing institutional linkage among the MoEVT supporting institutions and the NFSE providers within the NFE institution?
- iii) How do the supporting institutions or hierarchical levels interact in managing NFSE?
- iv) What are the institutional conditions in the existing structure that affect NFSE provision?
- v) How does the current linkage among support institutions affect NFSE provision?
- vi) How would you describe your roles and that of your institution in managing the establishment and provision of NFSE?
- vii) To what extent are the roles of the supporting institutions under MoEVT and other NFSE actors well-defined and connected?
- viii) How are the NFSE activities coordinated within the NFE institutional framework?
- ix) What is the coordinating body for NFSE, and how does it work within the institutional structure?
- x) How would you describe the joint and/or conflicting roles among different NFSE actors across different institutional levels in managing NFSE?
- xi) What would you describe as institutional challenges in managing the NFSE provision and the impacts imposed on the NFSE institutional levels?
- xii) How do those institutional challenges affect the provision and sustainability of NFSE?
- xiii) What direction do the programme managers take when confronted with those challenges?
- xiv) What institutional issues need to be resolved to ensure the sustainability of NFSE?

## Appendix IV: Informed Consent Form

Postfach 10 01 30,  
33501 Bielefeld,  
**Germany.**

*Home:* University of Dar es Salaam,  
School of Education,  
Box 35048.

**Dar es Salaam.**

Email: [shirimagh@gmail.com](mailto:shirimagh@gmail.com)

Dear Research Participant,

My name is Gennes Hendry Shirima, a PhD student at Bielefeld University, Germany, and an employee of the University of Dar es Salaam. I am conducting a study on the *Policy and Institutional Arrangements on the Provision and Sustainability of Non-Formal Secondary Education (NFSE) in Tanzania*, as part of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in education. The aim of the study is to understand better the overarching policy and institutional arrangements that guide the establishment and provision of NFSE in the country and the extent to which they affect its sustainability. The findings are estimated to inform the development and/or improvement of the NFE policies and management practices by identifying the key challenges and their impact, and suggesting improvement measures.

You are humbly asked to participate voluntarily in this study because you are one of the key and potential AE/NFE stakeholders. Hence, your co-operation is really appreciated in accomplishing this undertaking and in fostering the development of AE/NFE sub-sector. Your knowledge, experience and recommendations are, therefore, sought through an interview session which will take about 20-30 minutes. Other interviewees are also involved across different NFE institutional levels. Moreover, information from the policy documents will also supplement what will be obtained from the interviews.

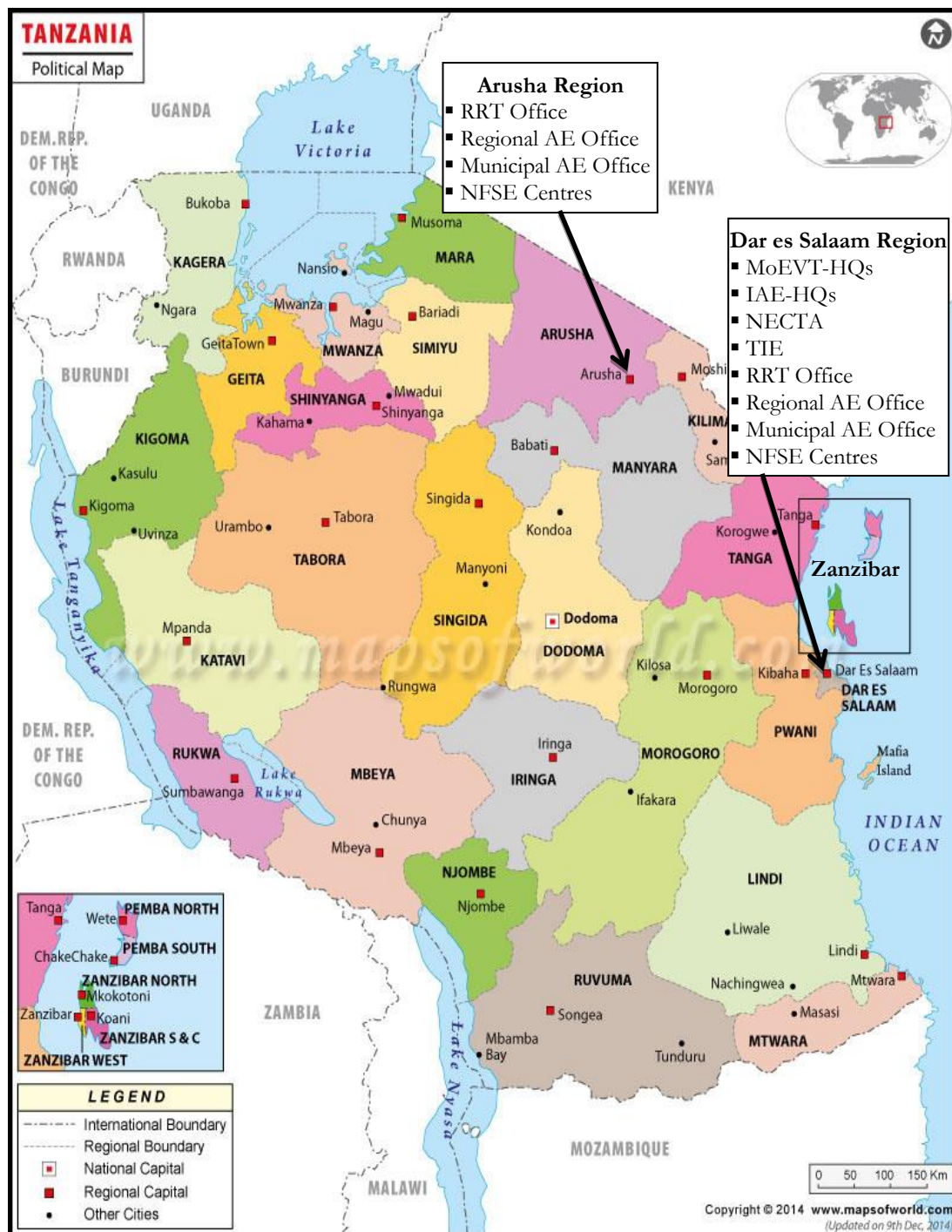
For the purpose of saving time and fully collecting the intended information, our conversation will be recorded (upon your consent) using an audio recorder. The recorded information will be confidential, secured and solely used by the researcher for academic purpose. It is important to note that your information will never be labelled by your personal name or administrative title in any way in the research report. Nonetheless, the findings of this study, as an outcome of the collected information from different respondents including you, might be shared or published both in national and international academic platforms.

Since your participation in this study is voluntary as stated earlier, you have the right to refuse participating or withdraw at any time without an apology. You are kindly asked to commit yourself by giving your name and signature that you were adequately informed and understood the essence of the study and, thus, accepted to participate in the study.

**Respondent's Name:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Signature** \_\_\_\_\_ **Date** \_\_\_\_\_

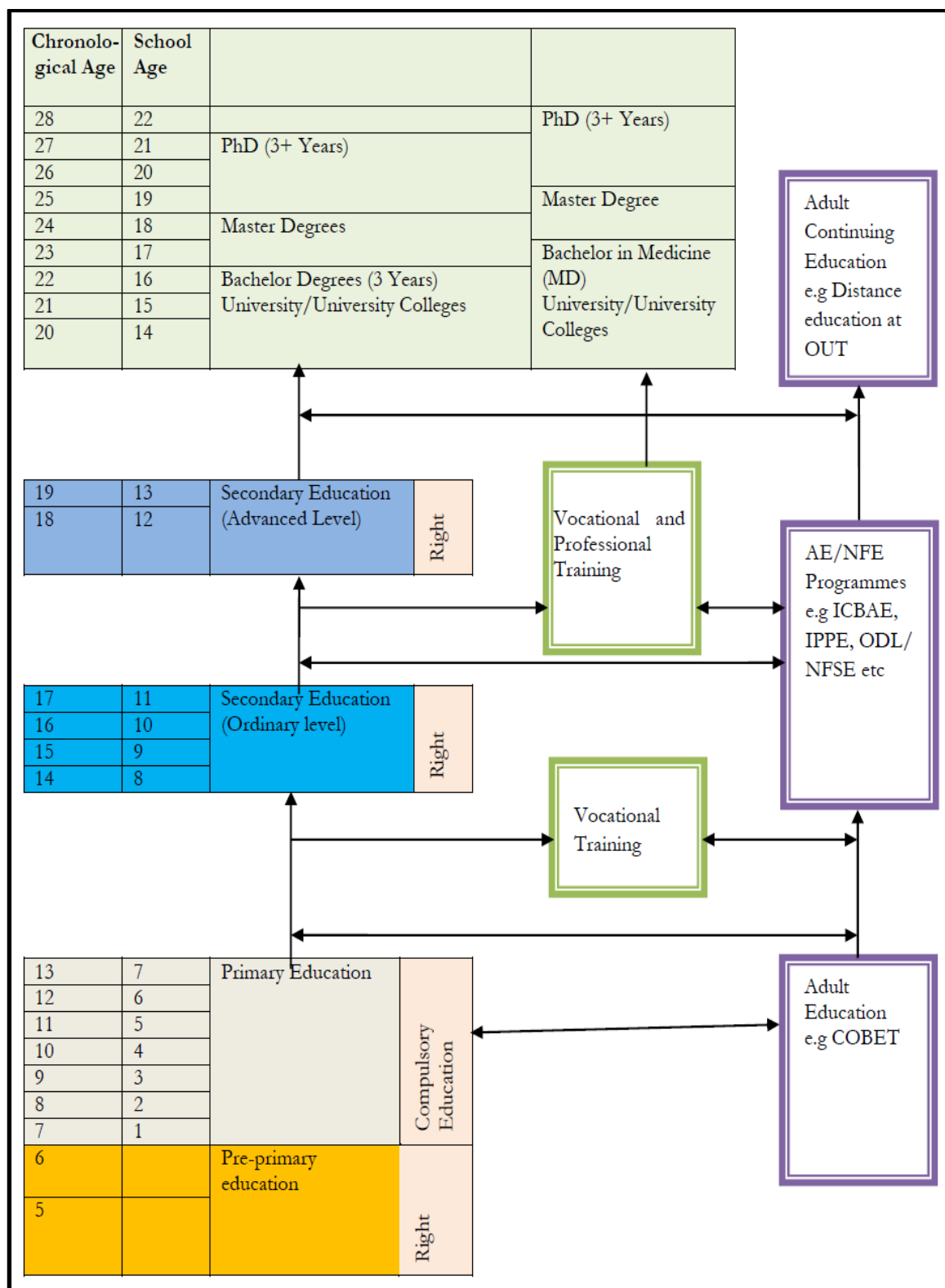
**Researcher's Name:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Signature** \_\_\_\_\_ **Date** \_\_\_\_\_

Appendix V: Administrative Map of Tanzania



**Description:** Tanzania administration map showing the international boundary, regional (provincial) boundaries and their capitals and the location of the study areas.

Appendix VI: Simplified Structure of Education System in Tanzania



Source: Adapted from Kanukisya (2012).



Appendix VII: Learning Environment (Classrooms) in Selected NFSE Centres



**Plate #1 – Description:** Premises of one of the private NFSE centres. Six different classrooms (as captured) were formed in a small area on the street’s roadside partitioned by palm-leaves and plywood, and partly covered by nylon-sheets. The premises accommodated 300-480 learners at a time.



**Plate #2 – Description:** The setting of the same NFSE centre settings as per Plate #1 capturing a location of temporary toilets within the premises (backside view walled by palm-leaves).

Source: Field Data

## Appendix VIII (a): Research Clearance 1

**UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM**

**OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR**  
 P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)

Date: 21<sup>st</sup> March, 2014

To: The Permanent Secretary,  
 Ministry of Education and Vocational Training,  
 Dar es Salaam.

**UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE**

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

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

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

The title of the research in question is **“An Investigation of Policy and Management Challenges for Non-Formal Education in Tanzania: A Case of Non-Formal Secondary Education Programme”**.

The period for which this permission has been granted is from **March to August 2014** will cover the following area: **Ministry of Education and Vocational Training**.

Should the area be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative places could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.

  
**Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala**  
**VICE-CHANCELLOR**

VICE CHANCELLOR  
 UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM  
 P.O. BOX 35091  
 DAR-ES-SALAAM

Direct +255 22 2410700  
 Telephone: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001  
 Telefax: +255 22 2410078

Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM  
 E-mail: [vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz](mailto:vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz)  
 Website address: [www.udsm.ac.tz](http://www.udsm.ac.tz)



## Appendix VIII (b): Research Clearance 2



## UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM

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

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)

Date: 21<sup>st</sup> March, 2014

To: The Executive Secretary,  
National Examinations Council of Tanzania,  
Dar es Salaam.

### UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

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

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

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

The title of the research in question is "**An Investigation of Policy and Management Challenges for Non-Formal Education in Tanzania: A Case of Non-Formal Secondary Education Programme**".

The period for which this permission has been granted is from **March to August 2014** will cover the following area: **National Examinations Council of Tanzania.**

Should the area be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative places could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.


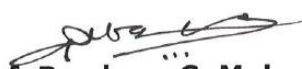
  
**Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala**  
**VICE-CHANCELLOR**

VICE CHANCELLOR  
UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM  
P.O. BOX 35091  
DAR-ES-SALAAM

Direct +255 22 2410700  
Telephone: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001  
Telefax: +255 22 2410078

Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM  
E-mail: [vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz](mailto:vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz)  
Website address: [www.udsm.ac.tz](http://www.udsm.ac.tz)

## Appendix VIII (c): Research Clearance 3

	<b>UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM</b> <b>OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR</b> P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA
Ref. No: AB3/12(B) Date: 21 <sup>st</sup> March, 2014	
To: The Director General, Tanzania Institute of Education, <b>Dar es Salaam.</b>	
<b>UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE</b>	
<p>The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you <b>Mr. Gennes H. Shirima</b> who is bonafide student of the University of Dar es Salaam and who is at the moment conducting research. Our staff members and students undertake research activities every year especially during the long vacation.</p>	
<p>In accordance with a government circular letter Ref. No. MPEC/R/10/1 dated 4<sup>th</sup> July, 1980 the Vice-Chancellor was empowered to issue research clearances to the staff and students of the University of Dar es Salaam on behalf of the government and the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, a successor organization to UTAFITI.</p>	
<p>I therefore request you to grant the above-mentioned member of our University community any help that may enable him to achieve his research objectives. What is required is your permission for him to see and talk to the leaders and members of your institutions in connection with his research.</p>	
<p>The title of the research in question is <b>“An Investigation of Policy and Management Challenges for Non-Formal Education in Tanzania: A Case of Non-Formal Secondary Education Programme”</b>.</p>	
<p>The period for which this permission has been granted is from <b>March to August 2014</b> will cover the following area: <b>Tanzania Institute of Education.</b></p>	
<p>Should the area be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative places could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.</p>	
 <b>Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala</b> <b>VICE-CHANCELLOR</b>	VICE CHANCELLOR UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM P.O. BOX 35091 DAR-ES-SALAAM
Direct +255 22 2410700 Telephone: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001 Telefax: +255 22 2410078	Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM E-mail: <a href="mailto:vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz">vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz</a> Website address: <a href="http://www.udsm.ac.tz">www.udsm.ac.tz</a>

## Appendix VIII (d): Research Clearance 4



## UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM

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

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)

Date: 21<sup>st</sup> March, 2014

To: The Director,  
Institute of Adult Education,  
Dar es Salaam.

### UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

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

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

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

The title of the research in question is "**An Investigation of Policy and Management Challenges for Non-Formal Education in Tanzania: A Case of Non-Formal Secondary Education Programme**".

The period for which this permission has been granted is from **March to August 2014** will cover the following area: **Institute of Adult Education**.

Should the area be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative places could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.

  
**Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala**  
**VICE-CHANCELLOR**

VICE CHANCELLOR  
UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM  
P.O. BOX 35091  
DAR-ES-SALAAM

Direct +255 22 2410700  
Telephone: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001  
Telefax: +255 22 2410078

Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM  
E-mail: [vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz](mailto:vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz)  
Website address: [www.udsm.ac.tz](http://www.udsm.ac.tz)

## Appendix VIII (e): Research Clearance 5



## UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM

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P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)

Date: 21<sup>st</sup> March, 2014

To: The Regional Administrative Secretary,  
Dar es Salaam Region.

### UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

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

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The title of the research in question is "**An Investigation of Policy and Management Challenges for Non-Formal Education in Tanzania: A Case of Non-Formal Secondary Education Programme**".

The period for which this permission has been granted is from **March to August 2014** will cover the following areas: **Regional and Municipal Adult Education Offices and 8 Non-Formal Secondary Education Learning Centres.**

Should the area be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative places could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.

  
**Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala**  
**VICE-CHANCELLOR**

VICE CHANCELLOR  
UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM  
P.O. BOX 35091  
DAR-ES-SALAAM

Direct +255 22 2410700  
Telephone: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001  
Telefax: +255 22 2410078

Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM  
E-mail: [vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz](mailto:vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz)  
Website address: [www.udsm.ac.tz](http://www.udsm.ac.tz)



## Appendix VIII (f): Research Clearance 6



## UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM

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

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)

Date: 21<sup>st</sup> March, 2014

To: The Regional Administrative Secretary,  
**Arusha Region.**

### UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

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

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

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The title of the research in question is "**An Investigation of Policy and Management Challenges for Non-Formal Education in Tanzania: A Case of Non-Formal Secondary Education Programme**".

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**Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala**  
**VICE-CHANCELLOR**

VICE CHANCELLOR  
UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM  
P.O. BOX 35091  
DAR-ES-SALAAM

Direct +255 22 2410700  
Telephone: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001  
Telefax: +255 22 2410078

Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM  
E-mail: [vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz](mailto:vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz)  
Website address: [www.udsm.ac.tz](http://www.udsm.ac.tz)

## Appendix IX: Eidesstattliche Erklärung/Statutory Declaration

### Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich die vorliegende Dissertation selbstständig verfasst und keine anderen als die angegebenen Hilfsmittel genutzt habe. Alle wörtlich oder inhaltlich übernommenen Stellen habe ich als solche gekennzeichnet.

Ich versichere, dass mir die geltende Promotionsordnung der Fakultät bekannt ist, ich die Dissertation nur in diesem und keinem anderen Promotionsverfahren eingereicht habe und, dass diesem Promotionsverfahren keine endgültig gescheiterten Promotionsverfahren vorausgegangen sind.

### Statutory Declaration

I hereby declare that I have written this thesis independently and that it has never been presented to any other University for a similar or any other degree award. I assure that the applicable Doctoral Regulations of the Faculty of Educational Science in the University of Bielefeld are well known to me and thus, the work is original and does not infringe the copyright or other intellectual property rights of any other person.

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Bielefeld, Germany

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Gennes Hendry Shirima